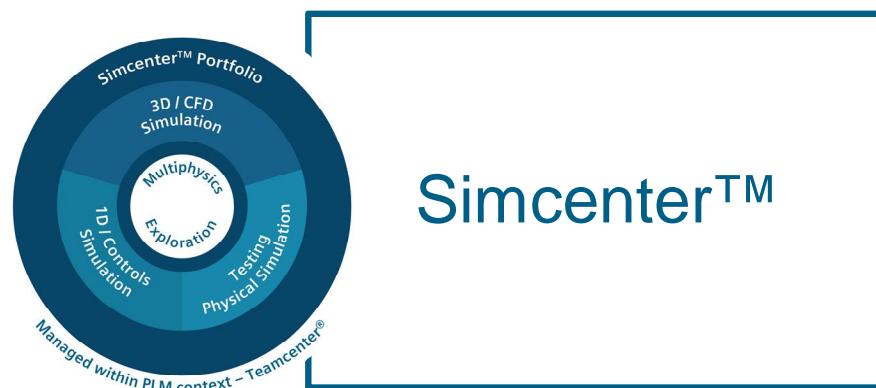


# Fundamentals of Durability

2017 Quadfecta  
John Hiatt, Keith Moss

Introducing Simcenter™ Portfolio for Predictive  
Engineering Analytics

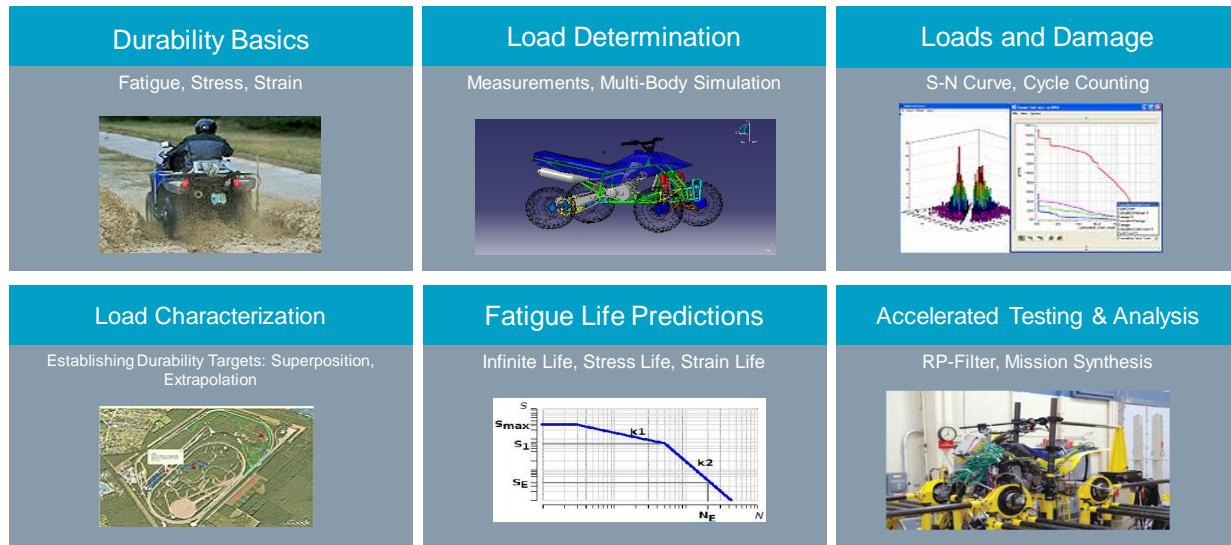
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Simcenter™

## Durability Agenda

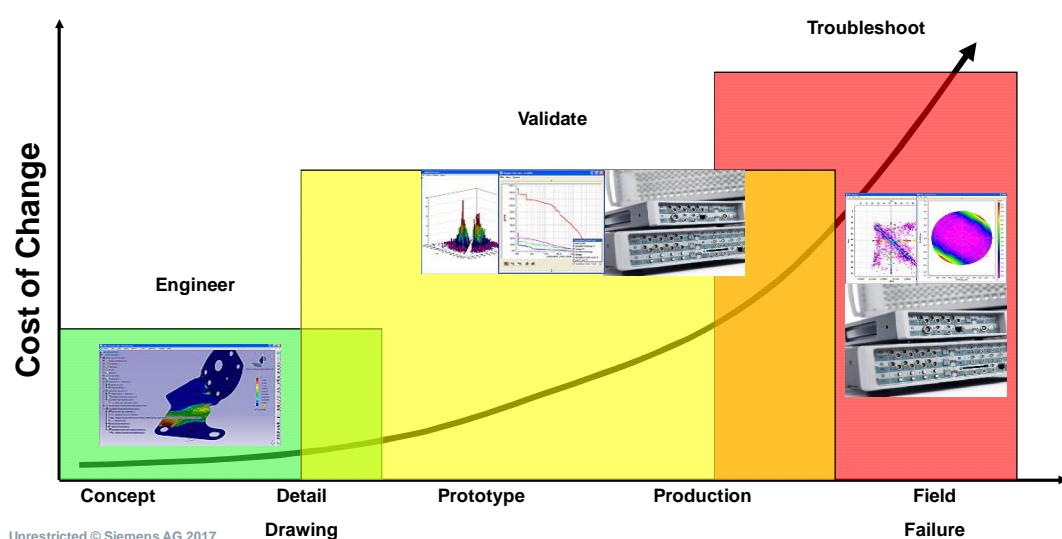
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## Durability Engineering in Product Development

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## Durability – Why is it important?

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### Warranty Costs

- High rate of return is large liability
- Example: Heavy truck

### Competitive Advantage

- Reputation for reliability
- Example: Longest lasting appliance, safest aircraft

### Performance

- Over-engineering reduces performance
- Example: Fuel economy on heavy car

### Manufacturing

- Reduce downtime
- Cost Efficiency/ Time efficiency

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## The Durability Process

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## Energy Industry Wind turbine – blade failure / structural failure

"There is a general trend upward in accident numbers over the past 10 years."

Blade failure – 24 accidents per year\*

Structural failure – 15 accidents per year\*



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\*=2009  
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## Civil construction 2007 Minneapolis' I-35 Bridge Collapse



Kenneth Russell, professor MIT, suspects metal fatigue could be a contributing factor "The bridge was very near to the fatigue limit and had gone through many cycles," he says.

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## Turbine Blade Failure



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## Wall

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## Helicopter GVT

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## The Ubiquitous... Tacoma Narrow Bridge

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**What is Fatigue?**  
Versailles rail accident, 1842

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1st French railway accident

200 lives lost

Broken axle

The start of systematic research into metal fatigue

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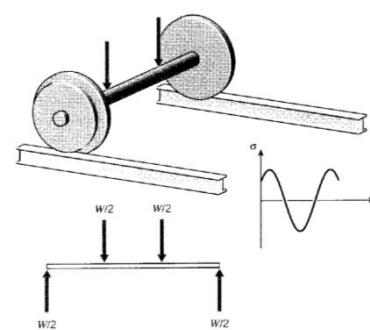
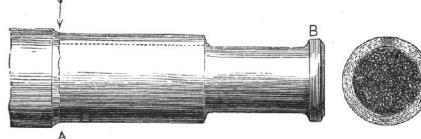
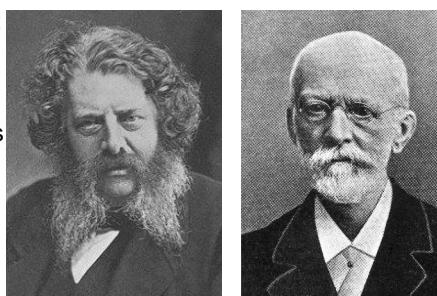
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**The birth of fatigue analysis**

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**Versailles rail accident, 1842**

- Examining broken axles by Rankine showed that they had failed by cracking across their diameters, a problem later known as **fatigue**
- Work of Wöhler helped improving testing of axles, and so increasing axle life. He developed the Rotating-Bending Fatigue test and introduced the concept of **fatigue limit**.

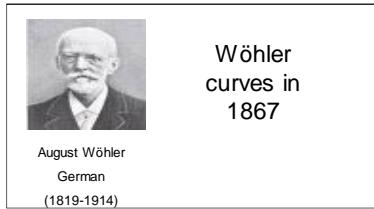


**Cyclic stress range**  
**Can be more important**  
**than peak stress**

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## Famous People In Fatigue



### Durability Agenda

#### Durability Basics

Fatigue, Stress, Strain

#### Load Determination

Measurements, Multi-Body Simulation

#### Loads and Damage

S-N Curve, Cycle Counting

#### Load Characterization

Establishing Durability Targets: Superposition, Extrapolation

#### Fatigue Life Predictions

Infinite Life, Stress Life, Strain Life

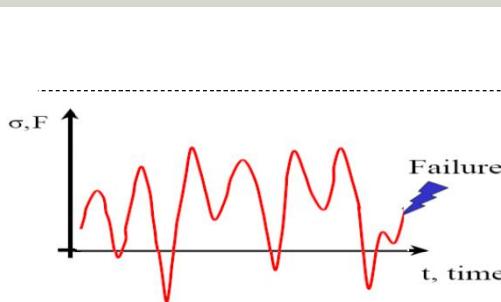
#### Accelerated Testing & Analysis

RP-Filter, Mission Synthesis

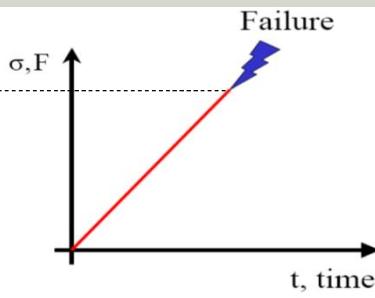
## Dynamic versus Static Failures

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Cyclic Fatigue	Static Strength
<b>Cyclic Fatigue</b> refers to gradual degradation and eventual <u>failure</u> that occurs under <u>loads which vary with time</u> , and which are <u>lower than the static strength</u> of the metallic specimen, component or structure concerned.	The <b>static strength</b> is the load which causes failure in one application.



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## Static Strength

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**Aircraft Wing  
Bending Test**

**Bend till Break**

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## Dynamic (Cyclic) Loading

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### Aircraft Wing Bending Test

**Fails, but never  
bends to static  
strength**

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## Definitions

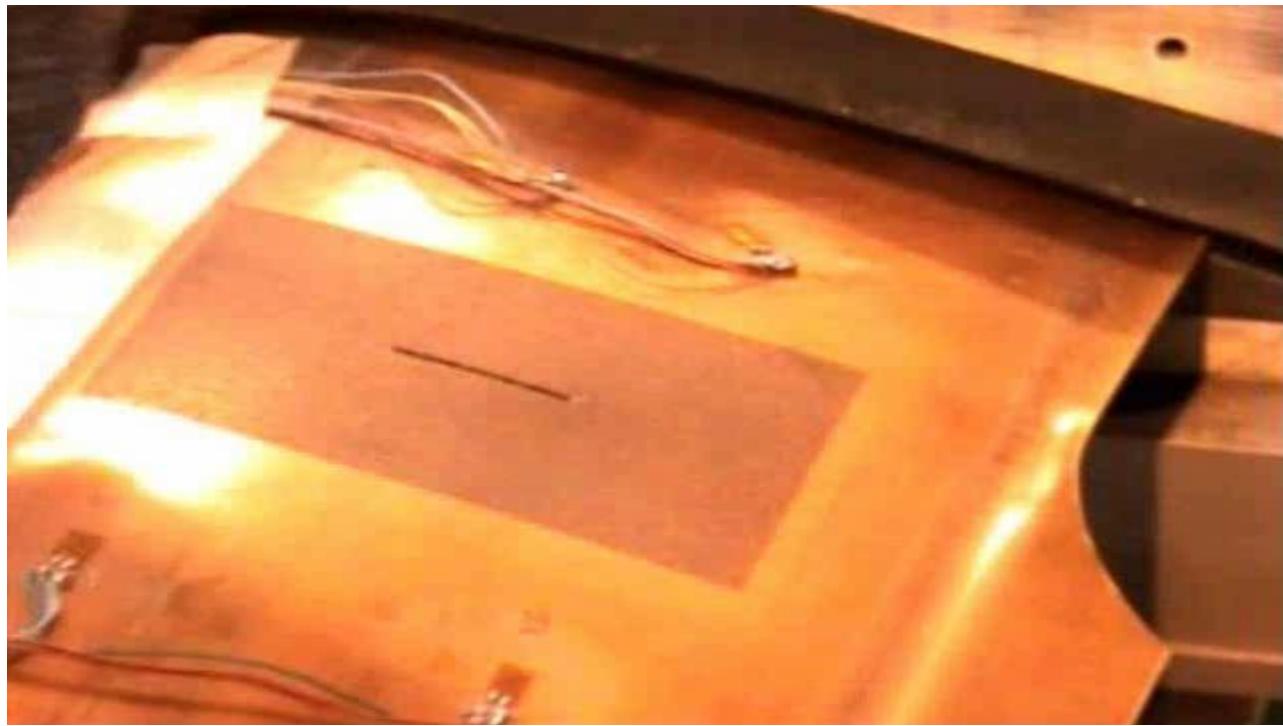
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**Durability** is the ability of something to perform its function long-lasting and repeatedly.

**Failure** is Industry specific. For example: Crack growth versus crack initiation

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## Fatigue Failures in Real Life – Crack Growth

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4-28-1988 After 69,000 flight cycles on a 737-200, metal fatigue lets the top go in tight.

**A different theory  
of Aloha  
Flight 243**

The Boeing 737 was designed for pressurized decompression in which a small hole is made in the cabin. The interior pressure from the outside overpowers the interior. But boomer engineer Matt Austin says it's possible that the work if something momentarily blocks the hole.

Source: [www.dreamerly.com](http://www.dreamerly.com)

- ➊ At 24,000 feet, decompression occurs. A hole is created in the fuselage, which had a crack in it. The hole is large enough to allow air to escape from the cabin – open a decompression valve in the roof.
- ➋ Air from the pressurized cabin begins to rush out at about 700 mph. A flight attendant is sucked into the hole. The attendant's body is held against the hole by the decompressing air for a few ten thousandths of a second and pressure is released. The attendant's body is pulled inward so forcefully enough to rip the plane apart. The side of the plane is torn off. The attendant's body is pulled through the hole toward the center. A section of the window folds forward like a roof, trapping the flight attendant.
- ➌ The window folds over, trapping back to a reinforced joint, slamming the attendant's body against the inside of the jet. Blood and a mark that Austin says looks like a handprint are visible on the attendant's body. This suggests the attendant's body had to pass a semi-decompression hole instead of being immediately sucked out of the aircraft.

Aloha airlines flight #243

April 28<sup>th</sup>, 1988

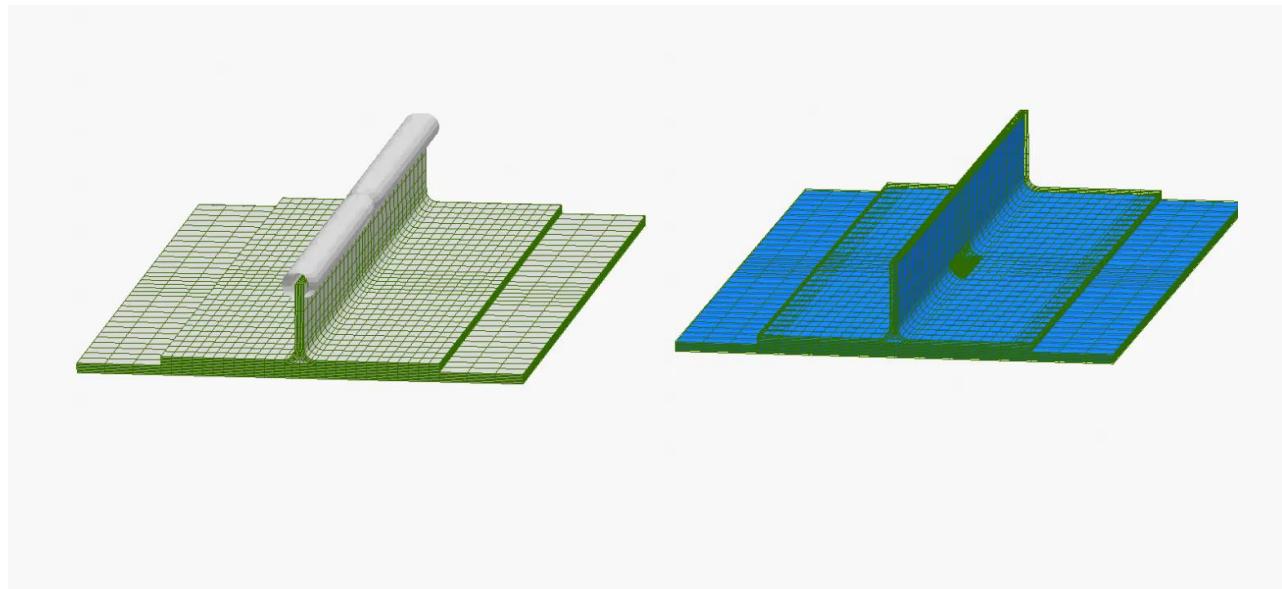
Maui, HI



Fatigue failure occurred due to repeated pressurization of the cabin causing a small crack to rupture in the fuselage, killing a stewardess.

**Other Damage Mechanisms exist for Composites**  
- Delamination shown, decohesion, fibre/matrix breakdown, etc.

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### Dynamic Fatigue: Crack initiation



## Definitions



**Durability** is the ability of something to perform its function long-lasting and repeatedly.

**Failure** is Industry specific. For example: Crack growth versus crack initiation

**Fatigue** is the progressive and localized structural damage that occurs when a material is subjected to cyclic loading. Stress and strain are used to calculate fatigue damage.

**Damage** – Measure of fatigue. When = 1 by Miner's Rule, failure occurs.

**Fatigue Life** – Inverse of damage (Example: 0.5 damage, is fatigue life of 2)

## Definitions



**Durability** is the ability of something to perform its function long-lasting and repeatedly.

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**Fatigue Life** – Inverse of damage (Example: 0.5 damage, is fatigue life of 2)

## What is fatigue?



Standards Worldwide

The process of progressive localized permanent structural change occurring in a material subjected to conditions which produce fluctuating stresses and strains at some point or points and which may culminate in cracks or complete fracture after a sufficient number of fluctuations.

"Standard Definitions of Terms Relating to Fatigue Testing and Statistical Analysis of Data," ASTM Designation E206-72.

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## Stress

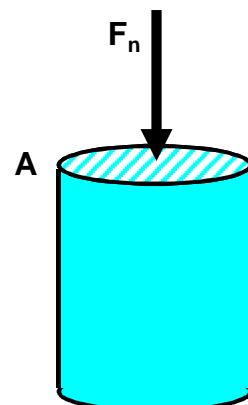
$$s = F_n/A$$

### How to reduce Stress?

Either:

- Increase Area
- Reduce Force

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\* Normal Stress  
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## Stress

$$s = F_n/A$$

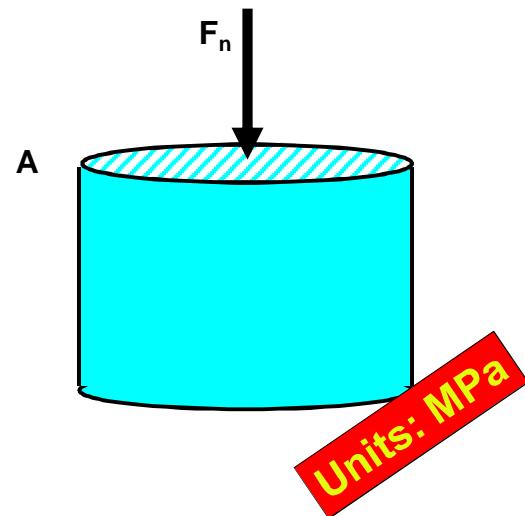
### How to reduce Stress?

Either:

- Increase Area
- Reduce Force

\* Normal Stress  
Unreinforced concrete 2017  
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## Stress

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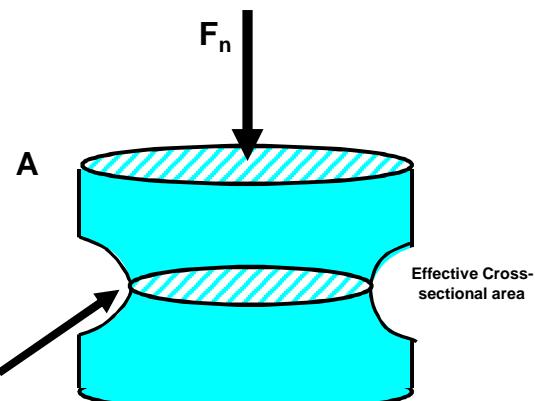
$$s = F_n/A$$

Either:

- Increase Area
- Reduce Force

Reduced cross-sectional area causes stress concentration

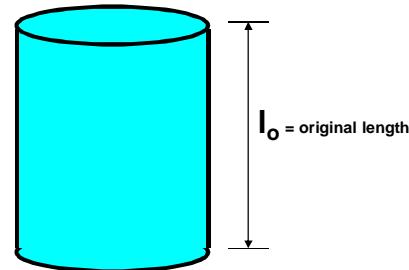
\* Normal Stress  
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## Strain

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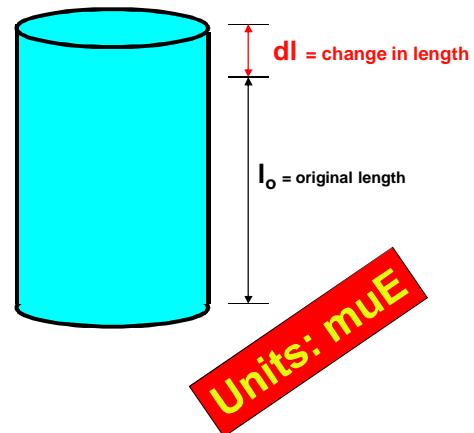
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## Strain

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### Strain:

$$\epsilon = \frac{\Delta l}{l_0}$$



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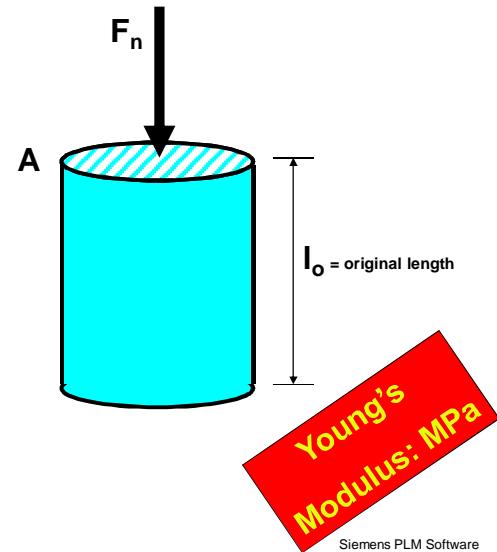
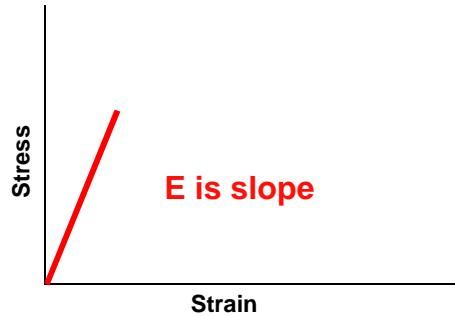
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## Stress and Strain: Hooke's Law – Young's Modulus

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$$s = E \epsilon$$

E = Young's Modulus



Young's  
Modulus: MPa

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### Famous People In Fatigue



Wöhler  
curves in  
1867

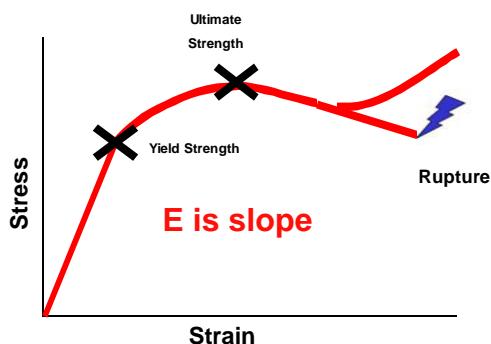
August Wöhler  
German  
(1819-1914)

## Stress and Strain: Hooke's Law – Young's Modulus

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$$s = E \epsilon$$

E = Young's Modulus



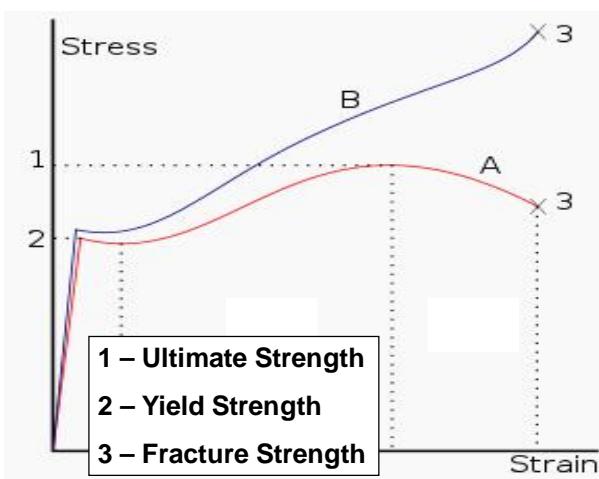
Time Lapsed Video

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## Static Stress and Strain Relationship

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- A - Red – Fixed Area  
(Engineering Stress)
- B - Blue – Changing Area  
(True Stress)

1. Necking occurs, applied load decreases
2. Plastic Deformation Begins
3. Fracture Occurs

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## Materials Terms

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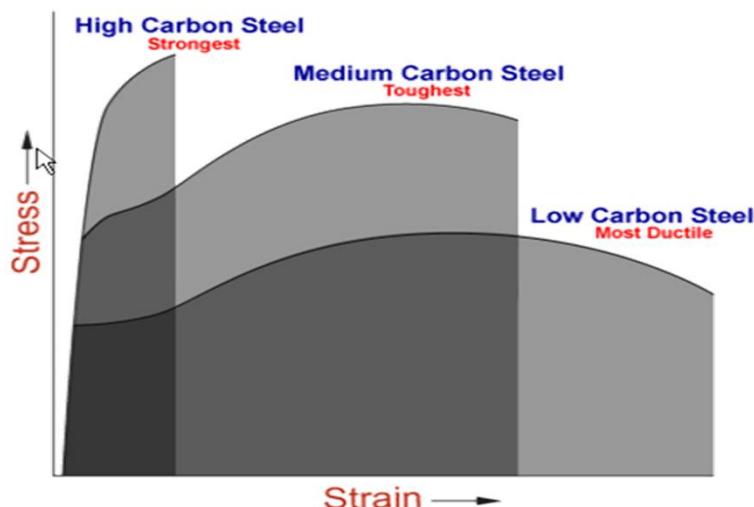
- **Creep:** is a time-dependent deformation of a material while under an applied load that is below its yield strength
- **Hardness:** is the resistance of a material to localized deformation
- **Toughness:** the ability of a metal to deform plastically and to absorb energy in the process before fracture
- **Yield strength or yield point:** of a material is defined in engineering and materials science as the stress at which a material begins to deform plastically.
- **Ductility:** is a solid material's ability to deform under tensile stress
- The following list ranks metals from the greatest ductility to least: gold, silver, platinum, iron, nickel, copper, aluminum, zinc, tin, and lead
- The ductility of steel varies depending on the alloying constituents. Increasing levels of carbon decreases ductility
- **Brittle:** A material when subjected to stress, it breaks without significant deformation (strain)
- **Ultimate tensile strength (UTS), often shortened to tensile strength (TS) or ultimate strength,** is the maximum stress that a material can withstand while being stretched or pulled before *necking*. Point at which load on specimen decreases

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## Graphical Representation of Material Terms

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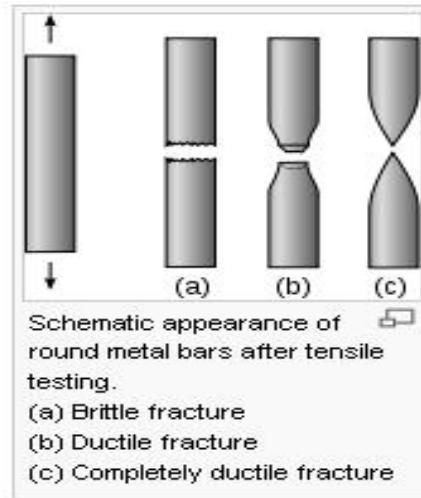
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## Some Material Properties and Failure Modes

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Element	Young's modulus (GPa)	Offset or yield strength (MPa)	Ultimate strength (MPa)
silicon	107		5000–9000
tungsten	411	550	550–620
iron	211	80–100	350
titanium	120	100–225	240–370
copper	130	33	210
tantalum	186	180	200
tin	47	9–14	15–200
zinc (wrought)	105		110–200
nickel	170	14–35	140–195
silver	83		170
gold	79		100
aluminium	70	15–20	40–50
lead	16		12

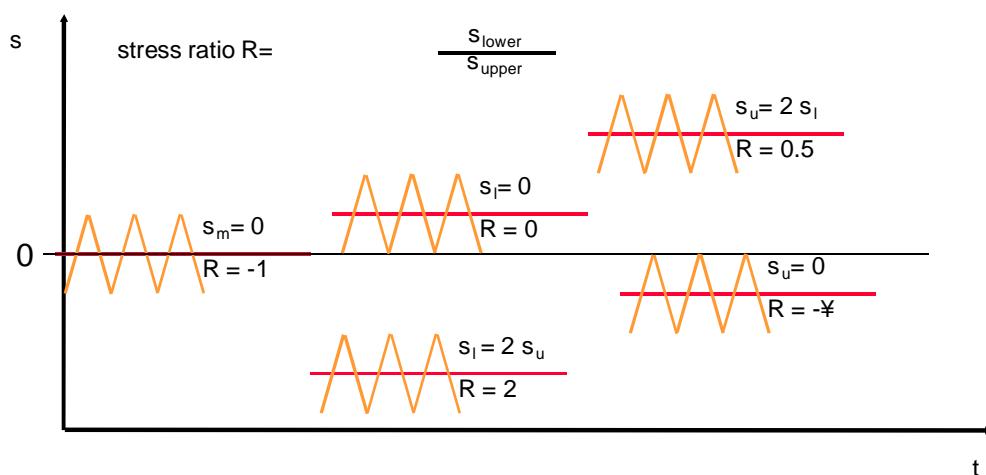


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## Definition of the Stress Ratio R

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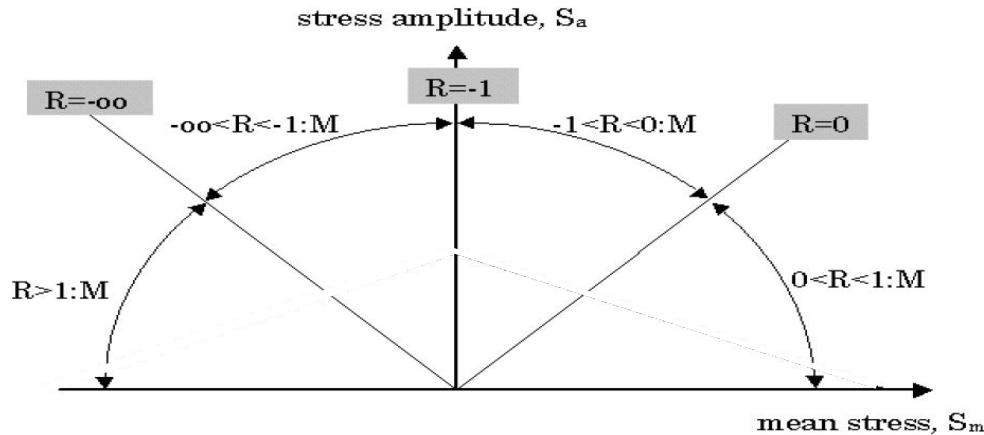


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## Stress Ratio R Plotted On the Haigh Diagram

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## Dynamic Stress/Strain Test

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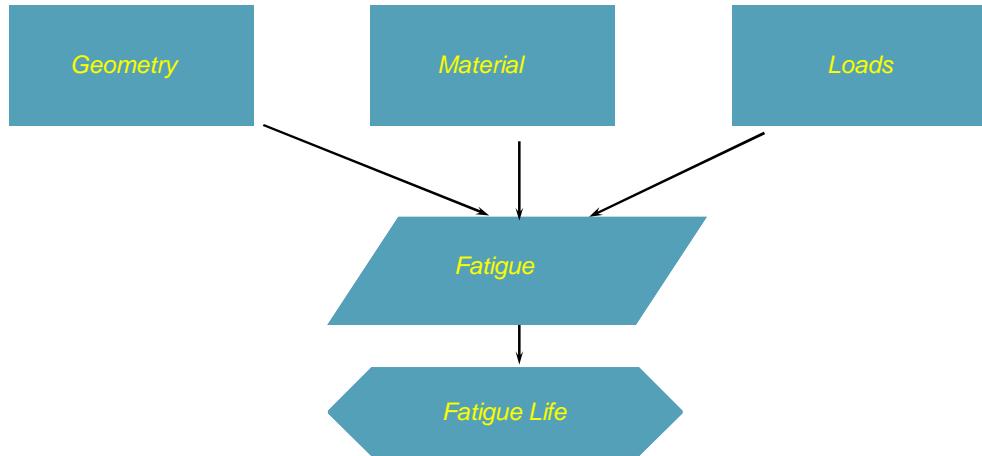


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## What influences fatigue?

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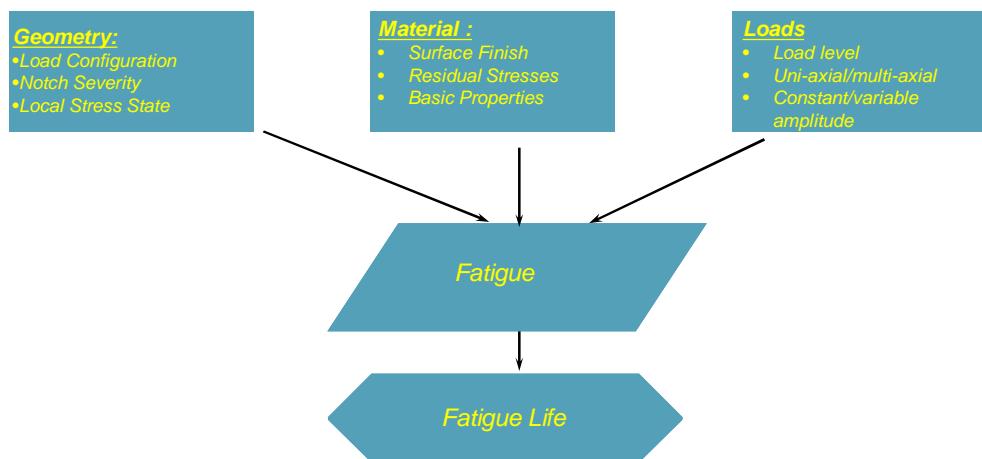


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## What influences fatigue?

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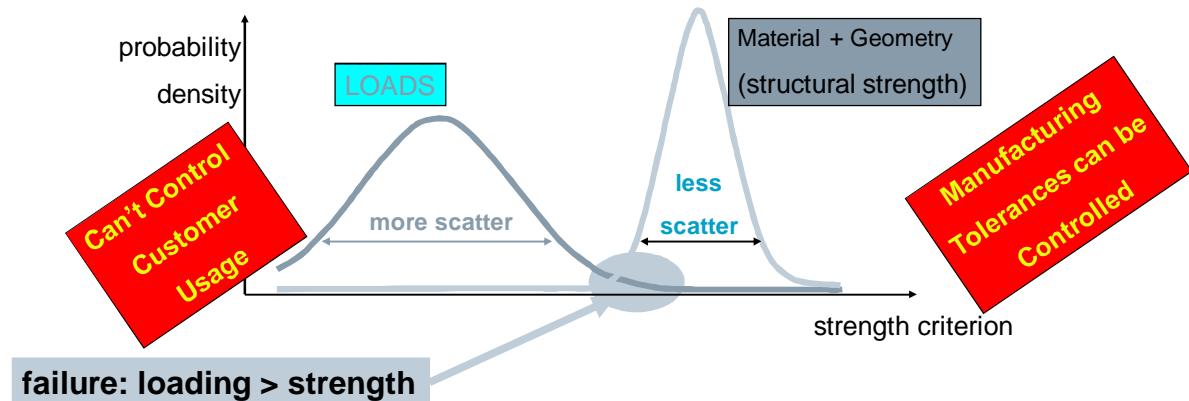
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## Applied loading vs. structural strength

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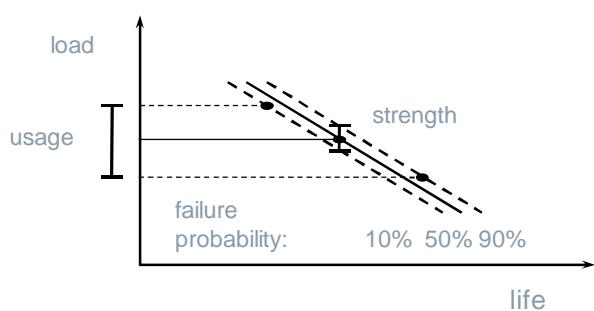
### Optimal Design – Minimal Overlap – Affordable Cost



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## Sources of Fatigue Scattering



typical load ratios of  
10% / 90% probability

manufacturing	
geometry	1.02
material	
- controlled	1.15
- different welds	1.45
loads (car)	2.00

Today, customer usage is the most important source of fatigue scattering.

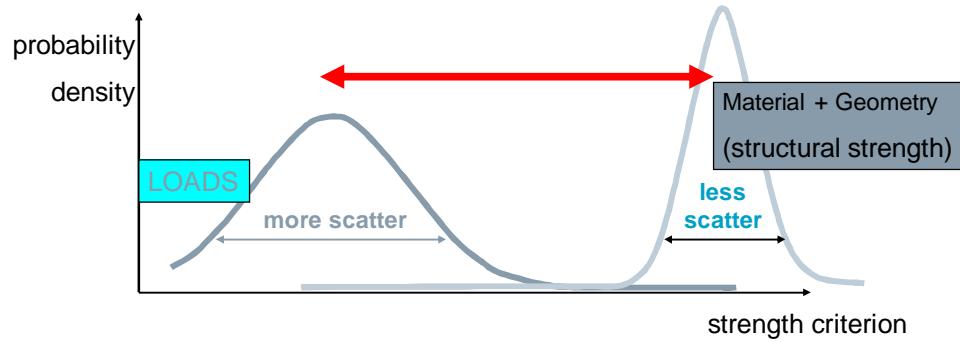
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When were your durability test schedules established ?  
Applied loading vs. structural strength

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## Wider - Over-Design - More expensive



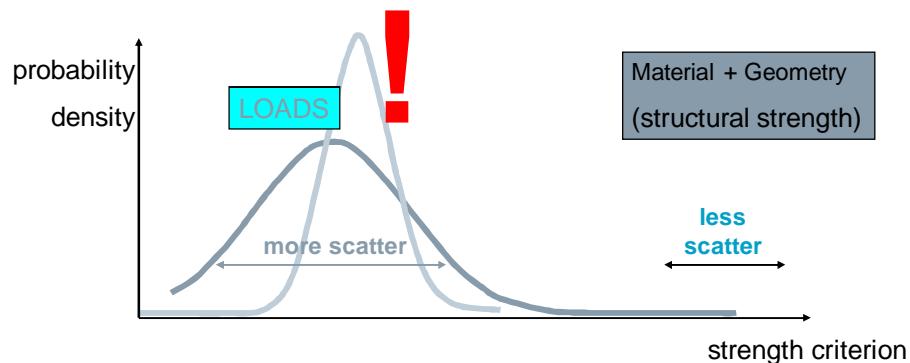
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When were your durability test schedules established ?  
Applied loading vs. structural strength

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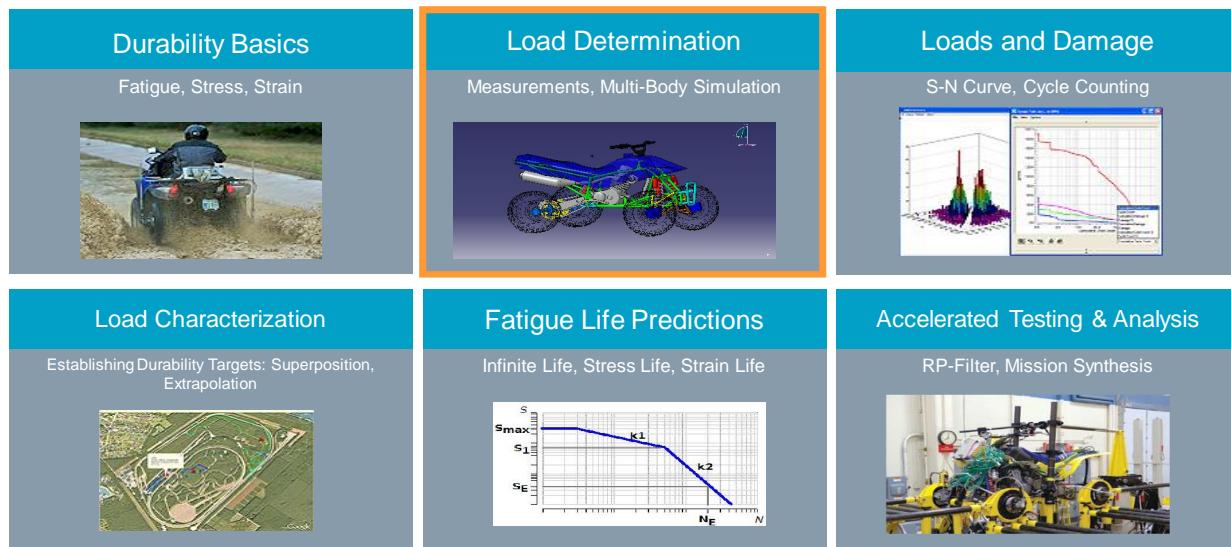
## NOT SO GREAT DESIGN



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## Durability Agenda

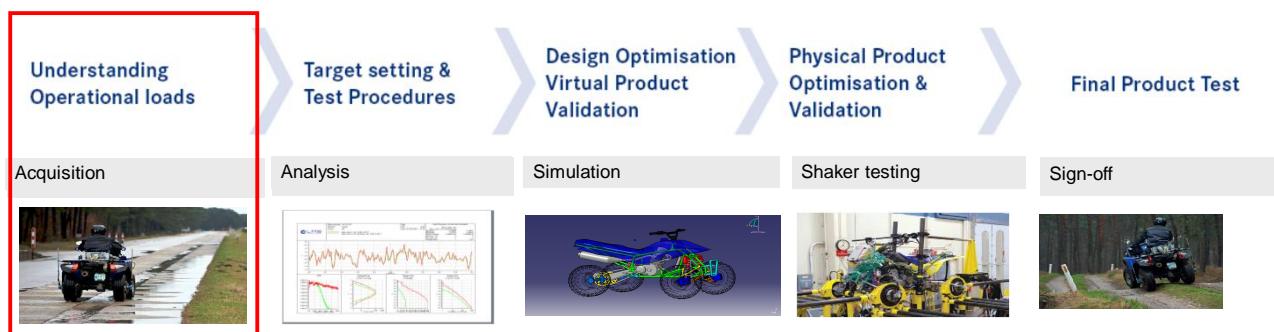


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## The Durability Process

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## Do you know what your customers do with your product ?

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Where ?
How hard ?
How fast ?
How often ?
How long ?



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## How to capture customer usage ?

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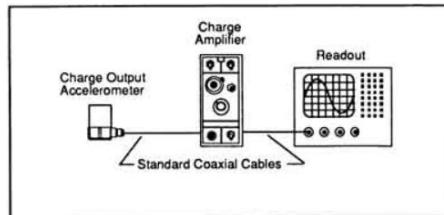
Instrumentation & Setup	Measurement & Validation	Processing & Data sharing
<b>Pains</b> Test needs to be better prepared.	<b>Pains</b> More information needs to be gathered in limited time available	<b>Pains</b> Data needs to be quickly validated.  Faster Delivery to CAE – Rig testing dept.

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## 1992 External Amplifiers

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## Modern Data Acquisition

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- Modern Integrated signal conditioning, digital inputs to include video and universal signal condition cards (IEPE, Strain, Voltage, etc....)
- Capable to record 16 million samples per second

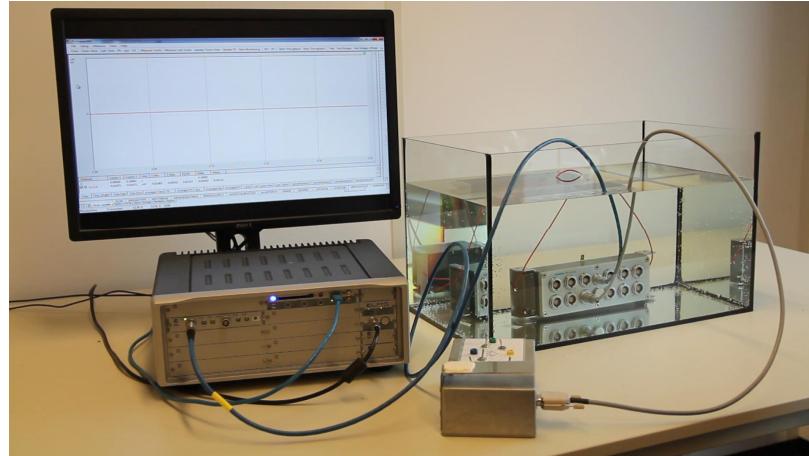


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## Modern Data Acquisition

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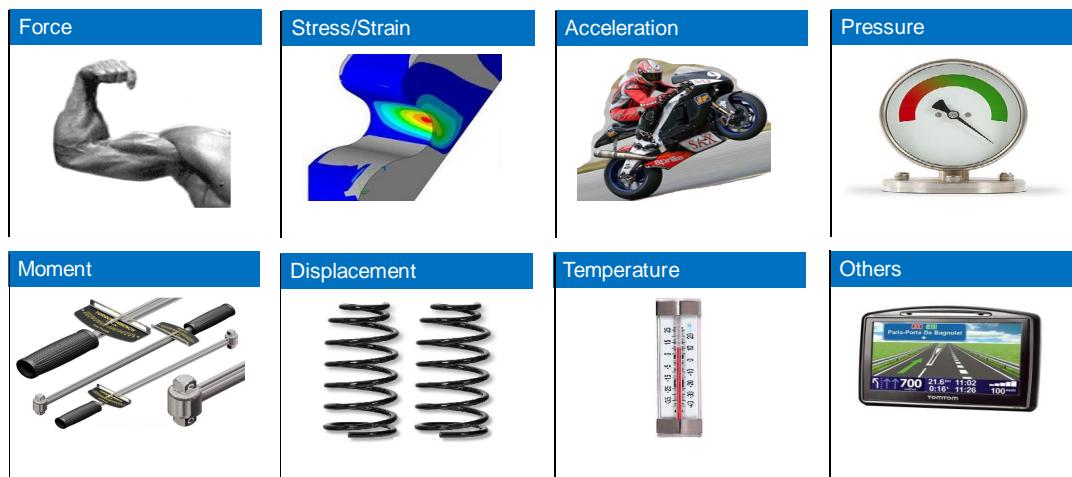


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## Which sensors to use ?

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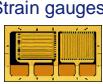


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## Which sensors to use ?

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Wheel force	Stress/Strain	Acceleration	Load/Pressure
 WFT	 Strain gauges • Tension • Compression • Torque • Local stresses	 DC-accelerometers • Body accelerations • Subsystems	 Load cells, Pressure transducer • Component force • Brake pressure • Air pressure - dampers
Moment	Displacement	Temperature	Others
Torque Sensors 	String pots  LVDT • Absolute displ. • Relative displ. • e.g. damper, bushings	Thermocouple 	GPS – Global position CAN signals 

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## Strain Gauge

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§ Strain is defined as the change in length compared to the nominal length

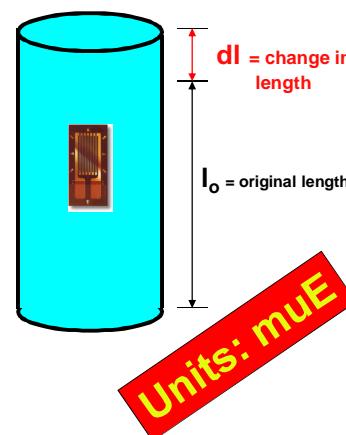
$$\S \quad \epsilon = \Delta L / L$$

§ Positive  $\Delta L$  = "tensile" strain

Negative  $\Delta L$  = "compressive" strain

§ Strain unit = "microstrain" or  $\mu\epsilon$  ( $\mu E$ )

§ because of very small relative length changes (1E-6 to 1E-3)



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## Gauge measures change in resistance

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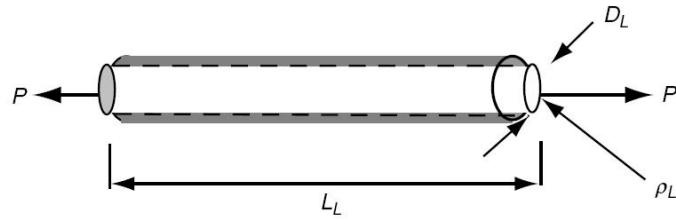


FIGURE 1.2 A resistance wire under mechanical load.

$$\Delta R = \left( \rho_L \times \frac{L_L}{\frac{\pi}{4} D_L^2} \right) - \left( \rho \times \frac{L}{\frac{\pi}{4} D^2} \right)$$

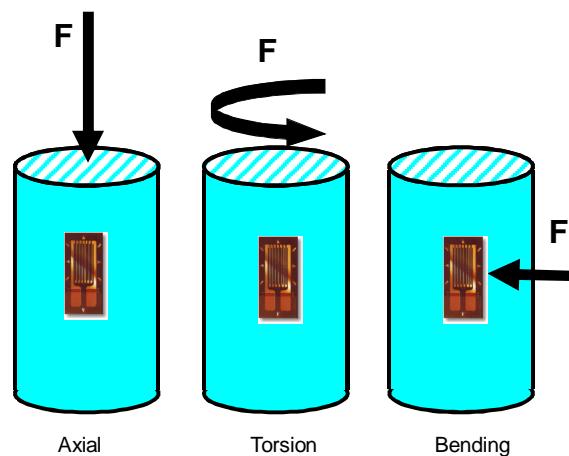
§ A strain gauge is one long resistive wire, embedded in a very thin foil

§ Unique property: resistance is proportional to the change in length

$$\frac{\Delta R}{R} = k \times \epsilon$$

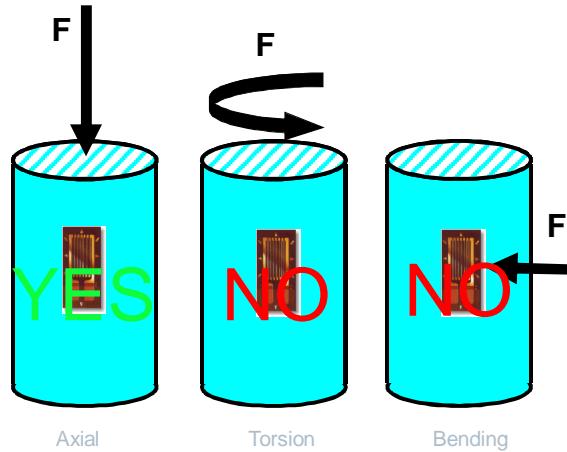
## Gauge: Will it measure correctly?

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## Gauge: Will it measure correctly?

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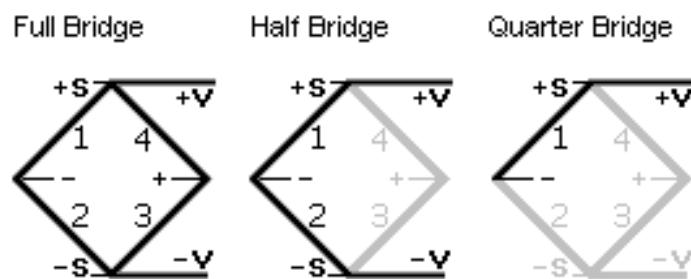


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## Bridge Types

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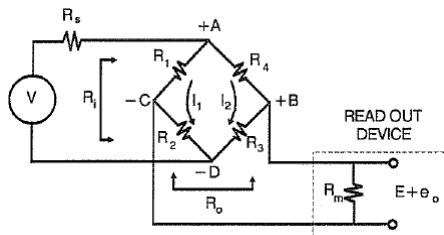


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## Strain Gauge Formulas – Wheatstone Bridge

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$$V_{BD} = \left( \frac{R_3}{R_4 + R_3} - \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \right) V = \left( \frac{R_1 R_3 - R_2 R_4}{(R_1 + R_2)(R_3 + R_4)} \right) V$$

$$\frac{e_{OCV}}{E_{ex}} = \left[ \frac{N \times GF \times \varepsilon}{4} \right] \quad \text{Formula relates Bridge output voltage to strain}$$

§ Typical bridge set-up

§ E.g. Wheatstone bridge

§ Measured voltage dependent on input voltage and strain changes

### Signal Conditioning for Strain Gauge

- Excitation Voltage
- Zeroing Capability
- Gain setting
- AC coupling for dynamic strain
- Bridge Completion

## Bridge Configurations and Types of Strain

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Strain	Gauge Setup	Bridge Type	Sensitivity MV/V @ 1000 $\mu\epsilon$	Details
Axial		1/4	0.5	Good: Simplest to implement, but must use a dummy gauge if compensating for Temperature. Also responds to Bending strain.
		1/4	0.65	Better: Temperature compensated, but it is sensitive to bending strain.
		1/4	1.0	Better: Rejects Bending Strain, but not temperature. Must use dummy gauge if compensating for temperature.
		Full	1.3	Best: More sensitive and compensates for both temperature and bending strain.
Bending		1/4	0.5	Good: Simplest to implement, but must use a dummy gauge if compensating for Temperature. Responds equally to Axial Strain.
		1/4	1.0	Better: Rejects axial strain and is temperature compensated.
		Full	2.0	Best: Rejects axial strain and is temperature compensated. Most sensitive to bending strain.
Torsional and Shear		1/4	1.0	Good: Gauges must be mounted at 45 degrees from centerline. Axial and Bending forces produce equal strain and are hence rejected.
		Full	2.0	Best: More sensitive full-bridge version of previous setup. Rejects both axial and bending strains.

Gauges must be oriented in specific directions to measure specific types of strain

§ Combinations of several strains

- § To compensate for shear strain
- § To compensate for temperature
- § If loading direction is unknown

Note table taken from NI website

## Examples of sensor types

### Strain gauge

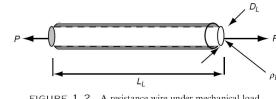
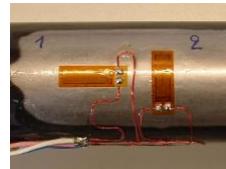


FIGURE 1.2 A resistance wire under mechanical load.

