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IMPACTED NOTCH BEND SPECIMEN.(U)

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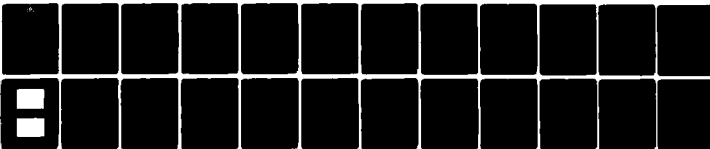
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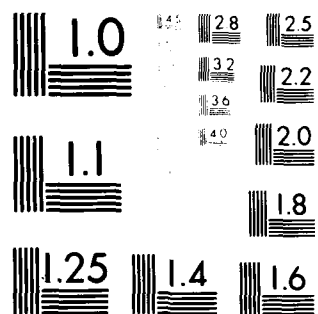
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Technical Report No. 40

IMPACTED NOTCH BEND SPECIMEN.

by
A. S. Kobayashi, M. Ramulu and S. Mall
11 March 1981

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IMPACTED NOTCH BEND SPECIMEN

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ABSTRACT

The proposed method for testing and evaluating data generated by instrumented impact testings of notch bend specimens is evaluated by the experimental and numerical dynamic fracture results obtained in the past. As expected, brittle fracture of the photoelastic, steel and aluminum impacted notch specimens considered in this paper cannot be predicted by the static stress intensity factors at the instant of crack propagation. The fracture energy was only a fraction of the total absorbed energy and was equally unsuitable for dynamic fracture characterization of these specimens. This critical evaluation of the proposed method suggests that despite the enormous correlation studies which justify the use of static analysis, neither the proposed method nor the resultant static stress intensity factor should be used to evaluate the fracture data of impacted notch bend specimens of slightly different configurations.

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NOMENCLATURE

a	crack length
B	specimen thickness
c_0	longitudinal bar stress wave velocity
C_{LL}	specimen load-line compliance
E	modulus of elasticity
K_I	mode I stress intensity factor
K_I^{dyn}	mode I dynamic stress intensity factor
K_I^{stat}	mode I static stress intensity factor
K_{Id}	mode I dynamic initiation fracture toughness
P	applied tup load
S	support span of beam
t_f	time to fracture from impact initiation
U	energy
V_0	tup velocity at impact
W	beam depth
δ	load line displacement
σ	normal stress

INTRODUCTION

For over a decade, a variety of instrumented impact testings of notch bend specimens have been used to characterize the fracture resistance of brittle as well as ductile materials. Test specimens for such dynamic fracture testing range from the large notch bend specimens of 38x30x228 cm [1]* to the standard

*Numbers in brackets refer to References at the end of this paper.

Charpy V-notched precracked specimens of 10x10x55 mm [2,3] with test materials ranging from structural steel, to aluminum, titanium, polymers, carbon-epoxy composites and ceramics. The results are normally presented in terms of total absorbed energy (Charpy fracture energy), fracture energy, and dynamic initiation fracture toughness, K_{Id} , all of which are to characterize the material resistance to dynamic loading. Unfortunately, the last two quantities are not directly measurable and the all-inclusive total absorbed energy includes the parasitic kinetic energy for propelling the fractured specimen. As a result, literature is abundant with procedures for interpreting the test results, most of which have involved correlation studies of static analyses of dynamic fracture data of impacted notch bend specimens. While these data have been presented in terms of total absorbed energy, i.e., Charpy fracture energy, in the past, the recent trend is to present the test results in terms of dynamic fracture toughness, K_{Id} . The K_{Id} data and the restrictive conditions under which the data are valid are summarized among others in References [4] and [5]. These empirical procedures are all based on static fracture analysis with restrictive test conditions and data interpretation procedures which assure that the effects of "inertia loading" are excluded. This a priori data filtering excludes the high strain rate loading condition and thus reduces the impact testing to a quasi-static testing condition which in part defeats the original purpose of the test. Despite this uncertainty in its physical characterization, the impacted notch bend specimen is a very popular test specimen because of the simple test procedure involved and its compact specimen size.