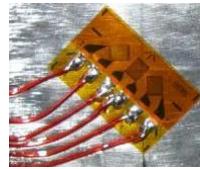
$$\Delta R = \left( \rho_L \times \frac{L_L}{4 D_L^2} \right) - \left( \rho \times \frac{L}{4 D^2} \right)$$

#### Single strain gauge

#### Poisson bridge



#### Strain rosette



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§ A strain gauge is one long resistive wire, embedded in a very thin foil

§ Unique property: resistance is proportional to the change in length

$$\Delta R / R = k \times \epsilon$$

§ Strain is defined as the change in length compared to the nominal length

$$\epsilon = \Delta L / L$$

§ Positive  $\Delta L$  = "tensile" strain  
Negative  $\Delta L$  = "compressive" strain

§ Strain unit = "microstrain" or  $\mu\epsilon$  ( $\mu E$ )

§ because of very small relative length changes (1E-6 to 1E-3)

§ Combinations of several strains

- § To compensate for shear strain
- § To compensate for temperature
- § If loading direction is unknown

§ Typical bridge set-up

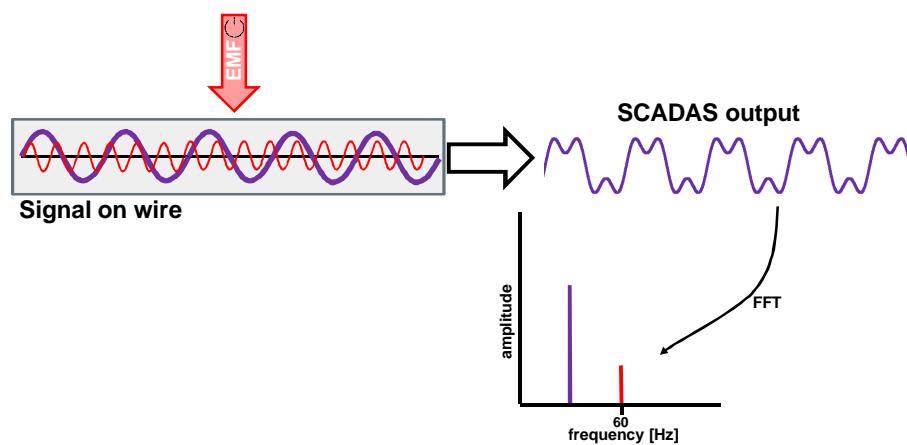
§ E.g. Wheatstone bridge

§ Measured voltage dependent on input voltage and strain changes

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## Single Ended Coupling

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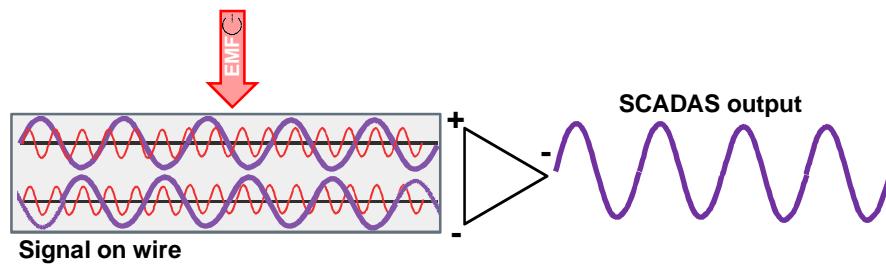


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## Differential Coupling (common mode rejection)

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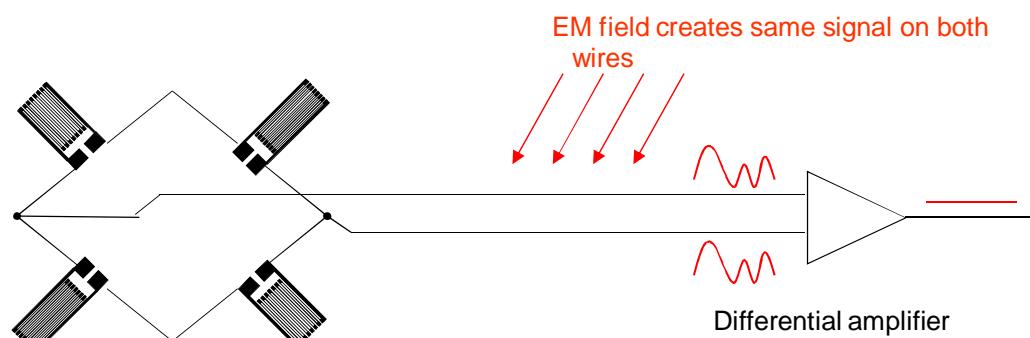
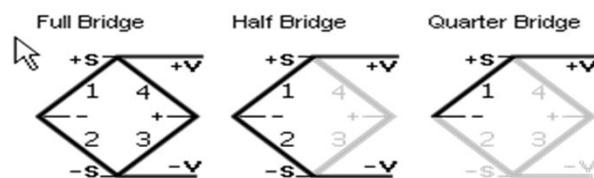


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## Bridge conditioning – Common Mode Noise Rejection Demo

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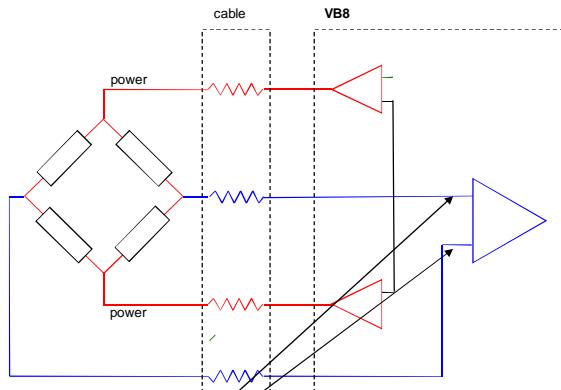


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### Common Mode Noise rejection Demo

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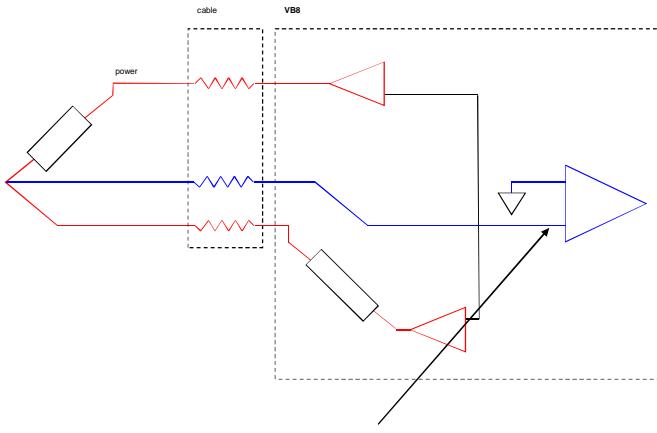


**Full Bridge**

**2 Wire Signal**

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**Quarter Bridge**

**1 Wire Signal**

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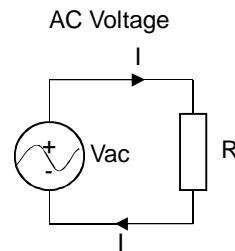
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# GENERAL ACQUISITION DEMO AND COMMON MODE REJECTION SHUNT CHECK DEMO

## AC Voltage Excitation

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1. Less commonly used for strain gauges
2. Some transducers like LVDT and RVDT require AC excitation
3. Can be used on same circuits as constant voltage source
4. Requires a AC source with carrier frequency in the KHz range
5. Requires a demodulation circuit
6. **Bandwidth limited** due modulation and demodulation process
7. Excellent at rejecting noise

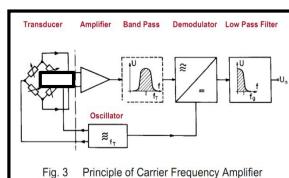


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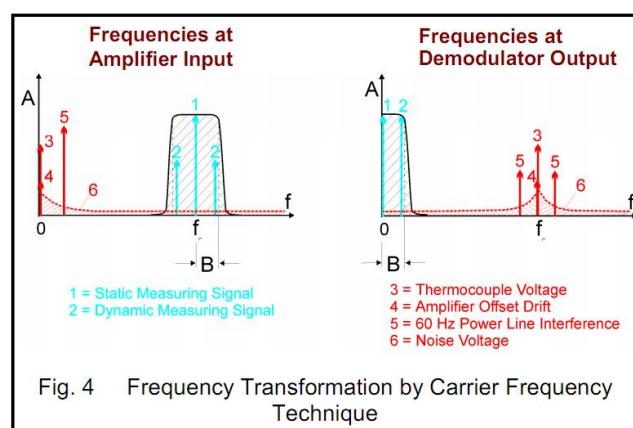
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## AC Excitation Circuit

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Note: Diagrams taken from "HIGH-PRECISION MEASURING TECHNIQUE FOR STRAIN GAGE TRANSDUCERS" by Manfred Kreuzer

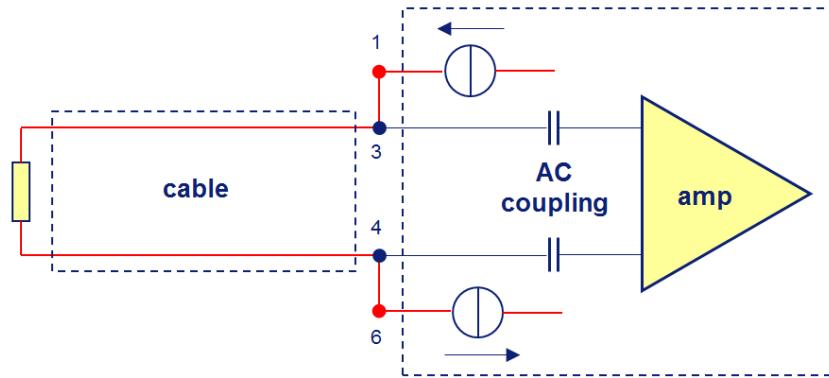


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## Dynamic Strain – Constant Current

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## Examples of sensor types

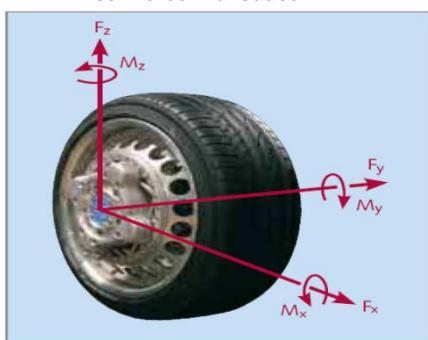
### Force transducers

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strain-based force cell



Wheel Force Transducer



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### Uni-axial Force cells

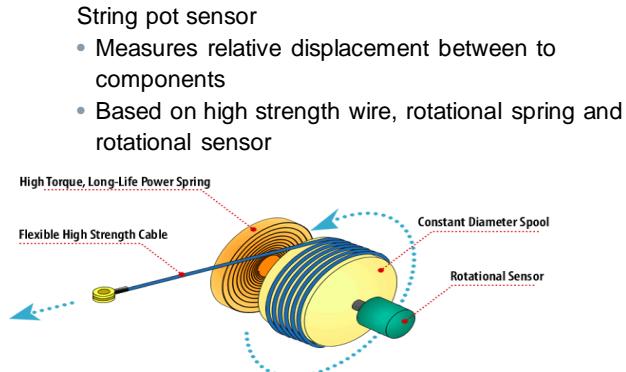
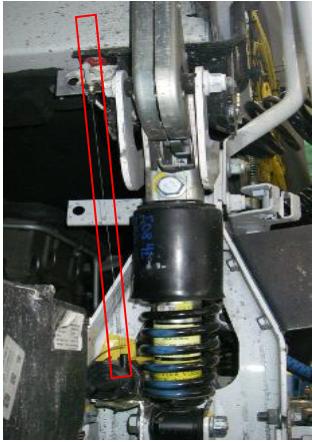
- Strain gauges measure local strain → can be converted to stress
- Local stress is proportional to load applied to the structure

### Wheel Force Transducer

- a complete wheel with sensors that measure the forces and the moments in all three directions
- Efficient road load data collection

## Examples of sensor types displacement transducers

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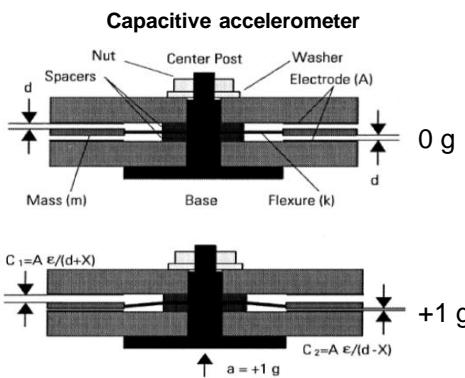
Note: Limited Frequency Response

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## Examples of sensor types DC accelerometers

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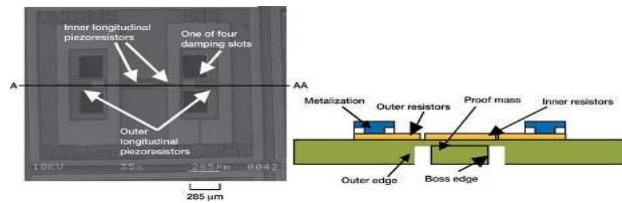
### Piezo-resistive accelerometer

Measure down to 0 Hz

Allow to measure very low frequent accelerations, e.g. curving maneuvers

#### Types

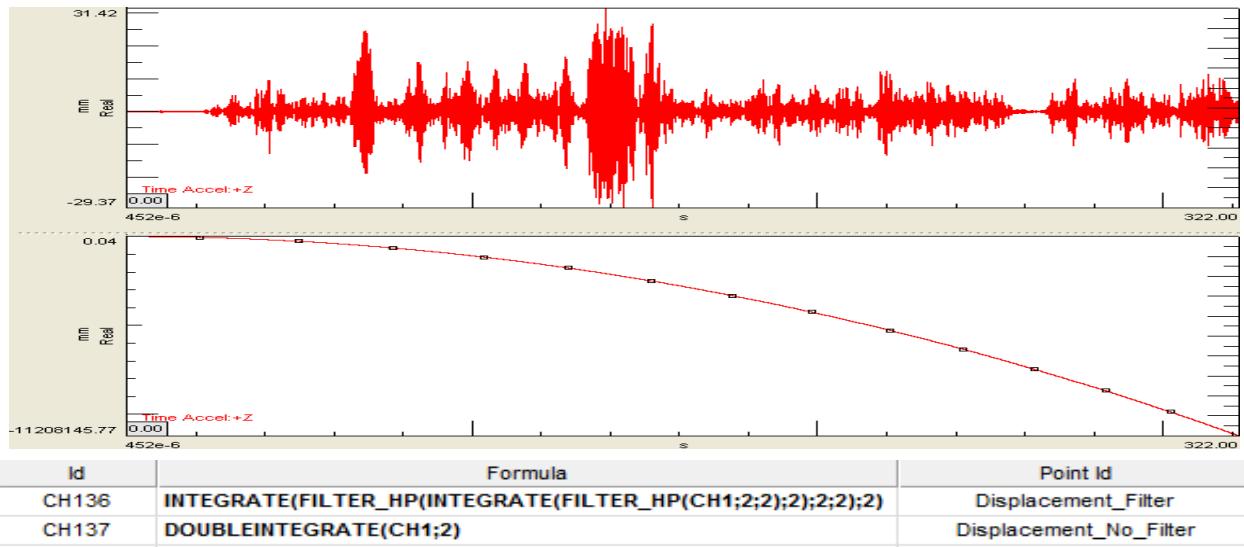
- Capacitive accelerometers
- 0 Hz acceleration is measured based on distance between mass and electrodes
- MEMS (micro electro-mechanical systems)
- Uses the piezo-resistive effect of silicon



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## INTEGRATION OF ACCEL TO DISPLACEMENT Demo

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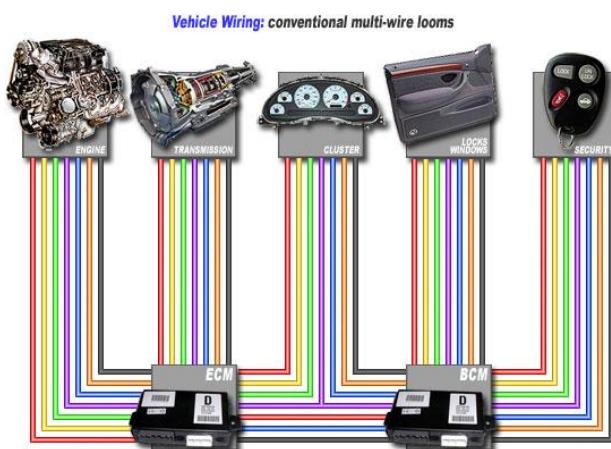


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## CAN Bus History

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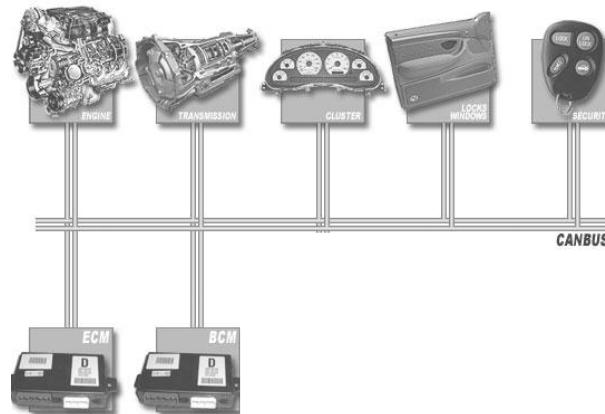
- From 1940 to 1986: Increasing wires to communicate between components
- Wiring harnesses became bigger, heavier

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## CAN Bus



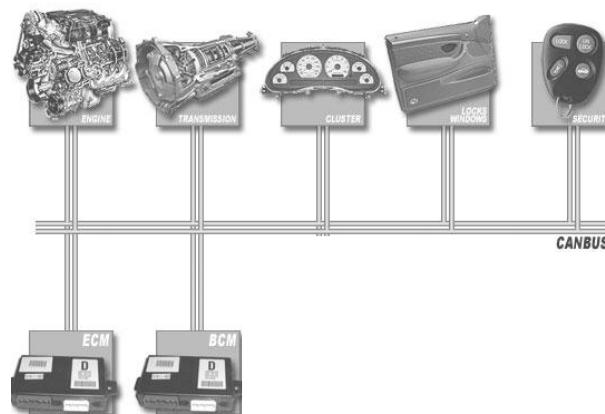
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- BMW 850 Coupe in 1986, First car with Canbus
- Wiring harness reduced by 50 kg
- More reliable, single bus
- Canbus is a digital bus where a single wire can carry multiple signals (upto 1 Mps)

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## CAN Bus



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- Modern car components have Electronic Control Units (ECUs)
- ECUs usage is growing.
- CANBus used for messages transmitted between ECUs

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## DBC Files – OBD Messages

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VERSION \*\*

BS\_:

BU\_ : LMS\_OBD2

```
BO_2024 OBD_PIDs: 8 LMS_OBD2
SG_C004_Calculated_Load_Value m4 : 31|8@0+ (0.392156862745098,0)[0|100] "%" LMS_OBD2
SG_C005_Engine_Coolant_Temperature m5 : 31|8@0+ (-40)[-40|215] "°C" LMS_OBD2
SG_C00C_Engine_RPM m12 : 31|16@0+ (0.25,0)[0|16383.75] "rpm" LMS_OBD2
SG_C00D_Vehicle_Speed m13 : 31|8@0+ (1,0)[0|255] "km/h" LMS_OBD2
SG_C00E_Ignition_Timing_Advance m14 : 31|8@0+ (0.5,-64)[-64|63.5] "*" LMS_OBD2
SG_C00F_Intake_Air_Temperature m15 : 31|8@0+ (-40)[-40|215] "°C" LMS_OBD2
SG_C011_Absolute_Throttle_Position m17 : 31|8@0+ (0.392156862745098,0)[0|100] "%" LMS_OBD2
SG_C01F_Time_Since_Engine_Start m31 : 31|16@0+ (1,0)[0|65535] "s" LMS_OBD2
SG_C033_Barometric_Pressure m51 : 31|8@0+ (1,0)[0|255] "kPa" LMS_OBD2
SG_C046_Ambiant_Air_Temperature m70 : 31|8@0+ (-40)[-40|215] "°C" LMS_OBD2
SG_SignalKind M : 16|8@1+ (1,0)[0|0] "" LMS_OBD2
```



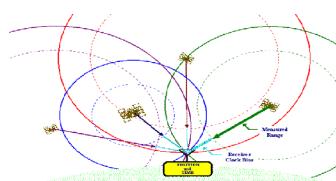
```
BA_DEF_ "Baudrate" INT 0 1000000;
BA_DEF_DEF_ "Baudrate" 0;
BA_ "Baudrate" 500000;
```

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## GPS

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The Global Positioning System is a constellation of 24 (+3 reserve) satellites for accurate determination of the position of a receiver system on the ground

Based on the signals received by at least 4 satellites (not too close to each other) the receiver on the ground can determine its position.

Enhancements to GPS accuracy can be provided by DIFFERENTIAL GPS, where an extra 'satellite' is added by means of a station on the ground broadcasting a GPS signal

The Russian counterpart of the GPS system is called GLONASS

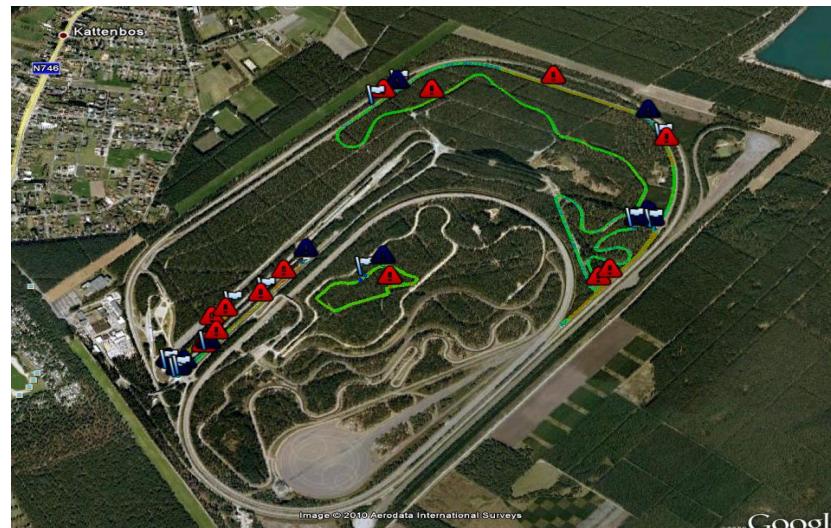
In order to become independent from the USA for global positioning services, the European Space Agency is planning to deploy a proper system called GALILEO. Roll-out of this system is foreseen by the year 2013.

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Google Earth

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# GOOGLE EARTH DEMO

## Video Recording During Acquisition

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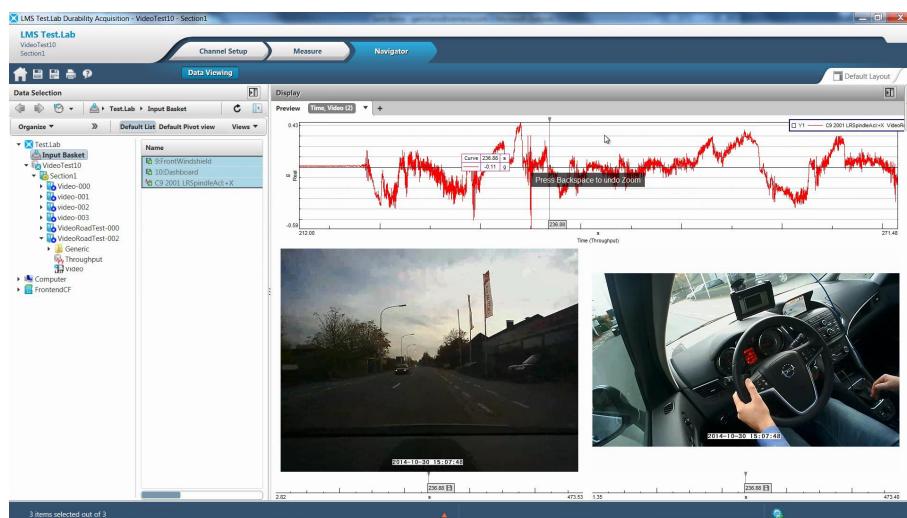


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## Post Processing Synced with Time Data

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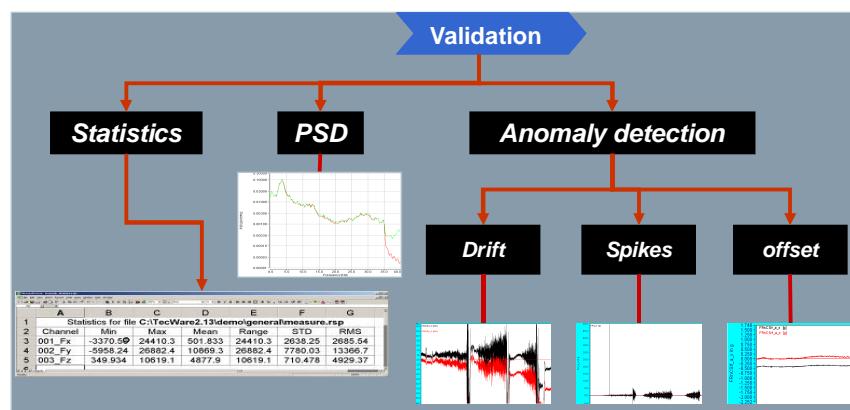
# VIDEO DEMO

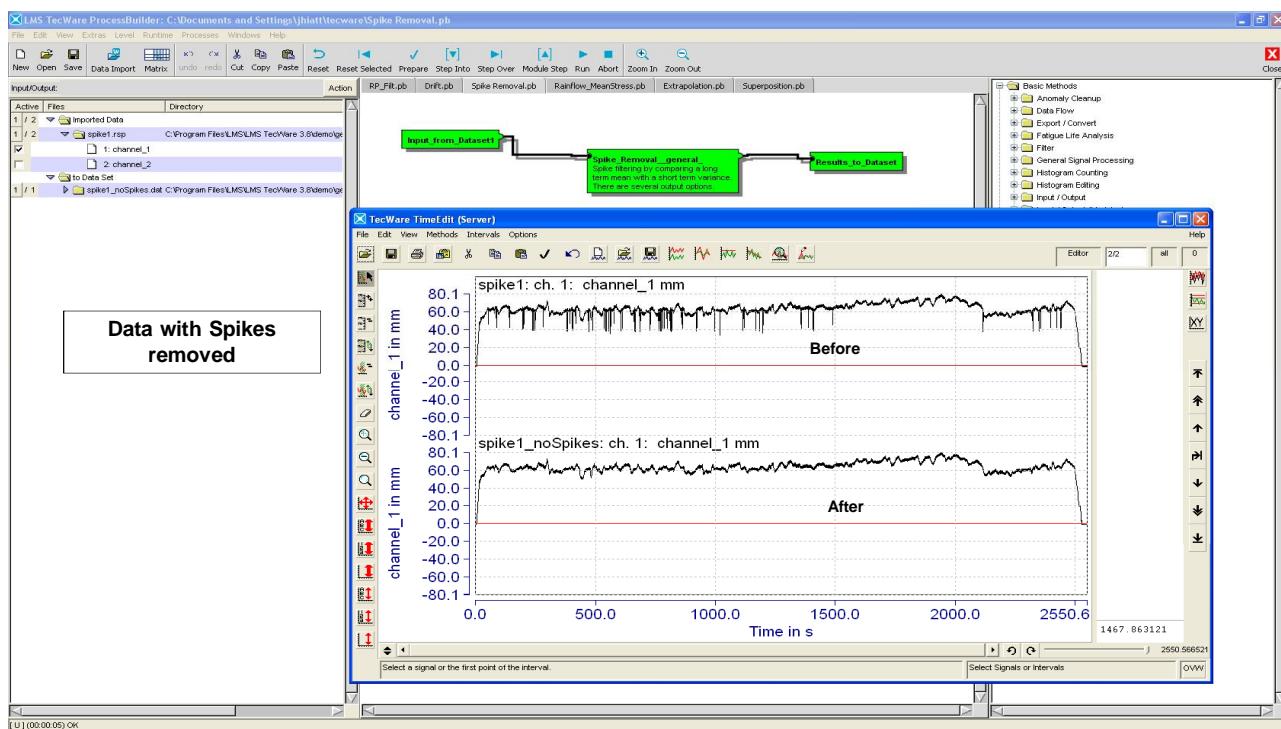
## How to capture customer usage ?

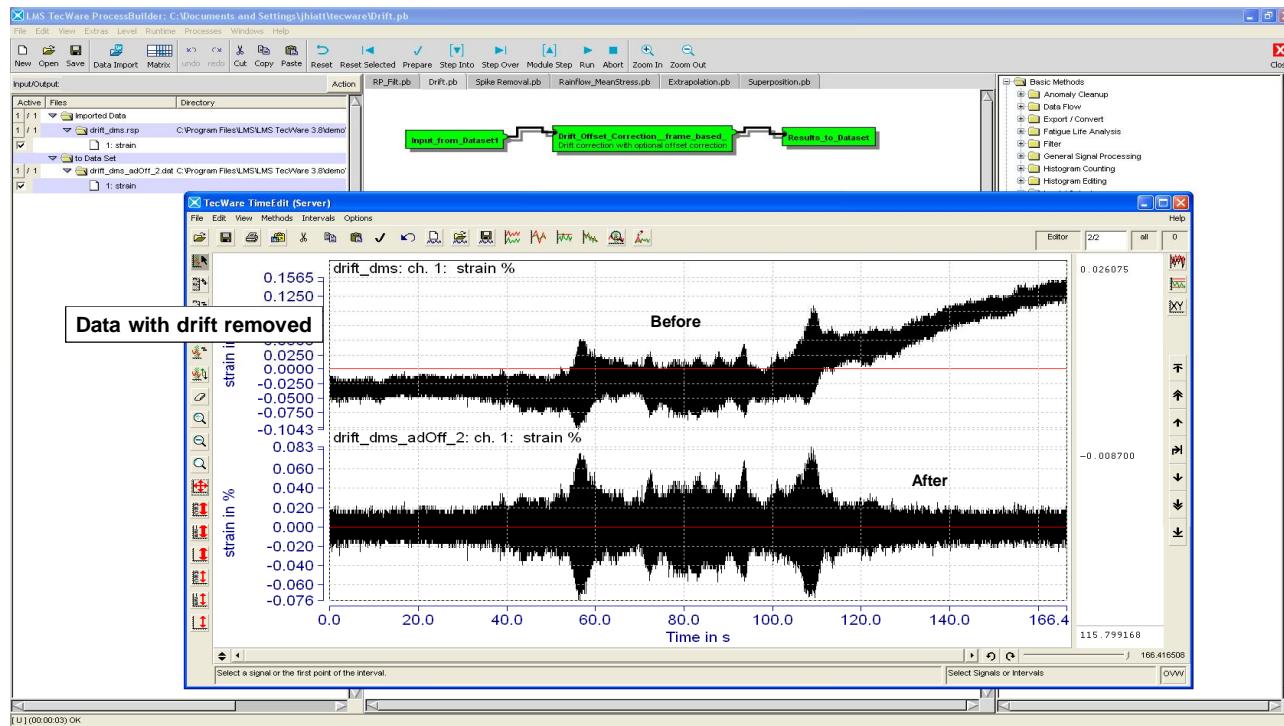
### Data validation

Pain

- Durability data = lots of channels, long duration measurements How to validate?







## Loads: Simulation or Test

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How do we calculate input loads and relate those input loads to stresses at nodes in our model



## One reason simulation is useful... variant analysis

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The screenshot shows a variant analysis interface for the Ford F-150. It displays a grid of truck models with their prices and specifications:

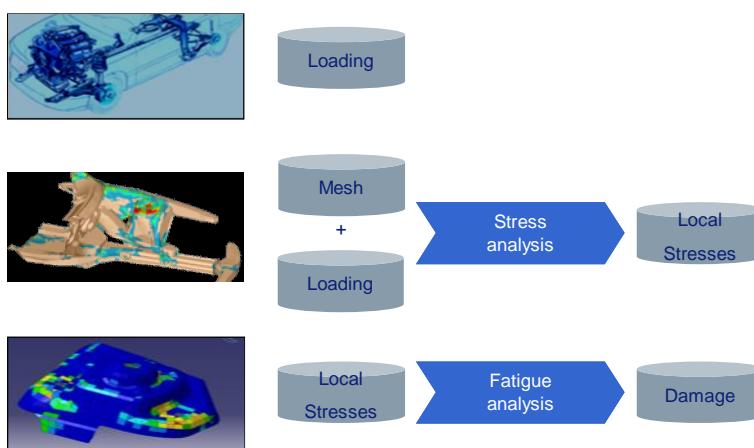
- XL: \$23,500
- STX: \$25,760
- XLT: \$28,215
- FX2: \$34,425
- Lariat: \$35,320
- FX4: \$38,005
- King Ranch: \$42,825
- SVT Raptor: \$42,975
- Platinum: \$44,635
- Harley Davidson: \$49,030

Below the models, there are sections for "Cabs Available" (Regular Cab, SuperCab, SuperCrew), "Box" sizes (5-1/2' Box, 6-1/2' Box, 8' Box), "Engines" (3.5L V6 EcoBoost® Engine, 3.7L V6 FFV Engine, 5.0L V8 FFV Engine, 6.2L V8 Engine), and "Drive" (4x2, 4x4). A "Wheels & Tires" section lists various wheel options with their part numbers. Under "Packages", there are Off-Road Package (4x4), Trailer Tow Package, and Heavy-Duty Payload Package.

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## Simulation Fatigue Process

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1. Get realistic load time histories The fatigue damage is highly influenced by the loads applied to the structure.
2. Get the local stress/strain tensor histories Fatigue depends on the complete stress/strain time histories in the structure:
3. Accumulate damage Depending on the fatigue target, the material and loading type fatigue simulation accumulates the damage.

## Simulation Fatigue Process

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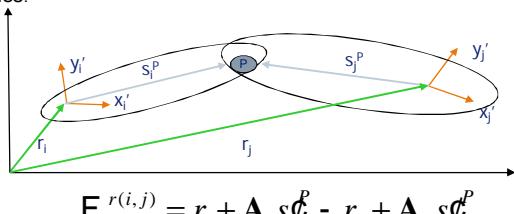
## What is Multibody Dynamics for Load Prediction?

**Bodies:** Maximal Coordinate formulation: 7dof per Body.

**Constraints:** Idealized versions of real-life joint which remove relative DOF between bodies

**Planar example: 2-D revolute joint:**

- Point P is constrained to be in the same global location for both bodies:



$$\mathbf{F}^{r(i,j)} = \mathbf{r}_i + \mathbf{A}_i s_i^P - \mathbf{r}_j + \mathbf{A}_j s_j^P$$

Where A is the transformation matrix:  $A = \begin{pmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{e}} \cos q & -\sin q \hat{\mathbf{u}} \\ \hat{\mathbf{e}} \sin q & \cos q \hat{\mathbf{u}} \end{pmatrix}$

$$\begin{vmatrix} M & \mathbf{F}_q^T \\ \mathbf{F}_q & 0 \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} \ddot{\mathbf{q}} \\ I \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} Q_a \\ g \end{vmatrix}$$

$\Phi_q$  = Constraint Jacobain

$Q_a$  = Applied Forces (Bushing, tsda's, etc.)

M = mass matrix

$\lambda$  = LaGrange Multipliers

$\ddot{\mathbf{q}}$  = accelerations

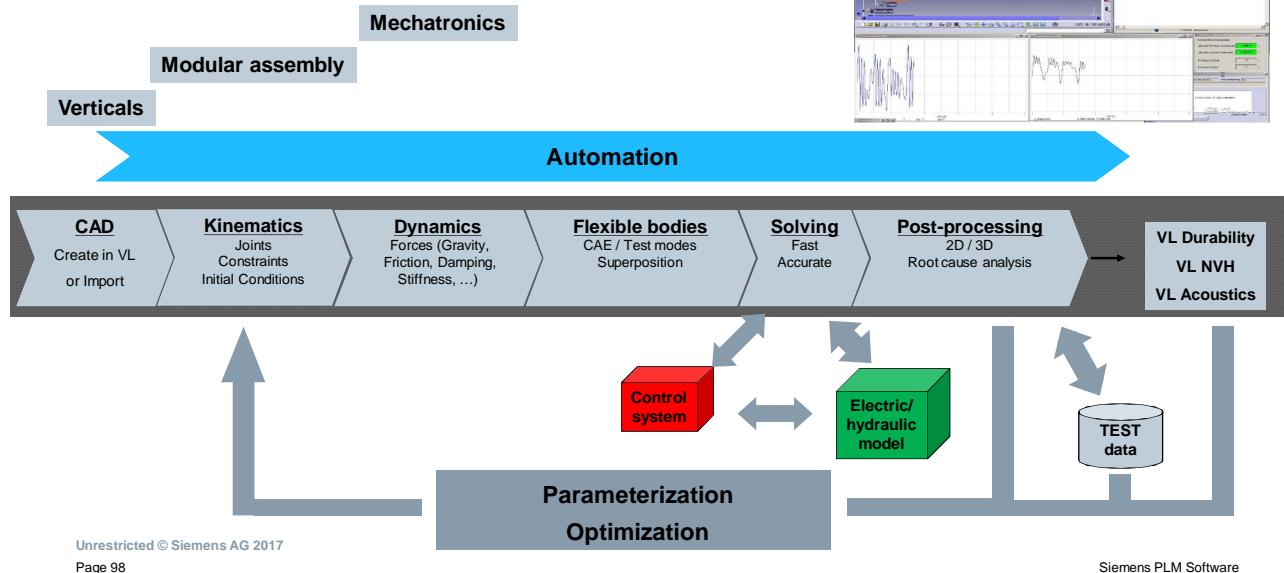
$\gamma$  = Second derivative of acceleration equations

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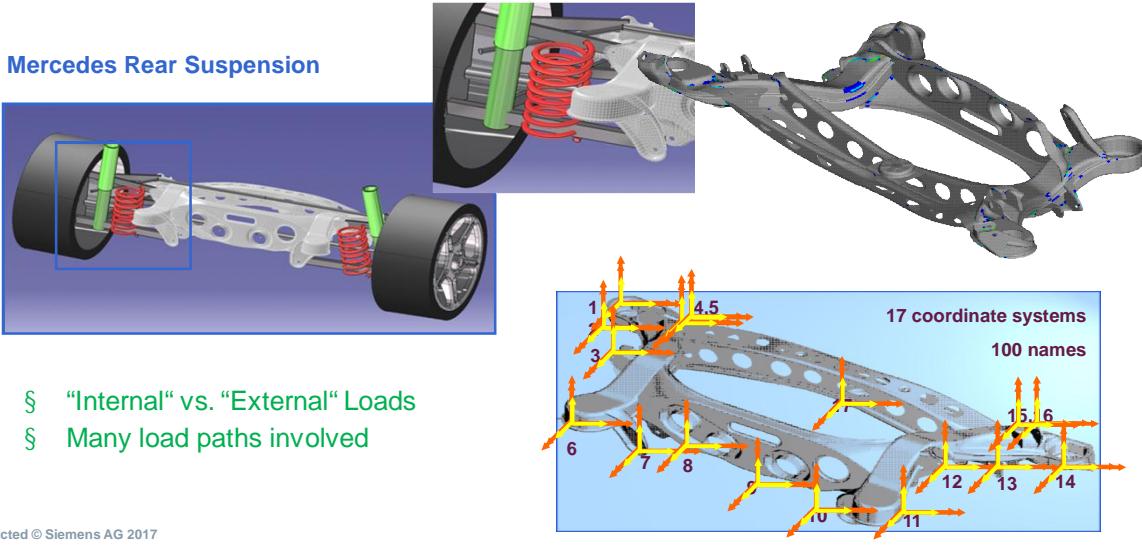
## LMS Virtual.Lab Motion

Capturing industry best modeling practices



## Why use Simulation for Load Prediction?

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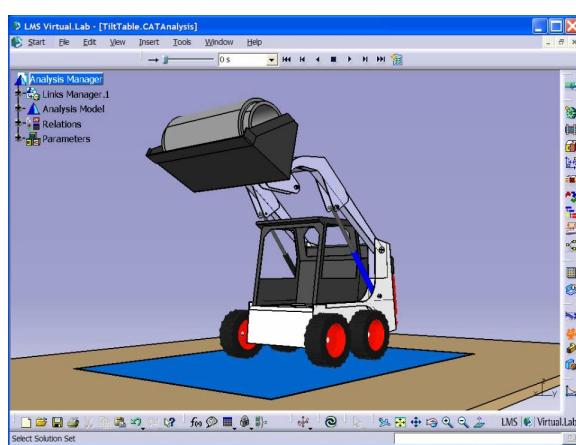
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## Why MBS? Virtual Load Transducers ..just about everywhere..

..For a variety of events and architectural variants..

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- Reaction Forces anywhere..
- Various Loading/Events/What if Scenarios
- Useful for potentially unsafe setups for physical test, or prohibitively expensive due to scale..



$$\begin{bmatrix} M & F_q \\ F_q^T & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \ddot{\lambda} \\ I \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} Q_a \\ g \end{bmatrix}$$

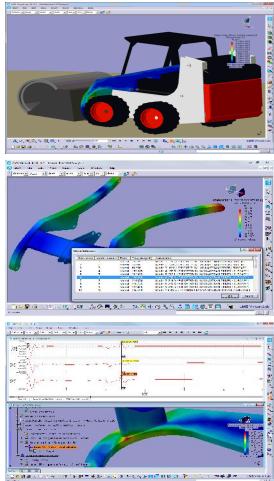
$\Phi_q$  = Constraint Jacobian  
 $Q_a$  = Applied Forces (Bushing, tsda's, etc.)  
 $M$  = mass matrix  
 $\lambda$  = LaGrange Multipliers  
 $\ddot{\lambda}$  = accelerations  
 $\gamma$  = Second derivative of acceleration equations

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## Flexible Bodies

Generating and using Finite Element data



Deformations occur in every mechanism

Including flexibility dramatically can improve the fidelity of your simulation

- Deformations and loads are more accurate
- Frequency response of mechanism can be analyzed

Useful for connecting to NVH and Durability analyses

Flexibility uses modal synthesis

- Deformation is a linear combination of mode shapes
- Normal modes: natural vibration of the body
- Static modes: deformation due to localized loading
- Orthogonalized combined mode set: Craig-Bampton modes for accurate AND fast results

$$\text{Bodies Shape} = a_1 * \text{mode shape 1} + a_2 * \text{mode shape 2} + a_3 * \text{mode shape 3} \dots$$

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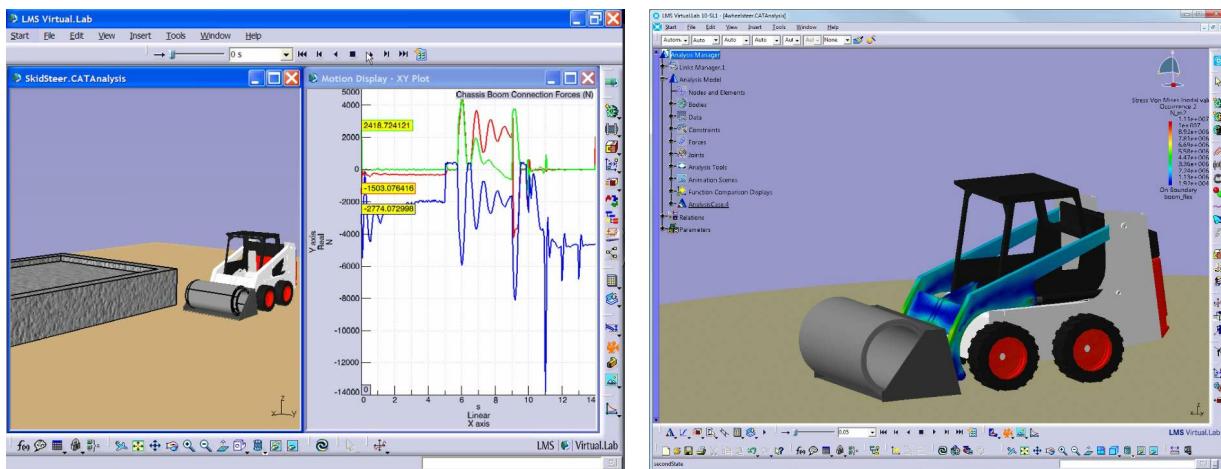
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## Why MBS? Virtual Load Transducers ..just about everywhere..

..For a variety of events and architectural variants..

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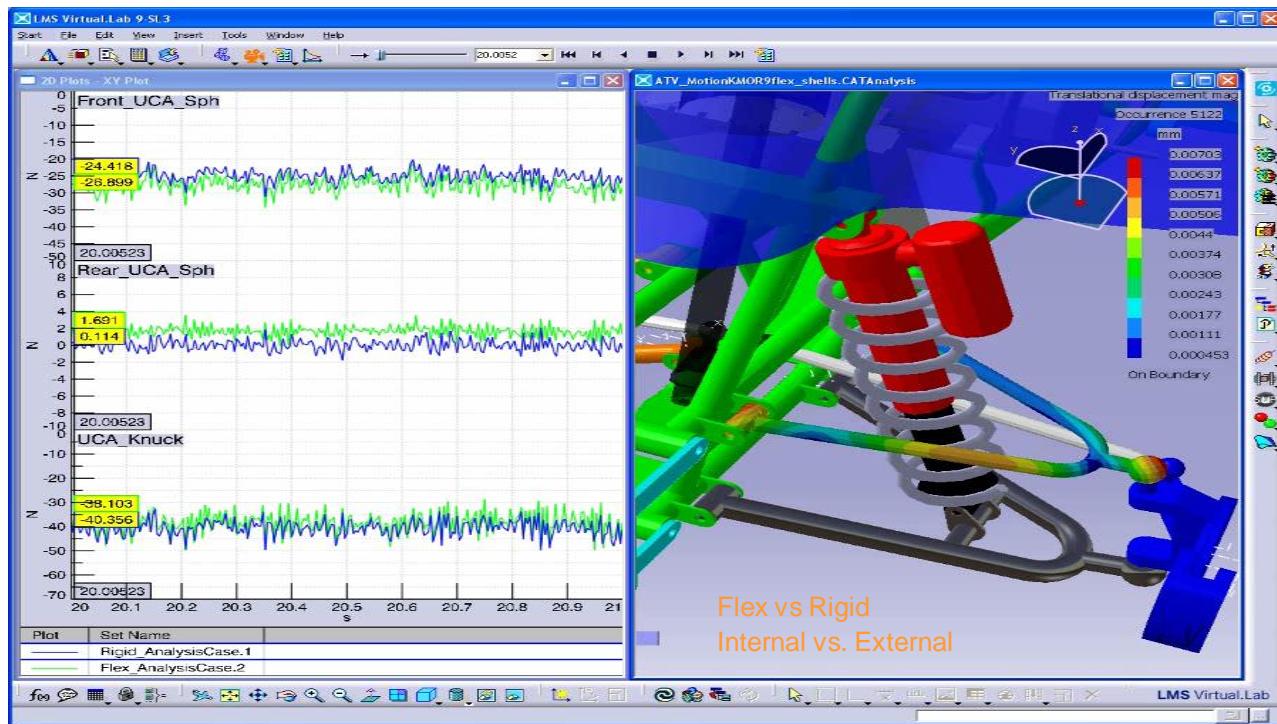
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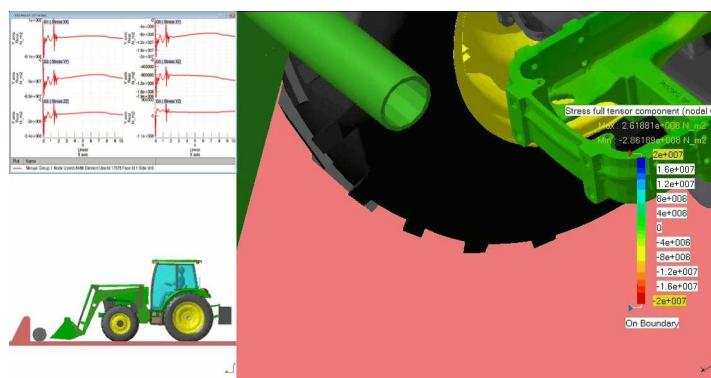
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## John Deere uses Virtual.Lab Motion to simulate Stress Time-history of Loader Operation

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Identify stress levels and hotspots in front cross member during common loader maneuver.

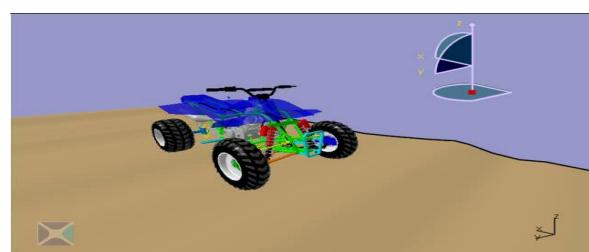


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# QUARTER CAR FLEX BODY DEMO

How to get Simulated Loads to Match Test ?

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## Considerations...

- Is a physical prototype available?
- Only track data from predecessor or similar vehicle is available
- MBS model of the new vehicle is not fully detailed
  - Driver behavior difficult to simulate
  - Soil effects
  - Tire effects

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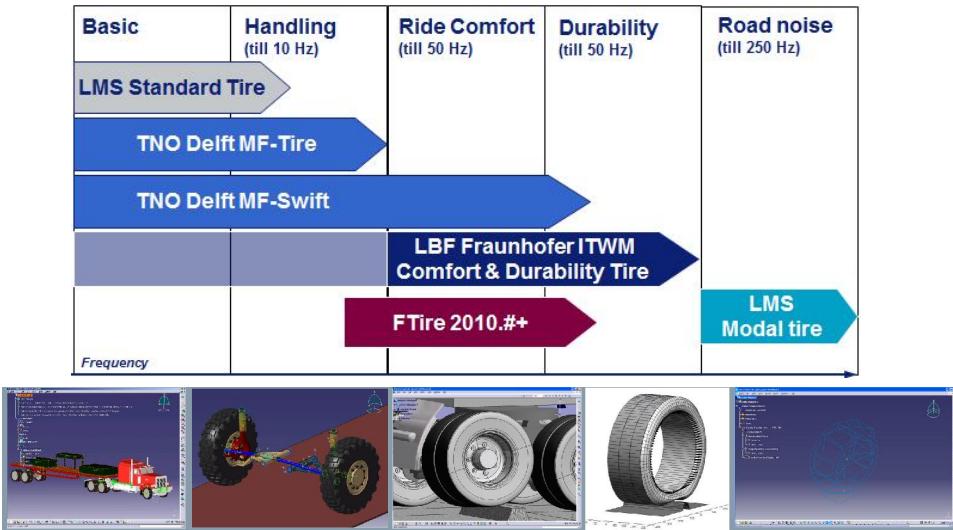
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## LMS Virtual.Lab Motion Multiple Tire Solutions

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## Physical Test-Rig

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..and as if “Regular Tires” weren’t hard enough already..

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## Durability Test Rigs tackle a remarkably similar problem

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Goal:

- Have the rig reproduce the same loads as seen on a test track
- More repeatability, controllability, measurability

But there are "errors"

- Tires often removed
- Instrumentation attached
- The rig itself has its own dynamics directly coupled

Rig Control Algorithms solve this problem



Time Waveform Replication, a.k.a. "TWR"

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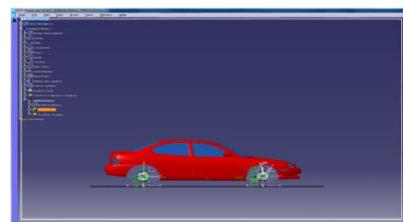
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## Hybrid Road: Unconstrained full vehicle simulation

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Road measurement F, M at spindles



Direct application of loads to unconstrained vehicle will cause the vehicle to rotate / roll over after short simulation time ↳ unacceptable



LMS Virtual.Lab MotionTWR

Vertical loads are used to **back-calculate** (**Motion TWR**) the equivalent vertical displacement at the tire patch/wheel center.

The other forces moments are applied directly.



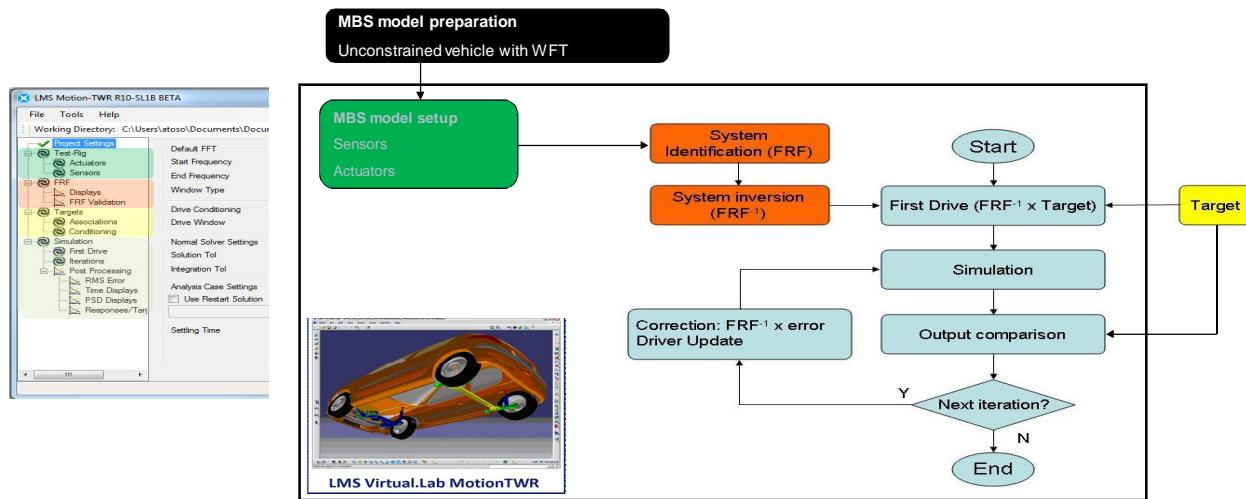
It's an **inverse dynamic** problem that a normally a general purpose multi-body code cannot handle

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## LMS Motion TWR workflow

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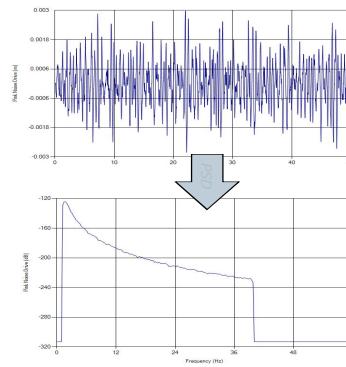
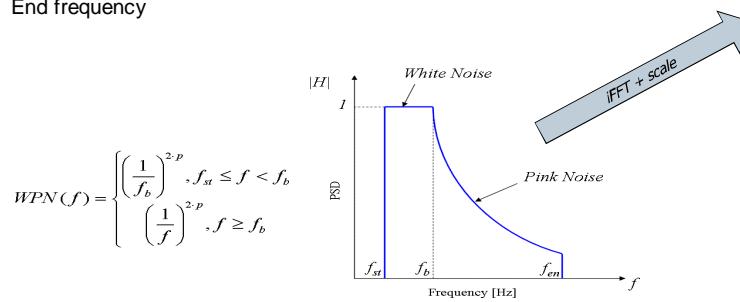
# LIVE TWR DEMO w/MOTION

## System Identification (1/2)

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White Pink noise is generated in the frequency band of interest with:

- Standard deviation
- Border frequency
- Power
- Start frequency
- End frequency



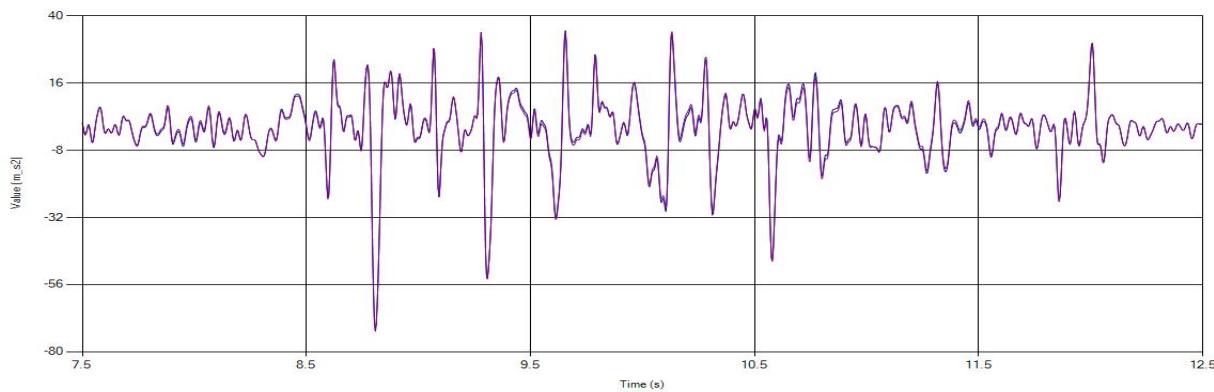
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## Results – time domain

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Response vs. Target – Iteration 5



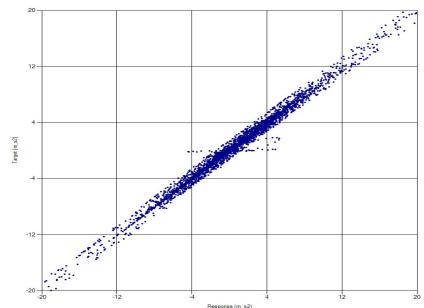
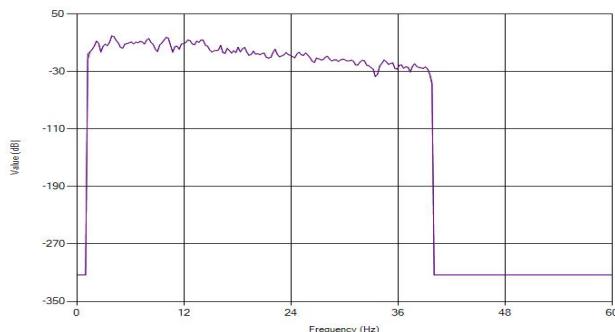
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## Results – frequency domain and XY plot

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Response vs. Target – Iteration 5



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## CAE Durability Road Loads Prediction Current industry practice

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**Full Vehicle Loads**  
Hybrid CAE-TEST

**Simulation set-up:**  
(Predecessor) WFT measurements  
Unconstrained MBS model of predecessor & new vehicle

**Model excitations:**  
Driving function (usually displacements and loads) which are back-calculated from measurements

- + Realistic simulation
- + Accurate body loads
- + Avoid tire, road, and driver modeling
- + More responses available
- Still test data required

LMS Motion-TWR

**Full Vehicle Loads**  
100% CAE: Digital Test Track

**Simulation set-up:**  
MBS vehicle model  
MBS durability tire model  
3D road surface model  
Driver model  
Driveline model

**Model excitations:**  
3D road profile

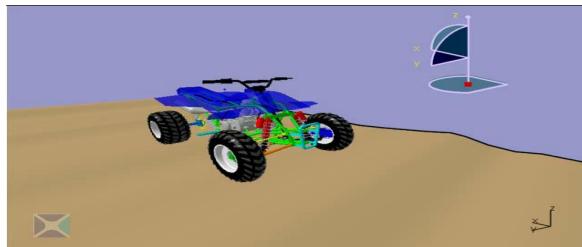
- + "True" forward prediction.  
(No test or predecessor data required)
- + All maneuvers are possible
- Tire, Soil, & Driver parameter identification



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## How to get Simulated Loads to Match Test ?

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### Considerations...

- Is a physical prototype available?
- Only track data from predecessor or similar vehicle is available
- MBS model of the new vehicle is not fully detailed
  - Driver behavior difficult to simulate
  - Soil effects
  - Tire effects

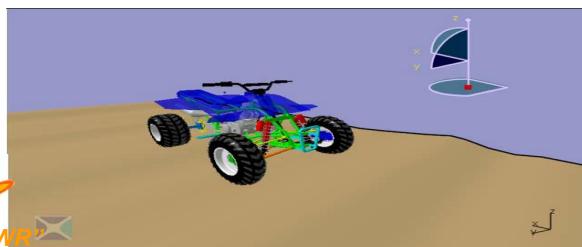
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## How to get Simulated Loads to Match Test ?

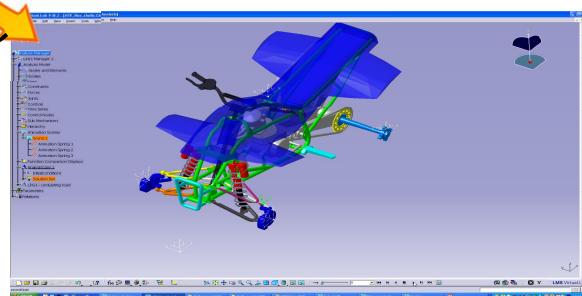


### Considerations...

- Is a physical prototype available?
- Only track data from predecessor or similar vehicle is available
- MBS model of the new vehicle is not fully detailed
  - Driver behavior difficult to simulate
  - Soil effects
  - Tire effects

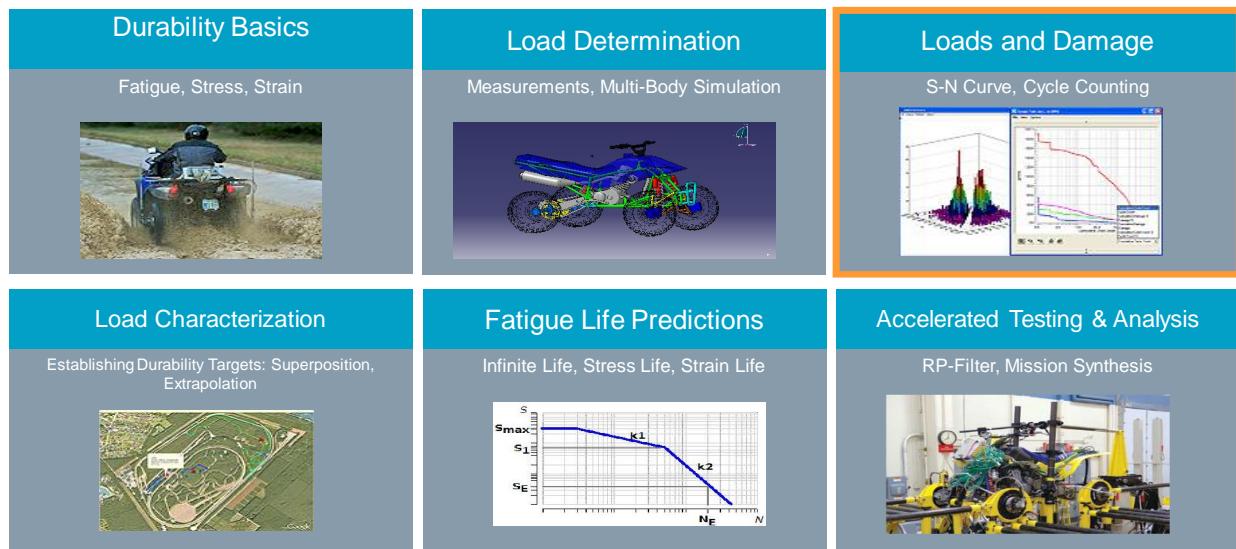
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## Durability Agenda

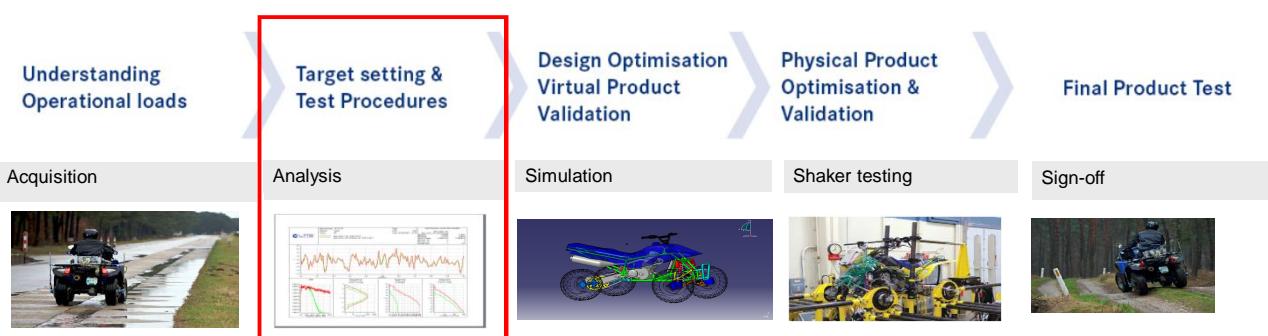


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## The Durability Process

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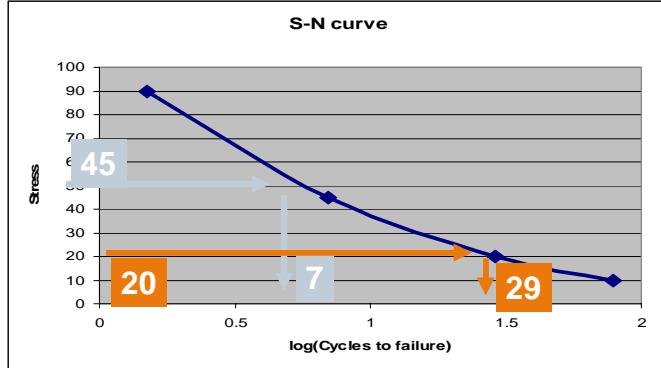


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## The SN Curve

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### Cycles to Failure from a Constant Amplitude Load test

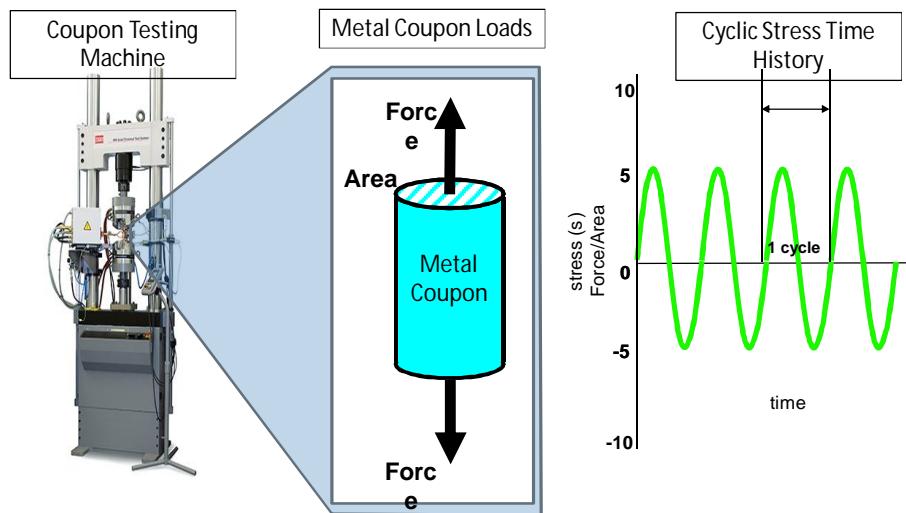
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## SN Curve

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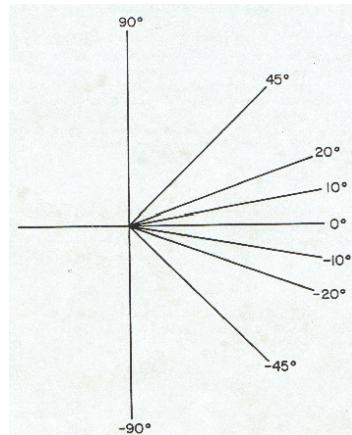


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## What is an S-N curve ? The Jumbo Paper Clips experiment



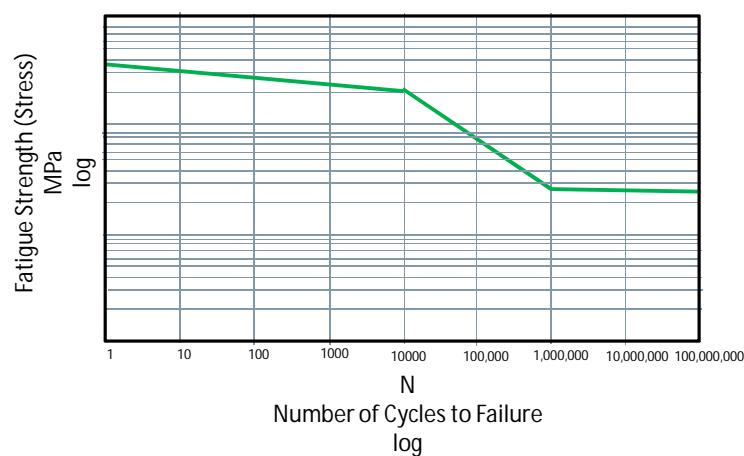
Angle / Load	Cycles to failure
90	1.5
45	7
20	29
10	79

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## SN-Curve

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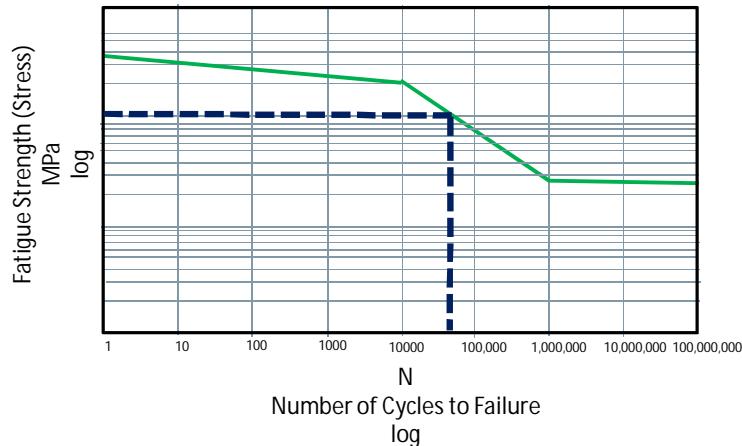


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## SN Curve

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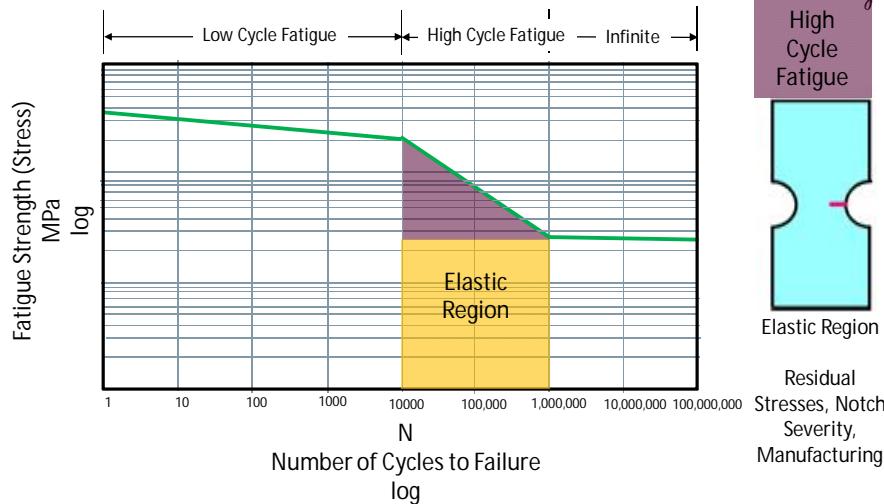


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## SN Curve

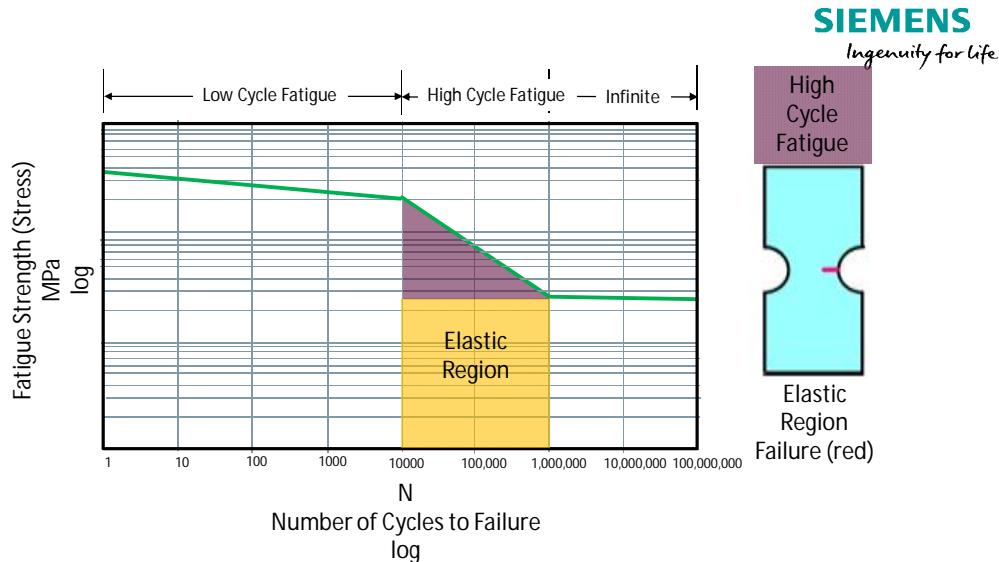
**SIEMENS**  
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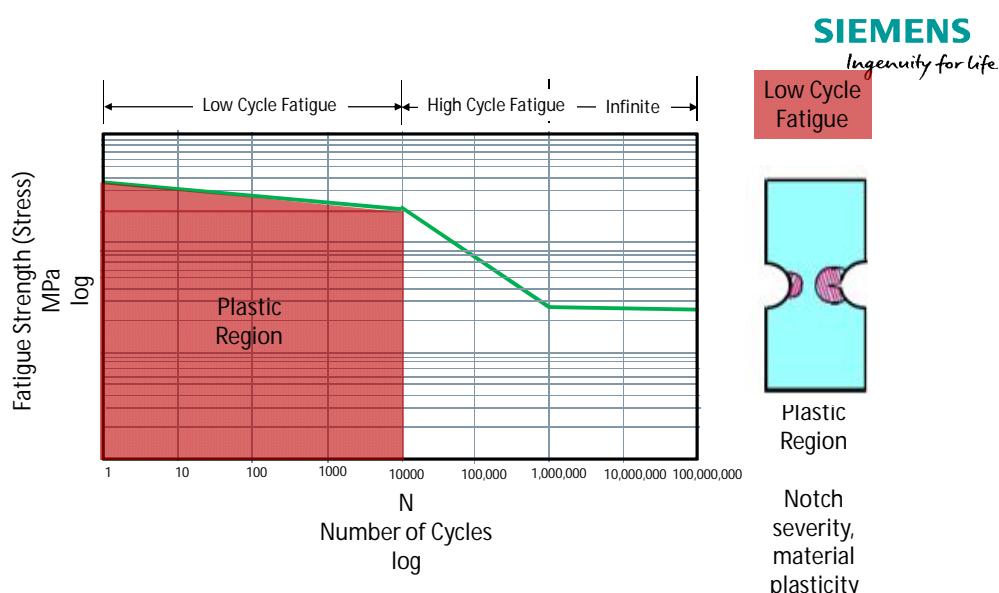
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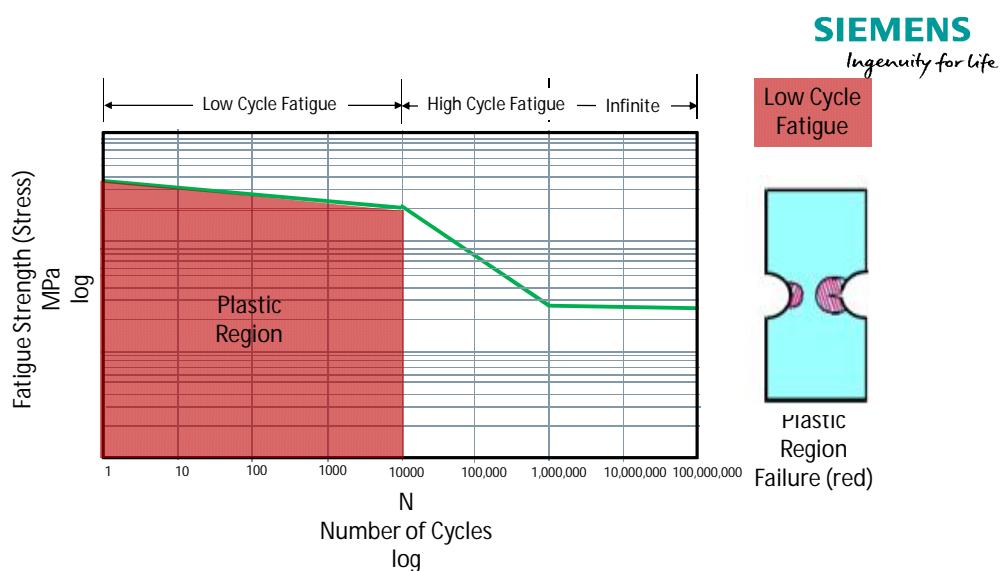
## SN Curve



## SN Curve



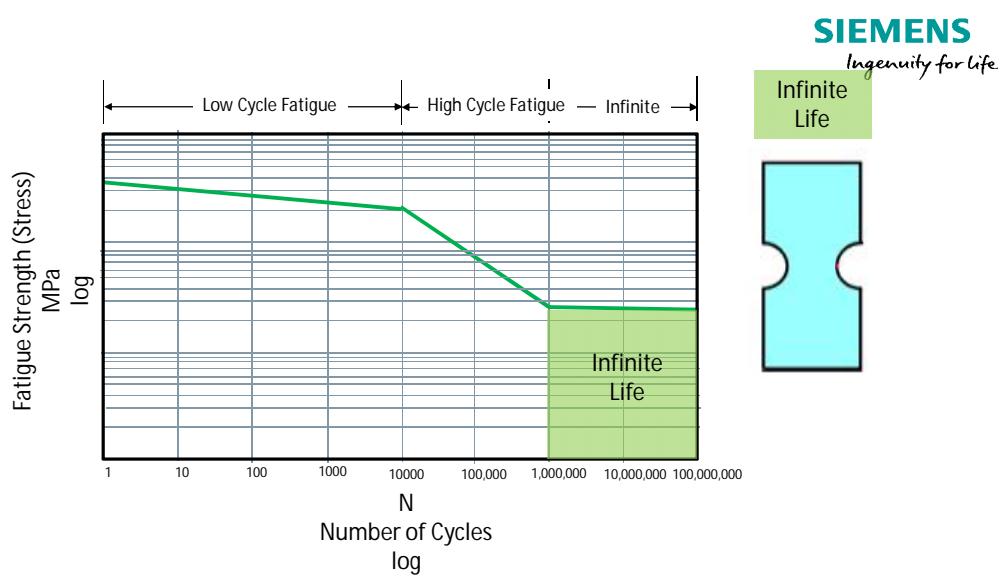
## SN Curve



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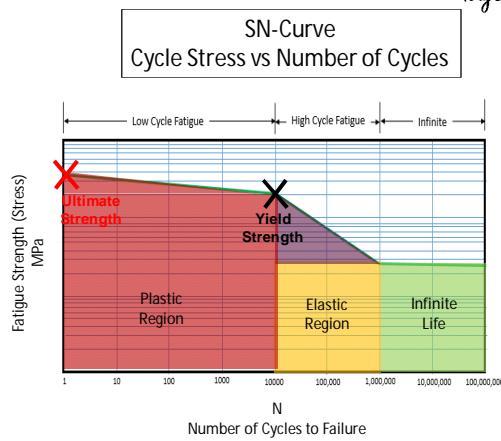
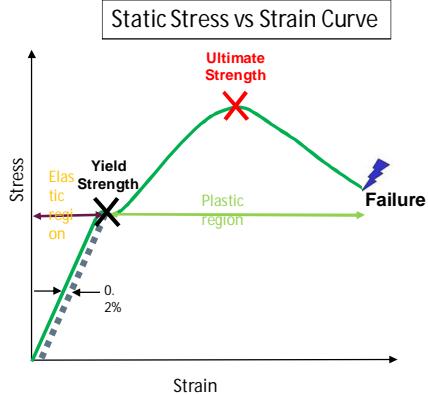
## SN Curve



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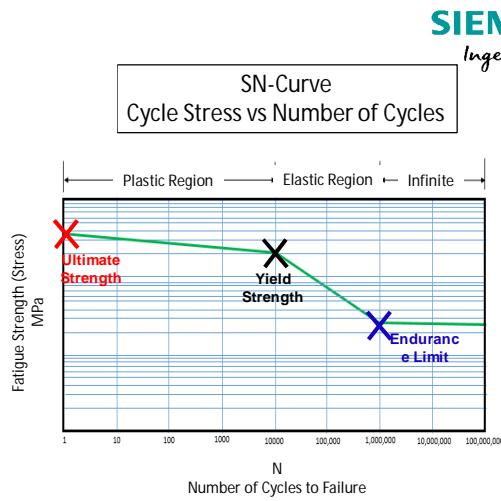
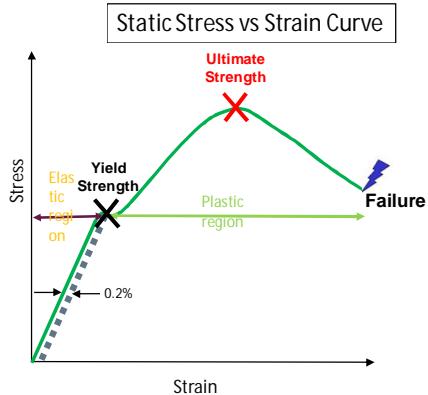
## SN Curve



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## SN Curve

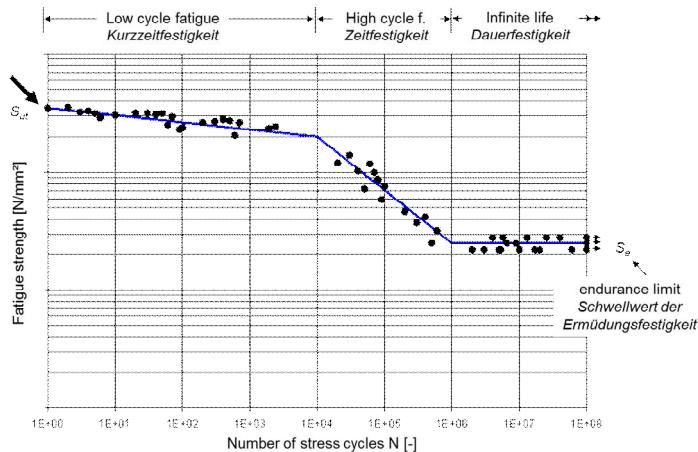


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## What is an S-N curve ?

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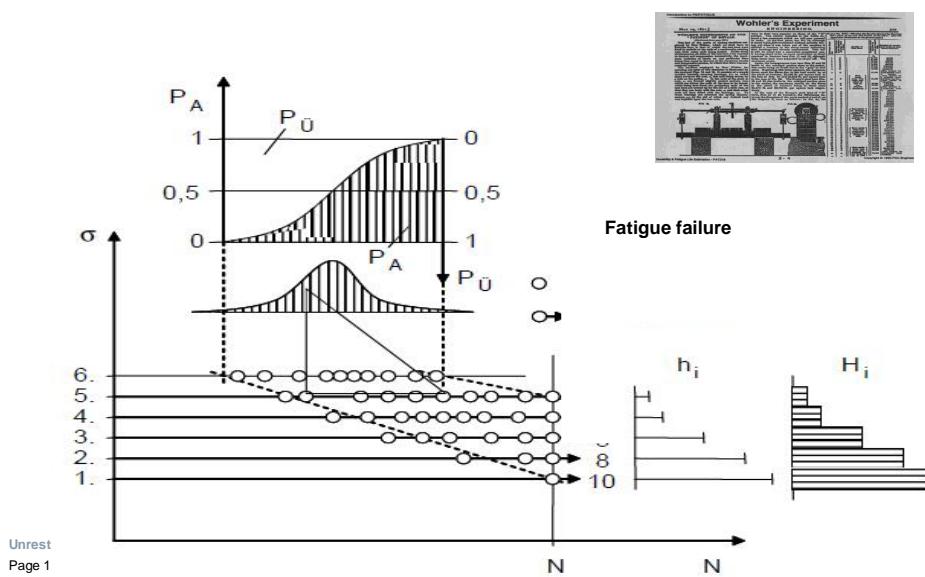


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## What is an S-N curve ? Wöhler tests

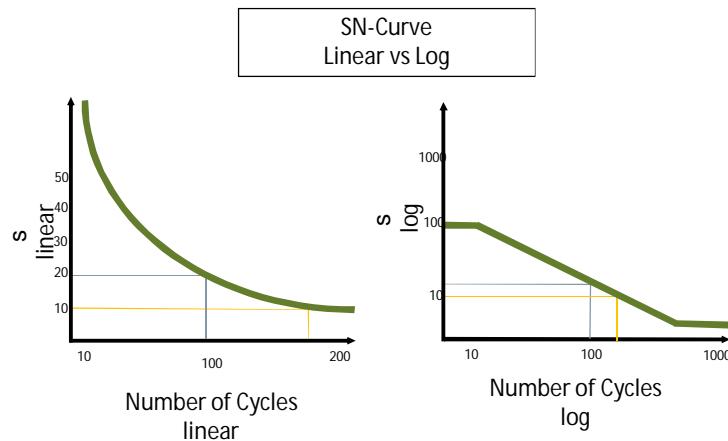
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## SN Curve

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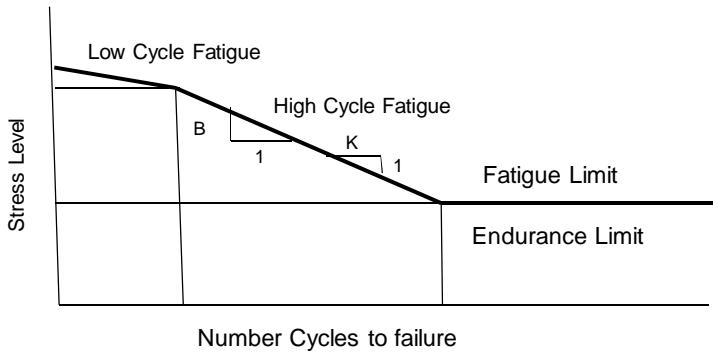


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## Regions of the SN Curve

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$$k = -\frac{1}{b}$$

$$N_2 = N_1 \left( \frac{S_1}{S_2} \right)^k$$

$$N_2 = N_1 \left( \frac{S_1}{S_2} \right)^{-1/b}$$

- Fatigue limit, endurance limit:

- Expressions used to describe a property of materials: the amplitude (or range) of cyclic stress that can be applied to the material without causing fatigue failure .
- Ferrous alloys and titanium alloys have a distinct limit, an amplitude below which there appears to be no number of cycles that will cause failure

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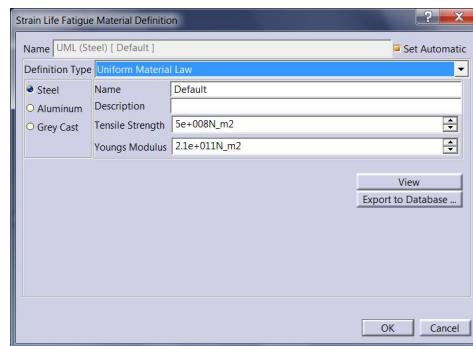
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## Uniform Material Law (EN) / Universal Slope Law (SN)

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For steel, aluminum and titanium alloys, extensive statistical studies have been conducted that show a correlation between the ultimate tensile strength and the fatigue properties

The UML estimation of these properties requires input of the elastic modulus (E) and tensile strength (Smax ) of the



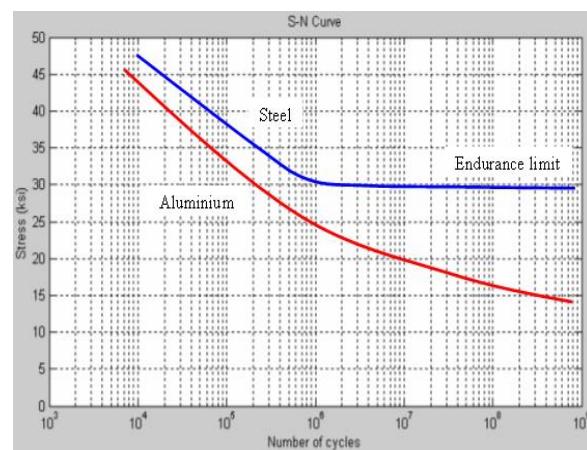
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## Endurance (Fatigue) limit

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Material	Endurance or Fatigue Limit (maximum)
Steel (typical - 0.5 * UTS)	690 MPa
Iron alloys (0.4 * UTS)	165 MPa
Aluminium alloys (0.4 * UTS)	131 MPa
Copper (0.4 * UTS)	97 MPa



Note : Fatigue ratio = ratio between endurance limit and tensile strength

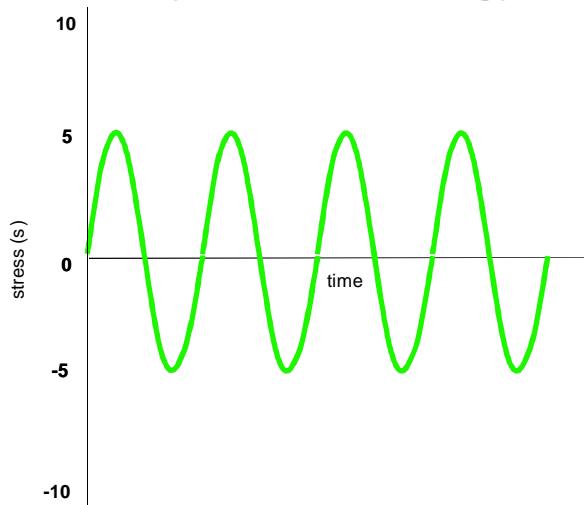
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## Load Cycle Terminology

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What is one  
cycle?



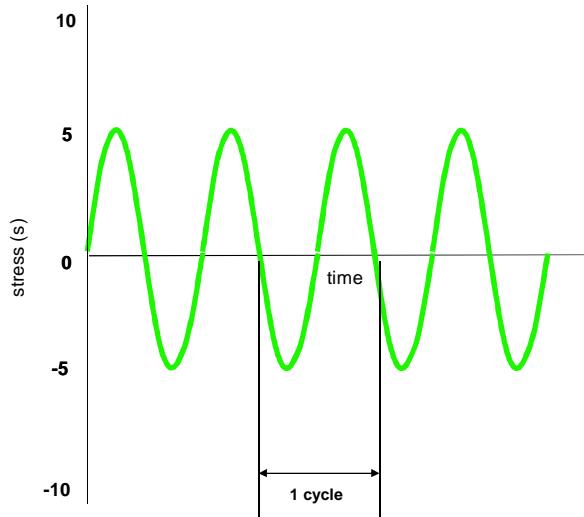
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## Load Cycle Terminology

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What is one  
cycle?



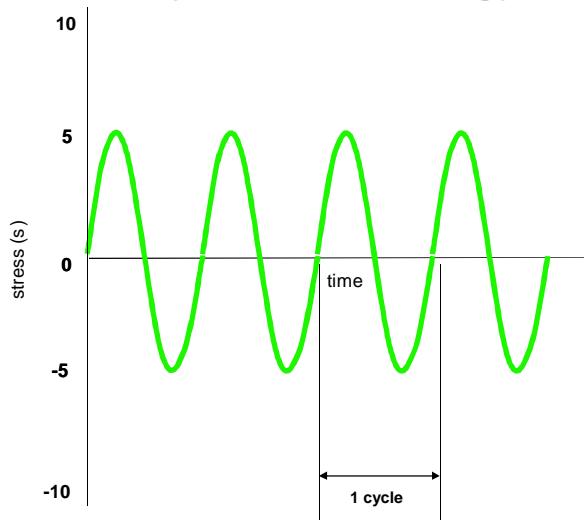
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## Load Cycle Terminology

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What is one  
cycle?



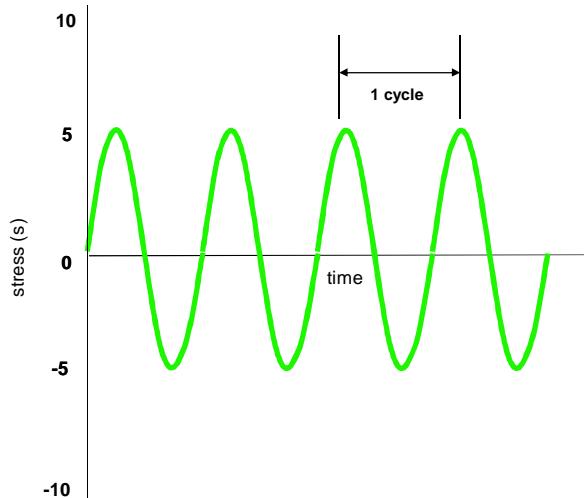
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## Load Cycle Terminology

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What is one  
cycle?

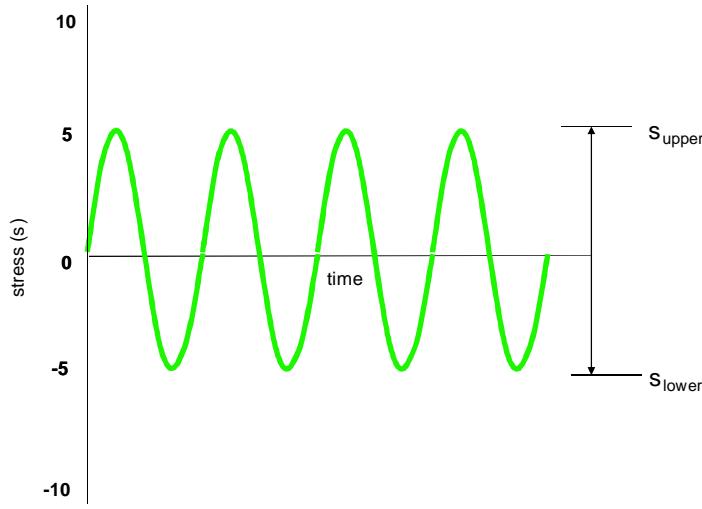


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## Load Cycle Terminology

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**What is amplitude of cycle?**

$$s_a = (s_u - s_l)/2$$

Sometimes called  
“alternating stress”

$$s_a = (5 - (-5))/2$$

$$s_a = (10)/2$$

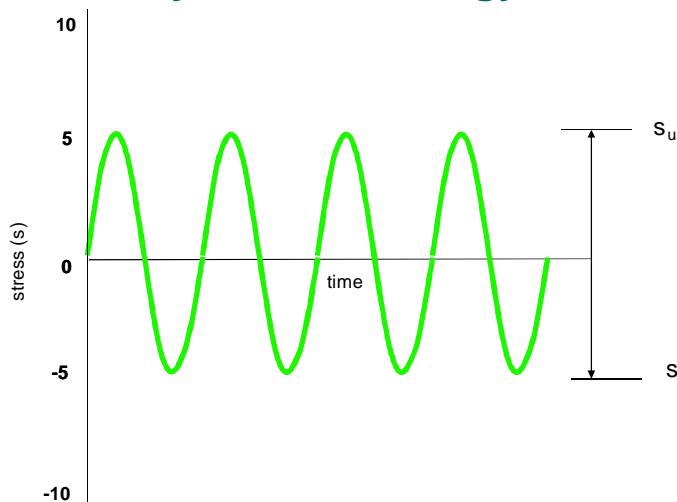
$$s_a = 5$$

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## Load Cycle Terminology

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**What is range of cycle?**

10

$$s_r = s_u - s_l$$

$$s_r = 5 + 5$$

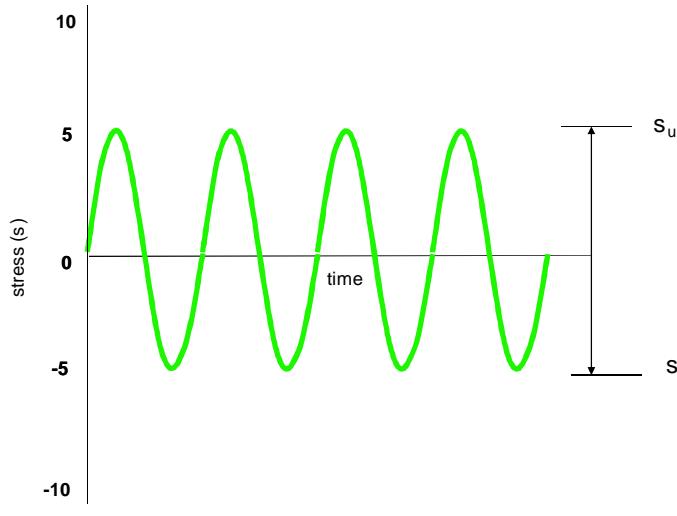
$$s_r = 10$$

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## Load Cycle Terminology

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What is  
average/mean of  
cycle?

0

$$s_a = (s_u + s_l)/2$$

$$s_a = (5 - 5)/2$$

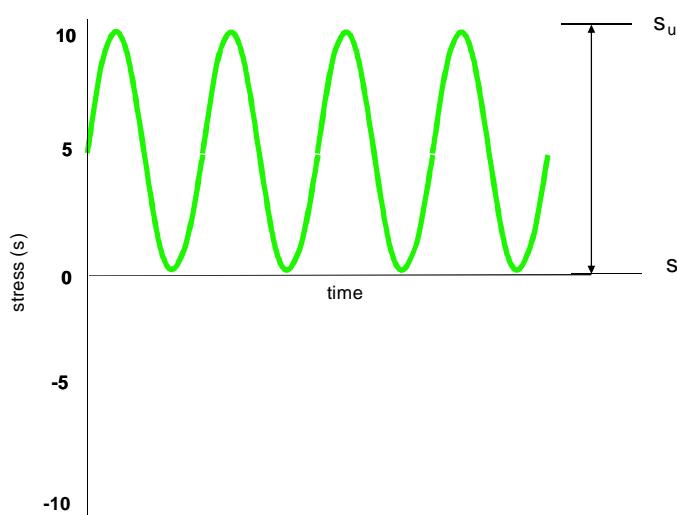
$$s_a = 0$$

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## Load Cycle Terminology

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Has amplitude of  
cycle changed?

NO

$$s_a = (s_u - s_l)/2$$

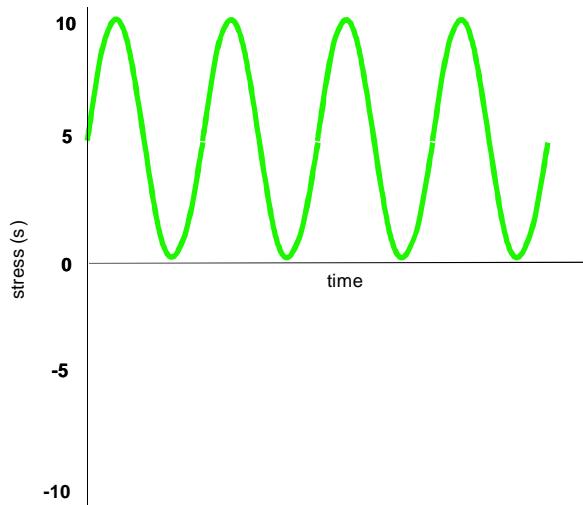
$$s_a = (10 - 0)/2$$

$$s_a = 5$$

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## Load Cycle Terminology



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**SIEMENS**  
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Has average/mean  
of cycle changed?

YES

Mean = 5

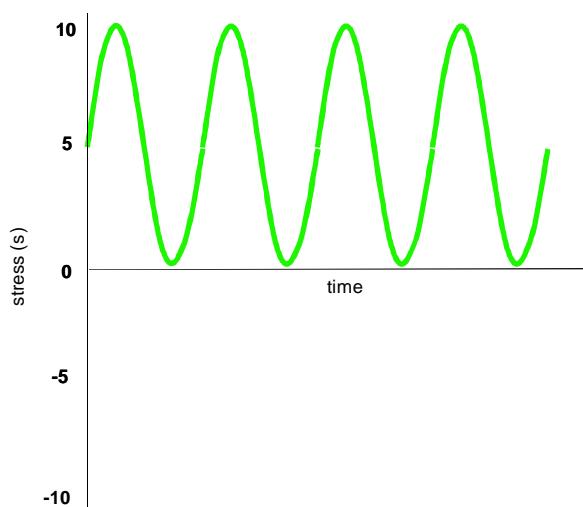
$$s_a = (s_u + s_l)/2$$

$$s_a = (10 + 0)/2$$

$$s_a = 5$$

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## Load Cycle Terminology



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**SIEMENS**  
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Has average/mean  
of cycle changed?

YES

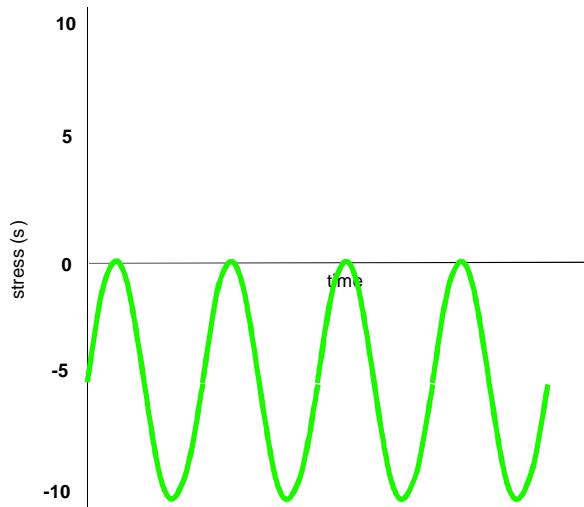
Mean = 5

Tension

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## Load Cycle Terminology

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Has average/mean  
of cycle changed?

YES

Mean = -5

Compression

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### Famous People In Fatigue



Hooke's Law of  
Elasticity in  
1660

Sir Robert Hooke  
British  
(1635-1703)

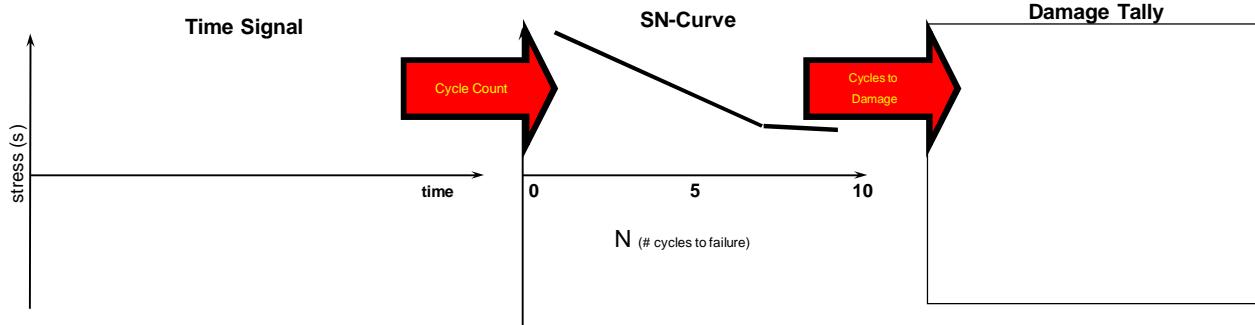


Wöhler  
curves in  
1867

August Wöhler  
German  
(1819-1914)

## SN Curve – Miner's Rule

**SIEMENS**  
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### Key:

$D_{tot}$  = Total Damage (when D=1, failure occurs)

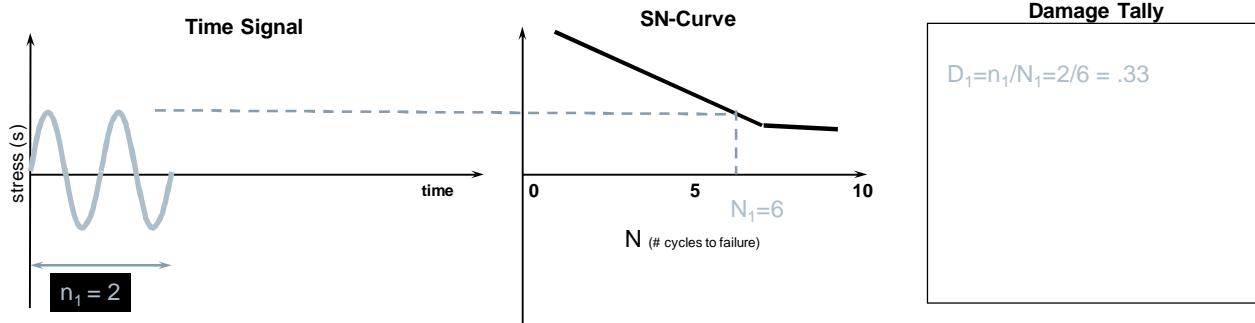
$N$  = # of Cycles to failure from SN Curve

$n$  = # of Cycles in load signal

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## SN Curve – Miner's Rule

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### Key:

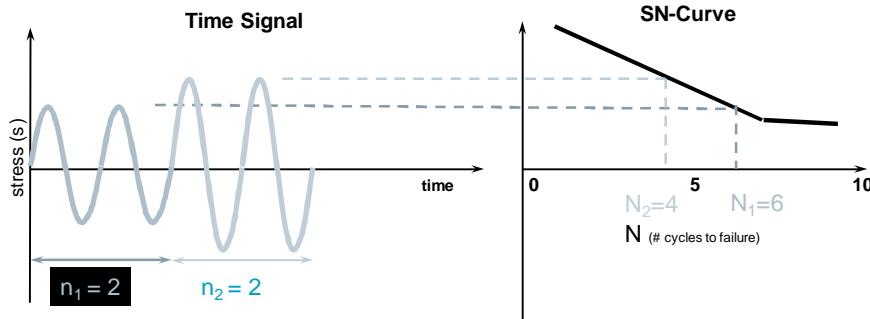
$D_{tot}$  = Total Damage (when D=1, failure occurs)

$N$  = # of Cycles to failure from SN Curve

$n$  = # of Cycles in load signal

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## SN Curve – Miner's Rule



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### Damage Tally

$$D_1 = n_1/N_1 = 2/6 = .33$$

$$D_2 = n_2/N_2 = 2/4 = .5$$

$$D_{\text{tot}} = D_1 + D_2$$

$$D_{\text{tot}} = .33 + .5 = .83$$

No Failure!

#### Key:

$D_{\text{tot}}$  = Total Damage (when  $D=1$ , failure occurs)

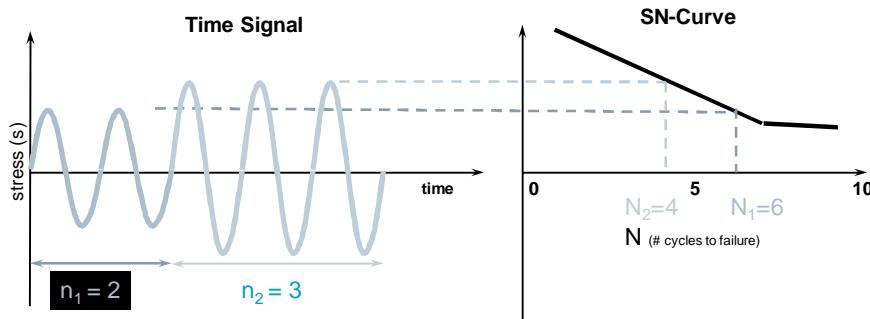
$N$  = # of Cycles to failure from SN Curve

$n$  = # of Cycles in load signal

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## SN Curve – Miner's Rule



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### Damage Tally

$$D_1 = n_1/N_1 = 2/6 = .33$$

$$D_2 = n_2/N_2 = 3/4 = .75$$

$$D_{\text{tot}} = D_1 + D_2$$

$$D_{\text{tot}} = .33 + .75 = 1.08$$

Failure!

#### Key:

$D_{\text{tot}}$  = Total Damage (when  $D=1$ , failure occurs)

$N$  = # of Cycles to failure from SN Curve

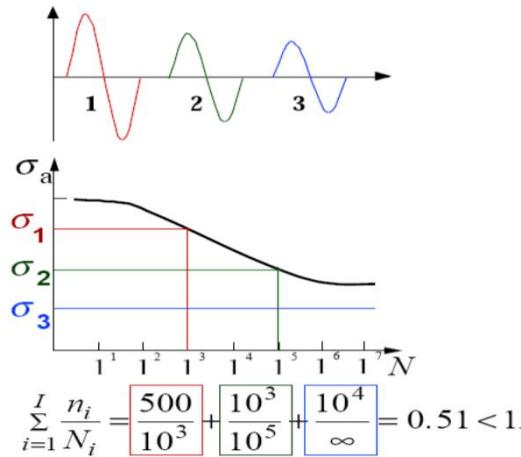
$n$  = # of Cycles in load signal

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How to understand fatigue content of loads ?