With the recent developments in numerical and experimental procedures for analyzing the dynamic responses of cracked structures, some results of numerical [6,7] and experimental [8] dynamic analyses of impacted notch bend specimens are becoming available. One common conclusion which emerges from these dynamic

analyses involving various specimen geometries and materials is that the commonly used static analysis of impact data can lead to erroneous K_{Id} values. The authors have also studied dynamic fracture responses of various impacted notch bend specimens over the past several years [9-12] but did not present these results in terms of the recently proposed method for impact testings of notch bend specimens [5]. The purpose of this paper, thus, is to review these past results in view of recent attempts [13] to relate the results of impacted notch bend specimen to parameters related to dynamic fracture mechanics and in particular, to the dynamic initiation fracture toughness, K_{Id} .

STATIC ANALYSIS OF IMPACTED NOTCH BEND SPECIMEN

Since elastodynamic analysis of an impacted notch bend specimen can, at best, be obtained only by executing large scale finite differences or finite element codes, data evaluation procedures which have evolved to date are based on static analysis of this transient phenomenon. Among the several but similar procedures in use [2-5], the procedure as reported in Reference [5] is briefly described in the following.

The foremost criterion for guaranteeing that specimen inertia oscillation, which refers to the beam vibration of the specimen and which accounts for only part of the dynamic effects, has subsided is the 3τ requirement, where τ is related to the period of the apparent oscillations and can be predicted by [13]

$$\tau = 1.68 (\text{SWEBC}_{LL})^{1/2} / c_0 \quad (1)$$

The specimen compliance, C_{LL} , in equation (1) can be derived from the known specimen deflection in the notch bend beam as [14]

$$C_{LL} = \frac{\delta}{P} = \left(\frac{\delta}{P} \right)_{\text{no crack}} \left[1 + 6 \frac{W}{S} V_2 \left(\frac{a}{W} \right) \right] \quad (2)$$

where $\left(\frac{\delta}{P} \right)_{\text{no crack}}$ is the compliance of the uncracked beam and $V_2 \left(\frac{a}{W} \right)$, which is the correction factor due to presence of a crack, is represented in a polynomial of $\frac{a}{W}$ in Reference [14].

By adjusting the impact velocity of the tup as well as the specimen geometry, ring down of the impacted specimen is believed to occur when the time to fracture, $t_f > 3\tau$. The dynamic stress intensity can then be computed by using the following static formula [15] of

$$K_I = P_m \frac{S}{BW^{1/2}} f\left(\frac{a}{W}\right) \quad (3)$$

where P_m is the maximum static tup load, and $f\left(\frac{a}{W}\right)$, which is a geometric parameter which corrects for the finite geometry of the beam, is represented by a polynomial $\frac{a}{W}$ in Reference [15].

In addition, complete fracture of the specimen is guaranteed by a conservative requirement that the total available energy at impact, U_0 , is larger than three times the energy dissipated at maximum load, or $3U_m$. This requirement also ensures that the tup velocity is not reduced during the fracture initiation event more than 20 percent of its initial impact velocity. In addition, a loading rate in terms of the static stress intensity factor rate of $\dot{K}_I \div 50 - 500 \text{ GPa}\sqrt{\text{m}}/\text{s}$ is computed by the simple formula of:

$$\dot{K}_I = K_I/t_f \quad (4)$$

Although the above static analysis is elastic, impacted notch bend specimens are used to characterize also the fracture resistance of ductile materials, such as A533B steel and low carbon steel. Thus the influence of dynamic plasticity cannot be ignored in practice. Although some attempts have been made to use J for reducing data in the presence of plastic yielding [3,13], such recommended procedures are yet to be established, due to the lack of a definitive static ductile fracture criterion and, needless to mention, a dynamic ductile fracture initiation criterion at this time.