Palmgren (1924)-Miner (1945). Damage accumulation rule



Assume that, during the service life, we have 500 loadings of type 1 (defined by mid-value and magnitude), 1000 loadings of type 2 and 10000 loadings of type 3, the Palmgren – Miner rule states that failure occurs when

$$\sum_{i=1}^I \frac{n_i}{N_i} = 1$$

where  $n_i$  is the number of applied load cycles of type  $i$ , and  $N_i$  is the pertinent fatigue life

# SINE COUNTING DEMO

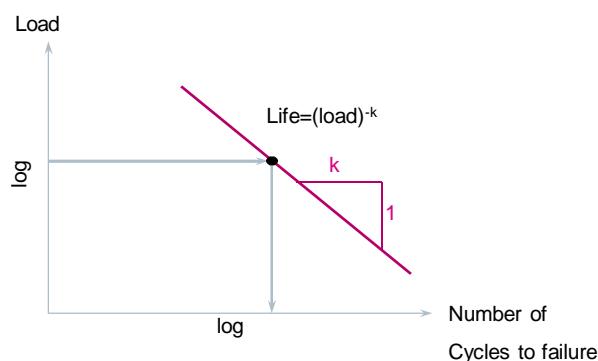
Tec.Ware with sines.ldsf

# SINE CHANGE AMPLITUDE DEMO

Tec.Ware with sines.ldsf

**Life very sensitive to changes in load**

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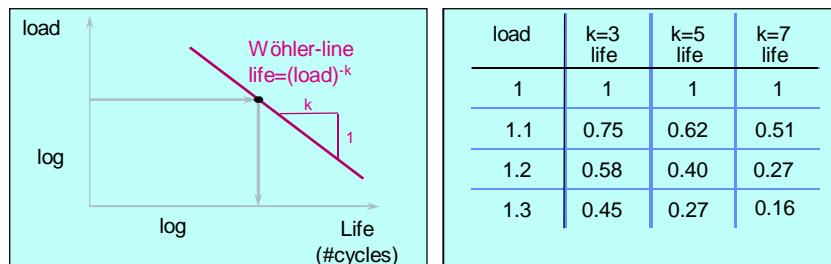


Number of cycles to failure  
is a function of Load and k factor

Load	k	5
1	1	1
1.15	0.5	0.5
0.87	2	2

Reducing the cyclic load applied to an optimally shaped steel component with 13% doubles life

## Logarithmic nature of fatigue



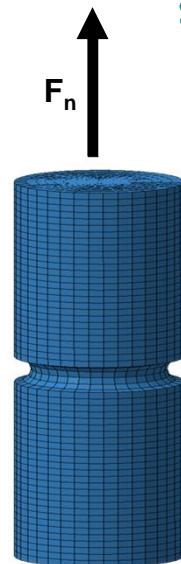
As k increases, small changes in load cause big change in life

## What about Simulation?

### Finite Element Models are used

- When  $F_n=1$ : referred to as a “Static Unit Load Case”
- Stress is calculated at each element – as opposed to a predetermined location
- because real geometry is more complex than this . . .

\* Normal Stress

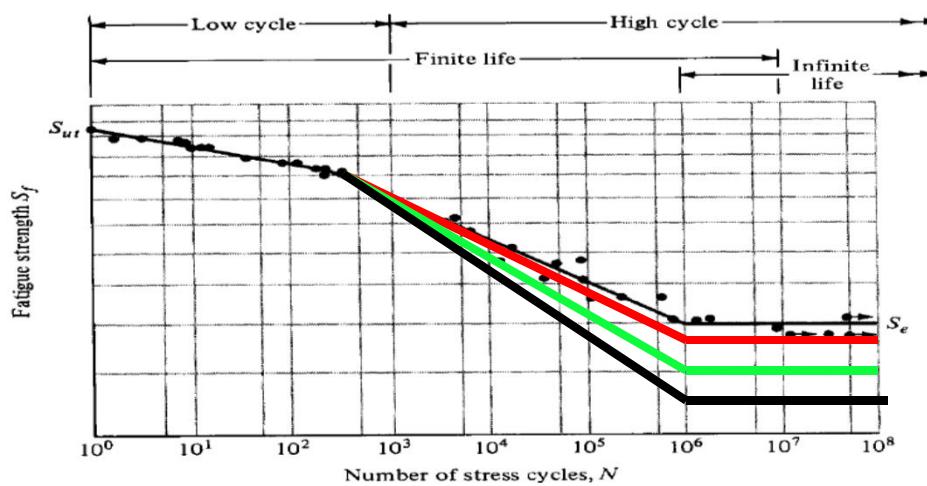


# VIRTUAL LAB DEMO

## Double amplitude damage

### S-N Curve Adjustments

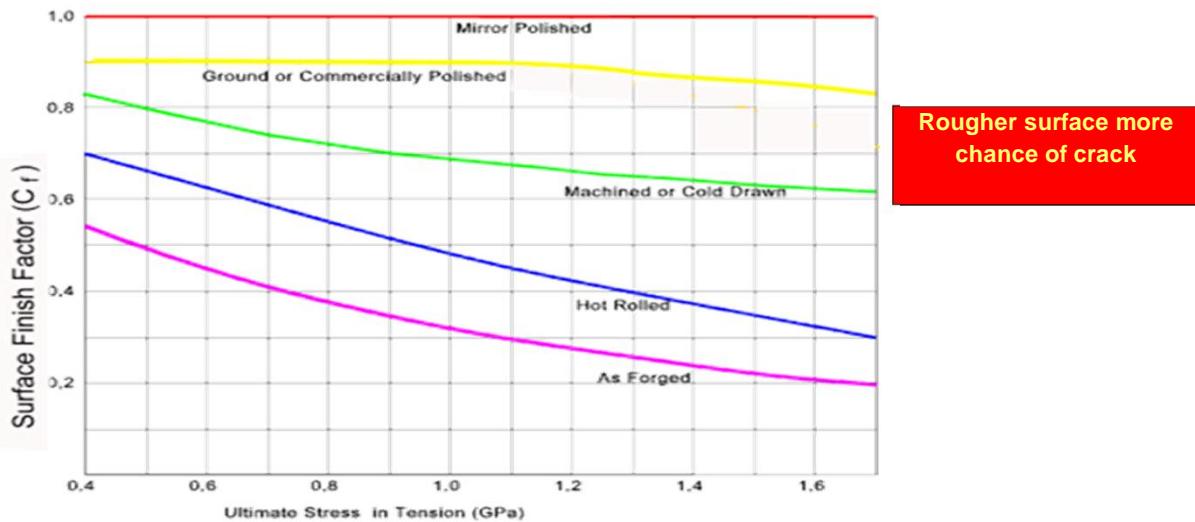
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**Completely reversed cyclic stress, UNS G41200 steel**

## SN Curve Adjustments: Surface Finish

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[http://www.roymech.co.uk/Useful\\_Tables/Fatigue/FAT\\_Mod\\_factors.html](http://www.roymech.co.uk/Useful_Tables/Fatigue/FAT_Mod_factors.html)

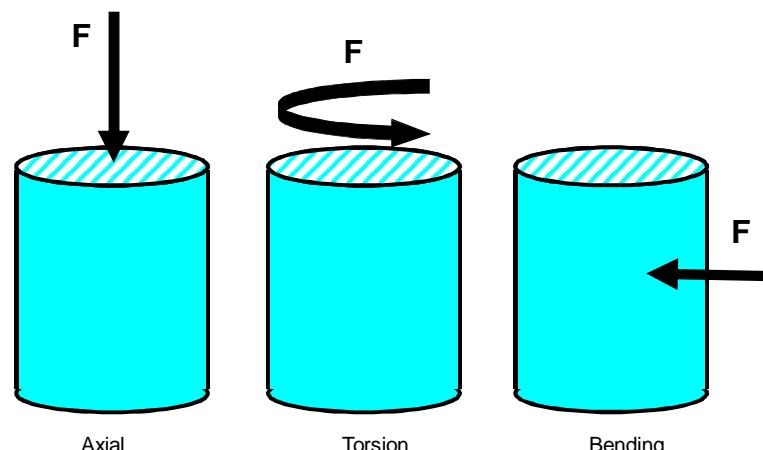
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## SN Curve Adjustments: Loading

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Rotating Beam Fatigue Tester



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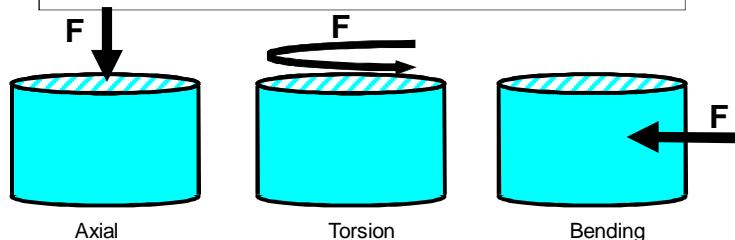
## SN Curve Adjustments: Loading

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"Fatigue Testing and Analysis" Lee, Pan, Hathaway

TABLE 4.1.1 Load Factors,  $C_L$

Type of Loading	$C_L$	Comments
Pure axial loading	0.9	
Axial loading (with slight bending)	0.7	
Bending	1.0	
Torsional	0.58	For steels
Torsional	0.8	For cast iron



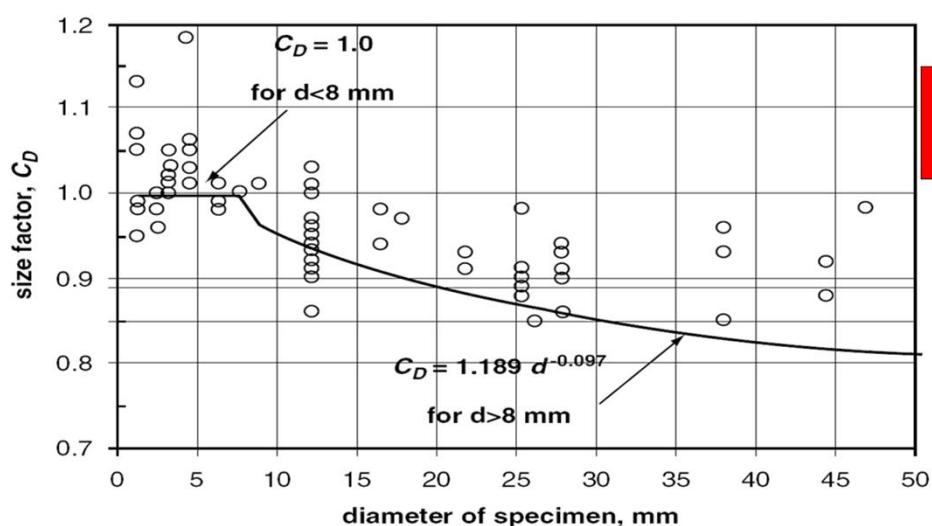
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## SN Curve Adjustments: Size

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## SN Curve Adjustments: Size

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Bigger = BAD  
(For same stress!)

$$C_s = \begin{cases} 1.0 & D \leq 10\text{mm} \\ 0.9 & 10 \leq D \leq 50\text{mm} \\ 1 - \frac{D - 0.76}{380} & 50 \leq D \leq 230\text{mm} \end{cases}$$

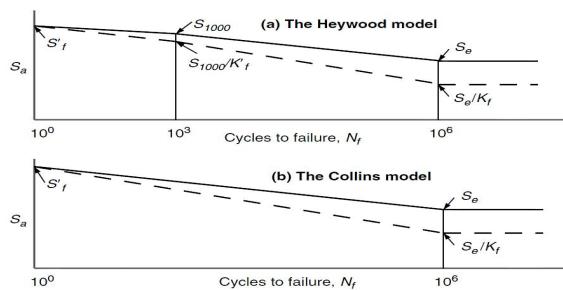
[http://www.efunda.com/formulae/solid\\_mechanics/fatigue/fatigue\\_factor.cfm](http://www.efunda.com/formulae/solid_mechanics/fatigue/fatigue_factor.cfm)

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## Notch Factors

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"Fatigue Testing and Analysis" Lee, Pan, Hathaway

Endurance Limit is divided by the fatigue notch factor

$$S'_e = \frac{S_e}{K_f}$$

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### Theoretical Stress Concentration Factor

(Function of Geometry)

$$K_T = \frac{S_{\max}}{S} \quad \begin{matrix} \text{Max Local Stress} \\ \text{Nominal Stress} \end{matrix}$$

### Notch Sensitivity Factor q

$$q = \frac{1}{1 + \sqrt{\frac{\rho}{r}}} \quad \begin{matrix} r = \text{root radius} \\ \rho = \text{material Property} \end{matrix}$$

$$q = \frac{K_f - 1}{K_T - 1}$$

### Fatigue Notch Factor

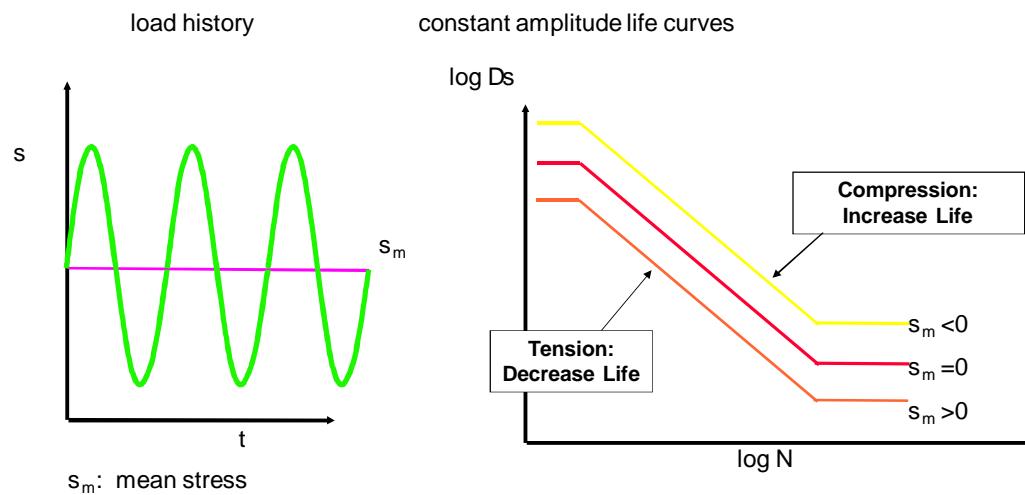
(Function of Geometry and material)

$$K_f = \frac{S_e(\text{unnotched})}{S_e(\text{notched})} \quad 1 \leq K_f \leq K_T$$

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## SN Curve Adjustments: Mean Stress

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And More

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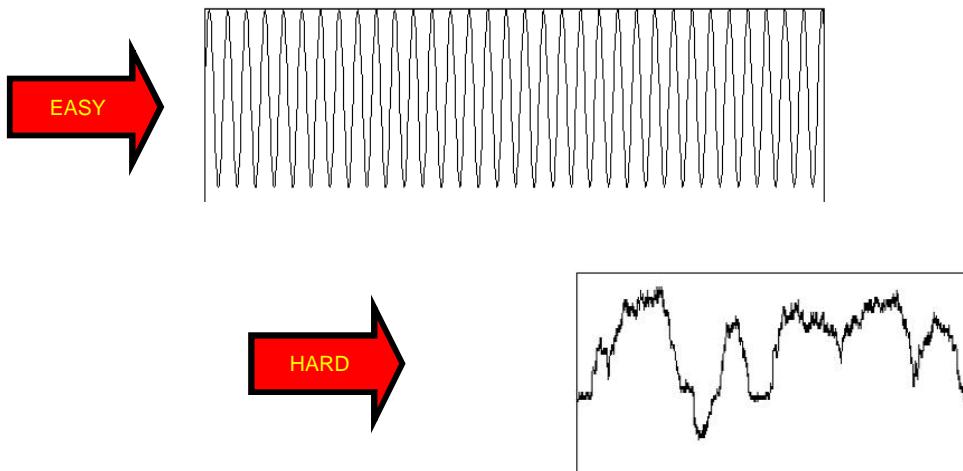
NOT  
EVERYTHING IS  
A SINE WAVE!

SINE SUM  
DEMO

Tec.Ware with sines.ldsf

## Cycle Counting

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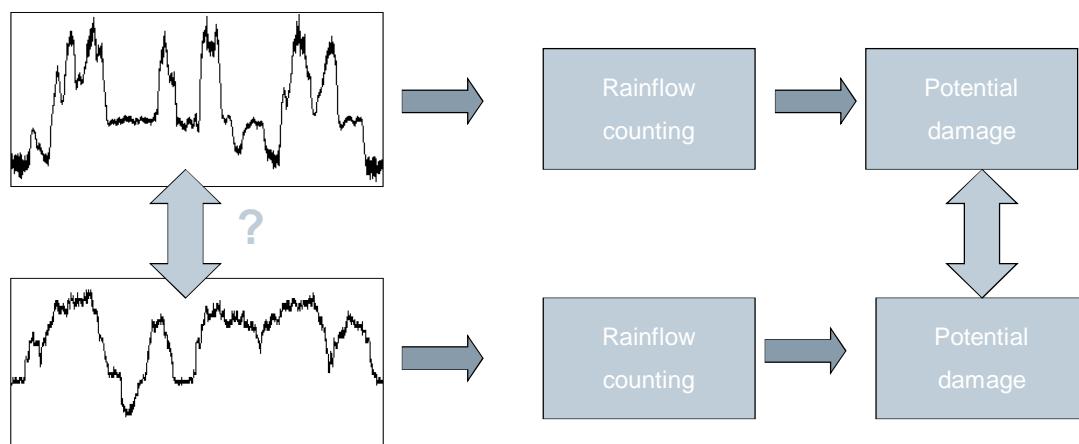


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## Comparison of 2 measurements

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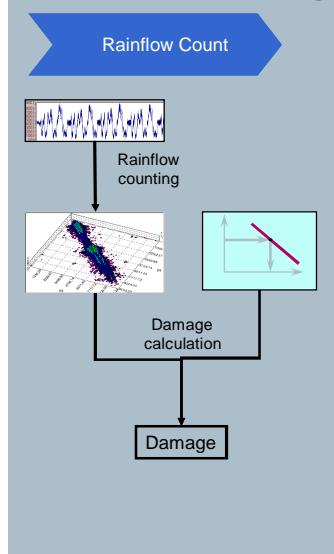


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## Durability load data processing Rainflow counting - methods

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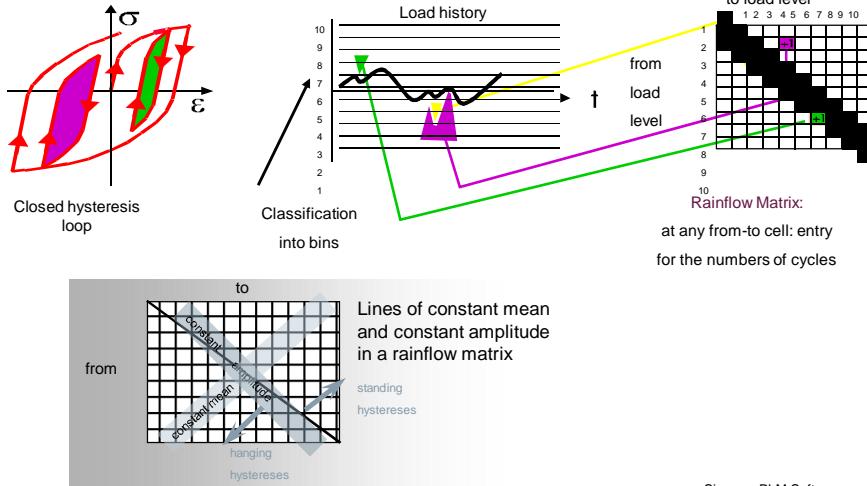


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### • Basic damage event : closed hysteresis loop

- Rainflow counting = counting of closed hysteresis loops in time signal



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## Counting methods in fatigue analysis Rainflow variations

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Endo 1967	First definition
De Jonge 1968	Range-pair-range
Clormann/Seeger 1986	Counting all hysteresis cycles in stress-strain path
	Standard
ASTM 1986	Most effective and general on-line method
4-point counting	Two-dimensional distribution (dimension independent)
Oscillation counting	Mathematical aspect (hysteresis operator, independent of dimension)
Memory counting	

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## Rainflow Counting

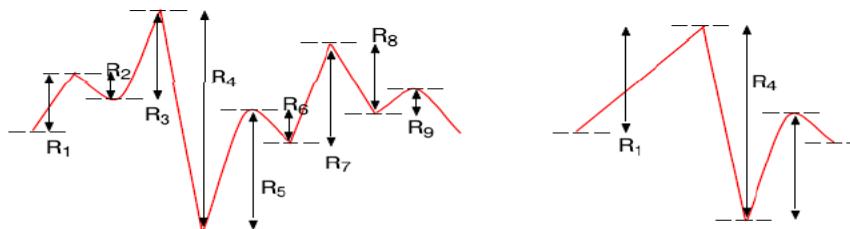
Pre-Processing steps

Steps	Motivation, justification
• Hysteresis filtering	reduces number of samples, endurance limit
• Peak/valley-filtering	reduces number of samples, does not affect hysteresis cycles
• Discretization	necessary for counting

## 4 Point Cycle Counting Technique

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1. Chose four consecutive stress points  $S_1, S_2, S_3, S_4$
2. Define Inner Stress  $|S_2 - S_3|$
3. Define Outer Stress  $|S_1 - S_4|$
4. If inner stress range  $\leq$  to outer stress range and the points comprising the inner stress range are bounded by the outer.



## Famous People In Fatigue



Hooke's Law of Elasticity in 1660

Sir Robert Hooke  
British  
(1635-1703)



Miner's Rule in 1945

MA Miner  
English  
(1915 - 1978)



Wöhler curves in 1867

August Wöhler  
German  
(1819-1914)

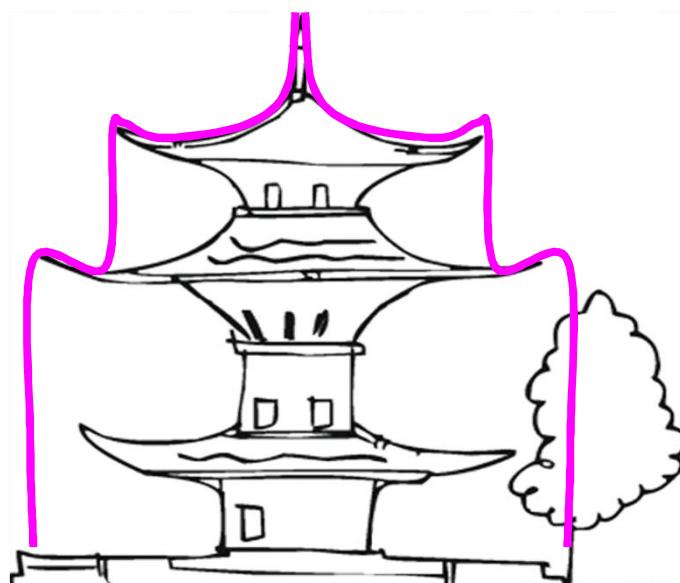


Rainflow Counting in 1968

Tatsuo Endo  
Japan  
(1925 - 1989)

## Rainflow Counting

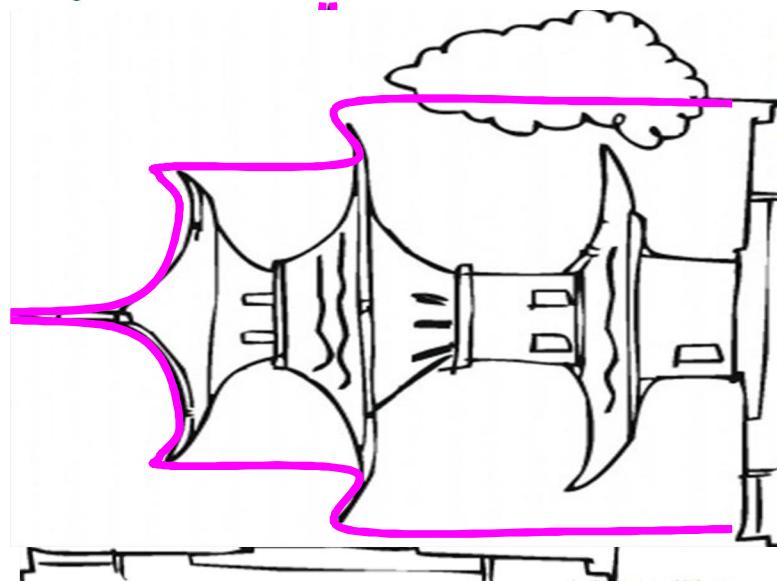
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### Rainflow Counting



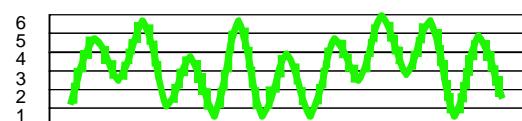
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### Four Point Rainflow Counting

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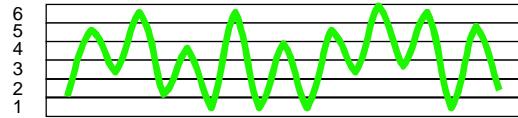


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## Four Point Rainflow Counting

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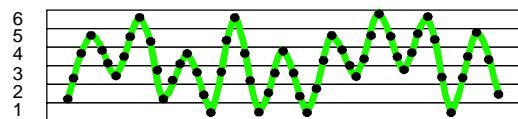


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## Peak Valley

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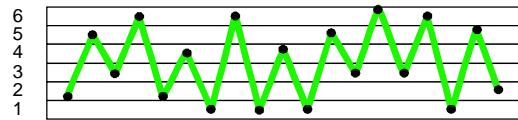


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**Peak-Valley After**

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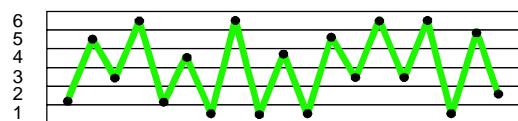


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**Binning Before**

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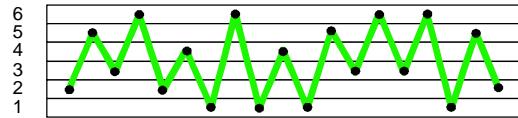


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## Binning After

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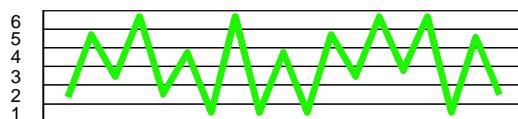


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## Four Point Rainflow Counting

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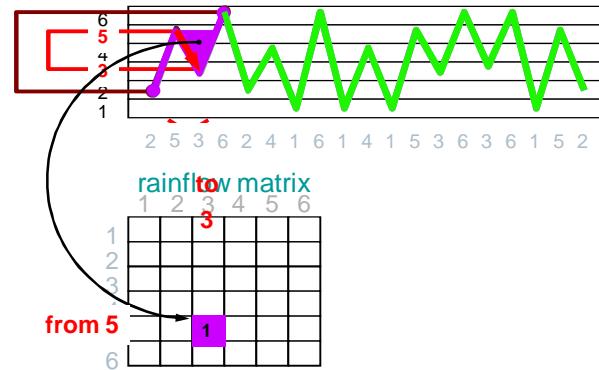


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## Four Point Rainflow Counting

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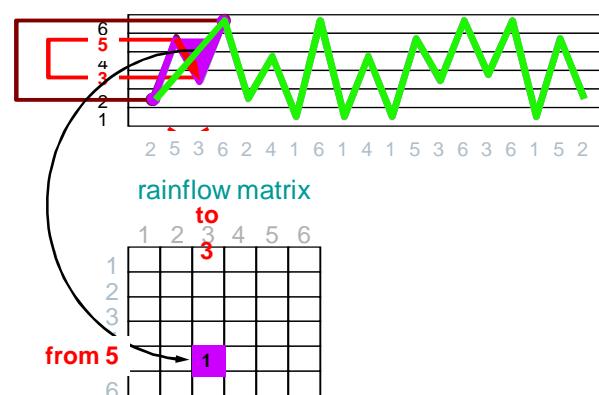


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## Four Point Rainflow Counting

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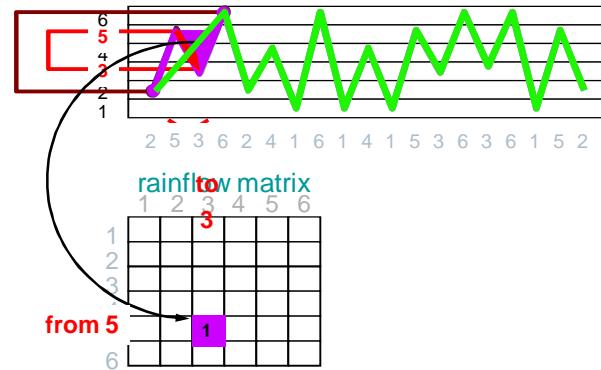


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## Four Point Rainflow Counting

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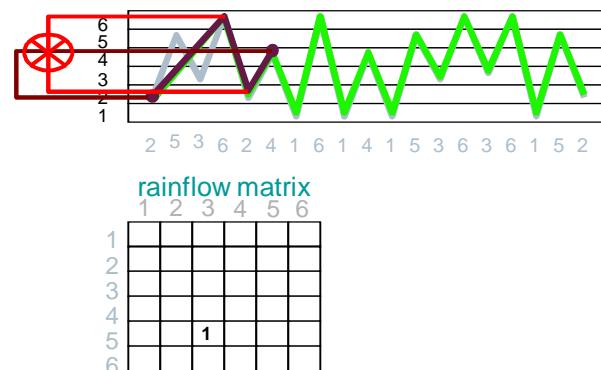


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## Four Point Rainflow Counting

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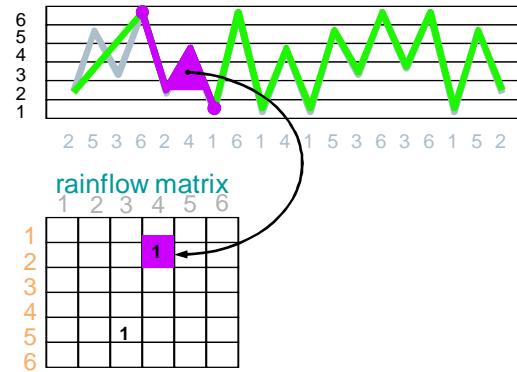


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## Four Point Rainflow Counting

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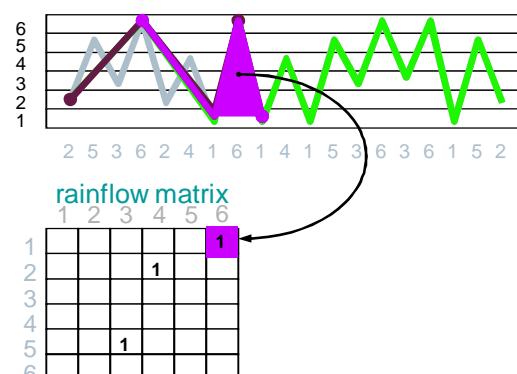


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## Four Point Rainflow Counting

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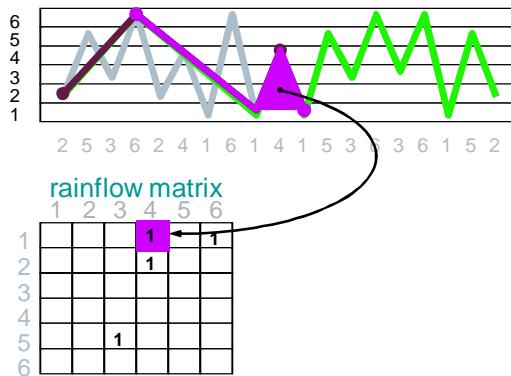


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## Four Point Rainflow Counting

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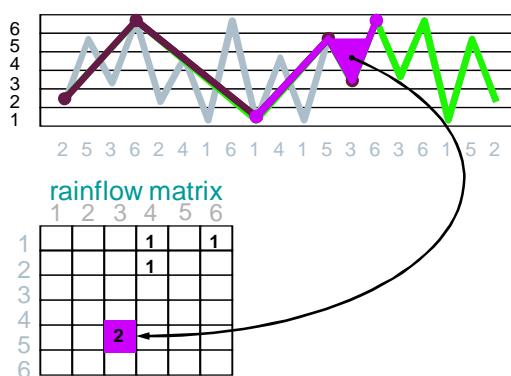


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## Four Point Rainflow Counting

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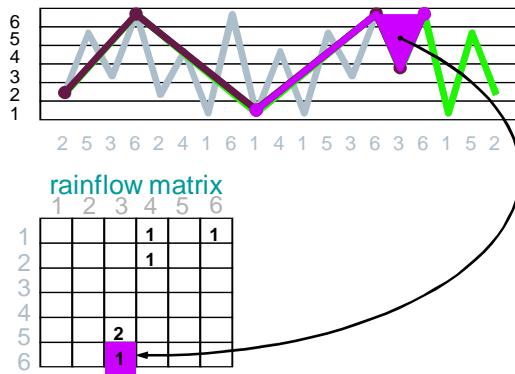


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## Four Point Rainflow Counting

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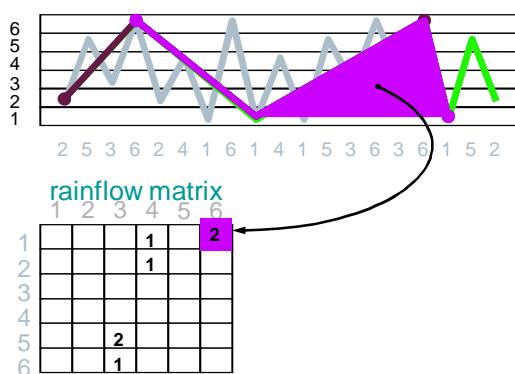


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## Four Point Rainflow Counting

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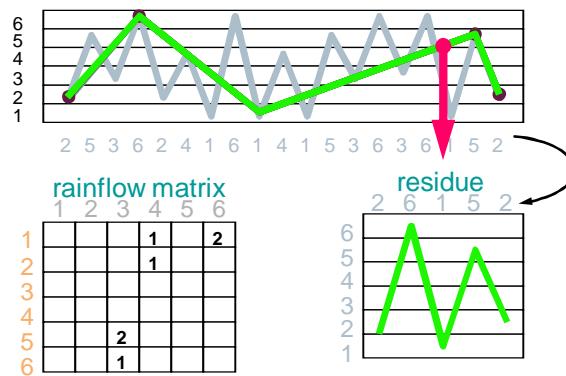


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## Four Point Rainflow Counting

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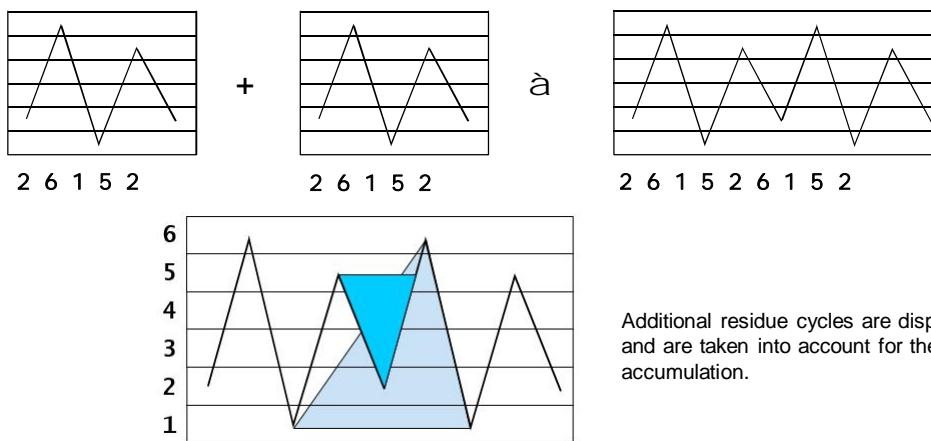
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## Example – Residue Repeated Block

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Residue cycles for a repeated block:

Count the sequence (RES,RES) with the 4-point algorithm



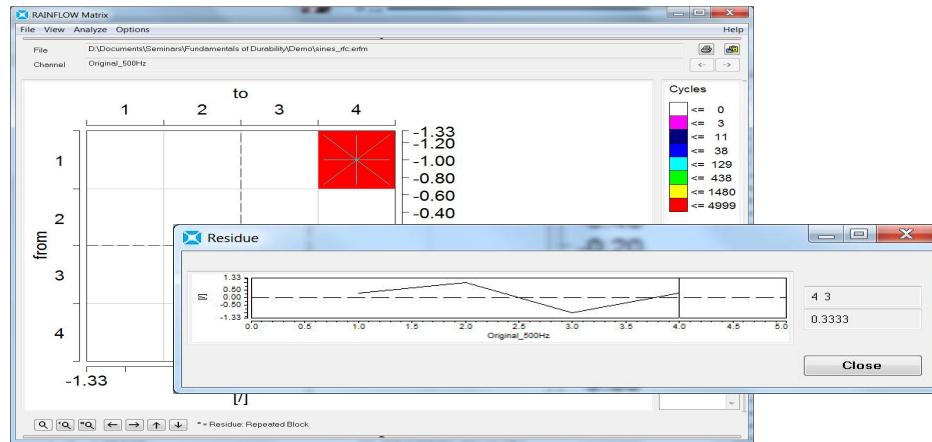
Additional residue cycles are displayed in the matrix (-) and are taken into account for the damage accumulation.

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## Residue

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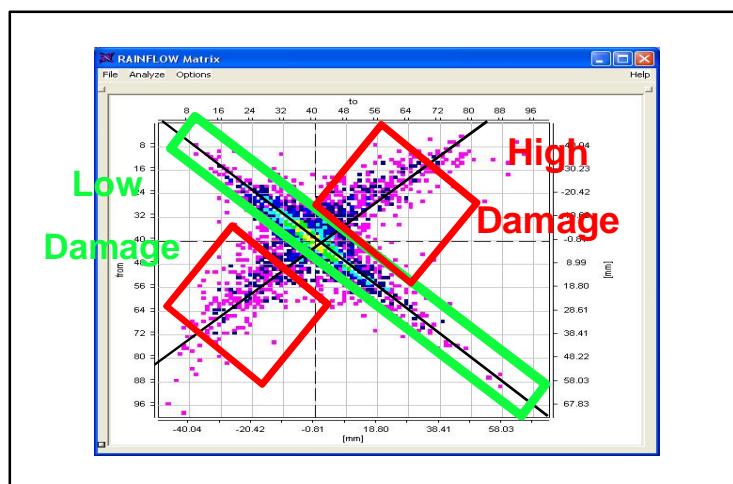


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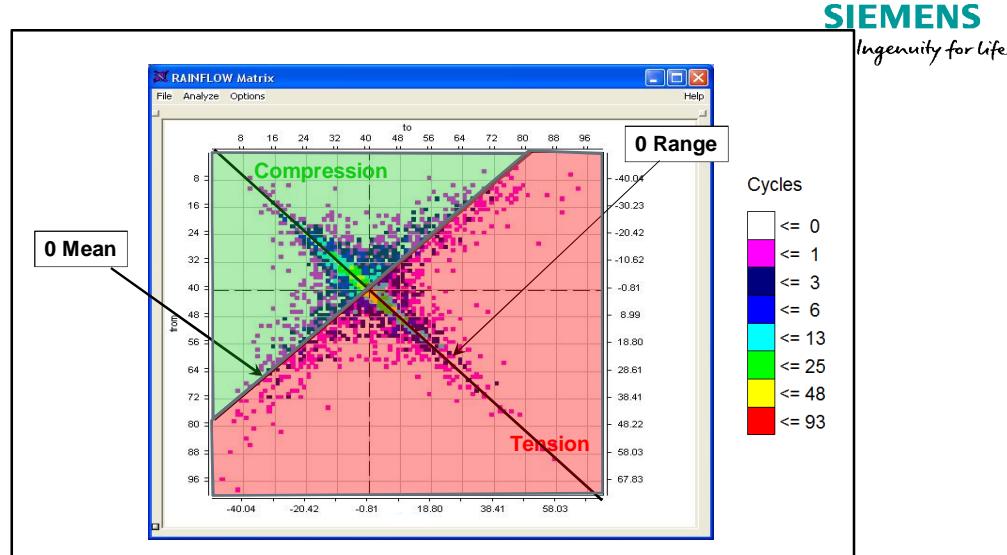
How to understand fatigue content of loads ?  
Rainflow -> RangePair -> Damage distribution

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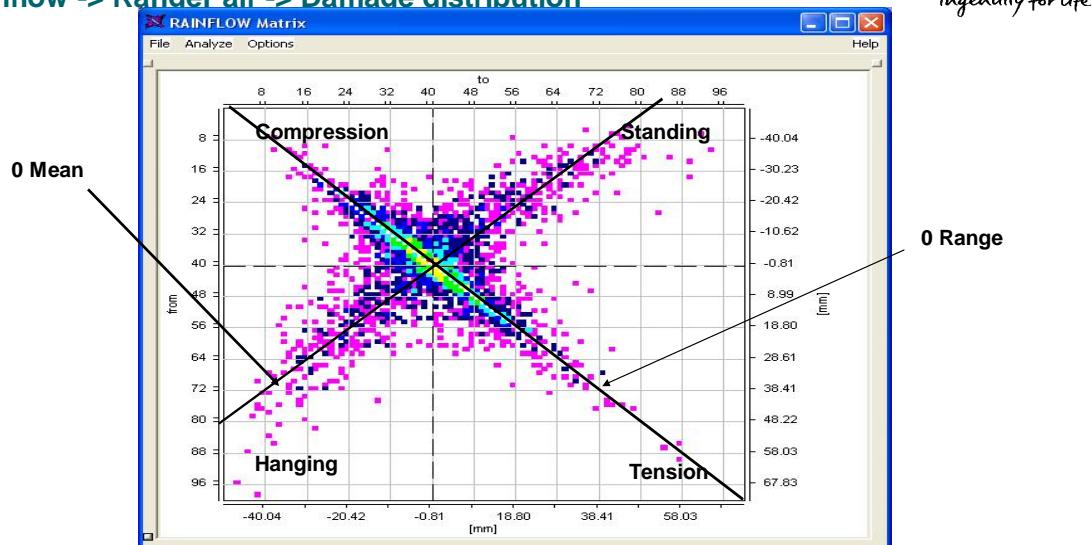


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**How to understand fatigue content of loads ?**  
**Rainflow -> RangePair -> Damage distribution**

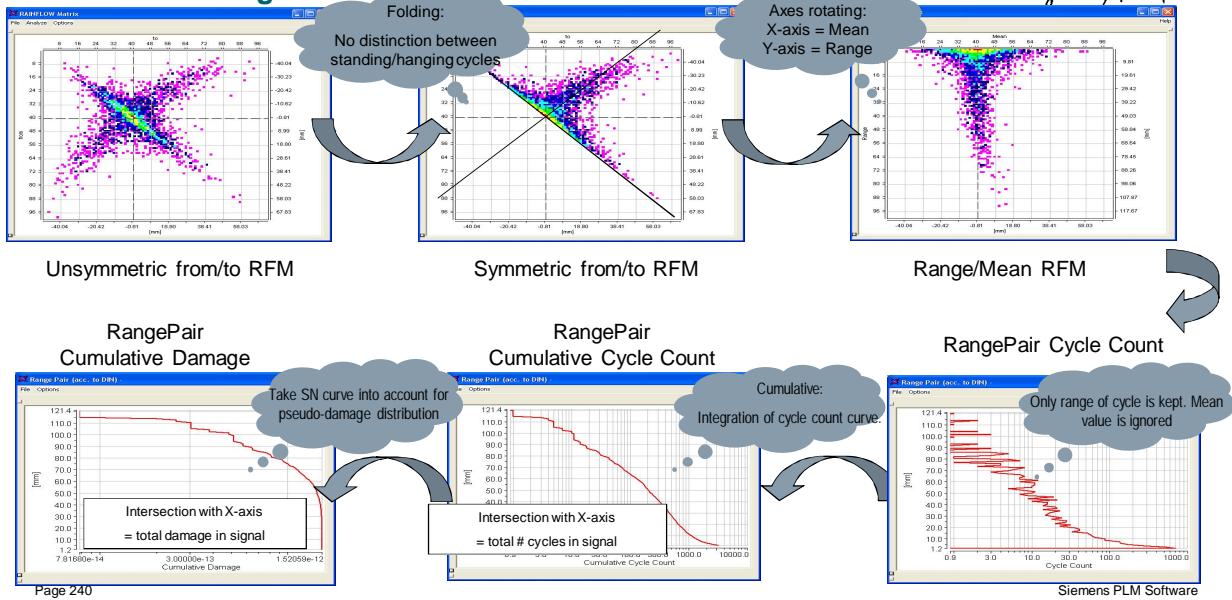


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## How to understand fatigue content of loads ? Rainflow -> RangePair -> Damage distribution – Demo?

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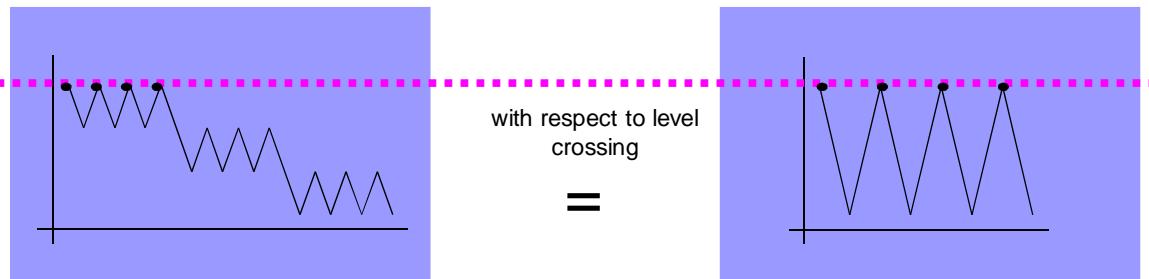


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# REAL DATA RAINFLOW Demo

## Level Crossing versus Rainflow Counting

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Problem:

The amplitude values of the cycles are lost with the level crossing technique

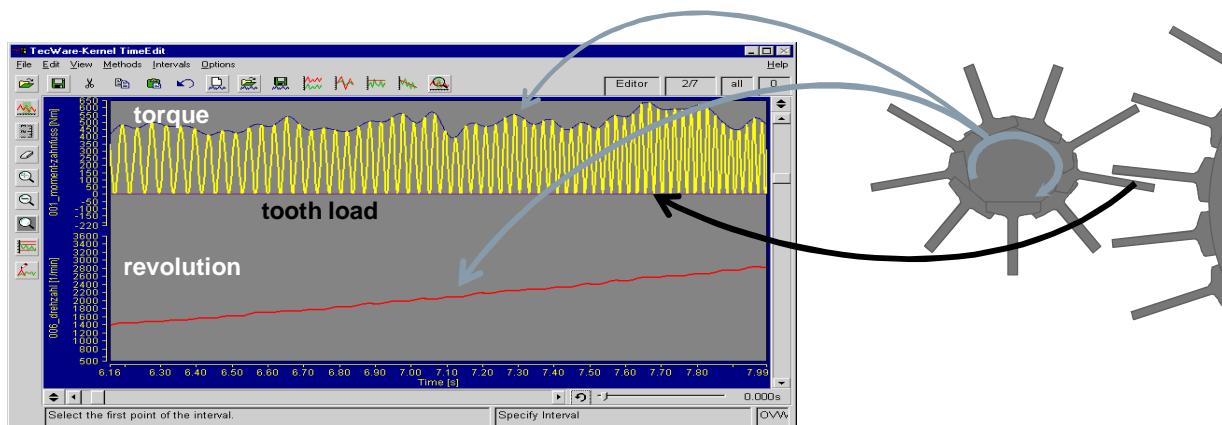
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## What if the Part is Rotating – Like Gear Teeth

Traditional Method - Rotating Moment Histogram

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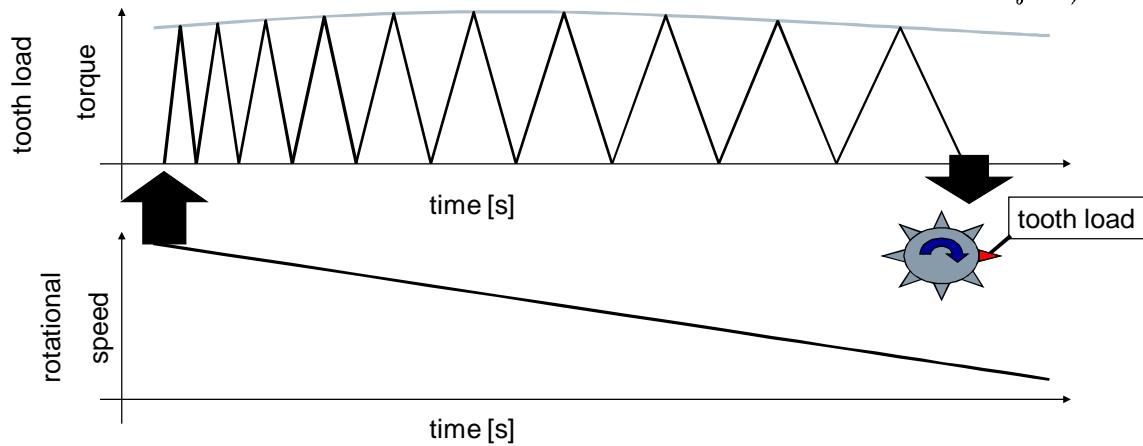
Input => Load and Shaft RPM

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## Tooth Loading Model

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In each completed revolution the reference tooth touches its counterpart once. Only then it experiences the applied torque.

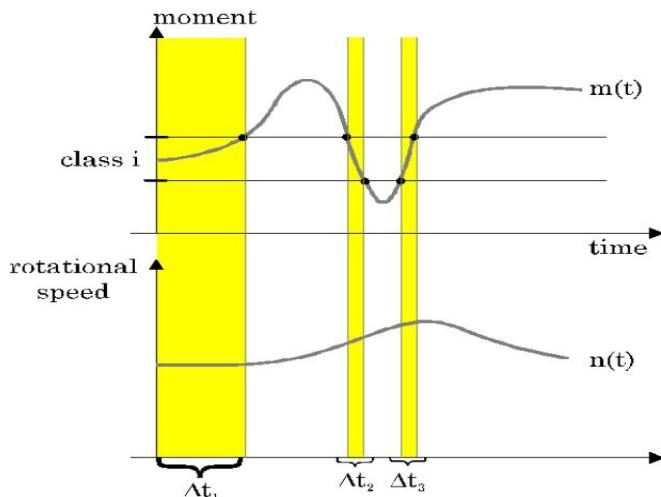
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## What if the Part is Rotating – Like Gear Teeth

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Traditional Method - Rotating Moment Histogram



$$\tau_i = \int_{\Delta t_1} n(t) dt + \int_{\Delta t_2} n(t) dt + \int_{\Delta t_3} n(t) dt$$

- Gear Tooth is loaded once per revolution
- Each bin represents fixed load level
- Integrate Rotational Speed to get revolutions in bin (loading Cycles)
- Sum over all load bins

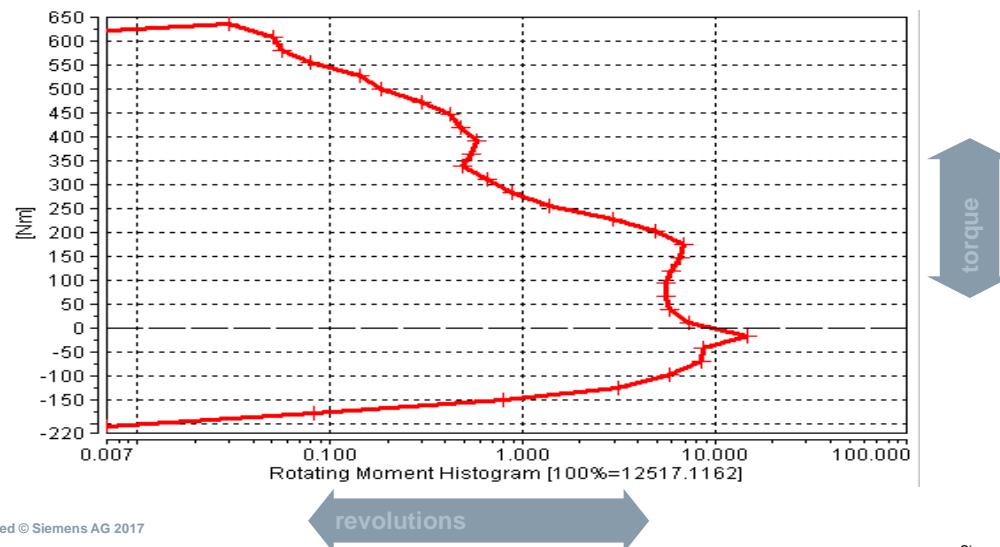
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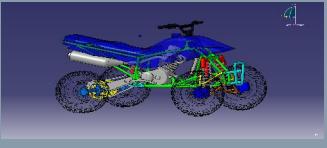
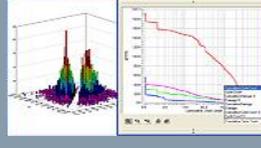
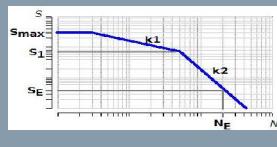
## Rotating Moment Histogram - Output

Number of revolutions at a given load level

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## Durability Agenda

<b>Durability Basics</b> Fatigue, Stress, Strain 	<b>Load Determination</b> Measurements, Multi-Body Simulation 	<b>Loads and Damage</b> S-N Curve, Cycle Counting 
<b>Load Characterization</b> Establishing Durability Targets: Superposition, Extrapolation 	<b>Fatigue Life Predictions</b> Infinite Life, Stress Life, Strain Life 	<b>Accelerated Testing &amp; Analysis</b> RP-Filter 

## The Durability Process

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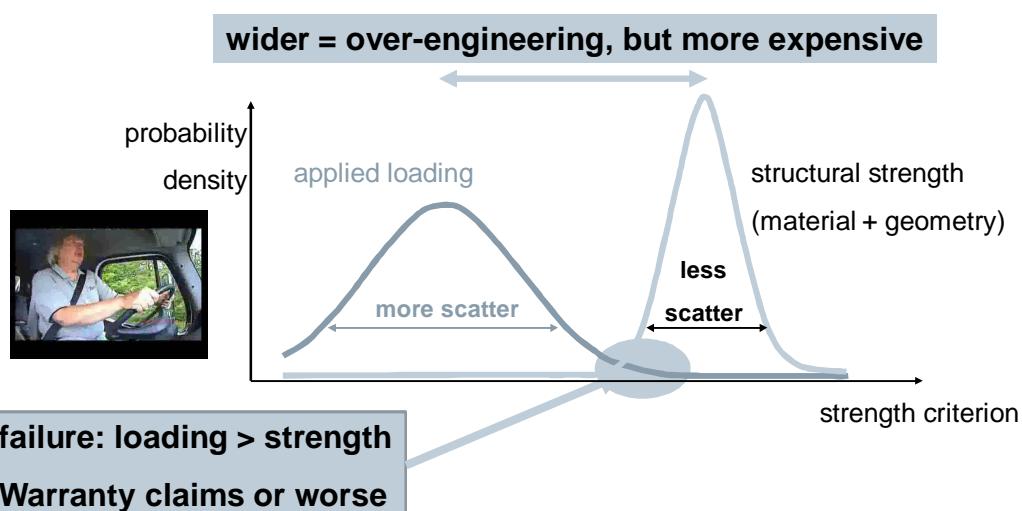


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When were your durability test schedules established ?  
Applied loading vs. structural strength

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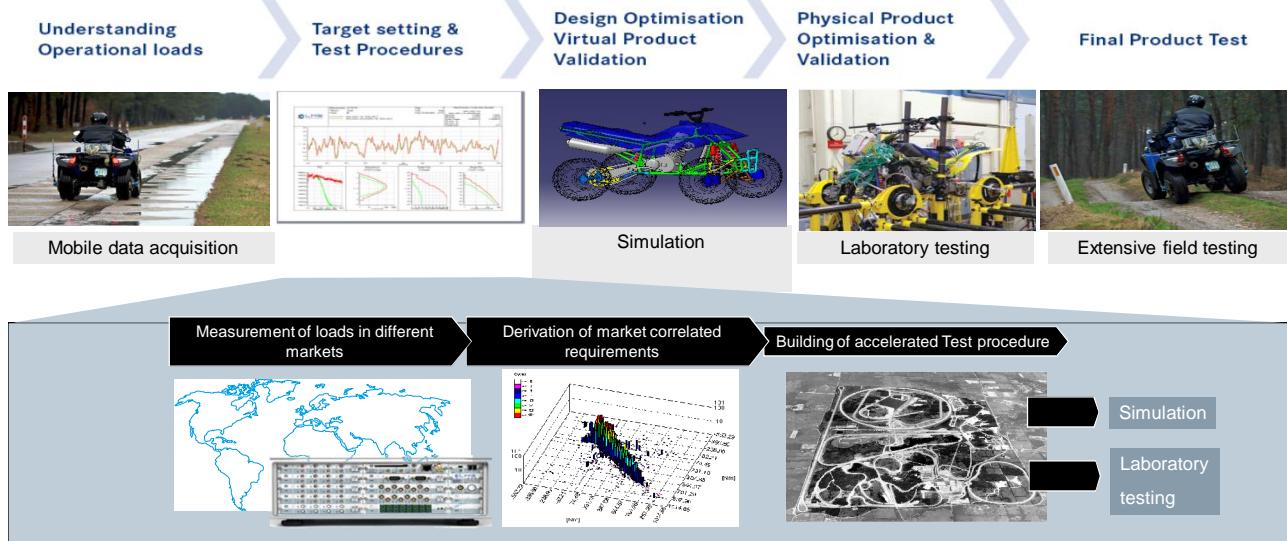


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## How to design realistic test schedule ?

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## Application case Driving 1.2 million kilometers in 8 weeks

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### Accelerated durability testing cycles

- § Meeting 1.2 million km durability requirement
- § Real tests would take 3 years
- § Large-scale customer data collection
  - § 5000 km Turkish public road data
  - § Ford Lommel proving ground
- § Development of accelerated rig test
  - § Target setting
  - § Test schedule definition
- § Resulting test schedule 8 weeks
- § Test acceleration of factor 100

LMS engineers performed dedicated data collection, applied extensive load data processing techniques and developed a 6- to 8-week test track sequence and 4-week accelerated rig test scenario that matched the fatigue damage generated by 1.2 million km of road driving.

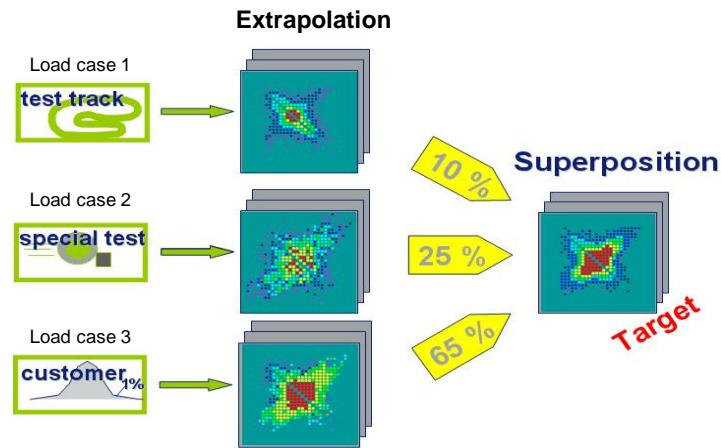


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## Setting Target

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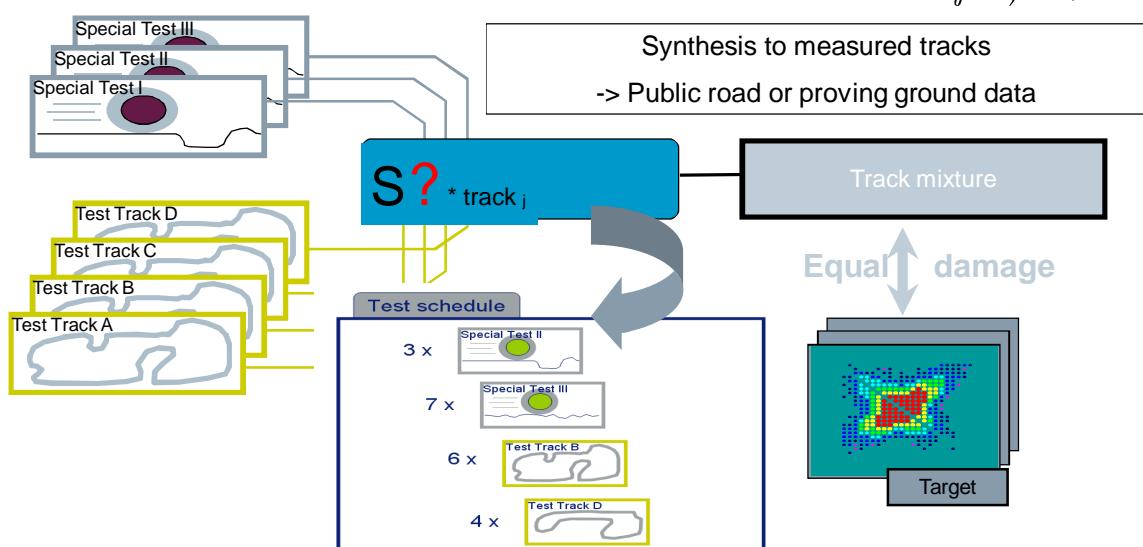


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## Equivalent Test to match Target

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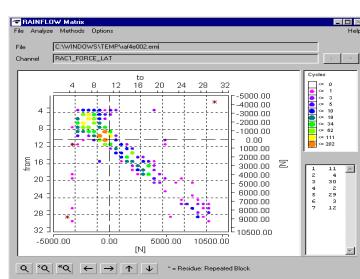
## Extrapolation

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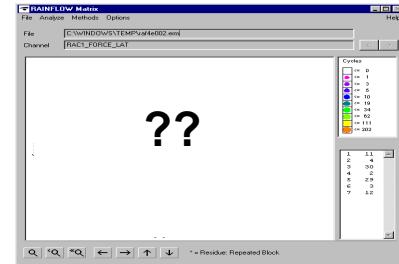
How does one go from 1 hour to 100 hours?

Multiply by 100?



1 HOUR

New matrix = x times original  
(longer time duration)



100 HOURS

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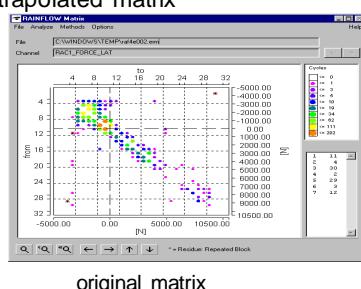
## Extrapolation to longer duration Solution : kernel shape

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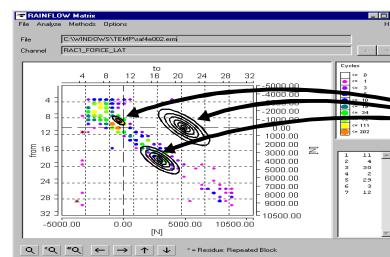


Solution:  
2-D-normal-density kernel :

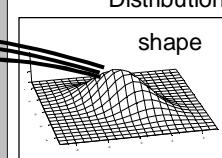
Result:  
Original and extrapolated matrix



original matrix



extrapolated matrix



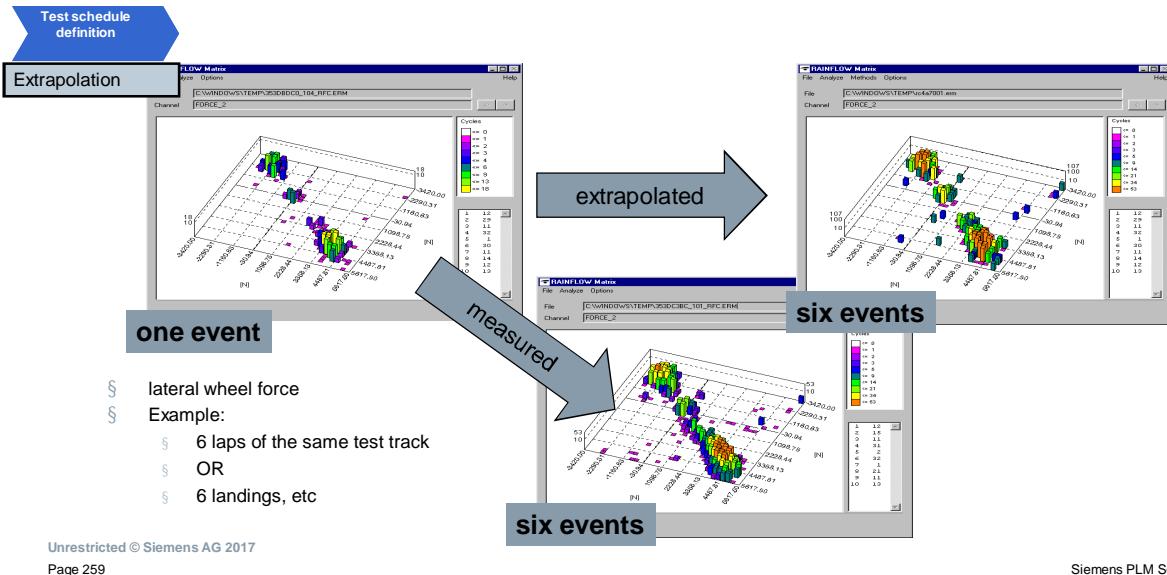
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## Extrapolation to longer duration

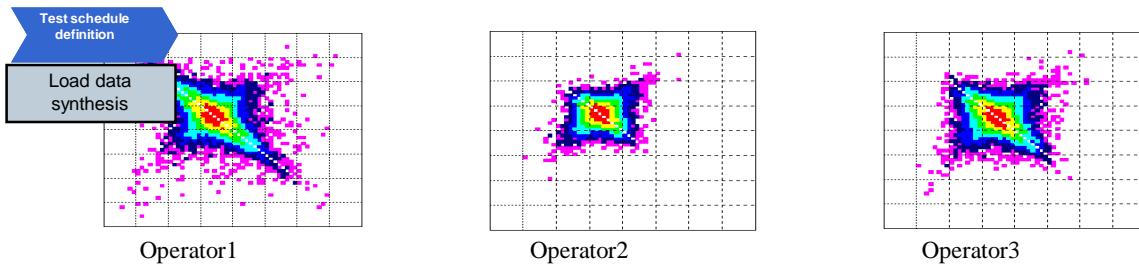
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## Target synthesis

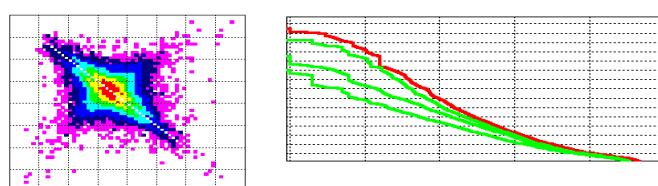
Quantile Extrapolation - Extrapolation to 'Worst' Operator

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Calculate, what the x% (e.g. 1%) driver would produce !

**Calculated**  
**1% quantile**



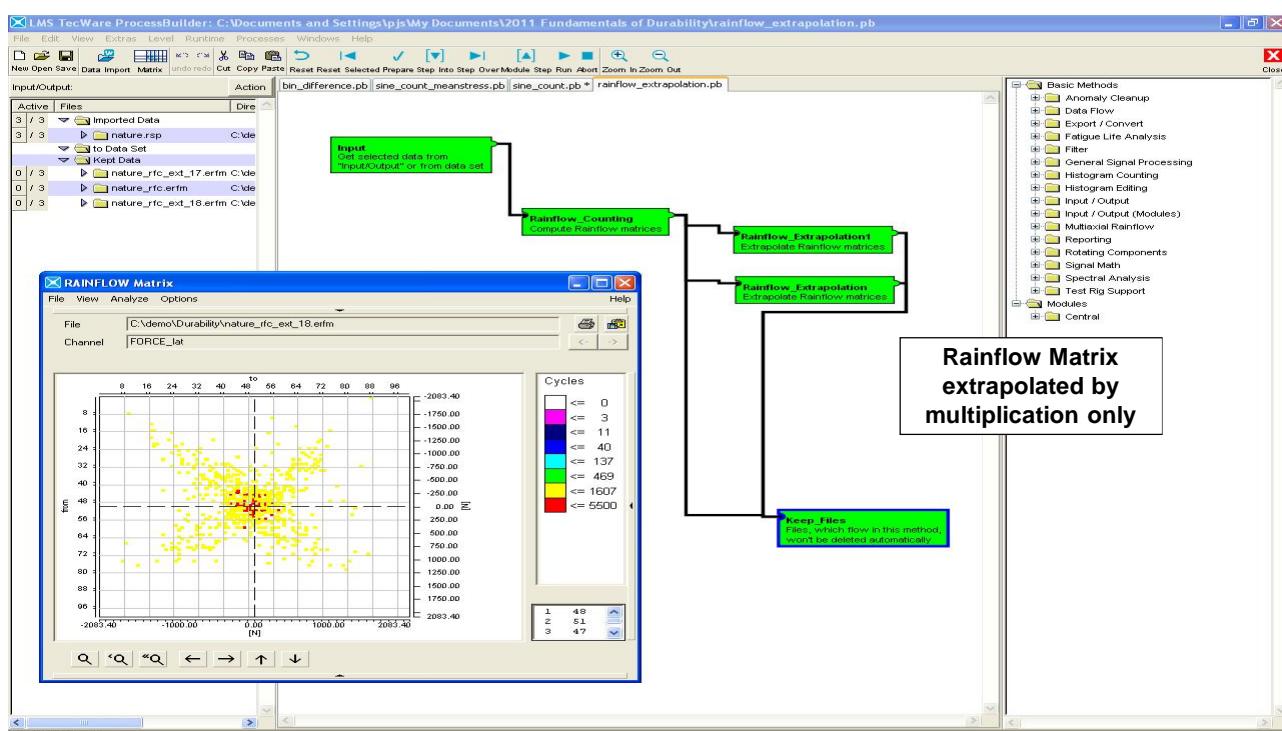
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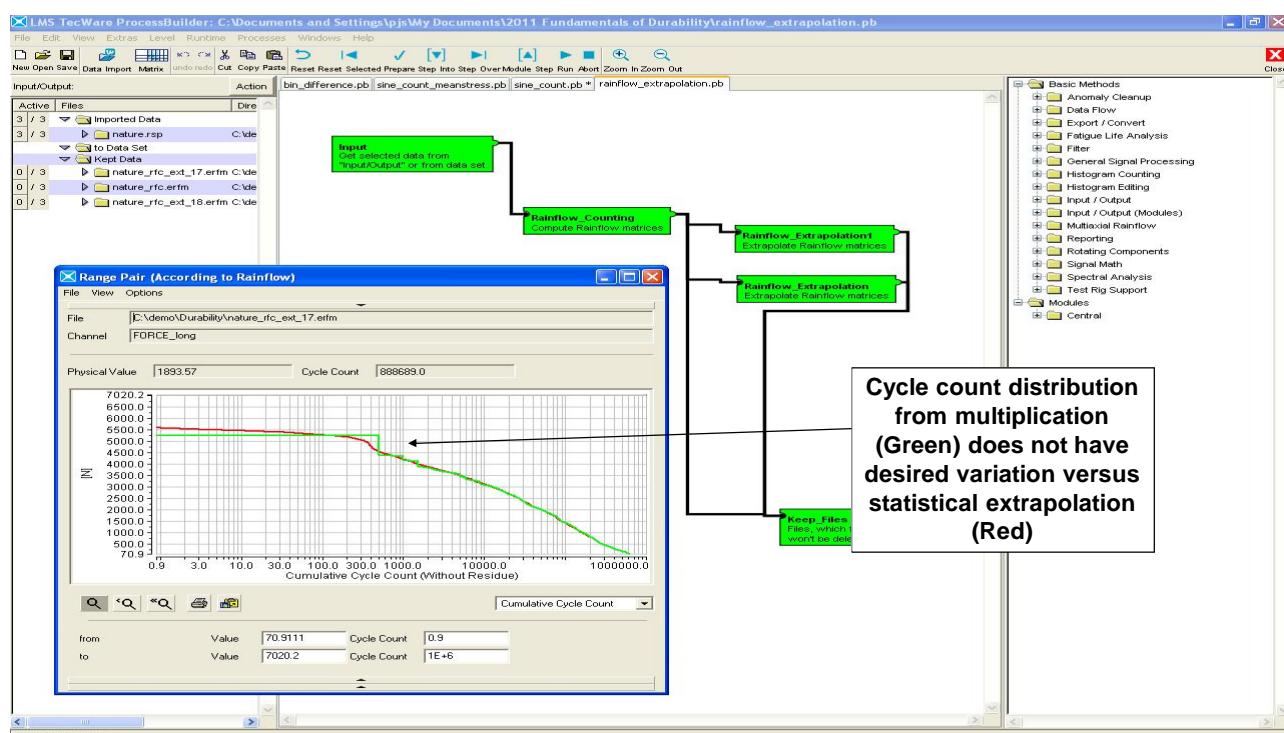
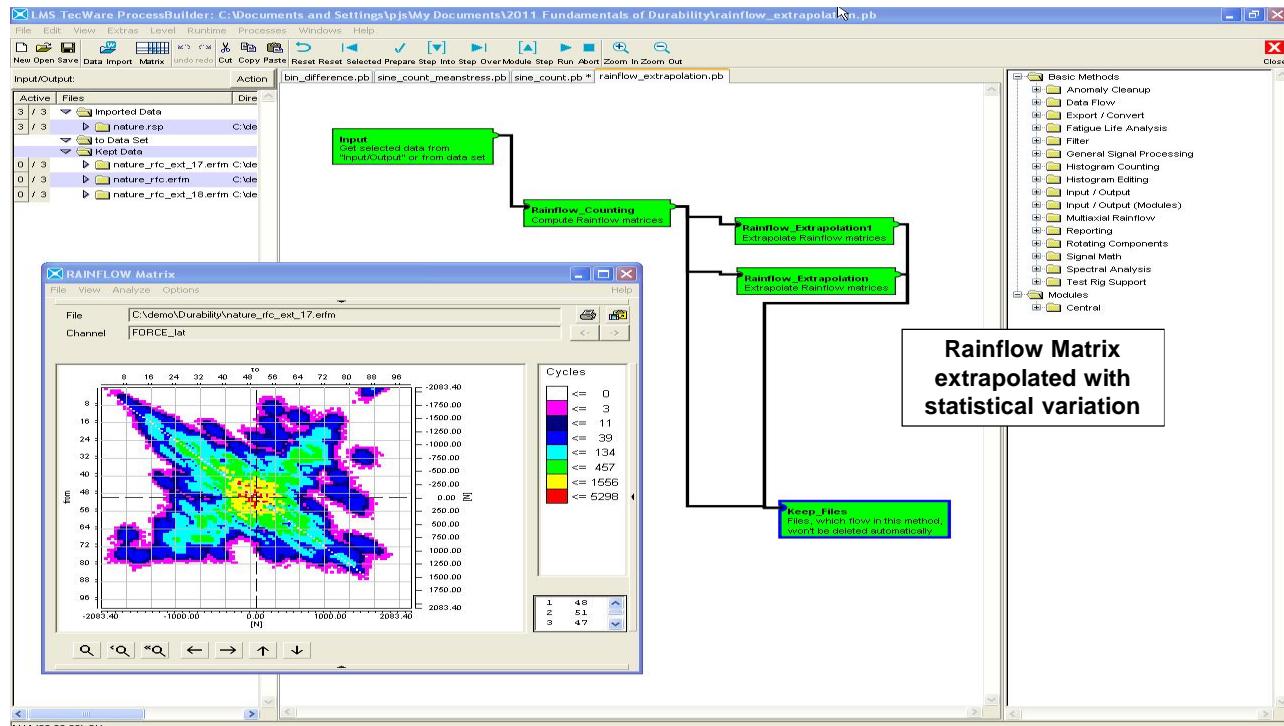
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# EXTRAPOLATION DEMO

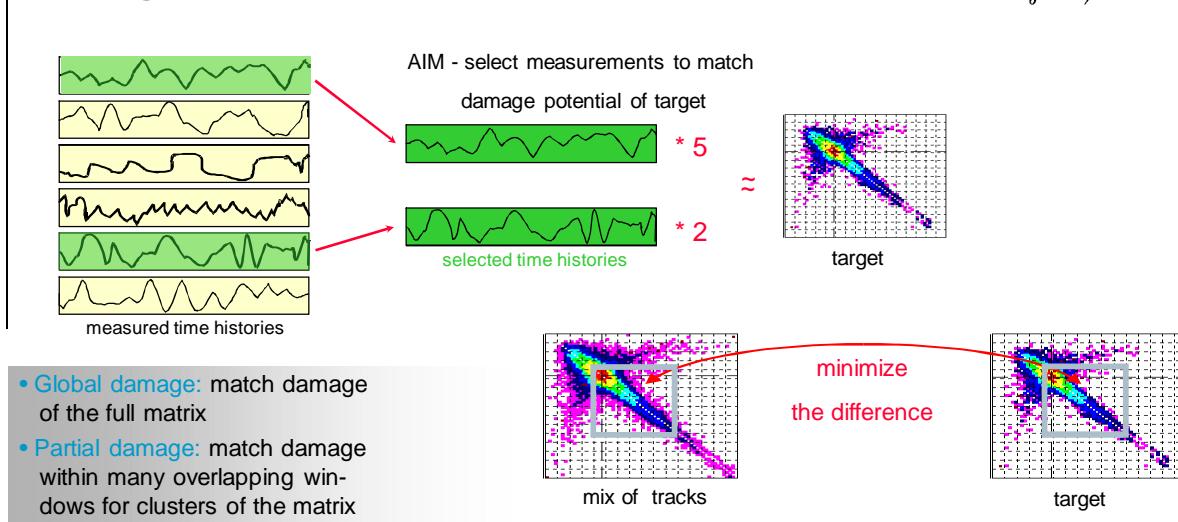
TecWare



# Fundamentals of Durability



## From target to test schedule definition

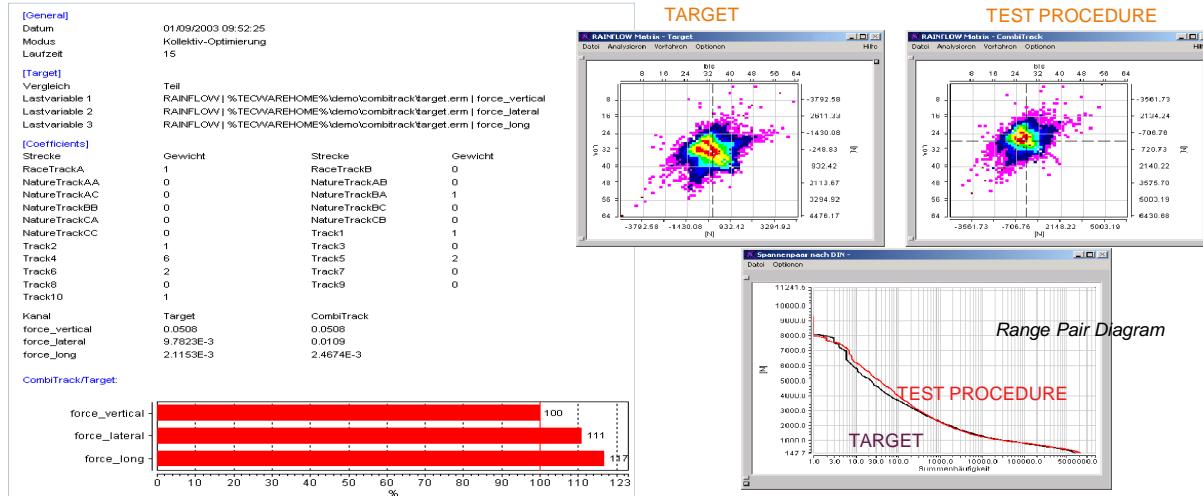


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2

## From target to test procedure



e.g. cycles of small Amplitude are compensated by small amount of cycles of high amplitude in test Schedule

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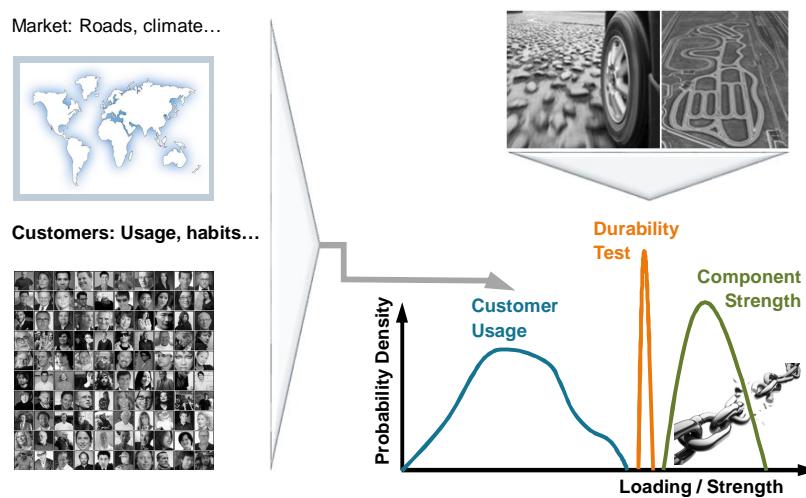
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# Load Data Synthesis Demo

CombiTrack

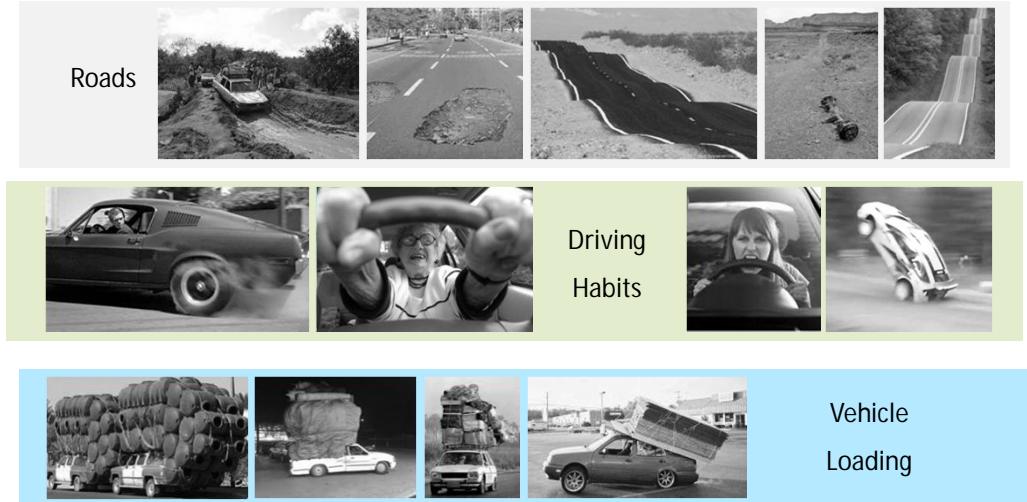
## Customer correlation Introduction

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## Huge Variability of Customer Usage → Statistics

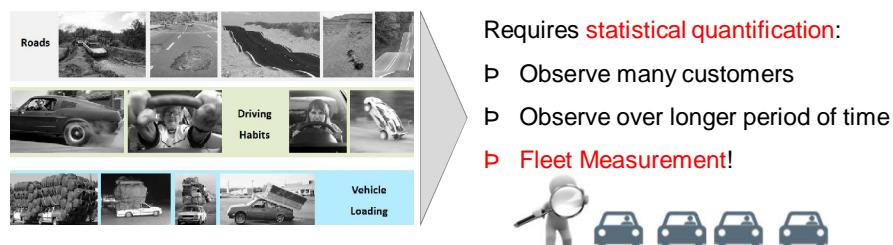
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## Statistical Approach → Fleet measurement required



**Challenge:**  
Traditional durability measurement = complex, expensive, sensitive

*Not applicable for fleet measurement campaign !!!*

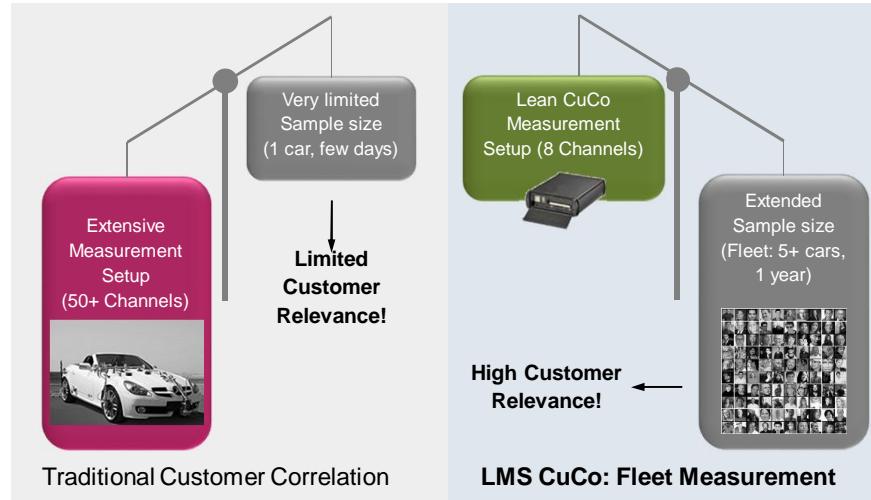


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## Statistical Approach → Fleet measurement required

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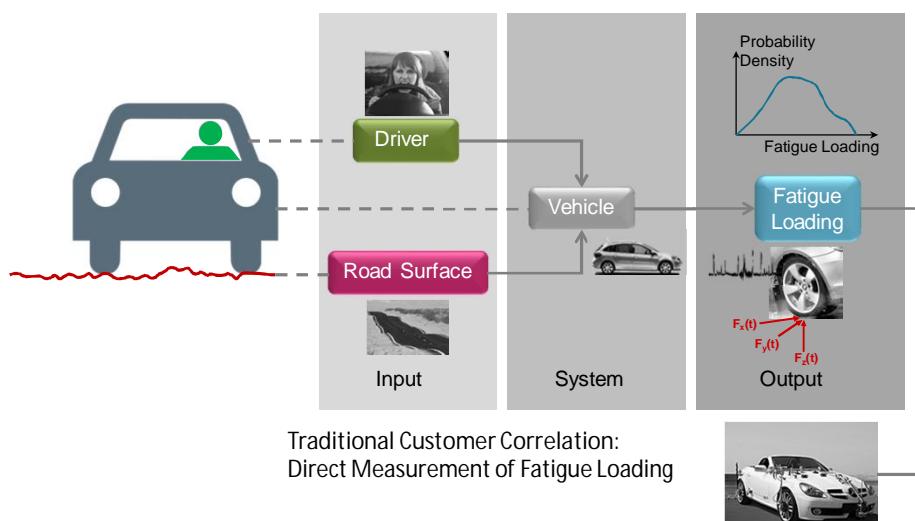


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## The Traditional Technical Approach

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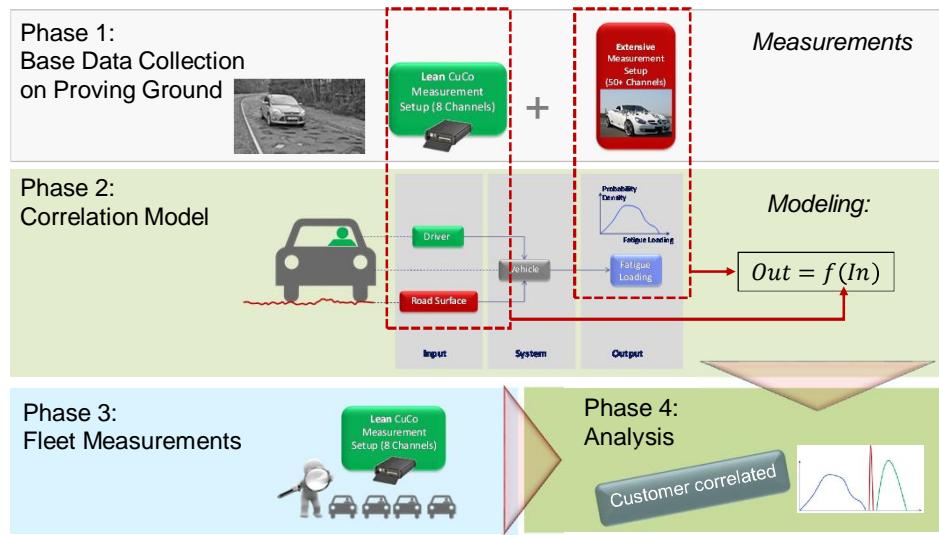


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## CuCo Project Structure

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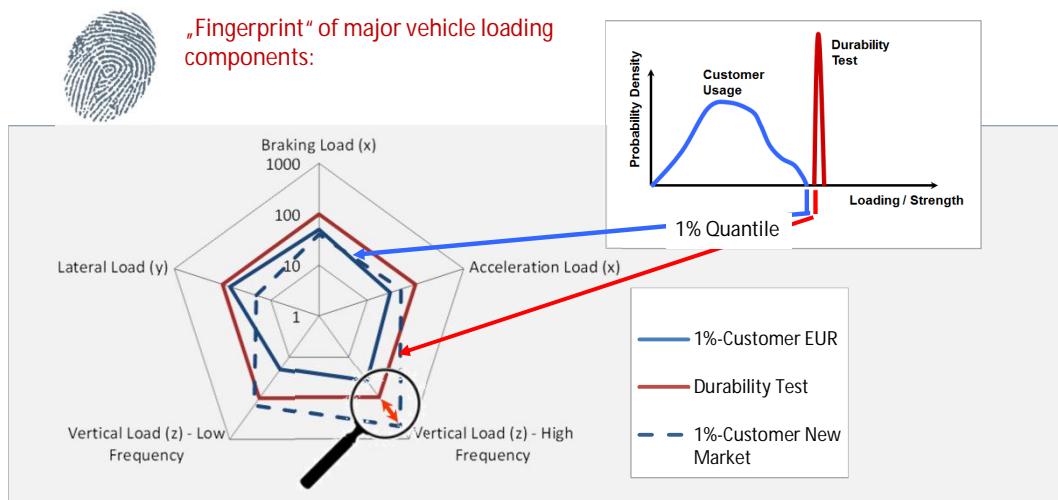


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## Result: „Fingerprint“ of Customer Representative Loading

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## Reference

**German OEMs (Audi, BMW, Daimler, Porsche, VW)**

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- Long-term Workgroup 1992 – 2009
- Core role of LMS as technical enabler
- Multi-year Fleet campaign with
  - > 100 vehicles
  - > 300 drivers
  - > 2 million km accumulated mileage
- Observed markets: Germany, BRIC, USA
- Today: Established technology at all 5 (User Group)



Patented Technology

LMS entitled to market Technology

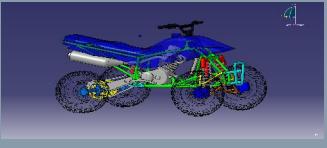
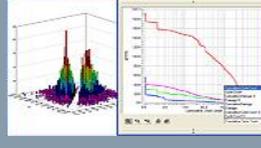
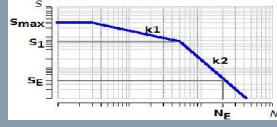
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## Durability Agenda

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<b>Durability Basics</b>  Fatigue, Stress, Strain  	<b>Load Determination</b>  Measurements, Multi-Body Simulation  	<b>Loads and Damage</b>  S-N Curve, Cycle Counting  
<b>Load Characterization</b>  Establishing Durability Targets: Superposition, Extrapolation  	<b>Fatigue Life Predictions</b>  Infinite Life, Stress Life, Strain Life  	<b>Accelerated Testing &amp; Analysis</b>  RP-Filter, Mission Synthesis  

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## How to design against fatigue ? Principle approaches

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### Design for an infinite life

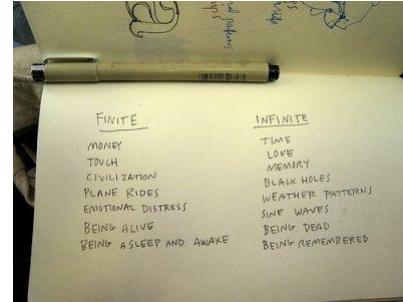
- Keep stress below endurance limit
- Infinite lifetime concept ( $N > 10^6$ )
- Factor of safety

### Design for a fixed life

- Finite lifetime concept or "safe-life"
- **High-cycle fatigue (HCF)**: stress-life or strain-life approach ( $10^4 < N < 10^6$ )
- **Low-cycle fatigue (LCF)**: strain-life approach ( $N < 10^4$ )

### Damage tolerant design

- **Crack-growth** or "fail-safe"
- Instruct the user to inspect the part periodically for cracks
- Replace the part once a crack exceeds a critical length.

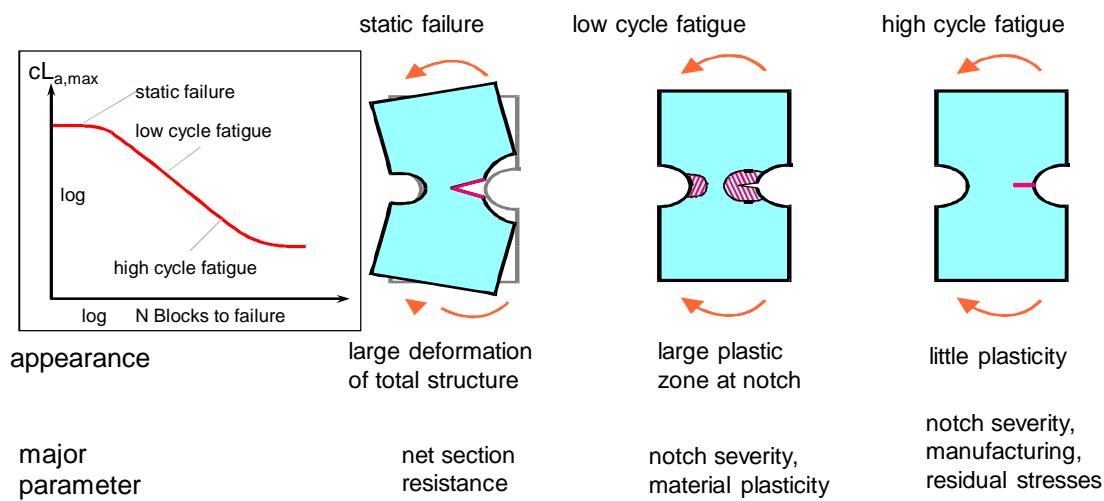


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## Failure modes depending on load level

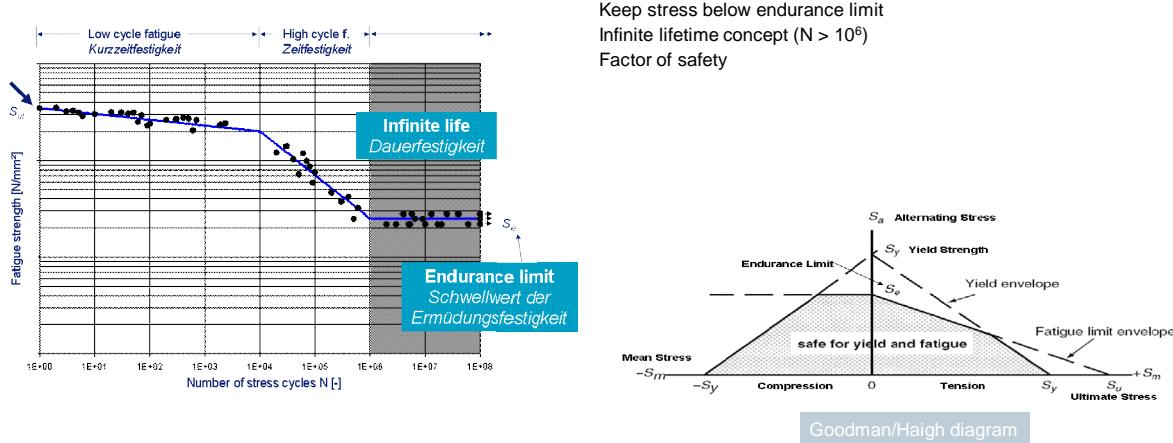
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## Design for an infinite life



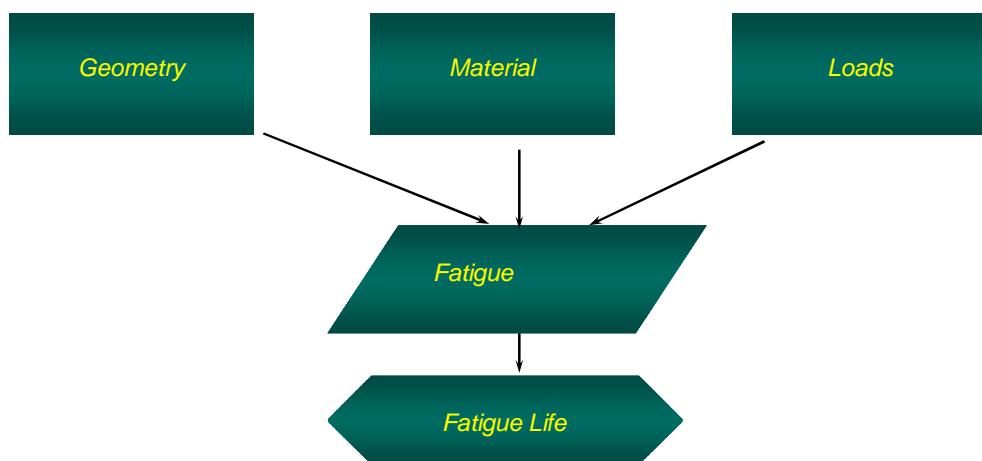
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## What influences fatigue?

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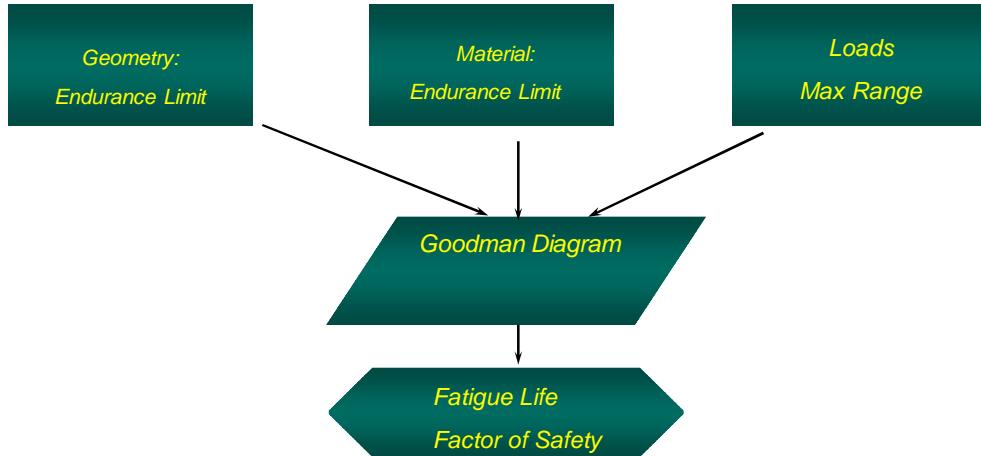
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## Infinite Life

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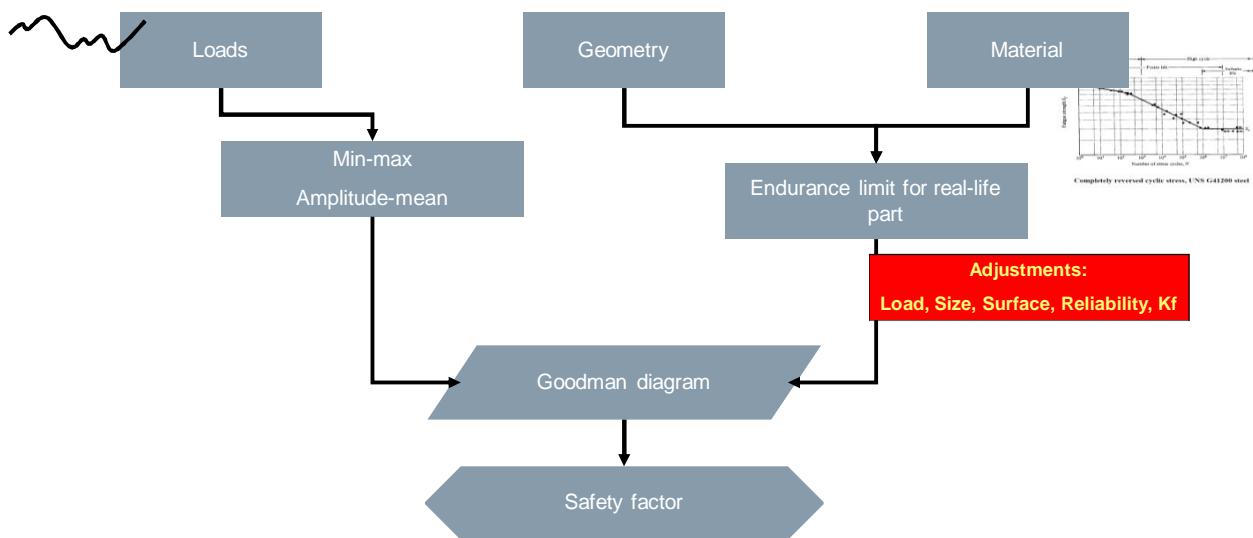


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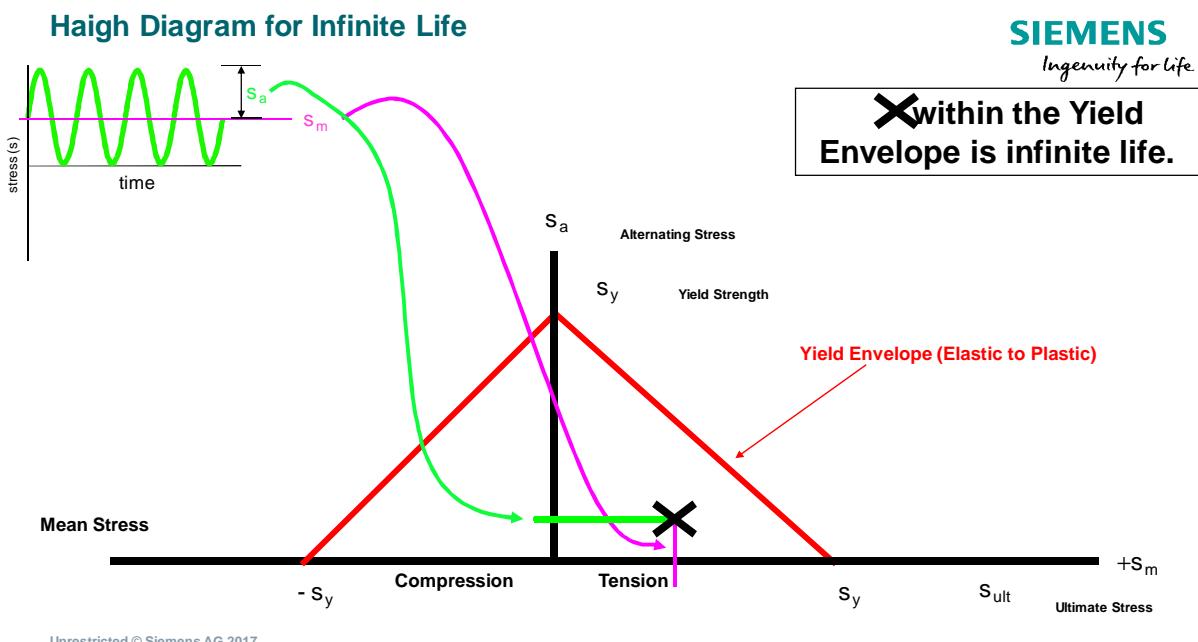
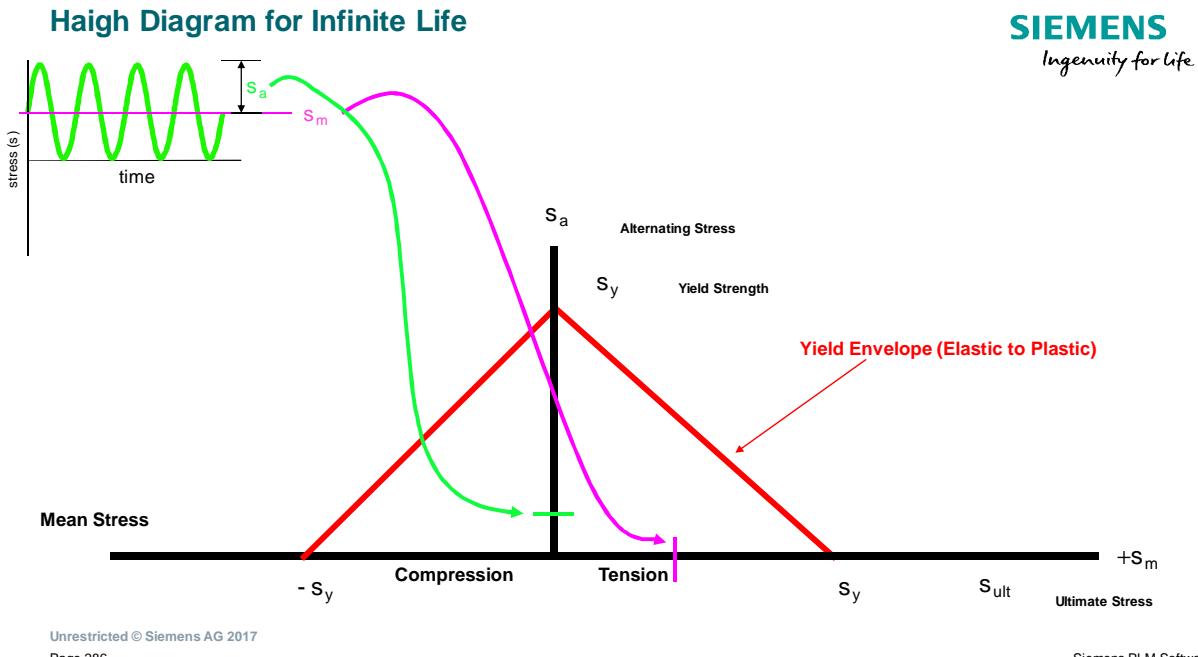
## How to design against fatigue ? Design to keep stress below endurance limit – Flow chart

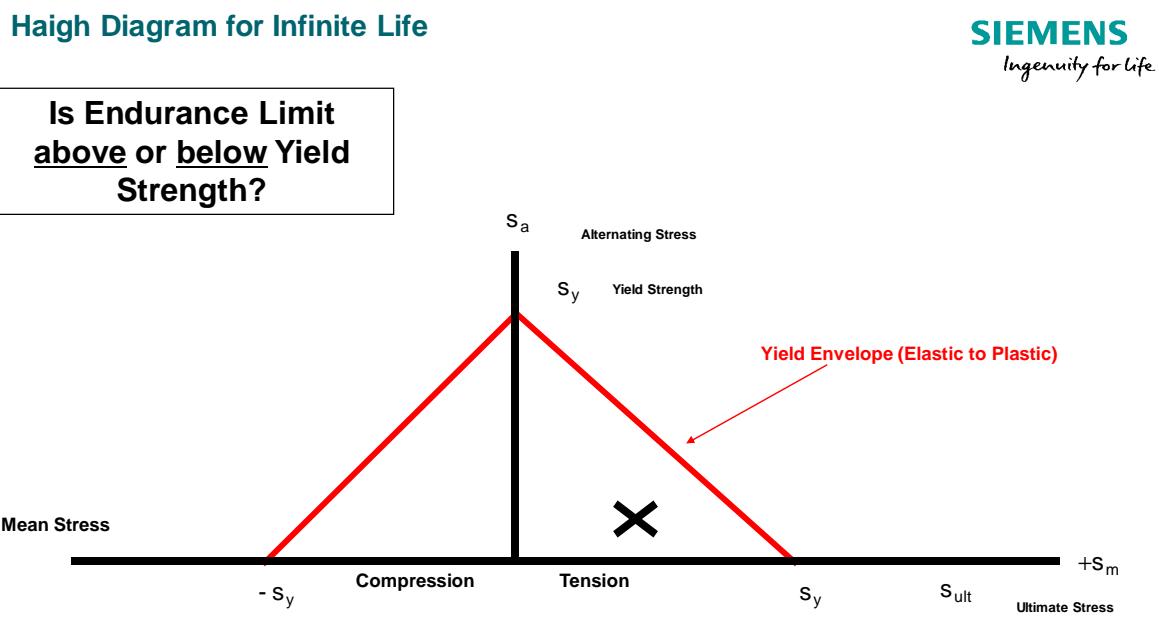
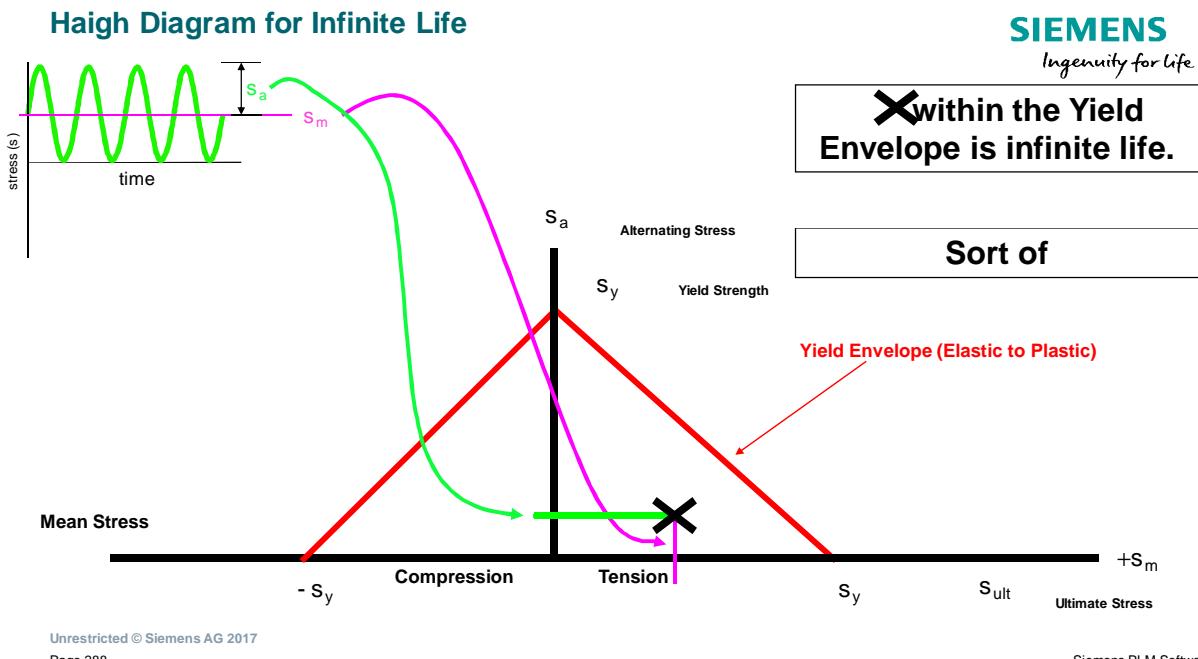
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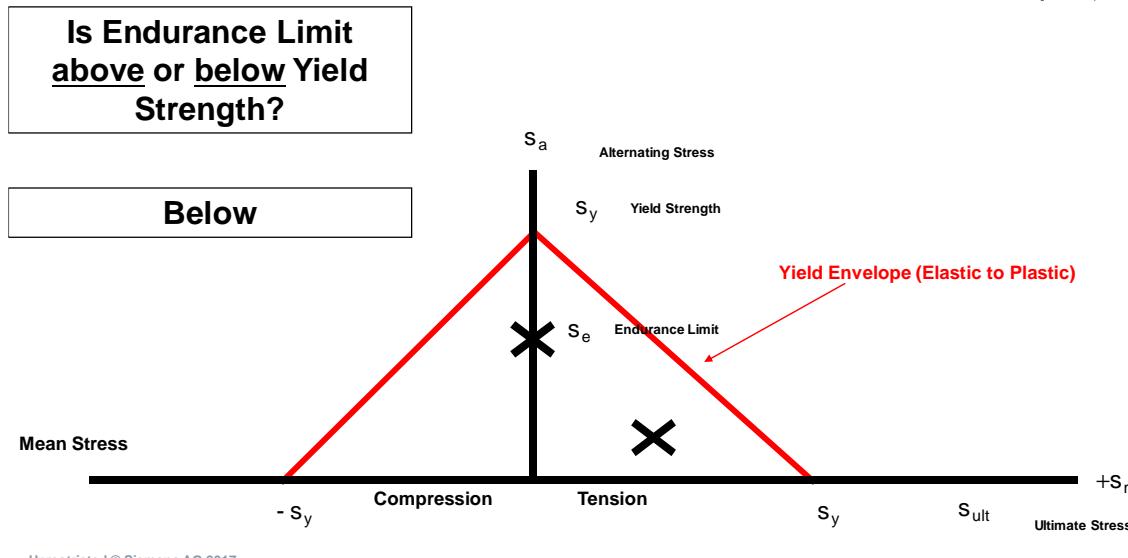
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## Haigh Diagram for Infinite Life