IMPACTED NOTCH BEND PHOTOELECTRIC SPECIMENS

The dynamic stress intensity factors obtained previously, either experimentally by the use of dynamic photoelasticity or by dynamic finite element analysis

of impacted, notch bend photoelastic specimens [10,11], are used to assess the validity of the recommended procedures for dynamic fracture-toughness testing. The two photoelastic specimens of Homalite-100 and polycarbonate used in this comparison are shown in Figure 1. The Homalite-100 and polycarbonate specimens model brittle and somewhat ductile materials, respectively. All cracks were fatigued precracked in these specimens. The specimen geometries which were primarily designed to satisfy the photoelastic requirements are admittedly longer and thinner than the commonly used metallic specimens. Nevertheless, the two-dimensional elastodynamic responses of the photoelastic specimens, with proper care, can be scaled to metallic specimens of smaller dimensions [16,17], and thus these dynamic photoelasticity results were used to dramatize the effectiveness of the recommended procedures. Also shown in Figure 1 is the instrumented tup from which the impact load was obtained.

Figure 2 shows typical tup load traces for the Homalite-100 and polycarbonate specimens. These load traces do not exhibit the oscillating but increasing load responses with time, such as those shown in References [4] and [8], but follow those shown in Reference [5]. These differences could be in part attributed to the higher tup velocities at impact, V_0 , used in these series of tests, as shown in Table 1.

Figures 3 and 4 show the static and dynamic stress intensity factors, K_I^{stat} and K_I^{dyn} , up to crack propagation in typical Homalite-100 and polycarbonate specimens, respectively. The static stress intensity factor was computed by substituting the measured instantaneous tup load in equation 3. The dynamic stress intensity factors were either obtained directly by fitting the singular near-field state of stress to the transient isochromatics surrounding the stationary crack tip, or by using a calibrated crack opening displacement obtained from dynamic finite element analysis. Details of the experimental and numerical

procedure used are found in References [15] and [16].

Crack propagation initiated from the fatigued crack tip in four Homalite-100 impacted notch bend specimens within $t_f \div 190$ microseconds after initiation of impact, as shown in Figure 3. Equations (1) and (2) yielded a calculated $\tau \div 740$ microseconds with a $t_f/\tau = 0.26$ which violates the 3τ impact duration set forth in the recommended procedure. Also notable is the six-fold differences in calculated K_I^{stat} and the actual K_I^{dyn} at crack propagation in Figure 3.

For the seven polycarbonate specimens, the time to fracture is $t_f \div 1000$ microseconds, as shown in Figure 4. The calculated $\tau = 980$ microseconds yields a $t_f/\tau \div 1$ and is one-third of the specified 3τ limitation. The large differences between the statically computed K_I^{stat} and the actual dynamic K_I^{dyn} are also noted. These differences are in contrast with the reasonable agreements in the Charpy data in the 1τ region shown in Reference [5].

Although the cracks propagated much earlier than the 3τ hold time, the tup load traces for the impacted polycarbonate notch bend specimen in Figure 2 show that the tup load continues to oscillate without abatement after t_f through the duration approaching the 3τ limit. These oscillations are similar to those shown in Reference [8], and thus suggest that K_I^{dyn} would not converge to K_I^{stat} even if initiation of crack propagation was restrained beyond the suggested 3τ limit by lowering the tup velocities at impact in these photoelastic specimens.

Figures 5 and 6 show typical computed energy partitions in impacted Homalite-100 and polycarbonate notch bend specimens. The small percentage of the fracture energy in terms of the total input work at complete specimen fracture shows that the total absorbed energy or the Charpy fracture energy cannot possibly be used to characterize dynamic fracture of Homalite-100. Although the fracture energy occupies about 57 percent of the total absorbed energy in the polycarbonate

specimen, for the same reason, would not be an appropriate quantity for dynamic characterization of polycarbonate.

IMPACTED NOTCH BEND STEEL AND ALUMINUM SPECIMENS

A dynamic finite element code was used to determine the increasing K_I^{dyn} leading to K_{Id} at the onset of crack propagation in 25.4 mm thick A533B steel at -18°C and at room temperature, and a 16 mm thick aluminum notch bend specimen [12]. The cracks in the two A533B steel specimens were fatigue-precracked while a mechanically sharpened notch tip of 0.025 mm radius was used in the aluminum specimen. These specimens were instrumented with a 3x3 mm strain gage near the notch tip. The transient strain recorded during impact was then related to an equivalent static stress intensity factor following Loss's procedure [16]. A second strain gage was also located at 1/4 span on the compression edge of the aluminum specimen. Extensive numerical analyses [12] verified that the proximity of the strain gage and the use of instantaneous dynamic strains appeared to compensate for lack of dynamic analysis in Loss's static procedures for computing K_I^{dyn} . The loading rates, $\dot{K}_I^{\text{dyn}}$, and the tup velocities at impact, V_0 , in these tests are shown in Table 1.