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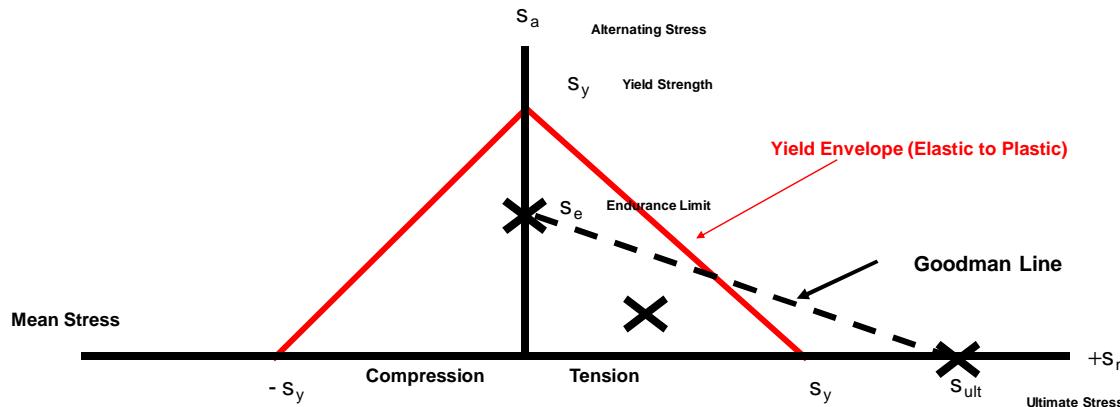
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## Modified Goodman-Haigh Diagram for Infinite Life

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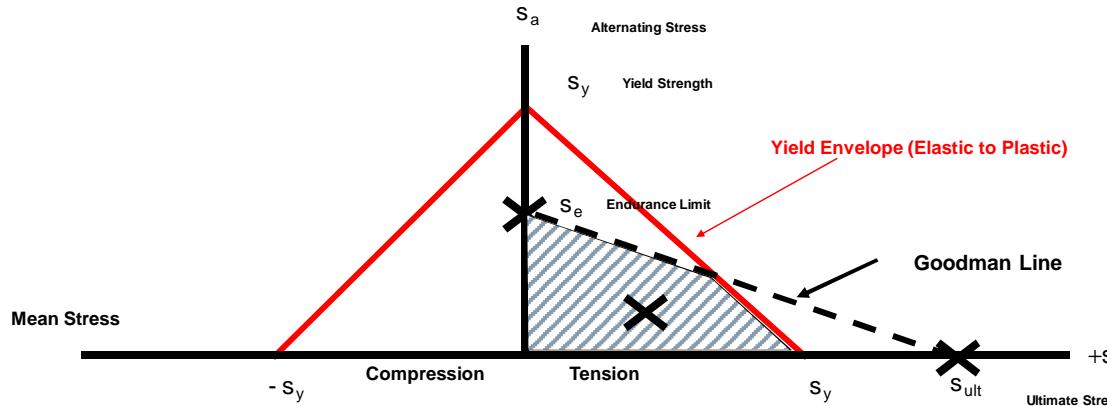
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## Modified Goodman-Haigh Diagram for Infinite Life

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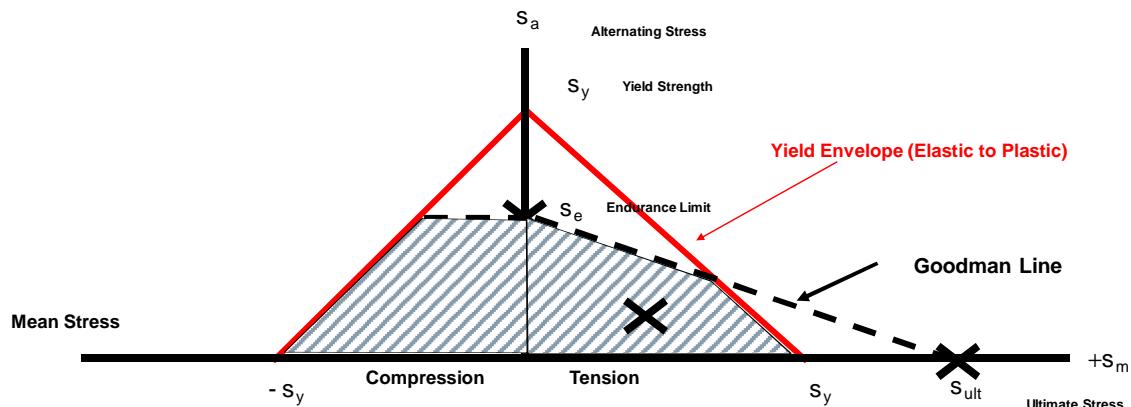
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## Modified Goodman-Haigh Diagram for Infinite Life

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Infinite Life Region



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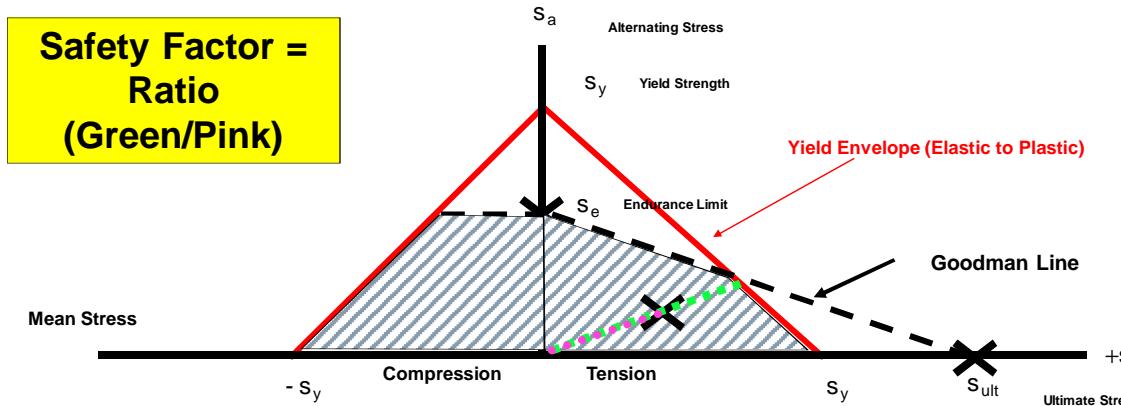
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## Modified Goodman-Haigh Diagram for Infinite Life

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Infinite Life Region

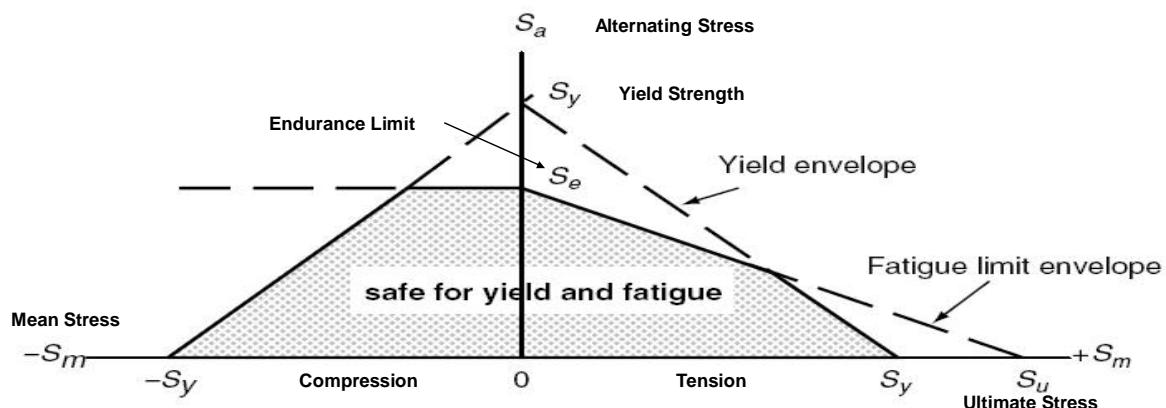


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**Design to keep stress below endurance limit**  
Goodman/ Haigh diagram for combined fatigue limit and yield

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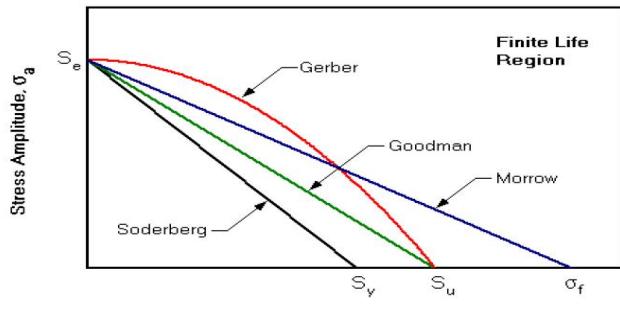


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## Infinite Life Theories on Failure Envelopes

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**Goodman (England, 1899):**  $\frac{\sigma_a}{\sigma_e} + \frac{\sigma_m}{\sigma_u} = 1$

**Gerber (Germany, 1874):**  $\frac{\sigma_a}{\sigma_e} + \left(\frac{\sigma_m}{\sigma_u}\right)^2 = 1$

**Soderberg (USA, 1930):**  $\frac{\sigma_a}{\sigma_e} + \frac{\sigma_m}{\sigma_y} = 1$

**Morrow (USA, 1960s):**  $\frac{\sigma_a}{\sigma_e} + \frac{\sigma_m}{\sigma_f} = 1$

R=-1

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## Famous People In Fatigue

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Hooke's Law of Elasticity in 1660

Sir Robert Hooke  
British  
(1635-1703)



Goodman's Rule in 1899

Goodman  
English  
(1869- 1942)



Miner's Rule in 1945

MA Miner  
English  
(1915 - 1978)



Wöhler curves in 1867

August Wöhler  
German  
(1819-1914)



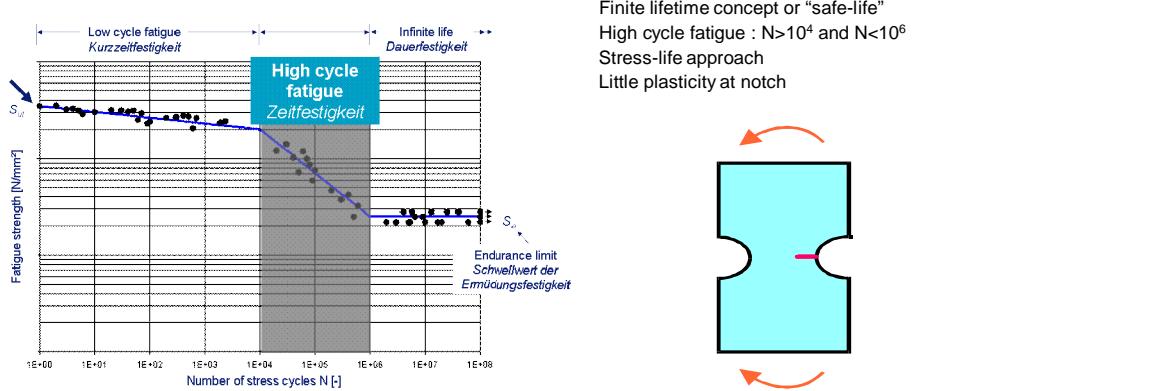
Rainflow Counting in 1968

Tatsuo Endo  
Japan  
(1925 - 1989)

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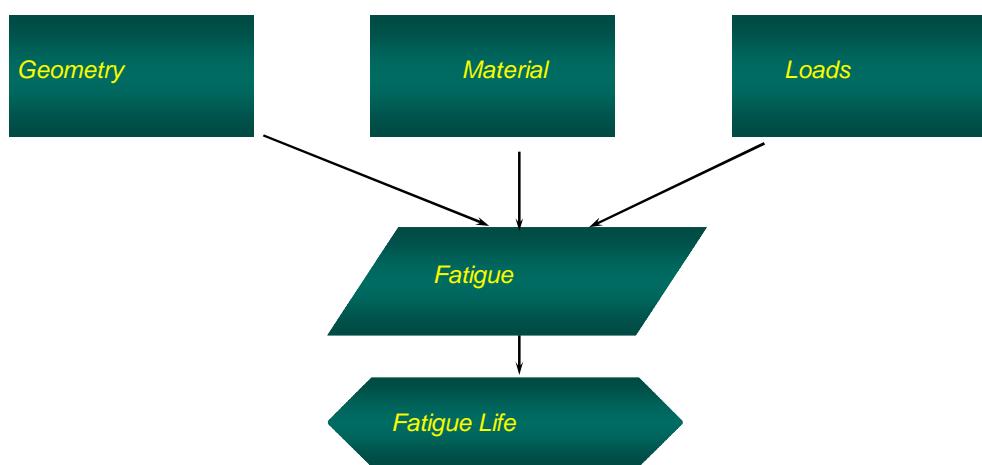
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## Design for a finite life. High cycle fatigue ( $N > 10^4$ and $N < 10^6$ )



## What influences fatigue? High Cycle Fatigue

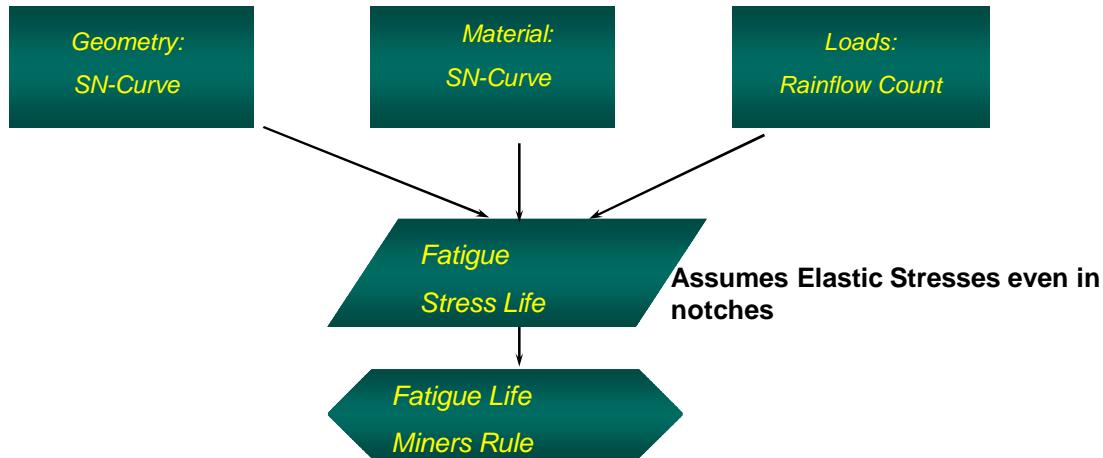
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## What influences fatigue?

### High Cycle Fatigue

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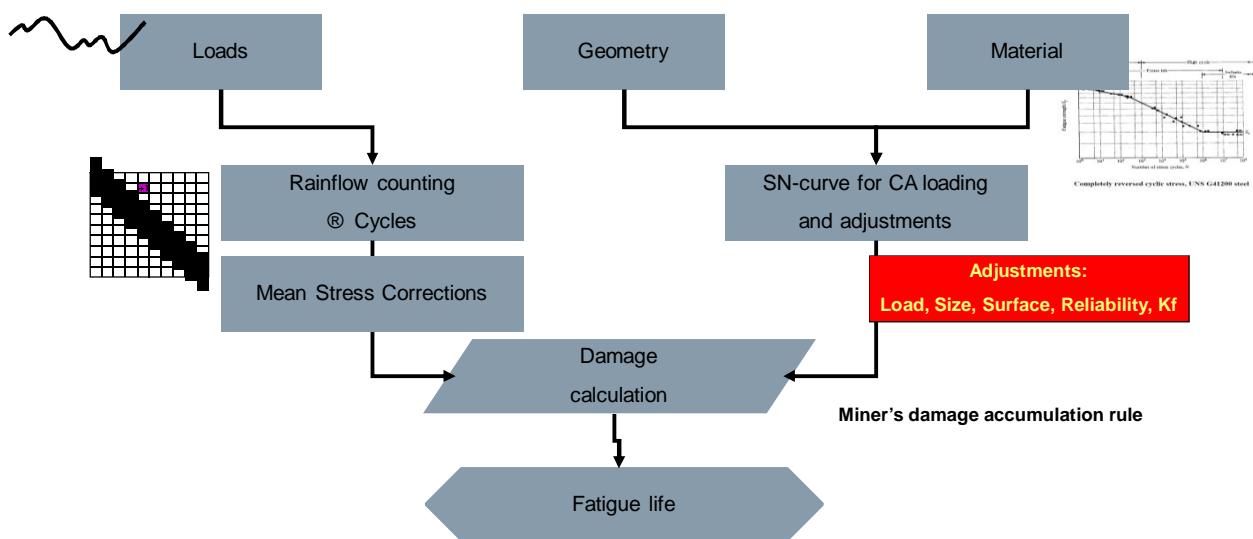
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## High Cycle Fatigue

### Design for a fixed life. ( $N > 10K$ and $N < 10M$ )

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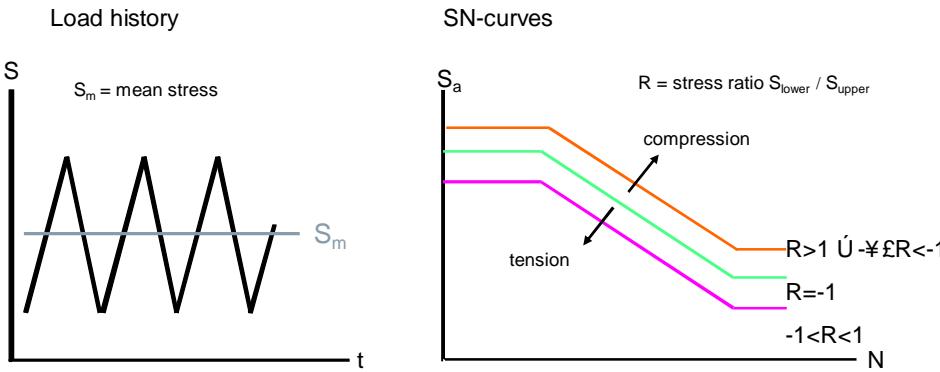


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### Mean stress influence Goodman (1890)

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**Tension mean stresses reduce the fatigue life  
from that observed with completely reversed loading**

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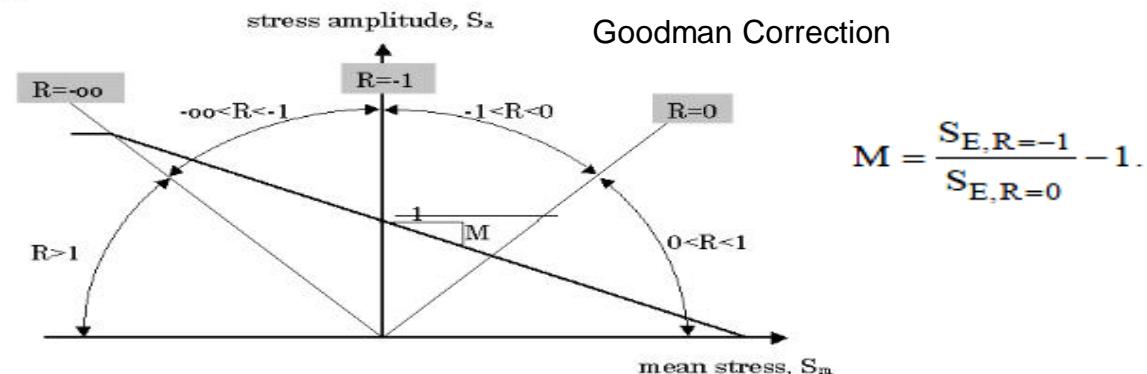
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### Mean Stress Correction

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**Basic Principle :** Relates stress at non zero mean stress to an equivalent stress amplitude at 0 mean stress, based on equivalent fatigue lifetimes

$$R = \frac{\sigma_{\text{lower}}}{\sigma_{\text{upper}}}$$



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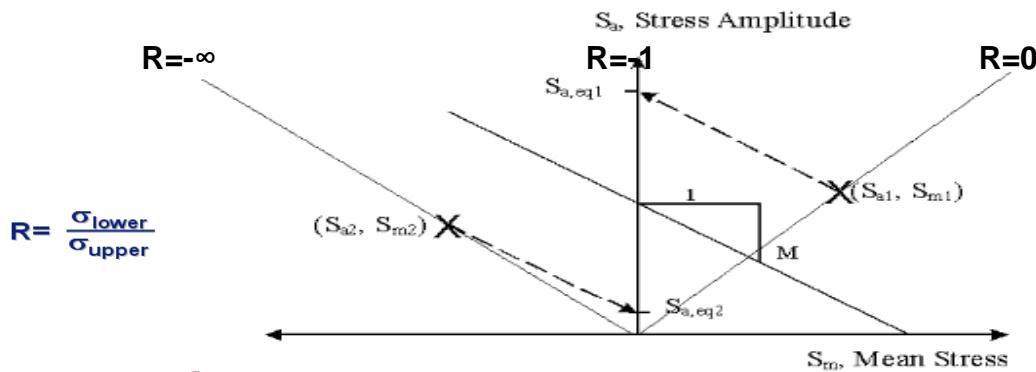
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## Goodman Mean Stress Example

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Bins in rain flow matrix with non zero mean stress are projected to the  $R=-1$  axis by following slope M



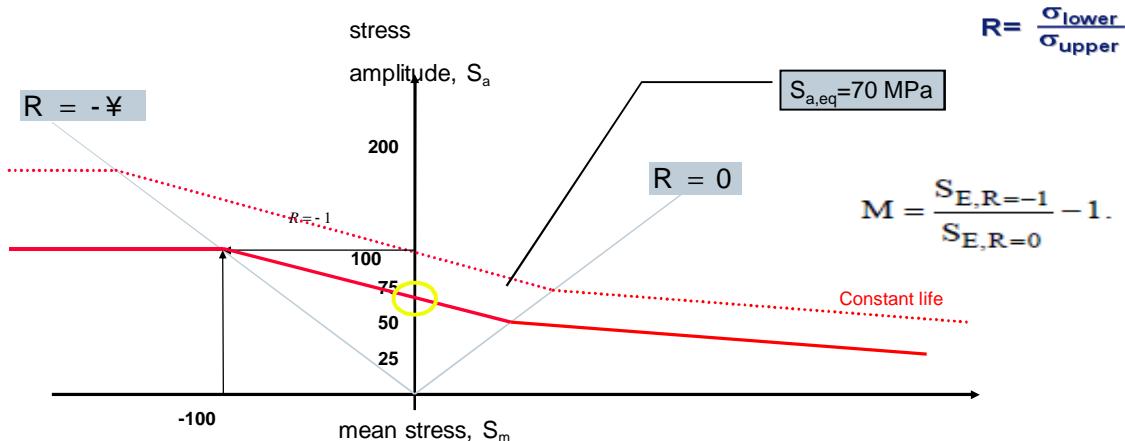
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## Mean stress influence M-factor (example)

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$$S_a = 100 \text{ MPa}, R = -\infty, M_1 = M = 0.3, M_3 = 0.1 \Rightarrow S_{a,eq}(R = -1) = ?$$



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## Mean Shear Stress (Torsion)

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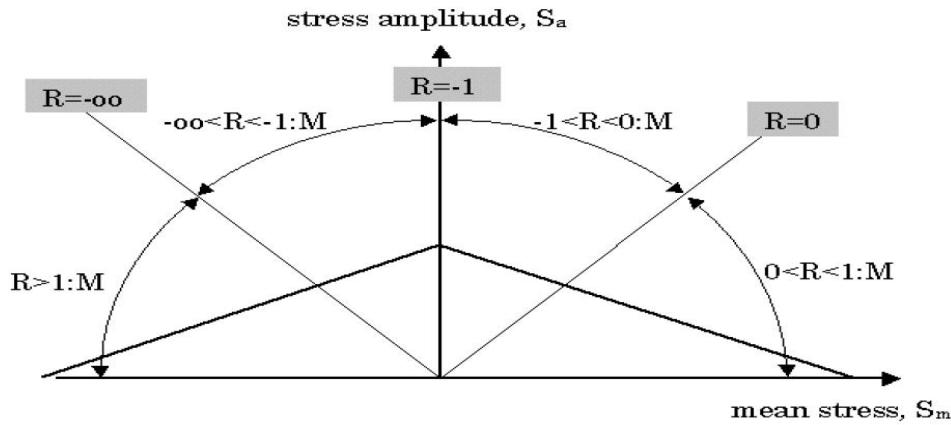
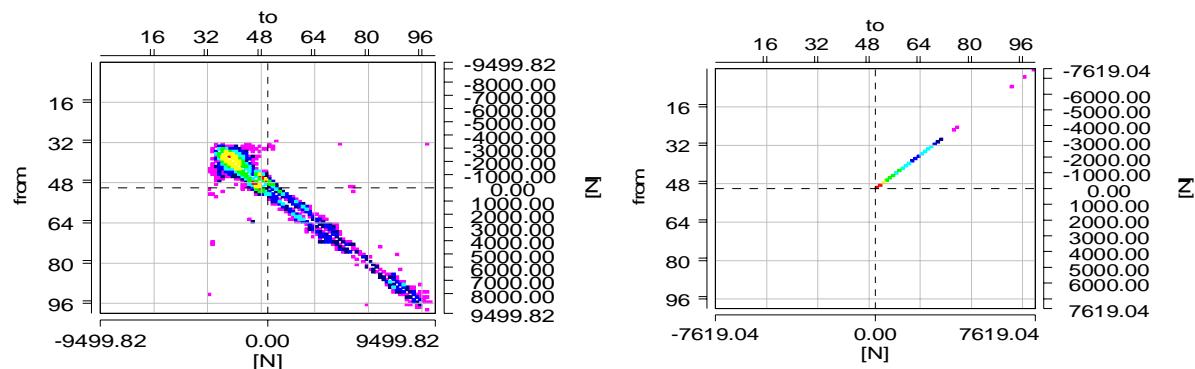


Fig. 41: Mean shear influence for 1 segment

## Mean Stress Demo

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## Pros and Cons of Stress Life

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Pros:

- Simple - back of the envelope calculation possible
- A lot of historical data
- Extensively validated for constant amplitude loading

Cons:

- Empirical – care must be taken when extrapolating relationships
- Geometry dependent – SN curve is dependent on component
- Only good in elastic region – does not account for true stress strain relationship

Applications:

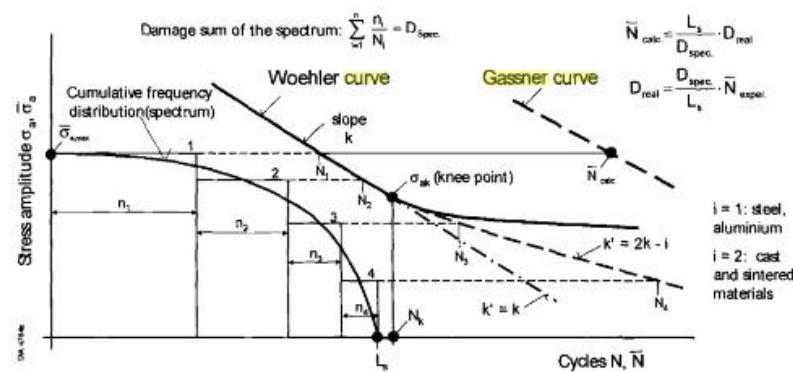
- Load data analysis and synthesis
- Test acceleration
- Test rig / test track correlation
- Most commonly used for test-based fatigue
- Frequency based approaches
- Welds

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## Life Curve

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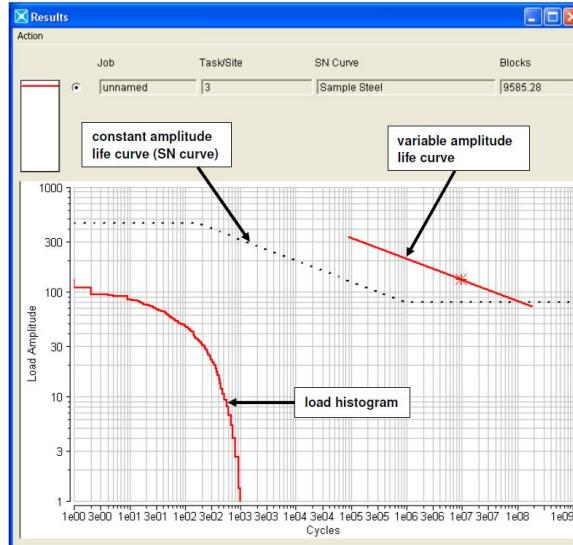


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## Life Curve

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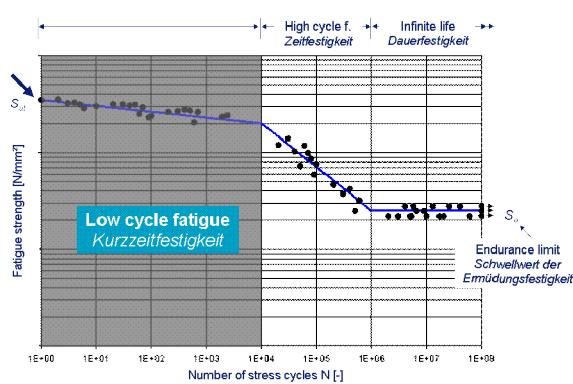
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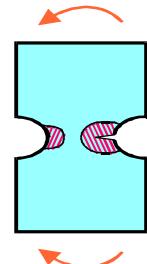
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## Design for a finite life. Low cycle fatigue ( $N < 10^4$ )

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Finite lifetime concept or "safe-life"  
Low cycle fatigue:  $N < 10^4$   
Strain-life approach  
Large plasticity at notch



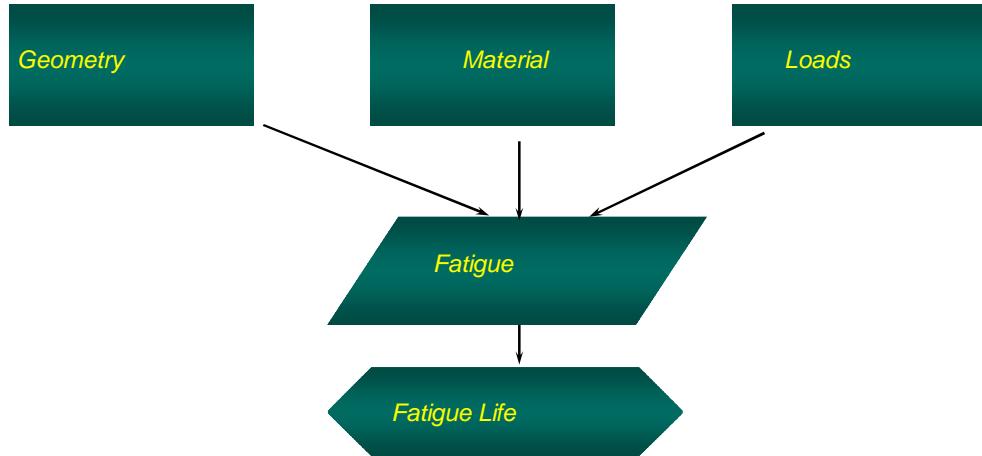
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## What influences fatigue? Low Cycle Fatigue

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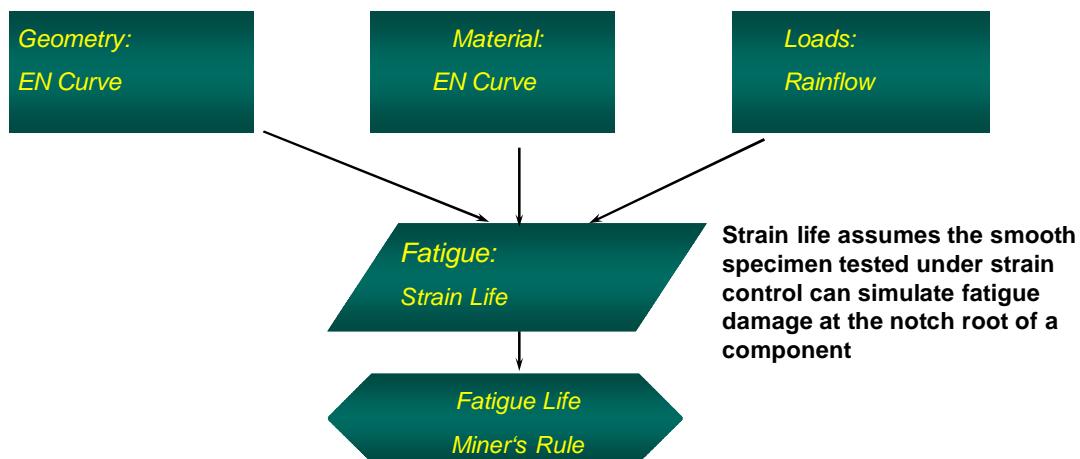


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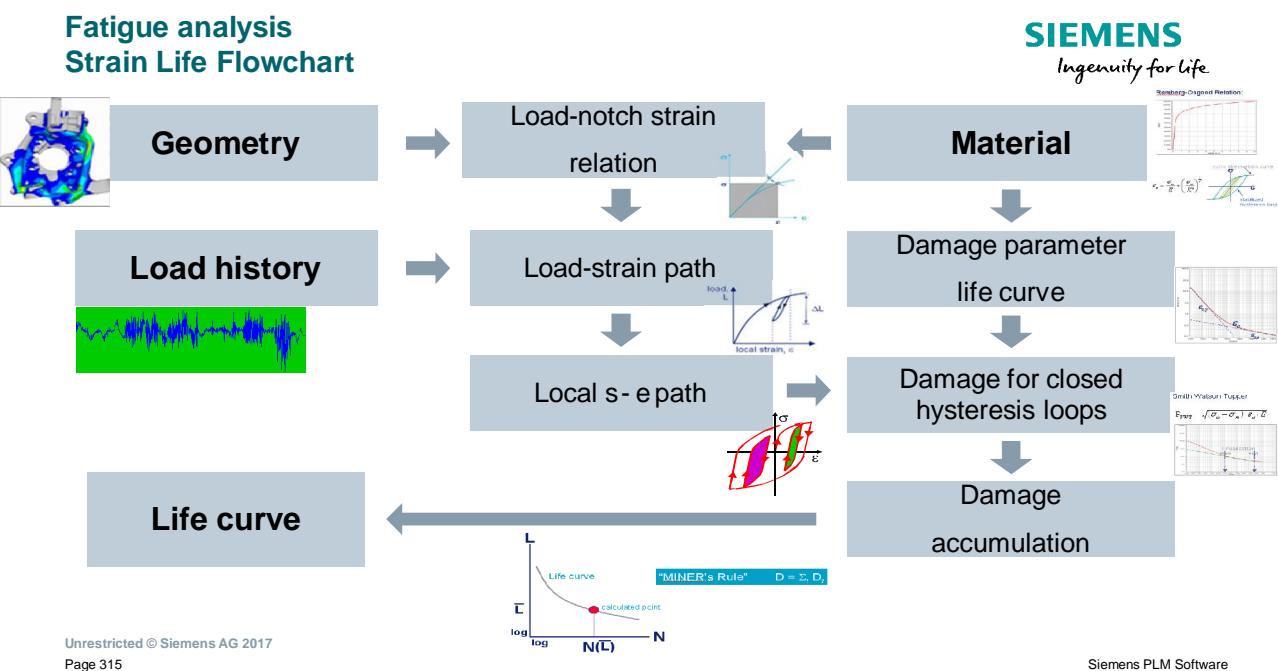
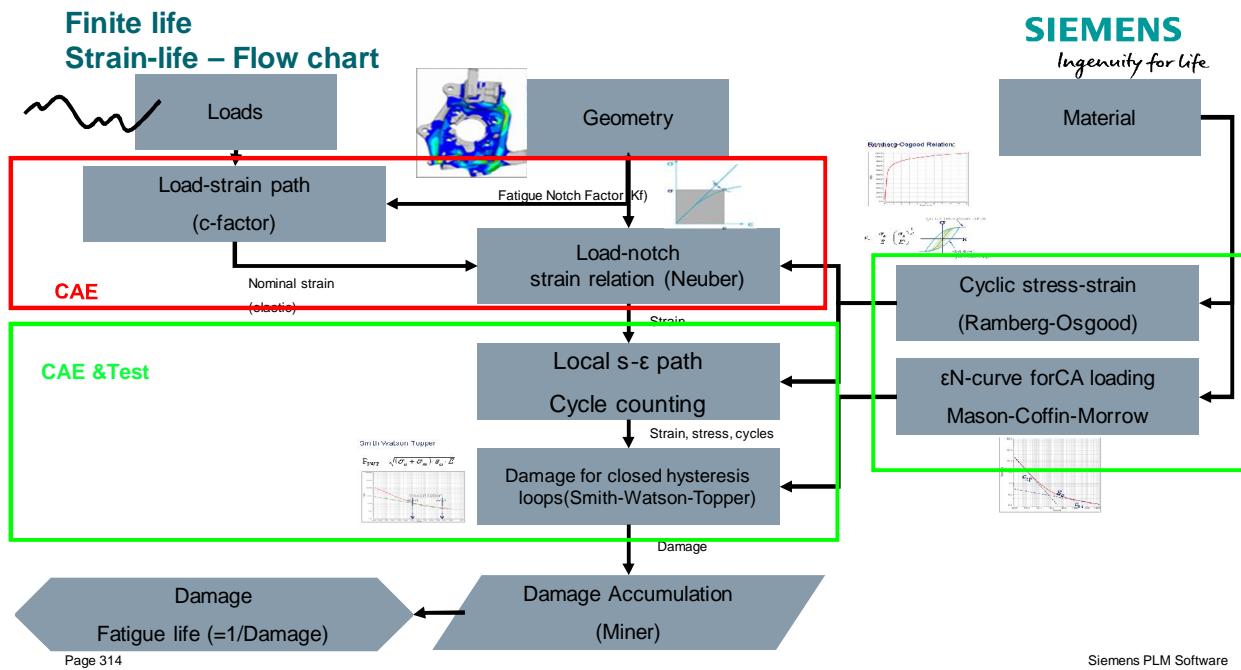
## What influences fatigue? Low Cycle Fatigue

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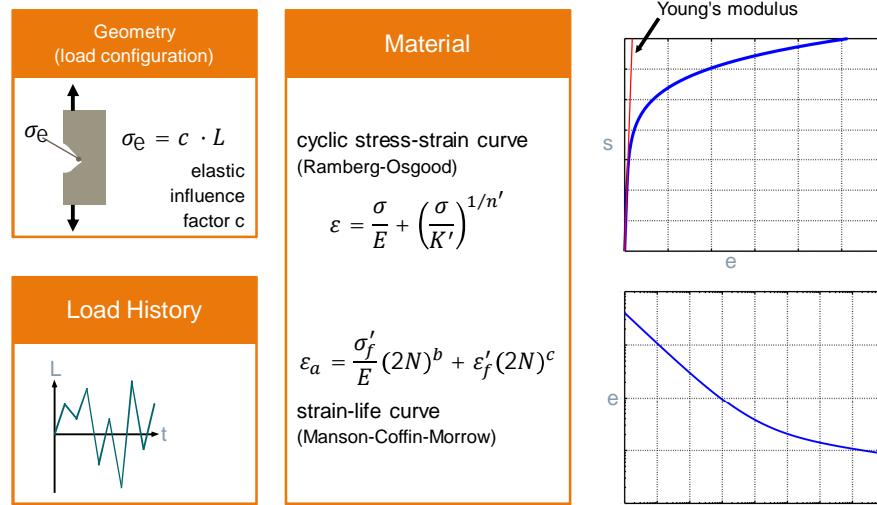
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## Strain-Life Approach – Input Data

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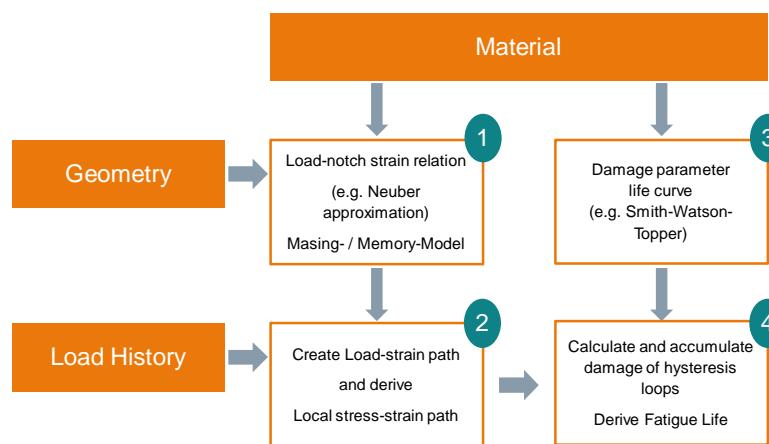
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## Strain-Life Approach – Flowchart

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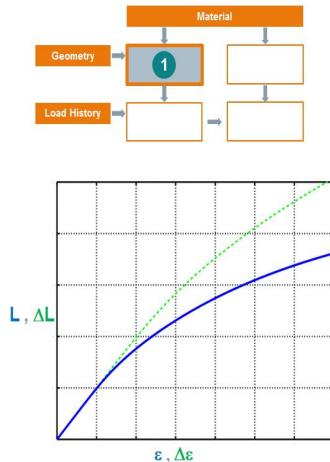
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## 1 – Neuber Approximation

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From the universal Neuber approximation

$$\varepsilon = \frac{\sigma}{E} \left( \frac{L \cdot c}{\sigma} \right)^2 \frac{e^*}{S^*/E}; \quad S^* = \frac{L \cdot c}{K_p}; \quad e^* = g(S^*)$$

and the Ramberg-Osgood relation

$$\varepsilon = g(\sigma) = \frac{\sigma}{E} + \left( \frac{\sigma}{K'} \right)^{\frac{1}{n'}}$$

derive the Load-notch strain curve. From this and the doubled curve (dashed) the load-strain path can be created (next step).

Note: We have 2 equations with 2 unknowns ( $\sigma$  and  $\varepsilon$ ). This system can be solved for any given external load  $L$ .

According to the Masing model, the following holds:

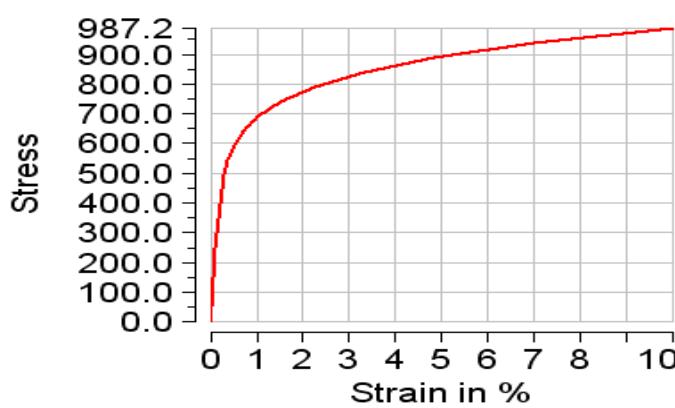
$$\Delta\varepsilon = 2 \cdot g(\Delta\sigma/2) \quad \text{for} \quad \varepsilon = g(\sigma)$$

## Cyclic Stress Strain Curve

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Cyclic stress-strain  
(Ramberg-Osgood)

Used to calculate cyclical stress strain behavior and obtain mean stress



$$\Delta\varepsilon = \frac{\Delta\sigma}{E} + 2 \left( \frac{\Delta\sigma}{2K'} \right)^{1/n'}$$

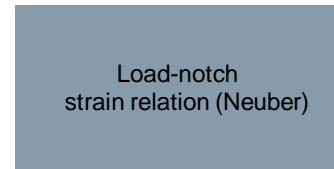
E : Young's Modulus

K': Cyclic Hardening Coeff

n': Cyclic Hardening Exponent

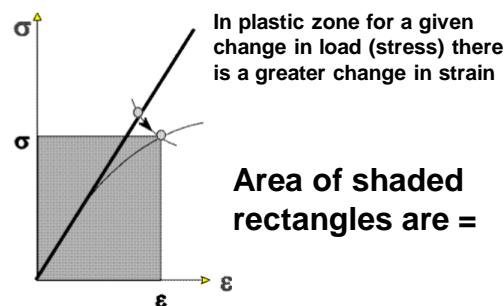
## Neuber's Rule

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- Converts elastic stress-strain to plastic stress-strain in notch

- Not needed in test if gauge is placed plastic zone of notch

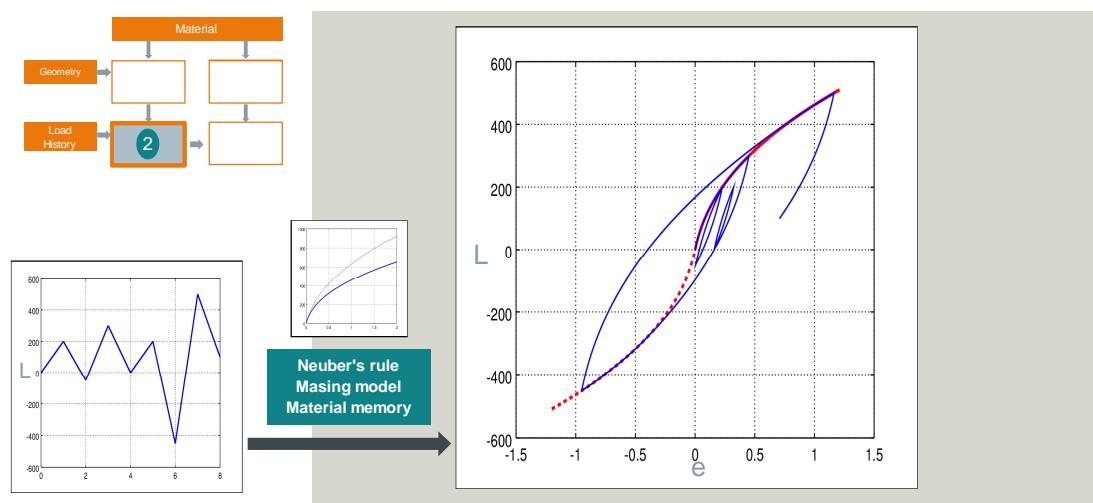


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## 2 – Load-Strain Path

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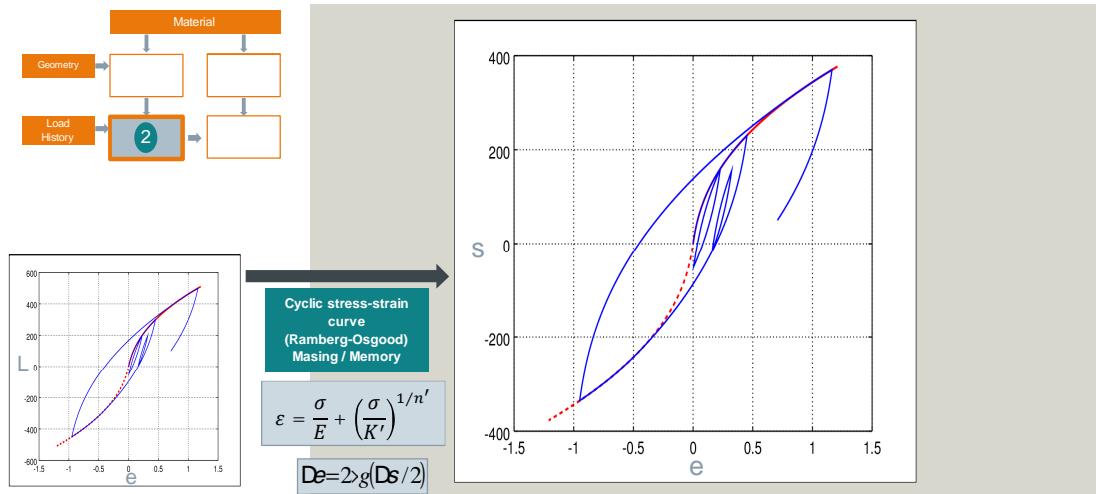


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## 2 – Local Stress-Strain Path

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## Explanation – Masing Behavior

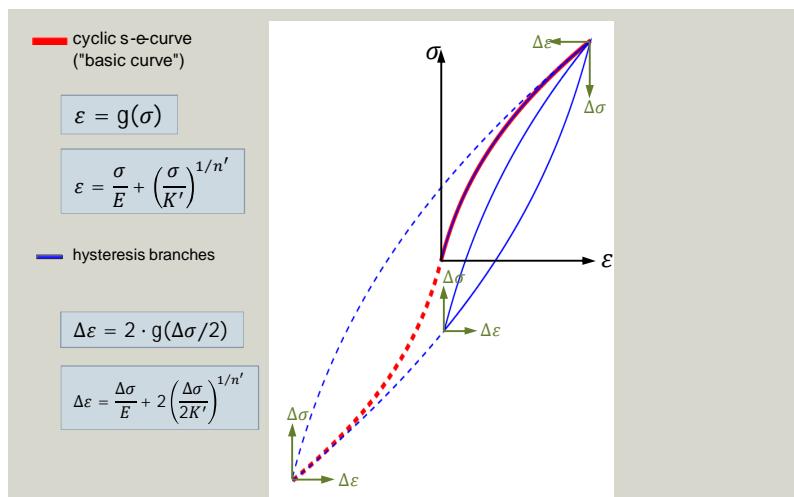
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The hysteresis branches for un-loading or re-loading are derived from "doubling" the cyclic s-e-curve.

The ranges for s and e ( $\Delta s$  and  $\Delta e$ ) on a hysteresis branch correspond to twice the values for s and e on the basic curve:

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta\sigma &= 2 \cdot \sigma \\ \Delta\varepsilon &= 2 \cdot \varepsilon\end{aligned}$$

Next to this the "Material Memory" must be taken into account! (see next page)



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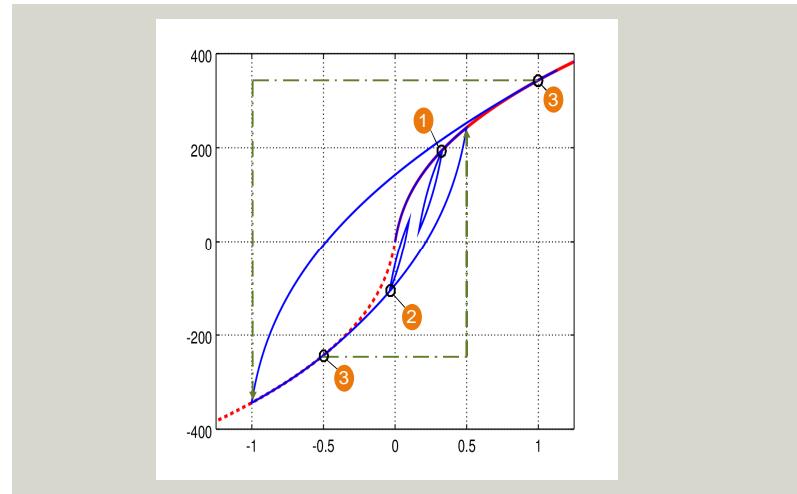
## Explanation – Material Memory

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1 After closing a hysteresis loop, which started at the basic curve (cyclic s-e-path), the s-e-path follows again the basic curve.

2 After closing a hysteresis loop, which started at a hysteresis branch, the s-e-path follows again the initial hysteresis branch.

3 A hysteresis branch, which started at the basic curve, ends at the basic curve in the opposite quadrant (point of symmetry). Then, the s-e-path follows the basic curve.



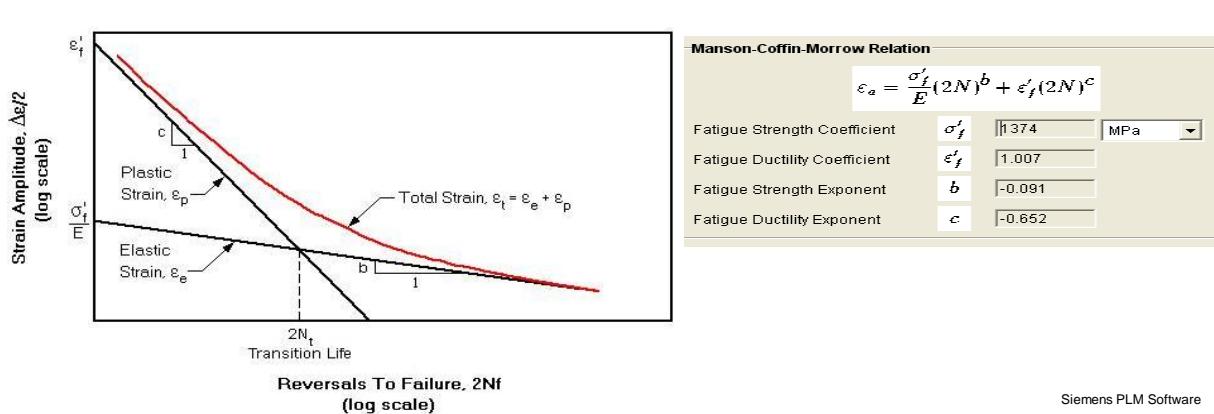
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## E-N Curve

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E-N Curve relates strain amplitude to cycles to Failure. Will have similar adjustments in level as S-N curve.



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## Mean Stress Corrections

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Damage for closed hysteresis loops  
(Smith-Watson-Topper)

Allows user to calculate damage from E-N curve with mean and max stress from closed hysteresis loop

Once adjusted strain amplitude calculate number of cycles to failure is taken from

E-N Curve

$$\sigma_{\max} \cdot \varepsilon_a = \frac{(\sigma'_f)^2}{E} \cdot (2N_i)^{2b} + \sigma'_f \cdot \varepsilon'_f \cdot (2N_i)^{b+c}$$

Parameter	Solution Parameter Name	Definition
Smith-Watson-Topper	P_SWT original P_SWT linear	$P_{SWT} = \sqrt{(\sigma_a + \sigma_m) \cdot \varepsilon_a \cdot E}$
Smith-Watson-Topper for shear stresses	P_SWT Torsion original P_SWT Torsion linear	$P_{SWT} = \sqrt{ \tau_{\max}  \cdot \gamma_a \cdot G}$
Bergmann	P Bergmann	$P_B = \sqrt{(\sigma_a + k\sigma_m) \cdot \varepsilon_a \cdot E}$
No mean stress influence	No mean stress influence	$P = \varepsilon_a$
Morrow type	P_Morrow	$P_{Mor} = \frac{\sigma_a}{E} \frac{1}{1 - \sigma_m / \sigma'_f} + \varepsilon_a \cdot p$
Vormwald	P_J	See the formula below

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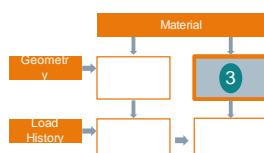
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Note: SWT predicts no damage when max stress is <=0

## 3 – Damage Parameter Life Curve

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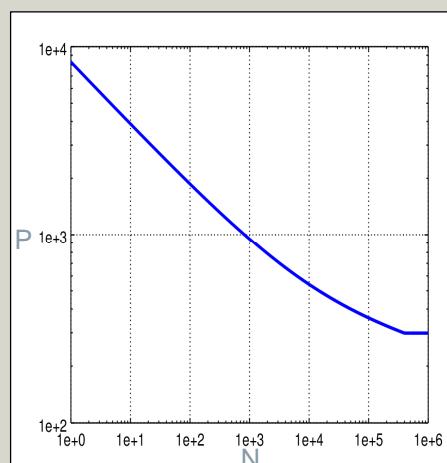


Derive damage parameter life curve from the material data and damage parameter,

e.g. Smith-Watson-Topper

$$P_{SWT} = \sqrt{(S_a + S_m) \cdot \varepsilon_a \cdot E}$$

(use strain-life curve with  $S_m = 0$ )



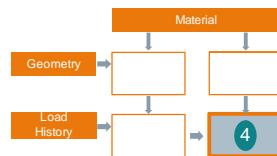
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## 4 – Calculate and Accumulate Damage of Hysteresis Loops

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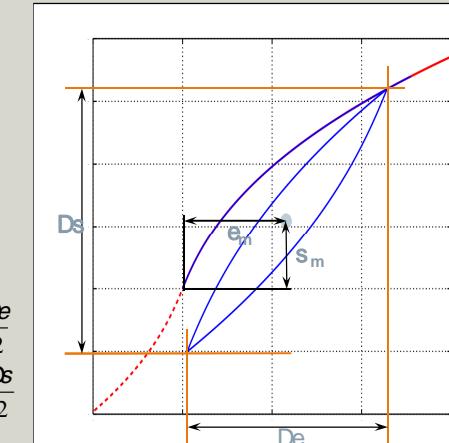
From the local stress-strain path get stress amplitude, strain amplitude and mean stress of each hysteresis loop.

Calculate P value and derive number of cycles  $N_i$  from the damage parameter life curve.

Damage  $D_i = 1/N_i$

Damage accumulation (Miner's rule):

$$D = \sum_i D_i$$



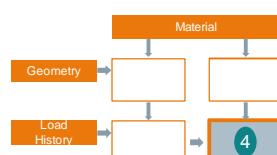
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## 4 – Derive Fatigue Life

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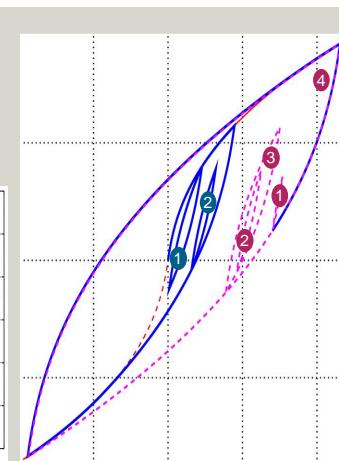
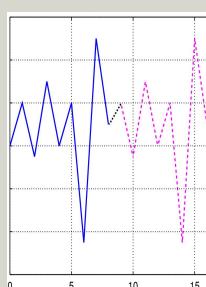
Number and parameters of hysteresis loops in the 1<sup>st</sup> run differs from loops in 2<sup>nd</sup> (and all further) runs.

Fatigue Life N = Number of runs ("blocks") until the Miner sum reaches 1:

$$1 = D_{1\text{st}} + (N-1) \cdot D_{2\text{nd}}$$

1<sup>st</sup> run: 2 loops

2<sup>nd</sup> run: 4 loops



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## Pros and Cons of Strain Life

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### Pros:

- Good for both elastic and plastic deformation
- Strain controlled test on smooth specimen closely approximate strain in notches
- Accounts for load sequencing (order of cycles matter) by creating cyclical stress-strain diagram

### Cons

- Empirical – many tests required to determine material properties (but uniform material law available)
- Much more difficult to calculate than stress life need computers for iterative solutions

### Applications:

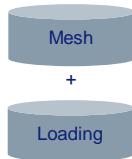
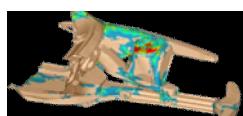
- Chassis Durability, Higher cycle amplitudes
- Low cycle fatigue
- AND high cycle fatigue
- Most commonly used for CAE-based fatigue

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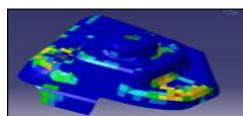
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## Simulation Fatigue Process

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Stress analysis



Fatigue analysis



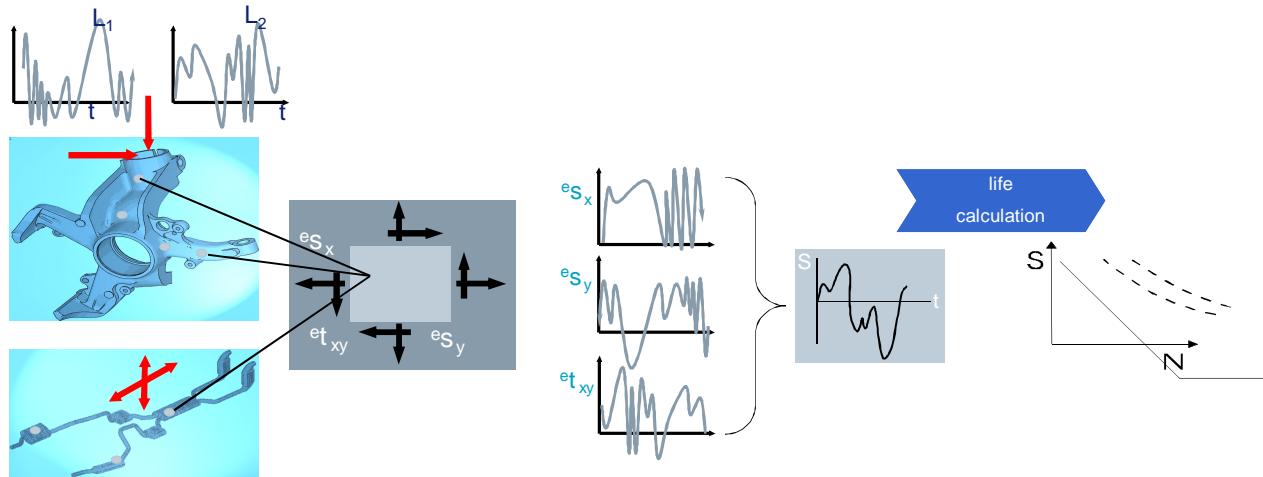
1. Get realistic load time histories The fatigue damage is highly influenced by the loads applied to the structure.
2. Get the local stress/strain tensor histories  
Fatigue depends on the complete stress/strain time histories in the structure:
3. Accumulate damage  
Depending on the fatigue target, the material and loading type fatigue simulation accumulates the damage.

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## From Component Loads via Local Stresses to Fatigue Life

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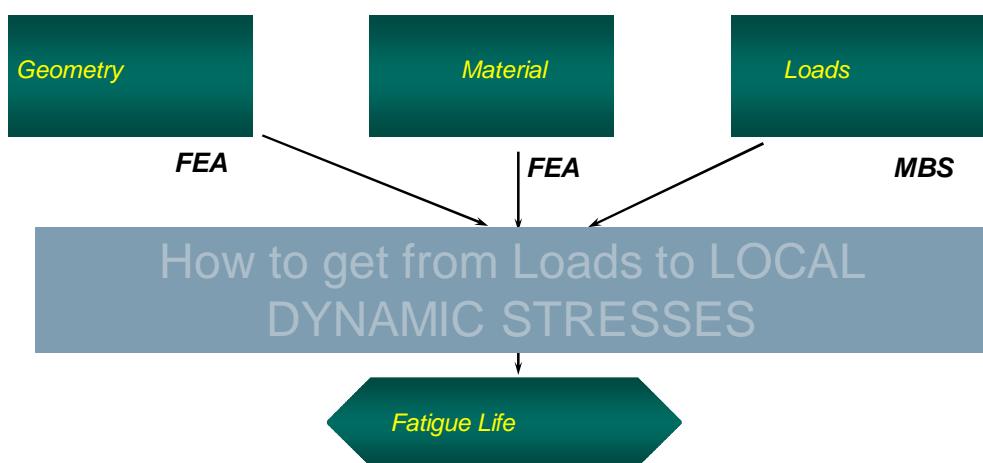


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## What influences fatigue?

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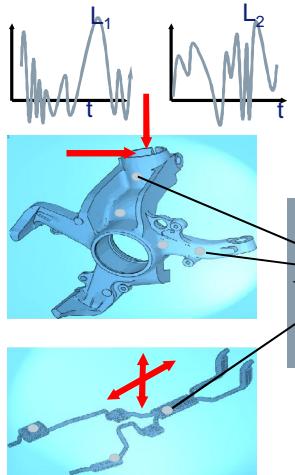


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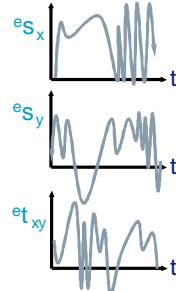
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## From component loads to stress tensor history

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From given forces acting on the component, determine time history of the local pseudo stress tensor based on theory of elasticity.



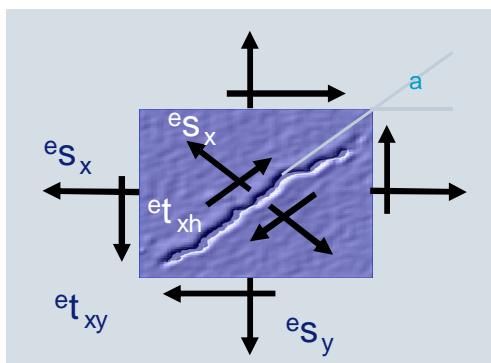
Loading frequency	lowest natural frequency: quasi-static superposition
Loading frequency	lowest natural frequency: modal superposition

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## Simulation Calculations

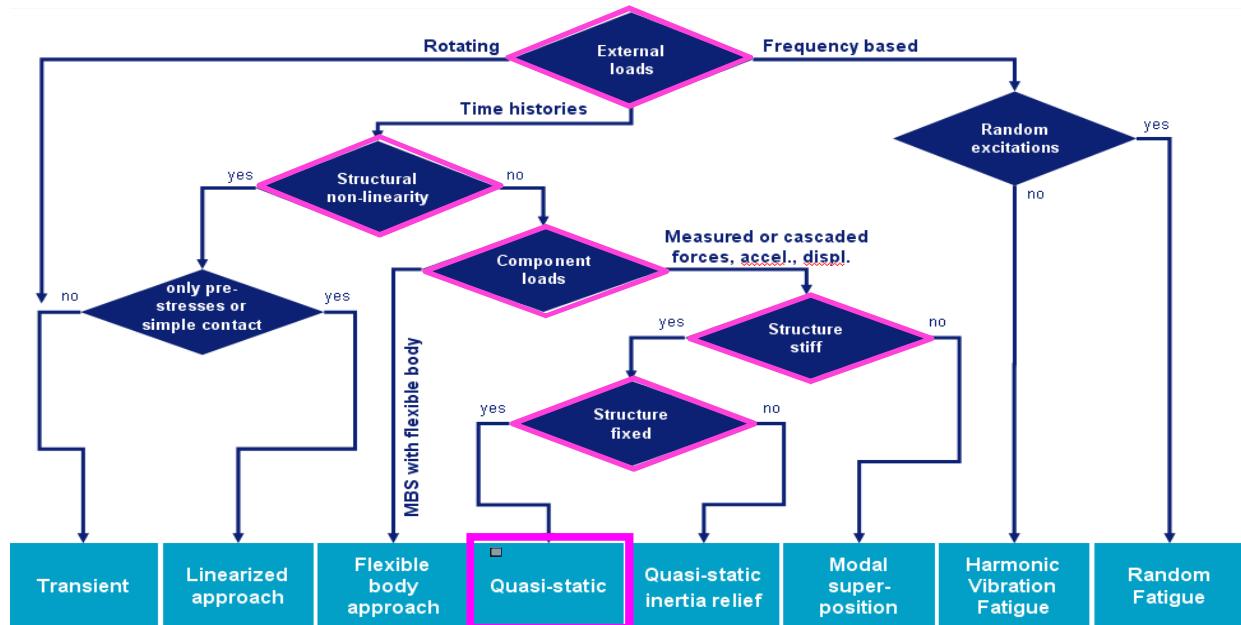
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Simulation Calculates a Planar Stress Tensor at each Node  
Tensor consist of three terms in diagram

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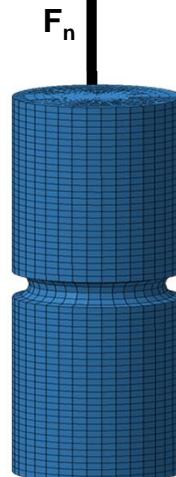
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## Unit Load

### Finite Element Models are used

- When  $F_n=1$ : referred to as a “Static Unit Load Case”
- Stress is calculated at each element – as opposed to a predetermined location
- because real geometry is more complex than this . . .

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### \* Normal Stress

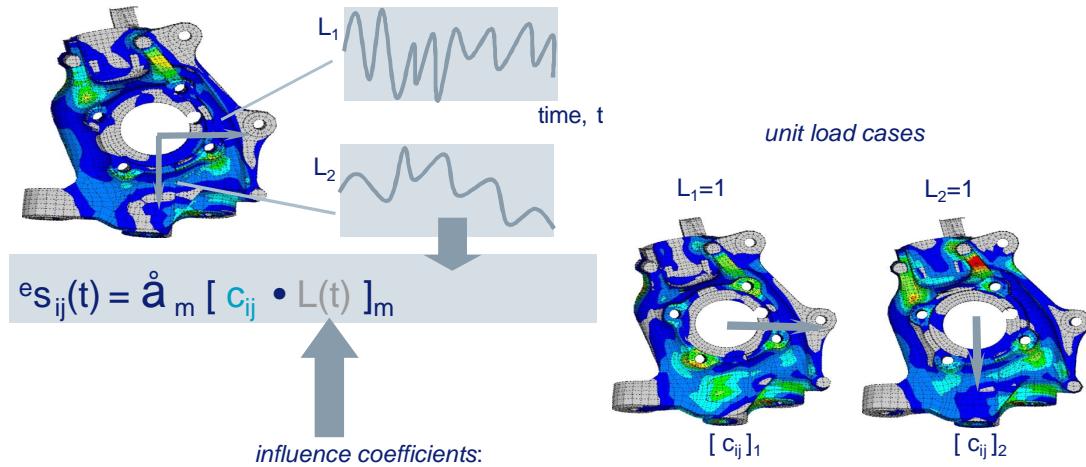
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## Quasi-static Superposition

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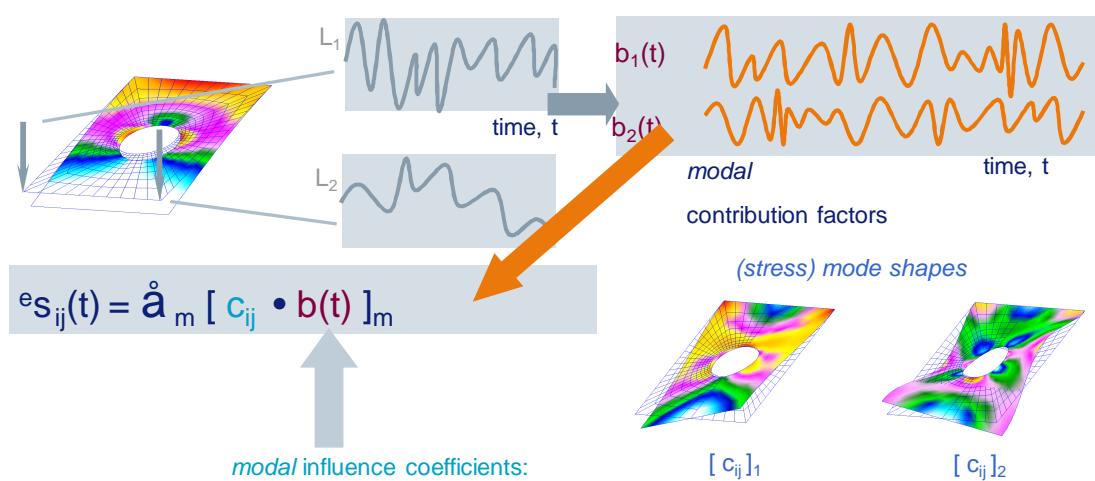


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## Modal Superposition

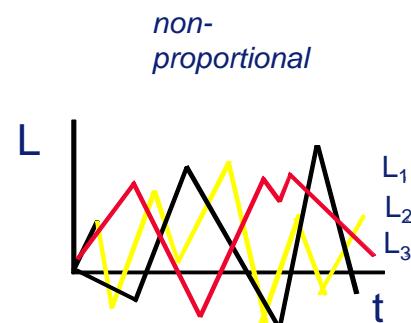
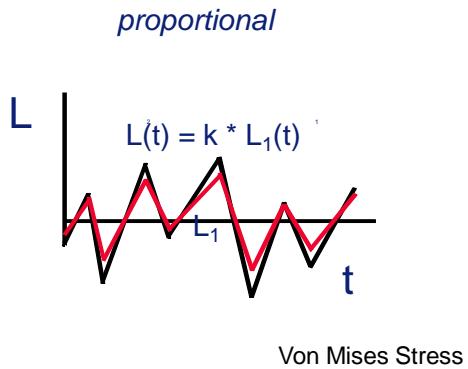
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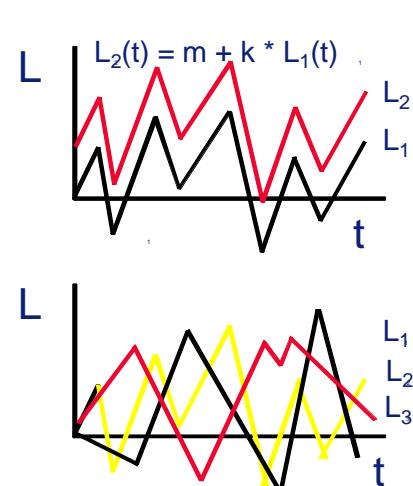
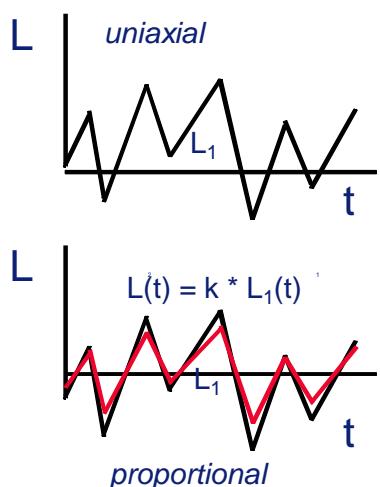
## How do Analyze the Stress Tensor? Classification of Loading Types



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$$\sigma_q(t) = \text{SGN} * \left[ \sigma_x^2 - \sigma_x \sigma_y + \sigma_y^2 + 3\tau_{xy}^2 \right]^{1/2}$$

## Classification of Loading Types

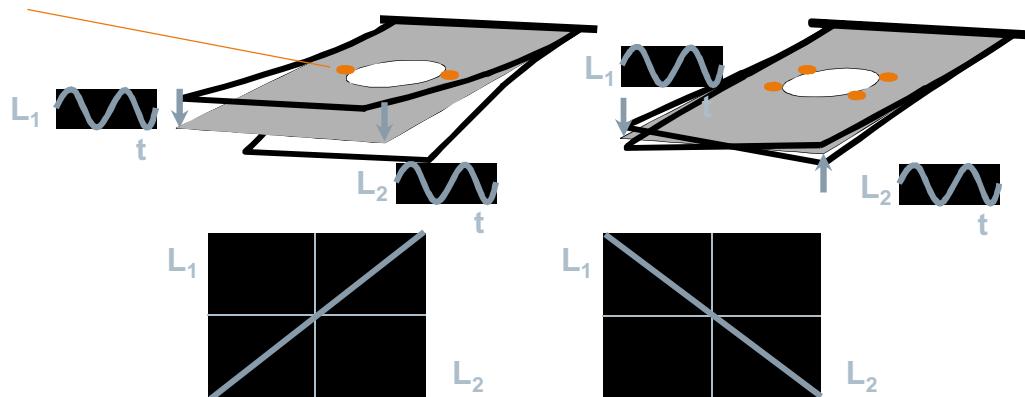


$$\sigma_q(t) = \text{SGN} * \left[ \sigma_x^2 - \sigma_x \sigma_y + \sigma_y^2 + 3\tau_{xy}^2 \right]^{1/2}$$

## Phasing Between Load Channels Determines Critical Locations (1)

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proportional loading:  
critical locations determined by static stress analysis



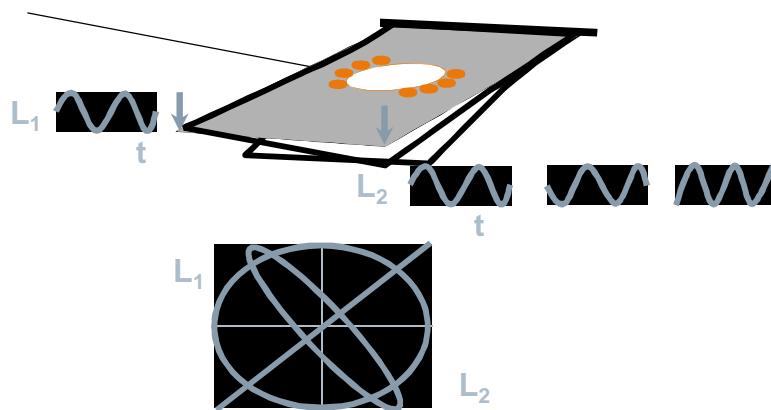
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## Phasing Between Load Channels Determines Critical Locations (2)

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non-proportional loading:  
critical locations determined by load history (time domain)

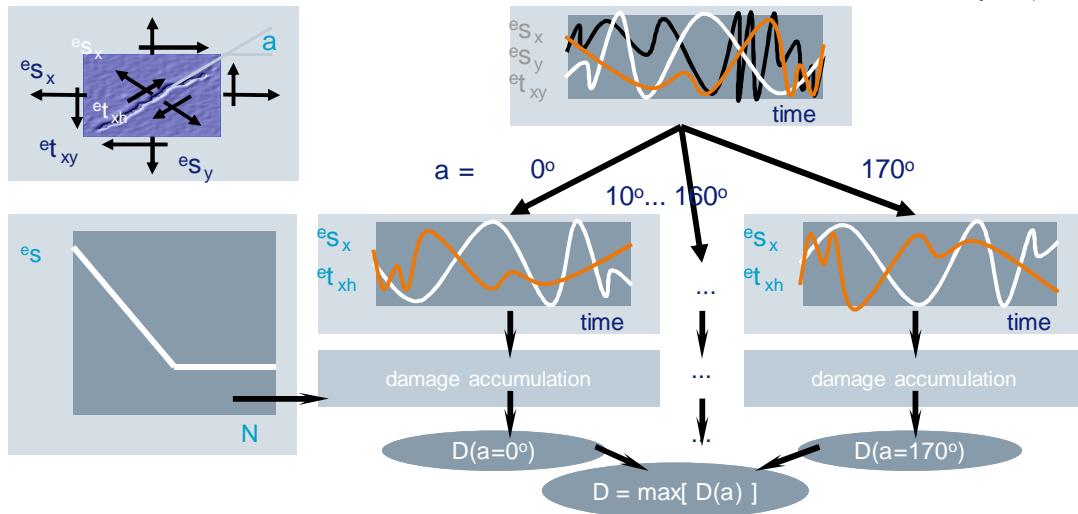


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## Critical Plane Approach

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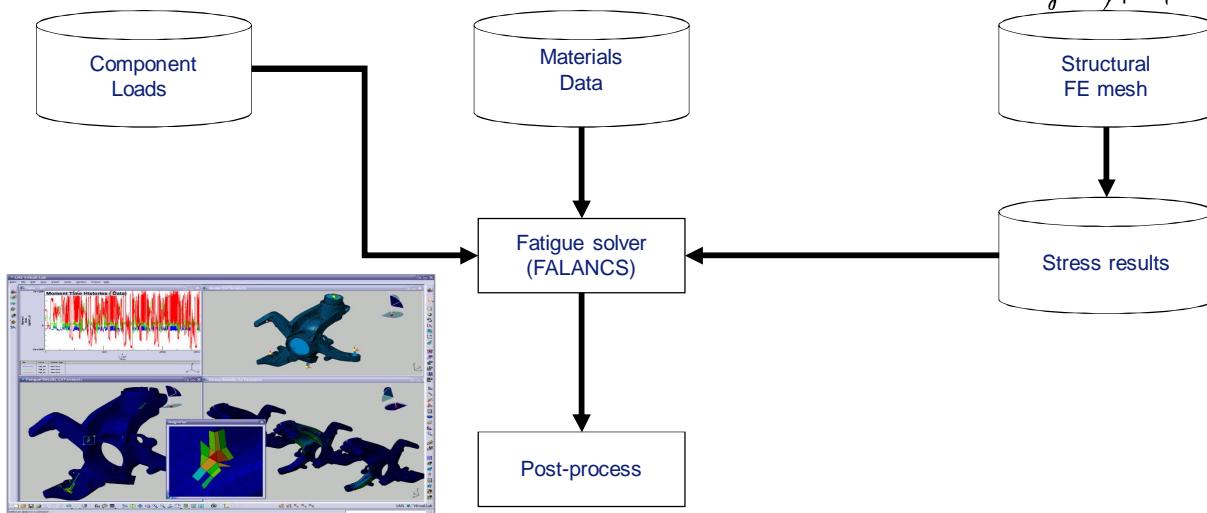


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## Component Fatigue

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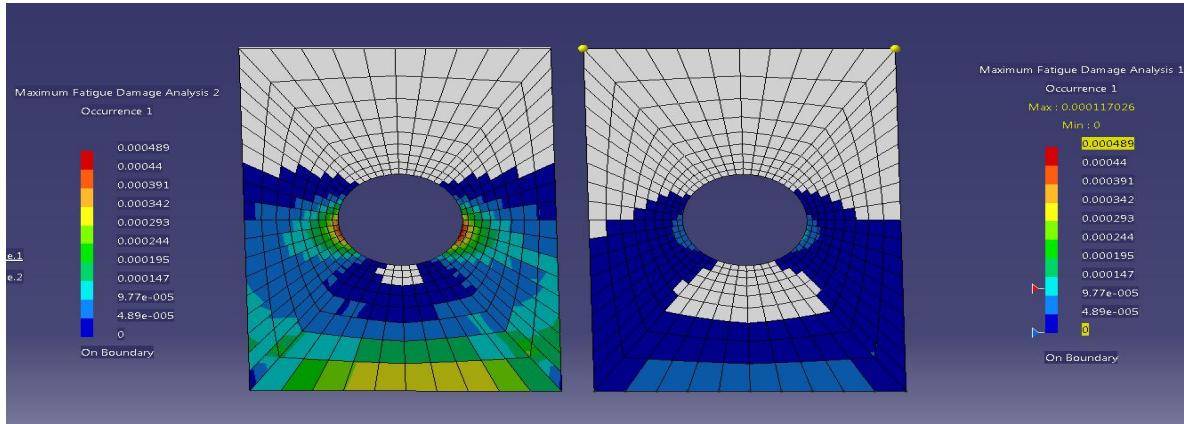


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## Why a Fatigue Solver Demo

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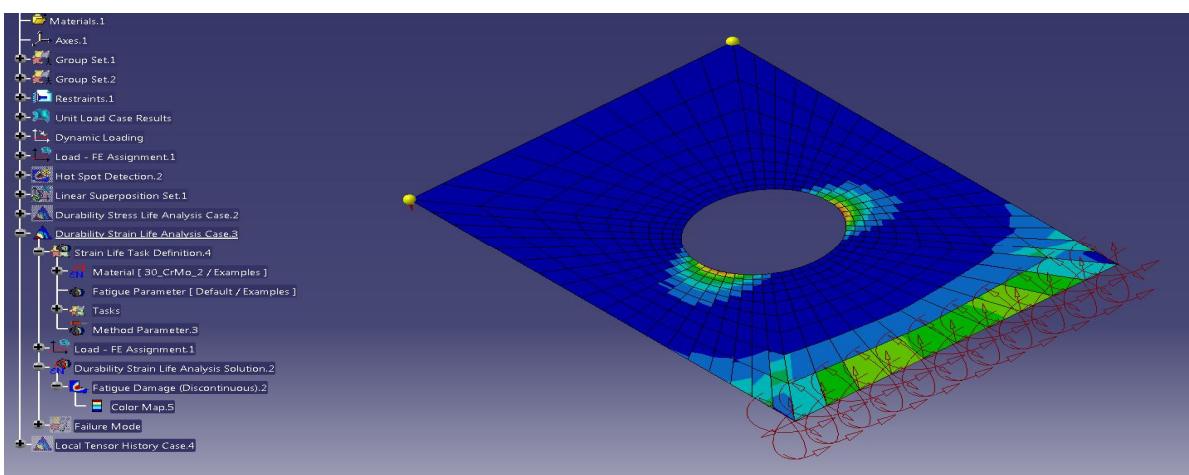


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## Simulation Stress and Strain Life Demo

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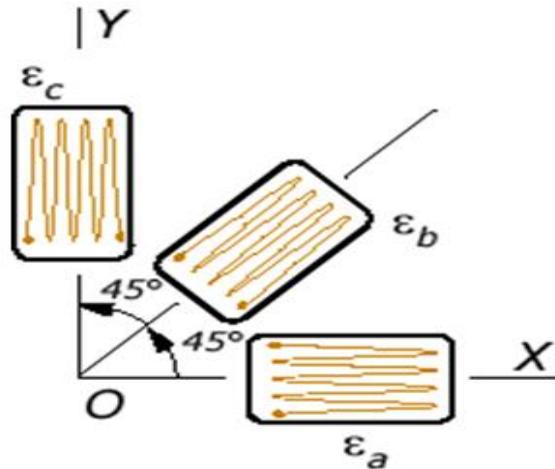


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## Understanding the Rosette

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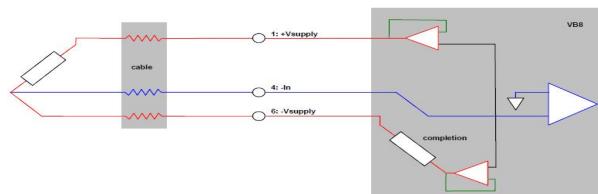
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## The Rosette – What Is It?

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1. Typically three 3-wire quarter bridges



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## Why Would I use a Rosette?

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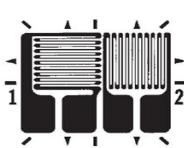
1. I do not have a uniaxial strain field
2. I need to do multi-axial fatigue
3. I need to understand the planar strain and stress field to correlate to simulation



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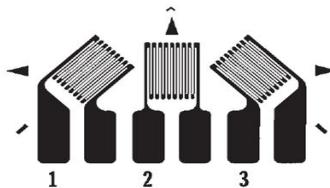
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## Types of Rosettes



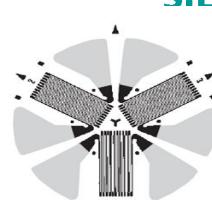
Tee

0/90



Rectangular

0/45/90



Delta

0/60/120

The tee rosette should be used only when the principal strain directions are known in advance from other considerations. Cylindrical pressure vessels and shafts in torsion are two classical examples

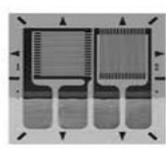


Fig. 3 B

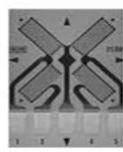
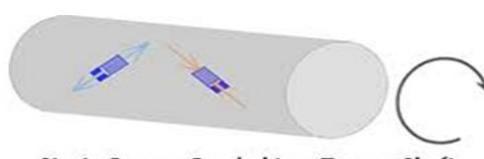


Fig. 3 C



Strain Gauges Bonded to a Torque Shaft

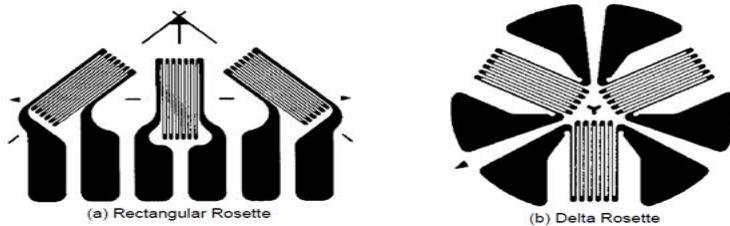
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## Rectangular vs Delta

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1. Rectangular the math is a little easier
  - Historically more popular
2. Delta – maximum angle difference provides optimum sampling of underlying strain distribution
  - Modern computers negate additional math difference
3. Practically little difference

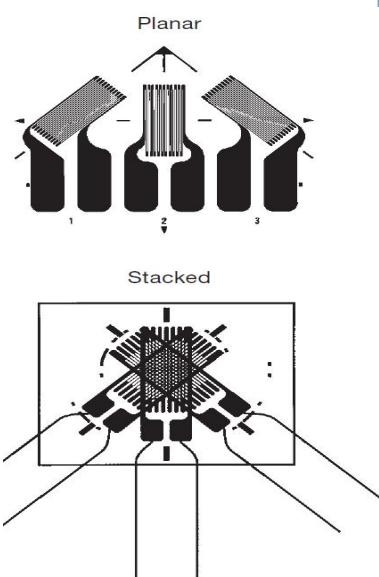


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## Planar vs Stacked

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1. Planar – when strain gradients are not too severe
  - 1. Thin and flexible, with greater conformability to curved surfaces;
  - 2. Minimal reinforcing effect;
  - 3. Superior heat dissipation to the test part;
  - 4. Available in all standard forms of gage construction,;
  - 5. Optimal stability;
  - 6. Maximum freedom in lead wire routing and attachment.
  - 7. Same transverse sensitivity coefficient for arms 1 and 3, while arm 2 typically has other coefficient

Stacked –Large strain gradients

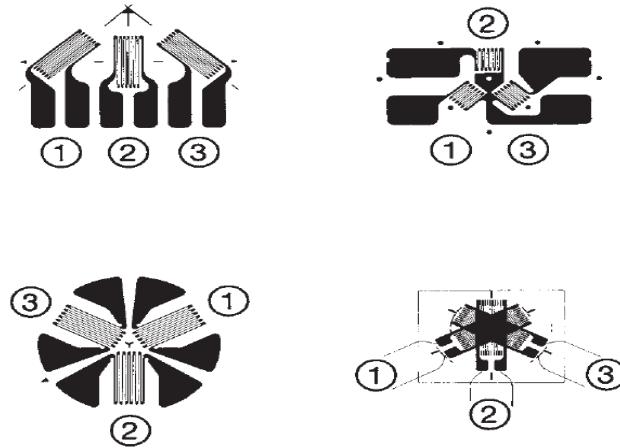
1. Minimum surface area available
2. Large strain gradients
3. Same transverse sensitivity coefficient for all 3 arms

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## Numbering Rosettes

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- Number Gauges in Counter Clockwise (CCW) Orientation common convention
- With Rectangular Gauge 1 & 3 must be 90 deg apart
- With Delta Gauge 2 and 3 must be 60 deg apart

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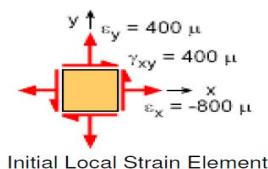
## So How Do We Get from a Rosette to a Plane Strain State?

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- 2D planar strain state can be defined by either

### 1. Strain Tensor - Simulation Output

$$\begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_x & \varepsilon_{xy} \\ \varepsilon_{yx} & \varepsilon_y \end{bmatrix}$$



$$\varepsilon_{xy} = 0.5 * \gamma_{xy}$$

### 2. Two principal strains and their direction

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## Mathematically Deriving Rosette EQN's

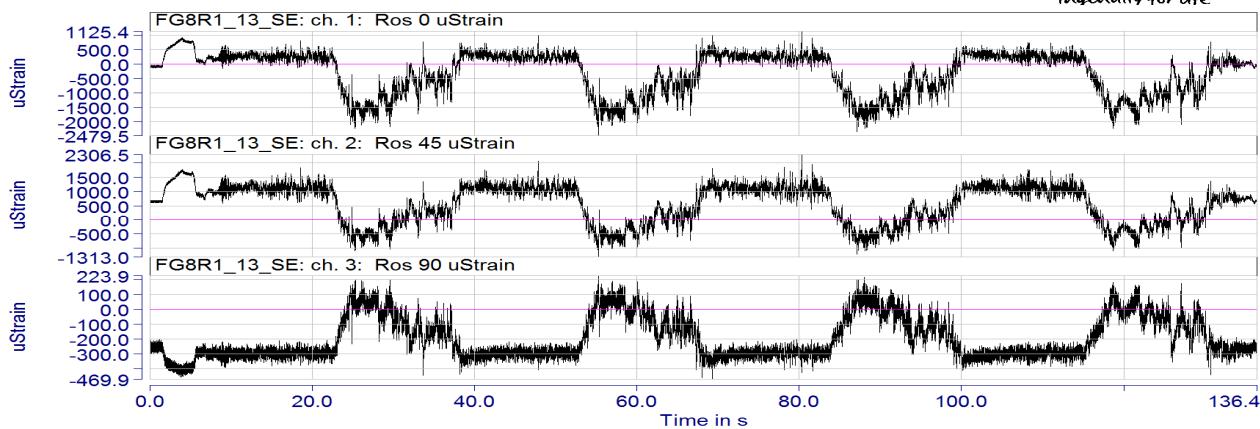
Principal strain and angle quantities can be derived from Rosette measurements using the 2-D strain transformation equations below:



$$\begin{aligned}\varepsilon_x' &= \varepsilon_x \cos^2 \theta + \varepsilon_y \sin^2 \theta + \gamma_{xy} \sin \theta \cos \theta \\ \varepsilon_y' &= \varepsilon_x \sin^2 \theta + \varepsilon_y \cos^2 \theta - \gamma_{xy} \sin \theta \cos \theta \\ \gamma_{x'y'} &= 2(\varepsilon_y - \varepsilon_x) \sin \theta \cos \theta + \gamma_{xy} (\cos^2 \theta - \sin^2 \theta)\end{aligned}$$

An alternative method which we will cover is to use Mohr's Circle

## Sample Rectangular Rosette Data



Note: Make sure angle in channel name, many algorithms use for processing.

Calculation done for each Point in Time, Rosette quantities constantly changing

## Definition of Terms – Focus on Rectangular Rosette

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Rectangular Rosette			
K1	Gauge at 0 deg		
K2	Gauge at 45 deg		
K3	Gauge at 90 deg		
Strain Tensor		Stress Tensor	
d11	Normal Strain x	S11	Normal Stress x
d22	Normal Strain y	S22	Normal Stress y
d12	Shear Strain	S12	Shear Stress
Principal Strains		Principal Stress	
E1	Principal Strain 1	S1	Principal Stress 1
E2	Principal Strain 2	S2	Principal Stress 2
E3	Principal Strain 3		
Angle			
$\phi$	Angle from K1 to E1		
Biaxiality Ratio			
$\Lambda$	Principal Stress Ratio		
VonMises Strain		VonMises Stress	
E_VM	VonMises Strain	S_vM	VonMises Stress
Tresca Strain		Tresca Stress	
E_tresca	Tresca Strain	S_Tresca	Tresca Stress
Mohr's Circle			
E_avg	Average Strain		
$\gamma$	Mohr's Circle Shear Strain		
$\tau$	Mohr's Circle Shear Stress		
r	Radius of Mohr's Circle		
Material Properties			
E	Young's Modulus		
G	Shear Modulus		
$\nu$	Poisson's Ratio		

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Can have up to 17 outputs from rosette inputs

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## Rosette Quantities from Mohr's Circle Step 1 – Strain **SIEMENS** Tensor

From rectangular rosette calculate the strain tensor

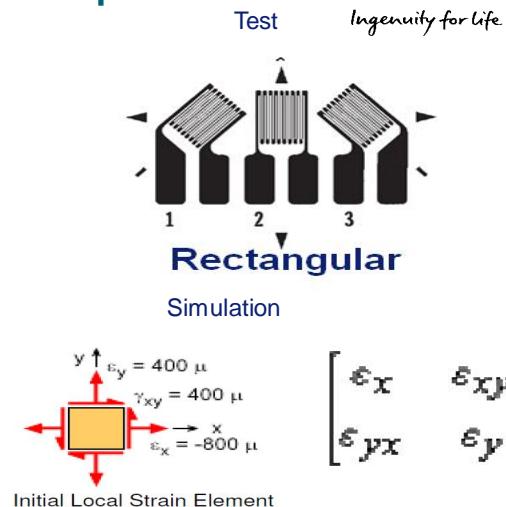
Rosette Values ( $\mu\epsilon$ )	
K1	-800
K2	0
K3	400

$$d11 = K1 = -800$$

$$d22 = K3 = 400$$

$$d12 = \frac{1}{2}\gamma_{xy} = K2 - \frac{1}{2}(K1 + K3) = 200$$

Strain Tensor	
d11	-800
d22	400
d12	200



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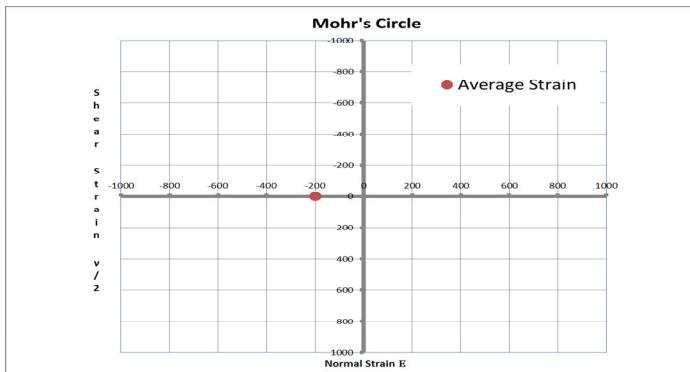
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## Rosette Quantities from Mohr's Circle Step 2 – Average Strain

From Strain Tensor Calculate the Average Strain

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Strain Tensor	
d11	-800
d22	400
d12	200

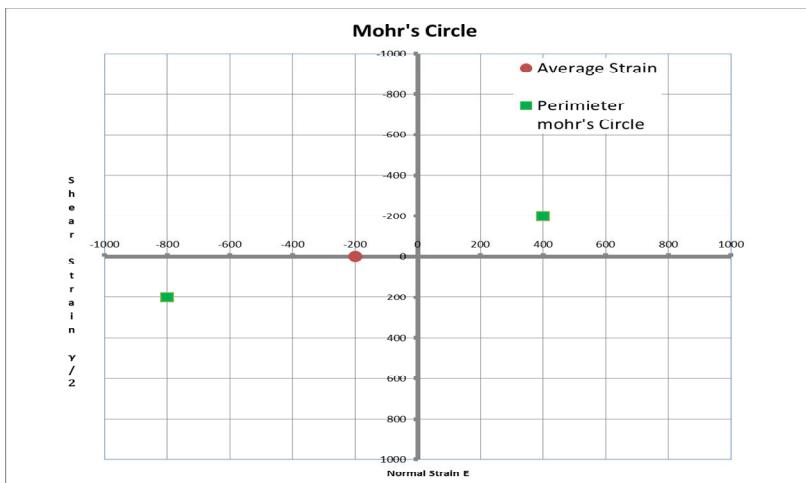
Average Strain

$$E_{avg} = \frac{(d11 + d22)}{2} = -200$$

Note: Mohr's circle is constructed with positive shear strain plotted downward. This is done so that the positive rotational direction in Mohr's circle is the same (CCW) as for the rosette, while maintaining the usual sign convention for shear

## Rosette Quantities from Mohr's Circle Step 3 – Define Points on Circle

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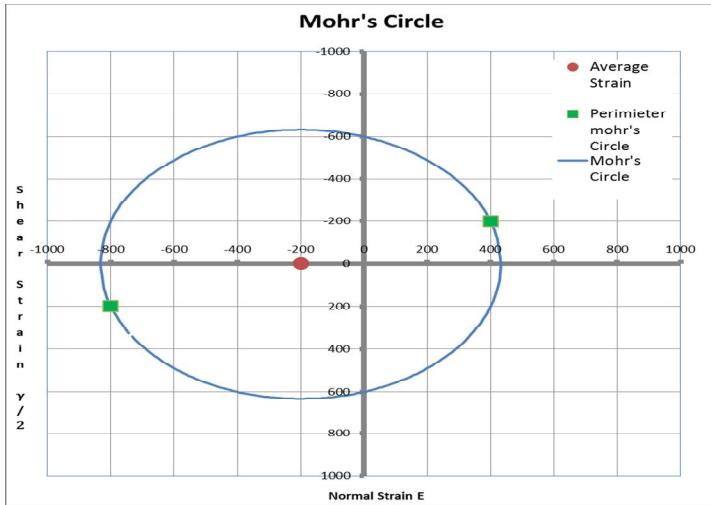
Strain Tensor	
d11	-800
d22	400
d12	200

Perimeter Points

	E	d12
Either	d11,d12	-800
or	d22,-d12	400

Note: We only need 1 perimeter point to define Mohr's Circle

## Rosette Quantities from Mohr's Circle Step 4 – Calculate Radius and Draw Mohr's Circle



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Strain Tensor	
d11	-800
d22	400
d12	200

## Radius of Circle

$$E = 200 + 400$$

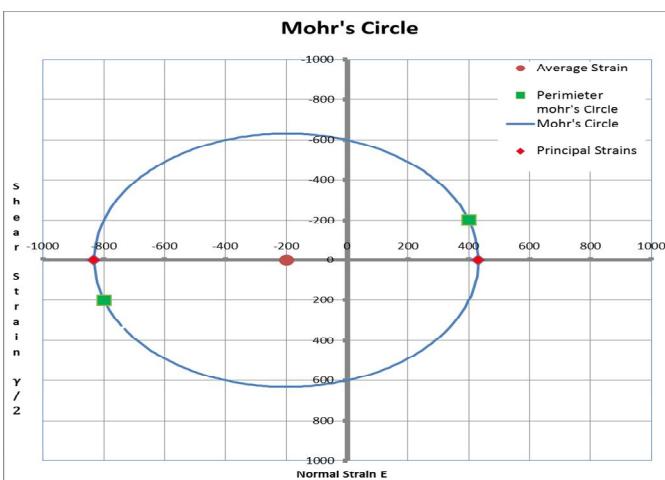
$$\frac{\gamma}{2} = -200$$

$$\text{radius} = \sqrt{E^2 + \left(\frac{\gamma}{2}\right)^2} = 632.5$$

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## Rosette Quantities from Mohr's Circle Step 5 – Calculate Principal Strains

Principal Strains are the intersection of Mohr's circle and the x-axis



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## Principal Strains

$$E1 = E_{avg} + r = 432.5$$

$$E2 = E_{avg} - r = -832.5$$

## Notes:

- Principal Strains are located along x-axis at 0 Shear Strain
- Alternative definition: Principal strains are the eigenvalues of the strain tensor, with  $E1 \geq E2$

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## Rosette Quantities from Mohr's Circle Step 5 – Calculate Principal Strains

Principal Strains equations calculated directly from the rectangular rosette and strain tensor

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Rectangular Rosette:

$$\varepsilon_1 = \frac{K_1 + K_3}{2} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sqrt{(K_1 - K_2)^2 + (K_2 - K_3)^2}$$

$$\varepsilon_2 = \frac{K_1 + K_3}{2} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sqrt{(K_1 - K_2)^2 + (K_2 - K_3)^2}$$

Strain Tensor:

$$\varepsilon_1 = \frac{\varepsilon_x + \varepsilon_y}{2} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{\varepsilon_x - \varepsilon_y}{2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\gamma}{2}\right)^2}$$

$$\varepsilon_2 = \frac{\varepsilon_x + \varepsilon_y}{2} - \sqrt{\left(\frac{\varepsilon_x - \varepsilon_y}{2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\gamma}{2}\right)^2}$$

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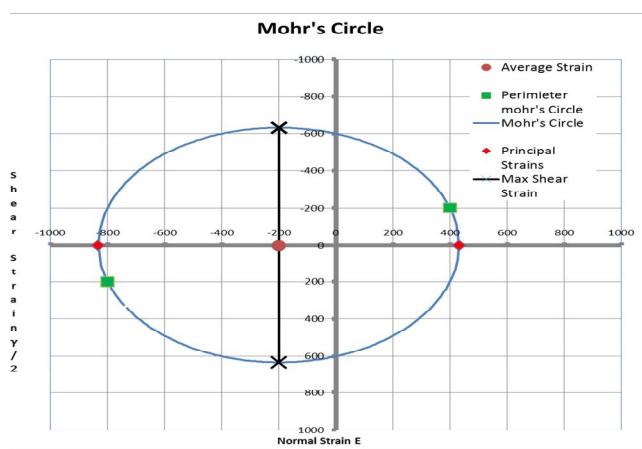
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## Rosette Quantities from Mohr's Circle Step 6– Calculate Maximum Shear Strain

Maximum Shear Strain is simply the diameter of the Mohr's Circle

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Maximum Shear Strain

Diameter of Mohr's Circle

$$2r = 1265$$

OR

The Magnitude of the Difference in Principal Strains

$$|\varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2| = |432.5 - (-832.5)| = 1265$$

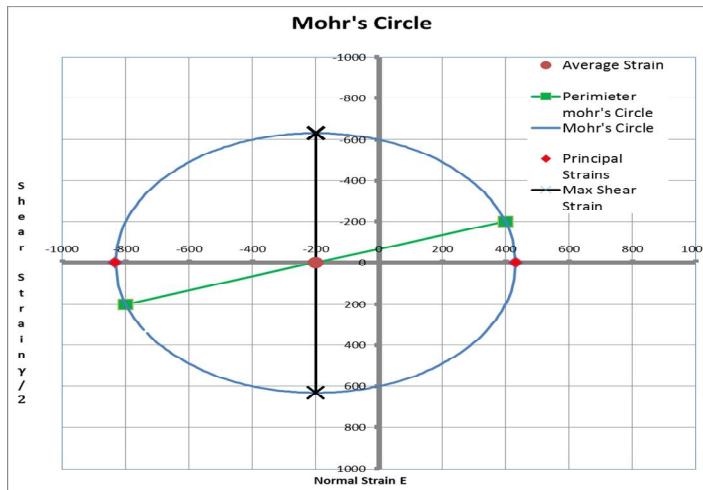
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## Rosette Quantities from Mohr's Circle Step 7a– Calculate Angle

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- The angle tells us how much to rotate the rosette to align with the axis corresponding to the 1st principal strain  $E_1$ 
  - CCW is Positive
  - CW is Negative



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## Rosette Quantities from Mohr's Circle Step 7b– Calculate Angle

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Unfortunately, since  $\tan 2\phi \equiv \tan 2(\phi + 90^\circ)$ , the calculated angle can refer to either principal axis. Therefore, extra conventions are needed:

$$\text{Angle: with } N = 2 \cdot K_2 - K_1 - K_3, \quad D = K_1 - K_3, \quad \psi = \left| \arctan \left( \frac{N}{D} \right) \right| \cdot \frac{180^\circ}{\pi}, \quad \psi = 90^\circ \text{ if } D = 0$$

$\epsilon_0$	K1	-800
$\epsilon_{45}$	K2	0
$\epsilon_{90}$	K3	400

$$\varphi = \frac{1}{2}\psi \quad \text{if } N \geq 0 \text{ and } D > 0$$

$$\boxed{\varphi = \frac{1}{2}(180^\circ - \psi)} \quad \text{if } N > 0 \text{ and } D \leq 0$$

$$\varphi = \frac{1}{2}(180^\circ + \psi) \quad \text{if } N \leq 0 \text{ and } D < 0$$

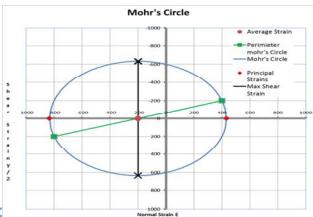
$$\varphi = \frac{1}{2}(360^\circ - \psi) \quad \text{if } N < 0 \text{ and } D \geq 0$$

$$\varphi = 0^\circ \quad \text{if } N = 0 \text{ and } D = 0$$

N	400	
D	-1200	
0.32	18.43	deg

$$\varphi = \frac{1}{2}(180^\circ - \psi) \quad \text{if } N > 0 \text{ and } D \leq 0$$

**80.78 deg**

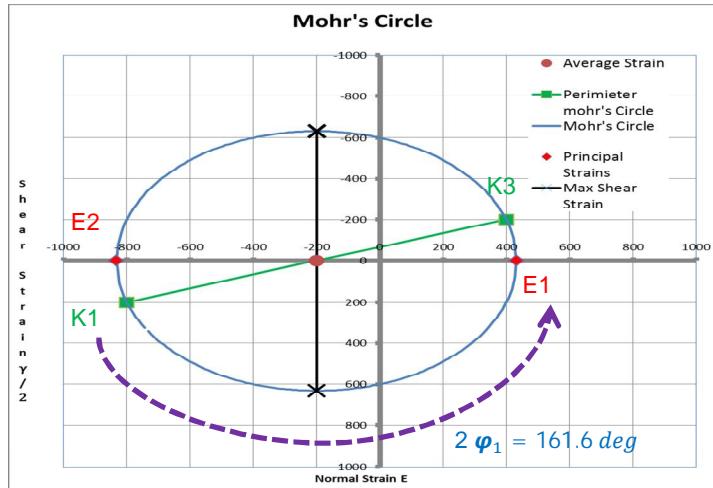


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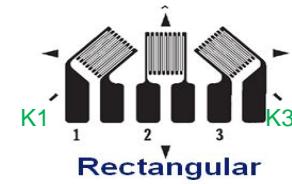
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## Angle Illustration



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Strain Tensor	
d11 = K1	-800
d22 = K3	400
d12	200



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## Okay let's Convert these Strains to Stresses: E

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We will discuss 3 terms first:

- Young's modulus = Modulus of Elasticity = Elastic Modulus = Tensile Modulus = E

A. The ratio of the stress along an axis over the strain along that axis in the range of stress in which Hooke's law holds

B. Measure of Stiffness

$$E \equiv \frac{\text{tensile stress}}{\text{tensile strain}} = \frac{\sigma}{\varepsilon} = \frac{F/A_0}{\Delta L/L_0} = \frac{FL_0}{A_0 \Delta L}$$

where

E is the Young's modulus (modulus of elasticity)

F is the force exerted on an object under tension;

A<sub>0</sub> is the original cross-sectional area through which the force is applied;

ΔL is the amount by which the length of the object changes;

L<sub>0</sub> is the original length of the object.

Units: GPa

Steel ≈ 200

Al ≈ 69

Rubber ≈ .01-1

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## Okay lets convert these Strains to Stresses: G

### 3. Shear Modulus or Modulus of Rigidity: G

C. The ratio of shear stress to the shear strain

$$G \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\tau_{xy}}{\gamma_{xy}} = \frac{F/A}{\Delta x/l} = \frac{Fl}{A\Delta x}$$

where

$\tau_{xy} = F/A$  = shear stress;

$F$  is the force which acts

$A$  is the area on which the force acts

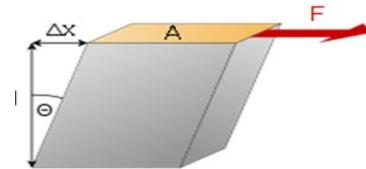
in engineering,  $\gamma_{xy} = \Delta x/l = \tan \theta$  = shear strain. Elsewhere,  $\gamma_{xy} = \theta$

$\Delta x$  is the transverse displacement

$l$  is the initial length

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Units: Gpa

Steel ≈ 79.3

AL ≈ 25.5

Rubber ≈ .0006

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## Okay lets convert these Strains to Stresses: v

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v

### 2. Poisson's Ratio

A. The negative ratio of transverse to axial strain. When a material is compressed in one direction, it usually tends to expand in the other two directions perpendicular to the direction of compression

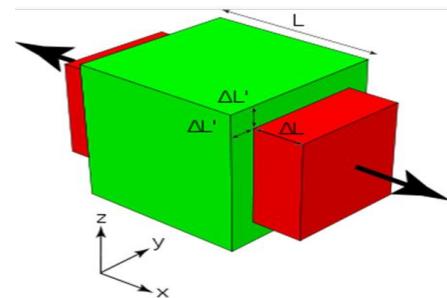
$$\nu = -\frac{d\varepsilon_{\text{trans}}}{d\varepsilon_{\text{axial}}} = -\frac{d\varepsilon_y}{d\varepsilon_x} = -\frac{d\varepsilon_z}{d\varepsilon_x}$$

Units: Non Dimensional

Steel ≈ .27-.3

AL ≈ .33

Rubber ≈ .5



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## Convenient Relationship of Material Properties

With any two material properties you can calculate the third



$$G = \frac{E}{2(1 + \nu)}$$

$$E = 2G(1 + \nu)$$

$$\nu = \frac{E}{2G} - 1$$

## Hooke's Law

Hooke's Law of Elasticity for Isotropic Materials with a Linear Stress-Strain Relationship



1-D

$$\sigma = E\varepsilon$$

2-D

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_x &= \frac{(\varepsilon_x + \nu \varepsilon_y) E}{(1 - \nu^2)} \\ \sigma_y &= \frac{(\varepsilon_y + \nu \varepsilon_x) E}{(1 - \nu^2)} \\ \tau &= G\gamma = \frac{E \gamma}{2(1 + \nu)}\end{aligned}$$

3-D

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_x &= \frac{E}{(1 + \nu)(1 - 2\nu)} [(1 - \nu)\varepsilon_x + \nu(\varepsilon_y + \varepsilon_z)] \\ \sigma_y &= \frac{E}{(1 + \nu)(1 - 2\nu)} [(1 - \nu)\varepsilon_y + \nu(\varepsilon_z + \varepsilon_x)] \\ \sigma_z &= \frac{E}{(1 + \nu)(1 - 2\nu)} [(1 - \nu)\varepsilon_z + \nu(\varepsilon_x + \varepsilon_y)] \\ \tau_{xy} &= G\gamma_{xy}; \quad \tau_{yz} = G\gamma_{yz}; \quad \tau_{xz} = G\gamma_{xz}\end{aligned}$$

## Stress Tensor from the Rosette

### Stress Tensor

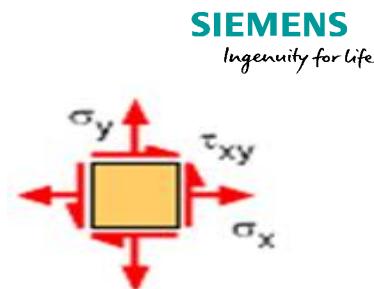
$$s_{11} = \sigma_x = \frac{E}{1-\nu^2} (K_1 + \nu \cdot K_3)$$

$$s_{22} = \sigma_y = \frac{E}{1-\nu^2} (K_3 + \nu \cdot K_1)$$

$$s_{12} = \tau = G\gamma = \frac{E}{1+\nu} [K_2 - \frac{1}{2}(K_1 + K_3)]$$

Rosette Values (uE)	
K1	-800
K2	0
K3	400

Material Properties		
Poisson Ratio	0.3	
Youngs Modulus	200	GPa
Shear Modulus	79.3	GPa



Stress Tensor		
s <sub>11</sub>	-149	MPa
s <sub>22</sub>	35	MPa
s <sub>12</sub>	31	MPa

## Rosette Quantities from Mohr's Circle Step 8– Calculate Principal Stresses

Using Hooke's law for a Biaxial Stress State  
must have linear stress/strain relationship

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### From Principal Strain

Principal Strains	
E <sub>1</sub>	432.5
E <sub>2</sub>	-832.5

$$S_1 = \frac{E}{(1-\nu^2)} (E_1 + \nu E_2)$$

$$S_2 = \frac{E}{(1-\nu^2)} (E_2 + \nu E_1)$$

### Principal Stresses

Principal Stresses		
S <sub>1</sub>	40	MPa
S <sub>2</sub>	-154	MPa

### Max Shear Stress

$$\tau_{max} = \frac{|S_1 - S_2|}{2} = 97 \text{ MPa}$$

## Rosette Quantities from Mohr's Circle Step 8– Calculate Principal Stresses

We can also calculate principal stresses from the rosette data and the stress tensor

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From Rectangular Rosette:

$$S_1 = \frac{E}{1-\nu} \cdot \frac{K_1 + K_3}{2} + \frac{E}{\sqrt{2}(1+\nu)} \cdot \sqrt{(K_1 - K_2)^2 + (K_2 - K_3)^2}$$

$$S_2 = \frac{E}{1-\nu} \cdot \frac{K_1 + K_3}{2} - \frac{E}{\sqrt{2}(1+\nu)} \cdot \sqrt{(K_1 - K_2)^2 + (K_2 - K_3)^2}$$

From Stress tensor:

$$S_1 = \sigma_1 = \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2}\right)^2 + \tau^2}$$

$$S_2 = \sigma_2 = \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} - \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2}\right)^2 + \tau^2}$$

## What Else Can I Calculate From a Rosette: Von Mises

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Von Mises Stress Sometimes Called Equivalent Stress or Maximum Distortion Energy Theory

$$S_{vM} = \sigma_{vM} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} [(S_1 - S_2)^2 + S_2^2 + S_1^2]}$$

VonMises Stress 178 MPa > max principal stress 154 MPa

When do we use it

- Proportional Loading
- To visualize stress field makes the Tensor into one Term
- If used for fatigue we use Signed Von Mises

## What Else Can I Calculate From a Rosette: Von Mises

VonMises Strain

$$\varepsilon_{vM} = \frac{1}{1+\nu} \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} [(E_1 - E_2)^2 + (E_2 - E_3)^2 + (E_3 - E_1)^2]}$$

For rosette

$$E_3 = -\frac{\nu}{1-\nu} (K_1 + K_3)$$

For Stress Tensor

$$E_3 = \varepsilon_3 = -\nu \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{E}$$

Where E3 is: the analytical calculation of the VonMises strain

derived from Sigma\_x, Sigma\_y, and the material properties

VonMises Strain is larger than the magnitude of the maximum principal strain

$$1. \quad \varepsilon_{vM} = 1054 \text{ uE} > 832 \text{ uE max principal}$$

Assumption: plane stress situation ( $\sigma_z = 0$ ).

## What Else Can I Calculate From a Rosette: Tresca

### 1. Tresca Max Shear Stress Theory

$$\sigma_{Tresca} = \sigma_e = 2\tau_{max} = \max(|S_1 - S_2|, |S_2|, |S_1|)$$

Principal Stresses		
S1	40	MPa
S2	-154	MPa

Tresca Max Shear Stress

$$2\tau_{max} = |S_1 - S_2| = 194 \text{ MPa}$$

## What Else Can I Calculate From a Rosette: Tresca

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### Tresca Max Shear Strain

$$\text{E}_\text{Tresca} = \varepsilon_e = \frac{1}{1+\nu} \cdot \max(|E_1 - E_2|, |E_2 - E_3|, |E_3 - E_1|)$$

	Strain	
Max E1-E2	973 muE	
Max E2-E3	-772 muE	
Max E3-E1	-201 muE	

Note max Values Scaled by  $1/(1+\nu)$

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## What Else Can I Calculate From a Rosette

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### 1. Bi-axiality Ratio

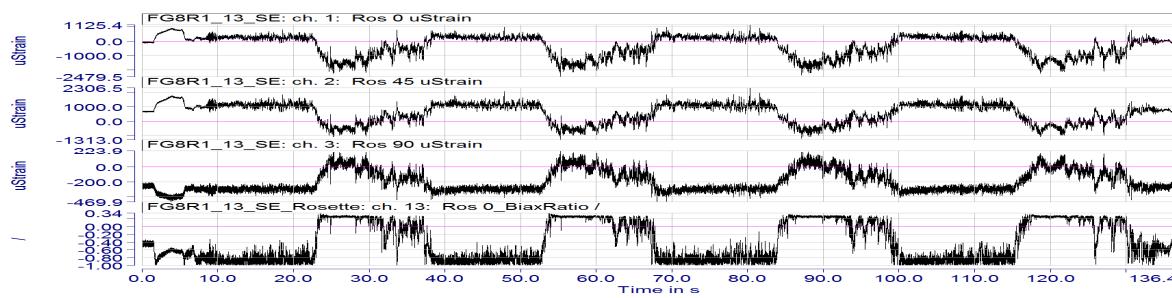
- Ratio of Principal Stresses (smallest versus largest)
- Number between -1 and 1
- = 0 -> uniaxial tension or compression
- = -1 -> pure shear (torsion)
- = +1 -> equi-biaxial

$$\text{BiaxRatio} = \Lambda = \frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1}$$

with  $\sigma_1 = S1$ ,  $\sigma_2 = S2$  if  $|S2| < |S1|$ , else  $\sigma_1 = S2$ ,  $\sigma_2 = S1$

Principal Stresses		
S1	40	MPa
S2	-154	MPa

-0.26



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## Biaxiality Plot

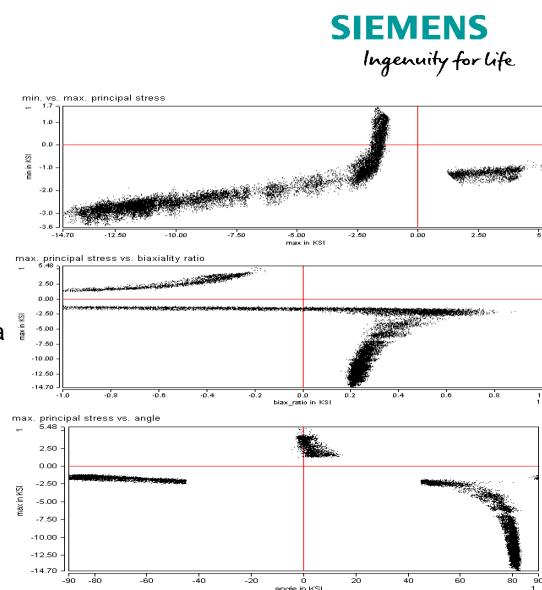
To identify local stress behavior

3 types of plots

1. Max principal stress S1 over angle ( $f$ )
2. Max principal stress S1 over  $S_2/S_1$   
(= biax ratio)
3. Max principal stress S1 over  
min principal stress  $S_2$

Out of plot 1 and 2, you can identify whether the local stress sta

- Uniaxial  
biax ratio ~0;  $f$  nearly constant
- Proportional  
biax ratio and  $f$  nearly constant  
but biax ratio  $\neq 0$
- Non-proportional  
biax ratio and  $f$  varying -> multi-axial



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## Sources of Error



1. Transverse Sensitivity + Gage Poisson coefficient
2. Thermal Effects
  1. Gage Factor Variation
  2. Gauge and wire resistance change with temperature
  3. Different thermal expansion between grid thermal conductor and test part.
  4. Thermal expansion of material (Thermal stress)
3. Grid Alignment
4. Uniform strain field under gauge
5. Large Strains
  1. Less than 2000  $\mu\text{E}$  -> small error
  2. Greater than 10000  $\mu\text{E}$  -> big error
    1. Non linear stress-strain, Hooke's law significant error

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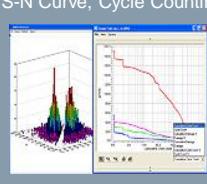
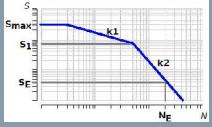
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## Conclusions

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1. If you do not know the strain field use a Rosette
2. Test Rosette comparable to CAE Stress Tensor
3. Bi-Axiality ratio and angle can be used to determine type of loading
  1. Uniaxial
  2. Torsional
  3. Proportional
  4. Multi-Axial

## Durability Agenda

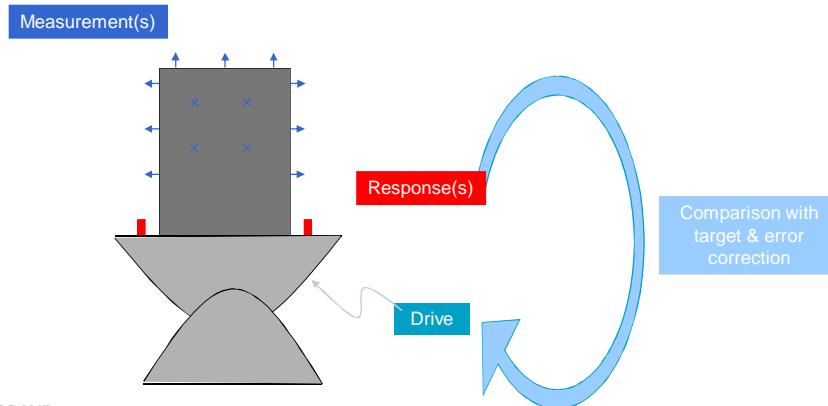
<b>Durability Basics</b> Fatigue, Stress, Strain 	<b>Load Determination</b> Measurements, Multi-Body Simulation 	<b>Loads and Damage</b> S-N Curve, Cycle Counting 
<b>Load Characterization</b> Establishing Durability Targets: Superposition, Extrapolation 	<b>Fatigue Life Predictions</b> Infinite Life, Stress Life, Strain Life 	<b>Accelerated Testing &amp; Analysis</b> RP-Filter, Mission Synthesis 

## What is durability laboratory testing ?

**Durability laboratory testing =**

the reproduction of service loads or spectra, measured during in-field data acquisition,  
on uni- or multi-axial shaker configurations,  
in order to load the test object with the same fatigue content as seen during real-life.

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## OK...BUT WHY DO WE TEST?



 Leading Partner in  
**Test & Mechatronic Simulation**

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## Vibration Control Modes

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- Swept Sine Control
- Dwell Sine Control
- Random Control
- Combined Modes
- Shock Control
- Time Wave Form Replication



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## Why do you need laboratory testing ?

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### Physical validation

- will always be needed, no matter how good the simulations are
- Can be performed in a laboratory environment or during in-field measurements

Comparison in-field measurements vs. laboratory testing

Laboratory testing	In-field testing
Automated	Manpower required
24/7, monitored testing	Discontinue measurements
Controlled environment, reproducible	Varying conditions (driver, weather, traffic,...)
Component or subassembly testing possible	Whole car needed (cumbersome for supplier)
Worst case scenario testing for multiple user requirements (parallel)	Sequential testing of user requirements
Accelerated testing	Real-time testing

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## Main differences Rig Testing – Vibration Control

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	Rig Testing	Vibration Control
<b>Test Articles</b>	-Full system -Sub-assemblies	- Component testing - Qualification testing
<b>Failure mode</b>	externally induced (e.g. Road surface)	resonance-induced (e.g. Engine)
<b>Excitation method</b>	- Hydraulic shakers - High displacements (up to 1m)	- Electro-dynamic shaker - High accelerations (100 g)
<b>Excitation area</b>	- Uni-axial - Multi-axial	- Uni-axial
<b>Control strategy</b>	- Time domain - Off-line update	- Time or frequency domain - On-line update
<b>Frequency band</b>	- Below first eigenmode - Low-frequency (<150Hz)	- All modes - High-frequency (20- 2000 Hz)
<b>Target signals</b>	- Strains - forces/momenta - Displacements	- accelerations
<b>Accelerated testing</b>	Rainflow-based	Mission synthesis

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## How can you accelerate a test?

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**Basic principle = conservation of damage**

How?

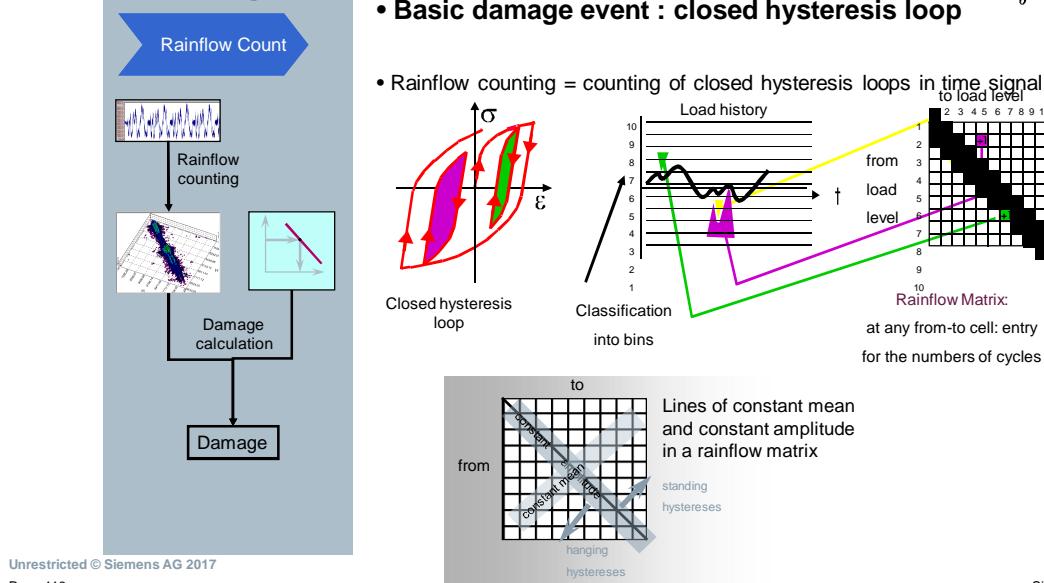
- Increase the testing speed - ‘compress’ the time series
- Increase the amplitude – less repetitions needed for the same amount of damage
- Omit non-damaging events
- Simplify the test – from variable loading to constant loading
- Worst-case scenario testing – envelope of different user requirements
- Mission Synthesis

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## Durability load data processing Rainflow counting - methods

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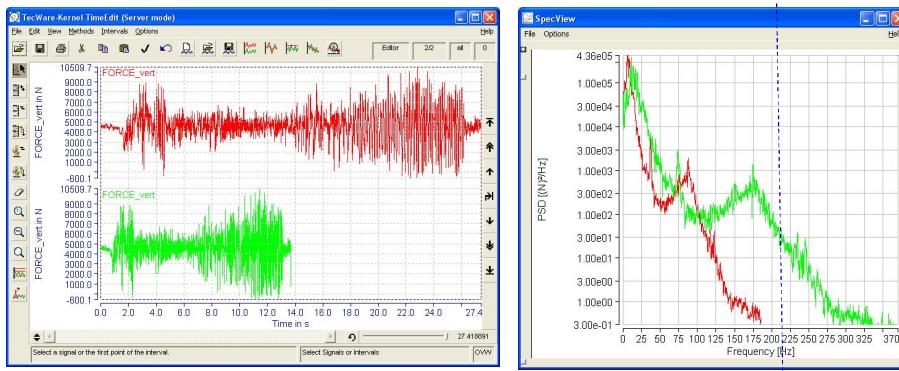
## Increase test speed

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### Time signal compression

- Red signal = original one
  - Green = time length reduced with factor 2
- Remark: avoid too high compression

- Frequency content should stay reasonably below 1<sup>st</sup> natural frequency



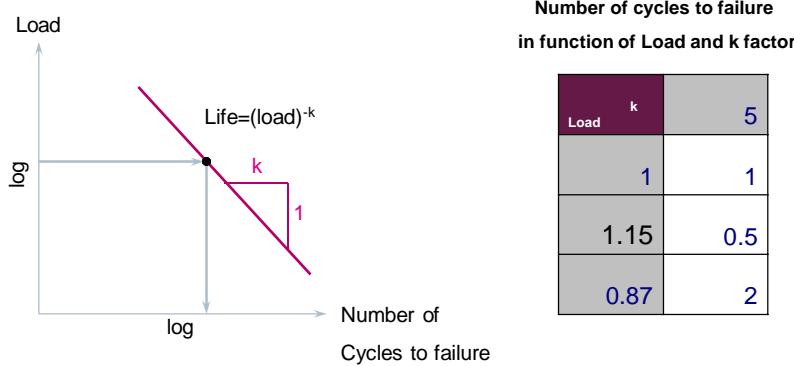
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## Increase amplitude Time or Frequency Domain

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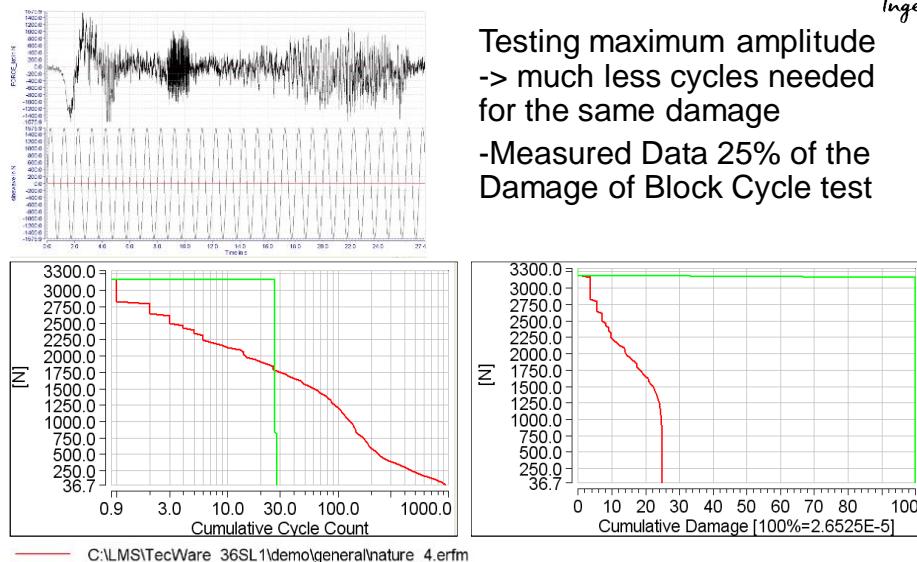


Increasing the cyclic load applied to an optimally shaped steel component with 15% accelerates a test with factor 2

## Simplify the test

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Testing maximum amplitude  
-> much less cycles needed  
for the same damage  
-Measured Data 25% of the  
Damage of Block Cycle test

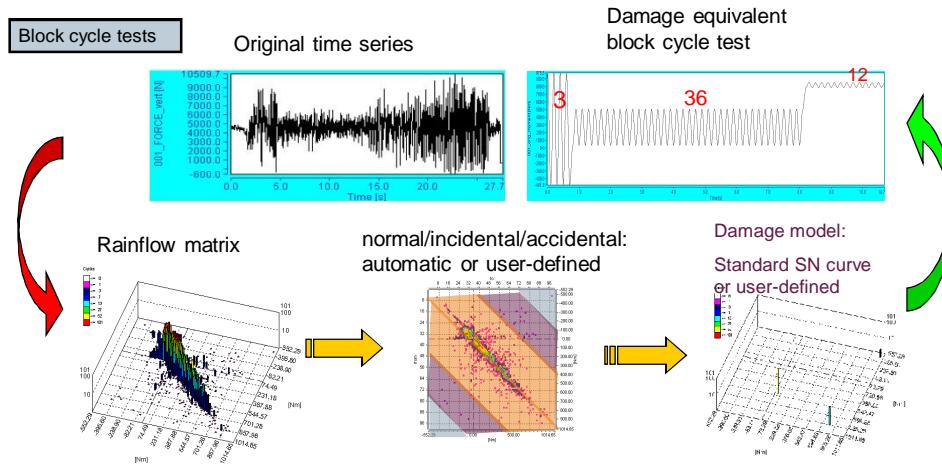


## Simplify the test (2) Block cycle test

Mix of different Constant-Amplitude Tests for **more accurate results**

Suitable for **highly non-linear structures** such as bushings

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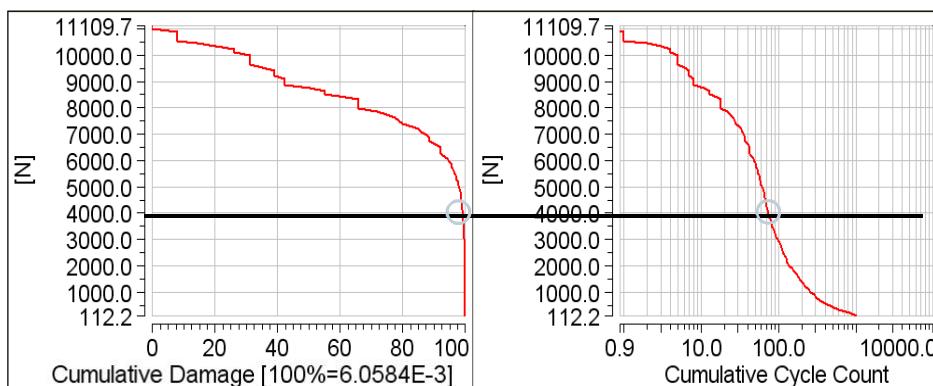
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## Omit non-damaging events

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Left-hand side: only 0.5% of all damage resulting from cycles < 4000N

If you remove these from the loading, you end up with 70 cycles instead of 1000



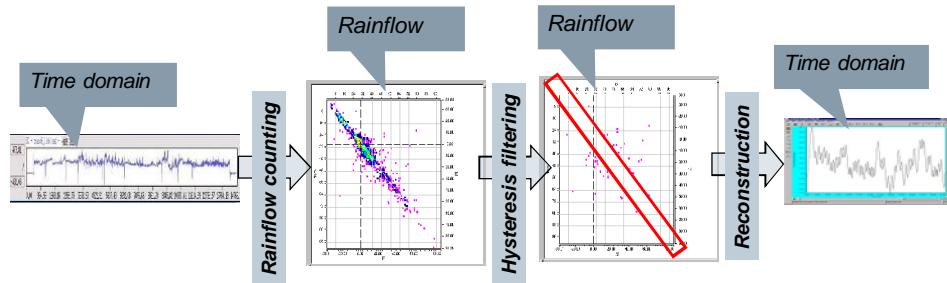
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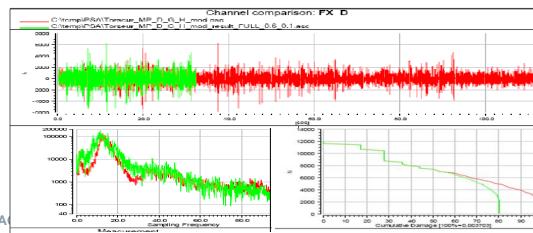
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**Examples accelerated testing  
Damage based Time Compression**

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§ Uni- or multi-axial, keep sequence, phase and frequency content



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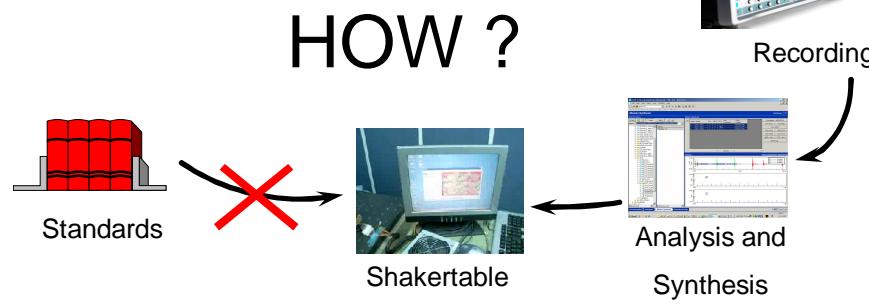
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# TIME ACCELERATION DEMO

## PSD / Swept Sine Based Techniques (Mission thesis) Frequency Domain Technique

1. Derive vibration qualification specs based from measurements
2. Compare to current standards
- Based on measurements in the real-life environments (instead of generic standards)
- Principle of "damage equivalence"

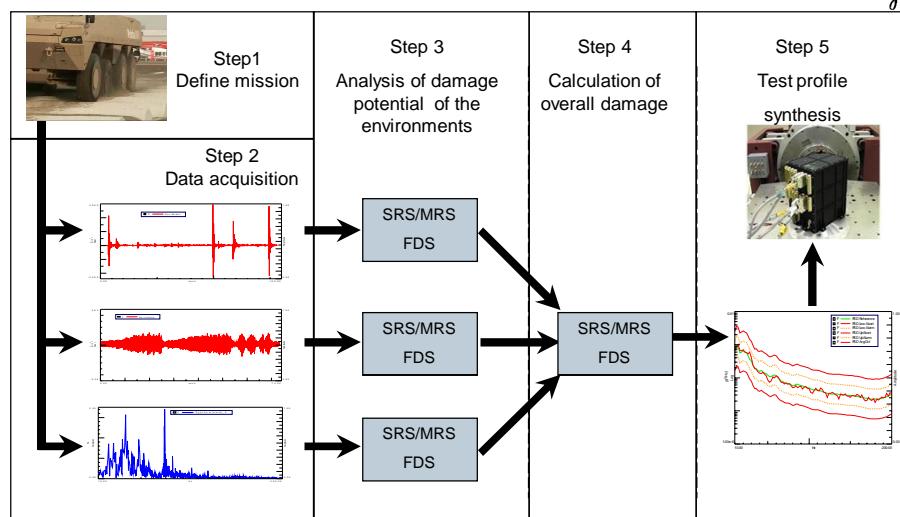


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## Test tailoring in a mechanical environment

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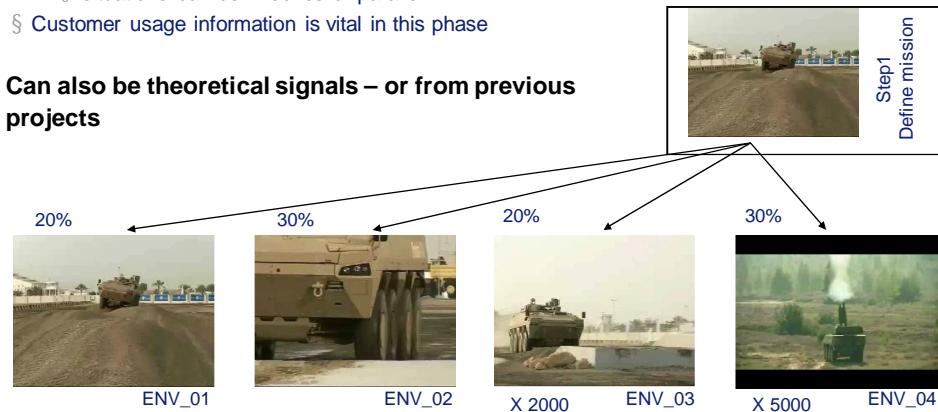
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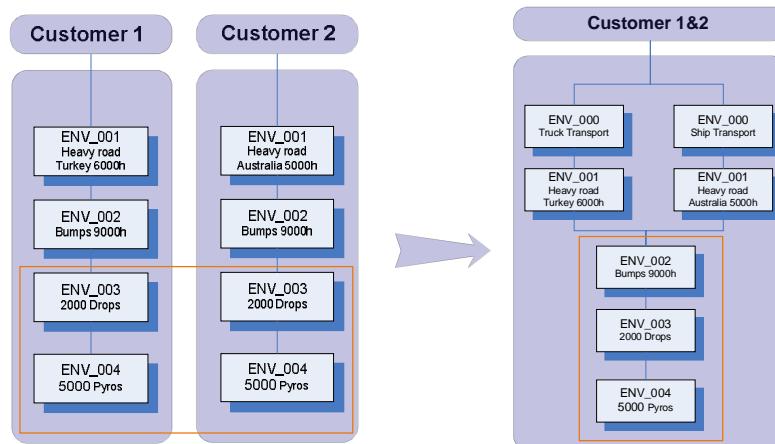
## Step 1: Define mission

- § Characterize a mission for the product
  - § break life cycle of equipment down into separate situations
  - § quantify each phase (environment) in terms of relative importance/contribution
  - § situations can be in series or parallel
- § Customer usage information is vital in this phase

**Can also be theoretical signals – or from previous projects**

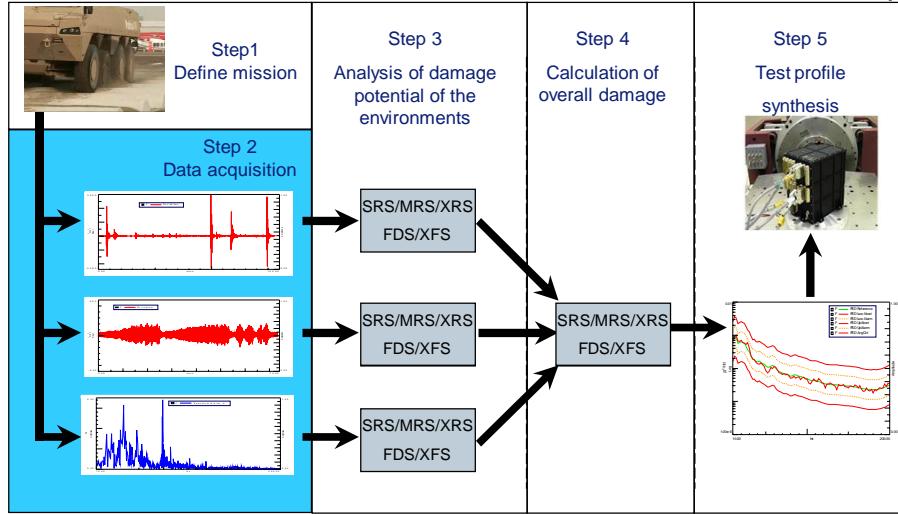


## Step 1: Define mission



## Test tailoring in a mechanical environment

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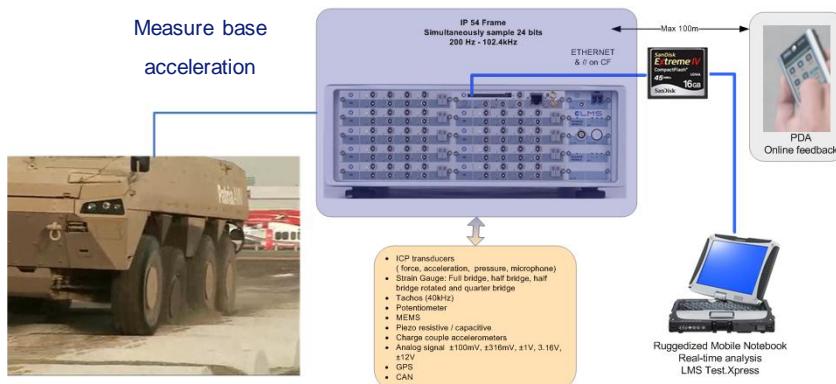
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## Step 2: Data acquisition

Each of the phases in the life profile should be quantified with in-situ measurements  
As an alternative, standards can be used

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## Step 2: Data acquisition

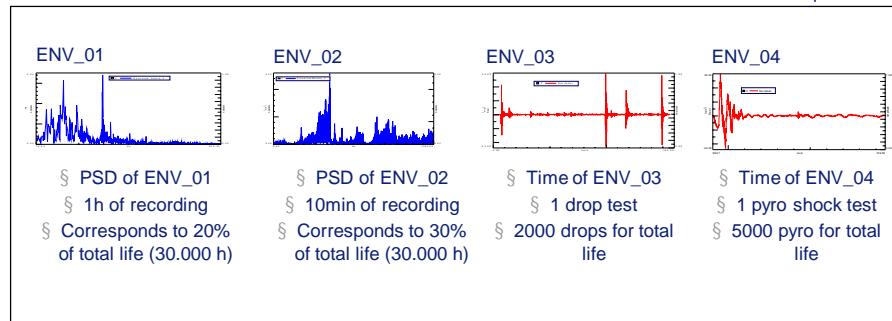
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### Acquisition

- Time series (deterministic)
- PSD recording (stochastic)

### Post-processing of data

#### Step 2 Data acquisition



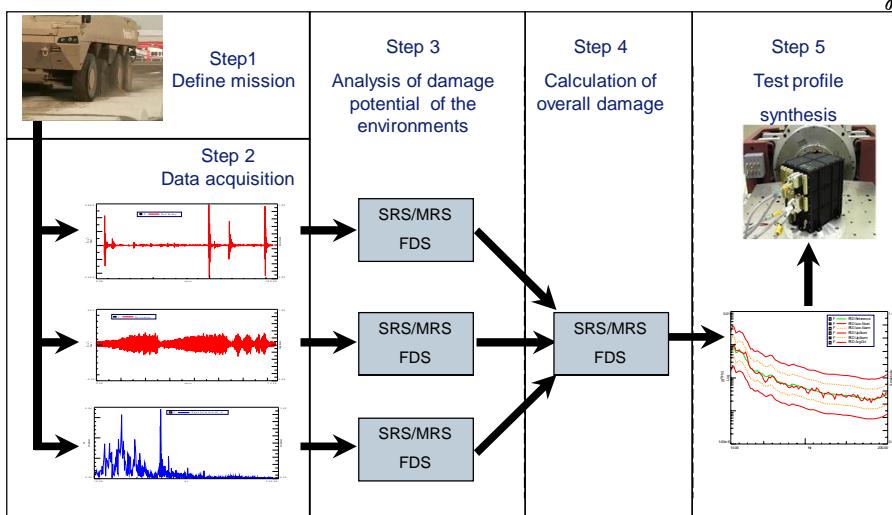
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## Test tailoring in a mechanical environment

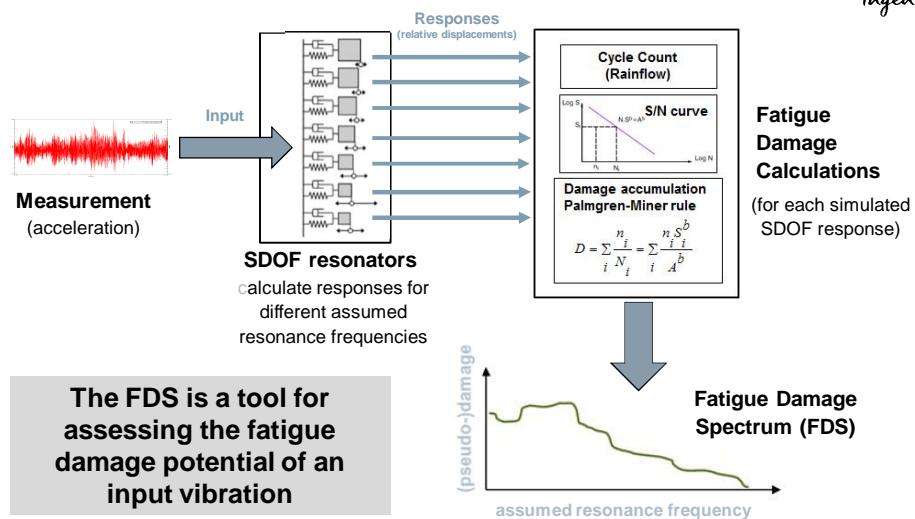
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## Fatigue Damage Spectrum

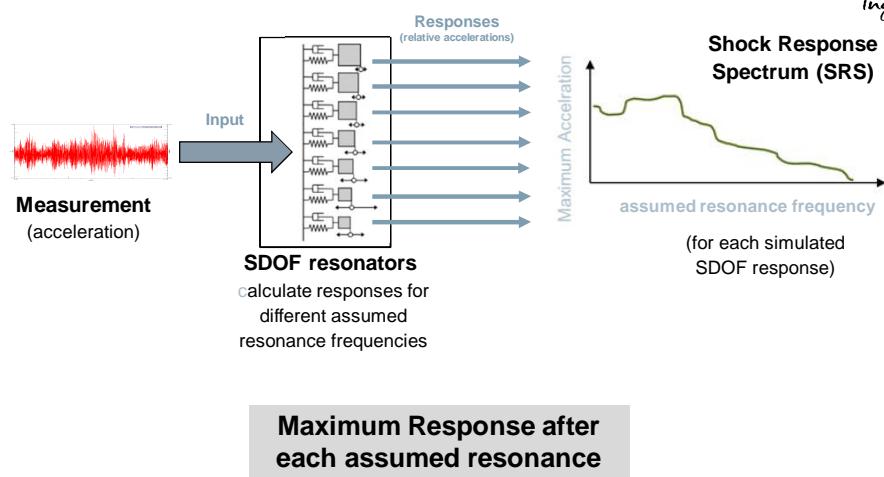


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## Shock Response Spectrum

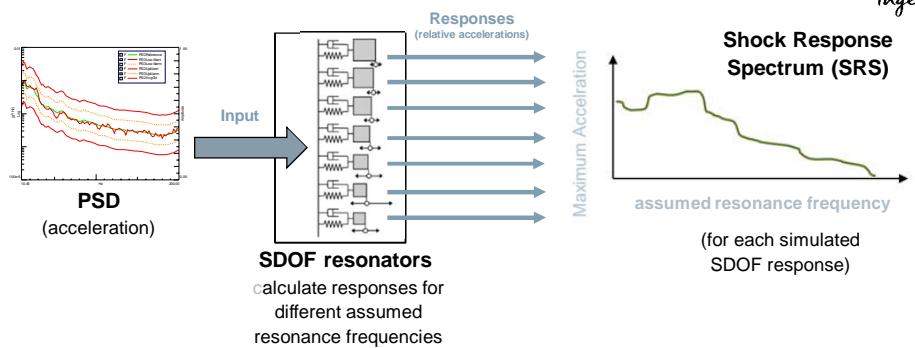


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## Maximum Response Spectrum



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**Maximum Response after  
each assumed resonance**

## Test tailoring Step 4

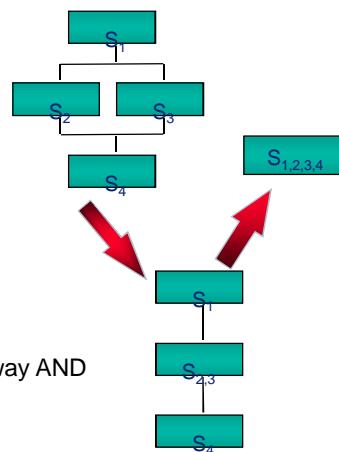
Combine spectra of the different situations to an overall life cycle

### Situations in parallel:

- Specimen will undergo situation 1 OR situation 2
- E.g. car equipment designed for both Brazilian and European market
- envelope of the MRSs (worst case for each natural frequency)
- envelope of the FDSs

### Situations in series:

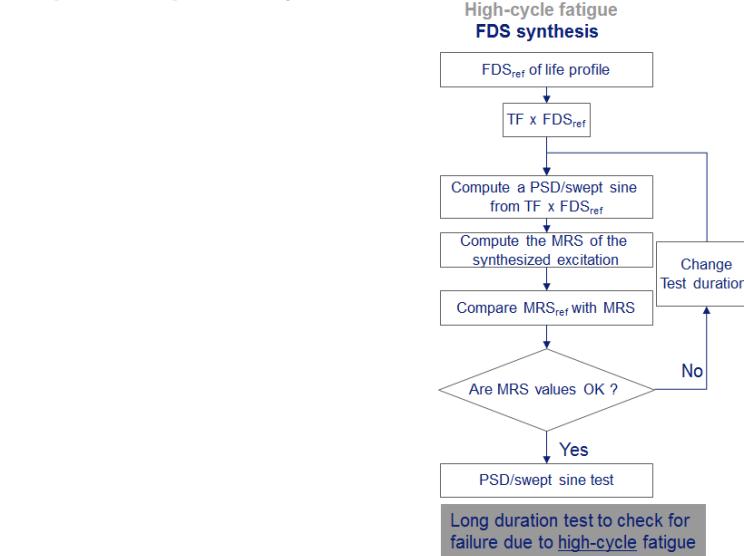
- Specimen will undergo situation 1 AND situation 2
- E.g. dashboard should sustain 500,000 km of highway AND 20,000 km Belgian blocks
- Envelope of the MRSs
- Sum of the FDSs (Miner's rule: sum of damage values)



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## Test tailoring Step 5 Test profile synthesis

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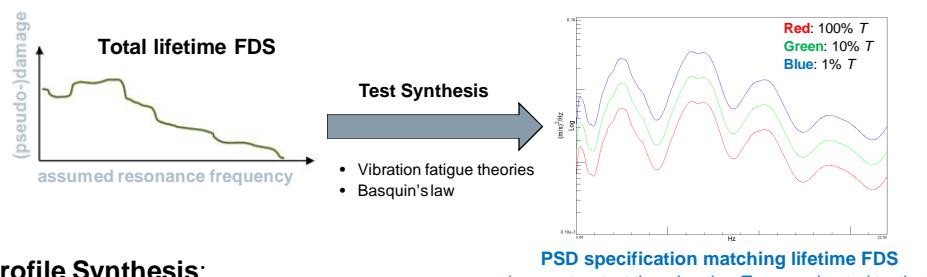
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## Test profile synthesis (step 5)

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### Test Profile Synthesis:

- Random Control Test (PSD) or Sine Sweep Test
- Create shaker profile based on Total Lifetime FDS: damage equivalence
- Test time duration  $T$  chosen based on MRS result (avoid unrealistic failures)

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## 2 Methods for Developing Frequency Domain Tests

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### PSD Enveloping

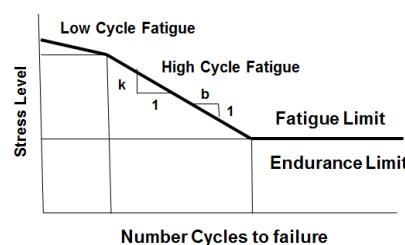
- Damage proportional to rms level of shaker profile
- Damage proportional to Acceleration
- Designed for Stationary Random Signals
- Uses Basquin's Law to accelerate

### Mission Synthesis

- Damage proportional to displacement
- Uses rain flow counting and Miners rule to get damage
- Works on transient data
- Time is an input in process
- Slope of SN curve affects test acceleration

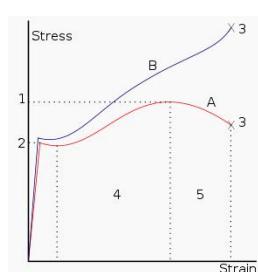
## Material Review

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$$\text{Basquin's law} \quad Ns^b = C$$

$$\text{SN Curve Formulae} \quad \frac{N_2}{N_1} = \left( \frac{S_1}{S_2} \right)^{\frac{b}{\alpha}}$$



$$\text{Relationship for Ultimate Strength to Endurance Limit} \quad \frac{S_u}{S_e} \gg 2$$

## Step 5 : Test Profile Synthesis

### Validation of the reduction of the test time (Exaggeration Factor)

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$$\frac{\alpha_{rms\_reduced}}{\alpha_{rms\_real}} = \frac{\alpha T_{real}}{\alpha T_{reduced}} \cdot \frac{b}{\phi}$$

PSD Envelope Method for time reduction

$$E = \frac{\alpha_{rms\_reduced}}{\alpha_{rms\_real}}$$

Exaggeration Factor

$$TRF = \frac{\alpha T_{real}}{\alpha T_{reduced}} \cdot \frac{b}{\phi}$$

Time Reduction Factor

**Exaggeration Factor Should not exceed 2-3 Range  
based on relationship between Ultimate Strength  
and Endurance Limit**

## Step 5 : Test Profile Synthesis

### Validation of the reduction of the test time (Exaggeration Factor)

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$$\frac{\alpha_{rms\_reduced}}{\alpha_{rms\_real}} = \frac{\alpha T_{real}}{\alpha T_{reduced}} \cdot \frac{b}{\phi}$$

TRF	b	Exaggeration Factor	Exaggeration Factor	b	TRF
64	4	2.83	2	4	16.00
64	6	2.00	2	6	64.00
64	8	1.68	2	8	256.00
64	10	1.52	2	10	1024.00
64	12	1.41	2	12	4096.00
64	14	1.35	2	14	16384.00
16	4	2.00	1.5	4	5.06
16	6	1.59	1.5	6	11.39
16	8	1.41	1.5	8	25.63
16	10	1.32	1.5	10	57.67
16	12	1.26	1.5	12	129.75
16	14	1.22	1.5	14	291.93
8	4	1.68	1.25	4	2.44
8	6	1.41	1.25	6	3.81
8	8	1.30	1.25	8	5.96
8	10	1.23	1.25	10	9.31
8	12	1.19	1.25	12	14.55
8	14	1.16	1.25	14	22.74

Constant TRF

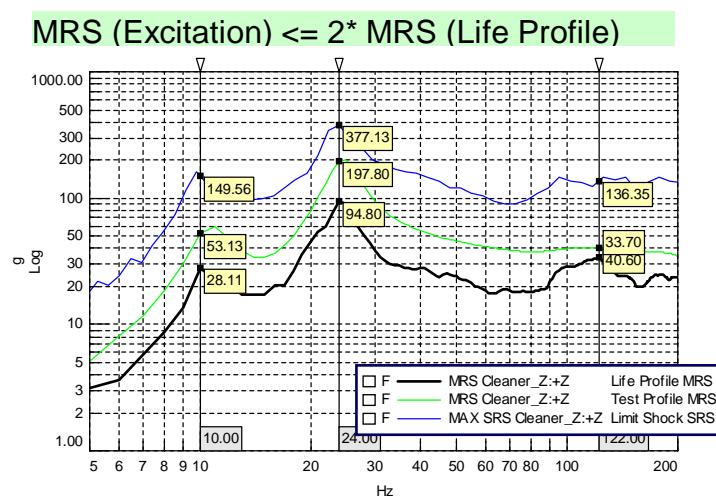
Constant Exaggeration Factor

Time Reduction  
more difficult on  
lower b materials

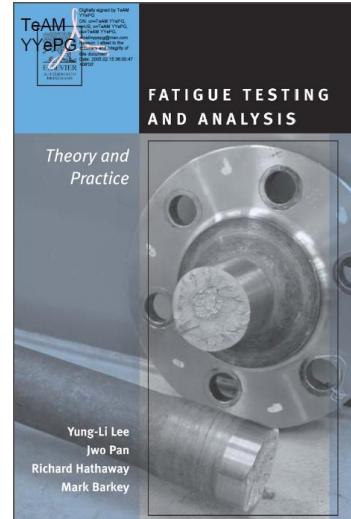
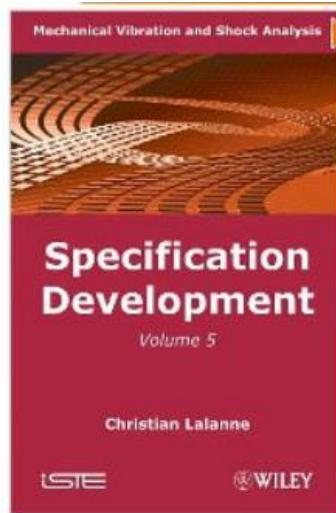
# MISSION SYNTHESIS DEMO

**Step 5 : Test Profile Synthesis**  
**Validation of the reduction of the test time (MRS Comparison)**

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## Mission Synthesis and Test Based Fatigue References



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## Conclusions

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1. Small change in load big change in damage log-log
2. Most variability in the durability process is in understanding loads
3. Basic damaging event is a closed hysteresis loop on a stress strain plot
4. We use rain flow counting extracts damaging cycles from time wave forms
5. Understanding the strain field is critical in understanding the fatigue damage from a test
6. Accelerating a test in the frequency domain requires us to increase the amplitude
7. When changing the amplitude user must be careful to not generate an uncharastic failure mode

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