Figures 7 and 8 show the K_I^{stat} and K_I^{dyn} variations in an impacted A533B steel tested at -18°C and room temperature, respectively. With the exception of the fortuitous coincidence of K_I^{stat} and K_I^{dyn} at the initiation of crack propagation in Figure 7, K_I^{dyn} shows no tendency to converge to K_I^{stat} in these figures. The time to fracture, t_f , is about 2τ and 1.2τ for the two A533B specimens, but the lack of visible convergence of K_I^{dyn} to K_I^{stat} again indicates that K_I^{dyn} will not converge to K_I^{stat} even at the 3τ period.

Figure 9 shows the K_I^{stat} and K_I^{dyn} variations in impacted 6061 aluminum notch bend specimens with $t_f/\tau = 0.81$. Again, the notable differences between K_I^{dyn} and K_I^{stat} , with no trend of abatement, are noted. K_I^{stat} computed from

the 1/4-point strain gage signals, following the procedure described in Reference [5], is not shown in Figure 9. The significant differences in the tup load trace and 1/4-point gage signal, as shown in Figure 11 in Reference [12], would have led to K_I^{stat} , which is appreciably different than the K_I^{dyn} in Figure 9. While the energy partitions of the above three metallic specimens were not determined due to lack of crack velocity measurements during fracture, experiences with other dynamic fracture specimens such as single edged notch (SEN) specimens subjected to uniform loading and fixed end displacement loading [18] show that the total fracture energy dissipated in such specimens would be, at the best, about half of the total input work of the specimen.

CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSIONS

Results of our previous experimental and numerical analyses of photoelastic and metallic impacted notch bend specimens, when evaluated in terms of the recommended guidelines for dynamic fracture toughness testing, show that these procedures cannot be extended to the larger specimen configurations used in this analysis.

The credible consistency in the experimental K_{Id} in Reference [5] is based on internal correlations of the dynamic data evaluated statically, which may or may not relate to the actual K_{Id} . The results of the photoelastic test data show that this internal correlation of statically computed K_{Id} breaks down. On the other hand, Figures 3 in References [10] and [11] and Figure 8 in Reference [19] show that the dynamically evaluated K_{Id} are remarkably the same among the four and six Homalite-100 and the seven polycarbonate impacted notch bend specimens tested.

The above comparative study indicates that valid K_{Id} data could be generated through impacted notch bend tests if appropriate dynamic analysis is used. The authors feel that efforts should be expended in developing such a dynamic analysis

procedure rather than in developing restrictive conditions under which static analysis can be used. Conceivably, the long time delay necessary to validate static analysis could obviate the loading rate effect originally sought in these impact tests.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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TABLE I
SUMMARY OF TEST DATA

	τ_f (μsec)	K_{Id} ($\text{MPa}\sqrt{\text{m}}$)	K_{Ic} ($\text{MPa}\sqrt{\text{m}}$)	$\dot{K}_I^{\text{dyn}}$ ($\text{GPa}\sqrt{\text{m}}/\text{sec}$)	U_0 (Joules)	U_0/U_m (Joules)	V_0 (m/sec)
Homalite-100 (Average of 2 tests at room temperature)	298	.403	.415	3.4	19.2	96.	1.72
Polycarbonate (Average of 2 tests at room temperature)	1070	2.52	3.43	9.7	20.0	8.3	1.73
A533B steel (1 test at 10 C)	424	123	-	460	-	-	2.5
A533B steel (1 test at -18 C)	232	64	-	400	-	-	2.5
6061 aluminum (1 test at room temperature)	140	44	-	500	-	-	8.6

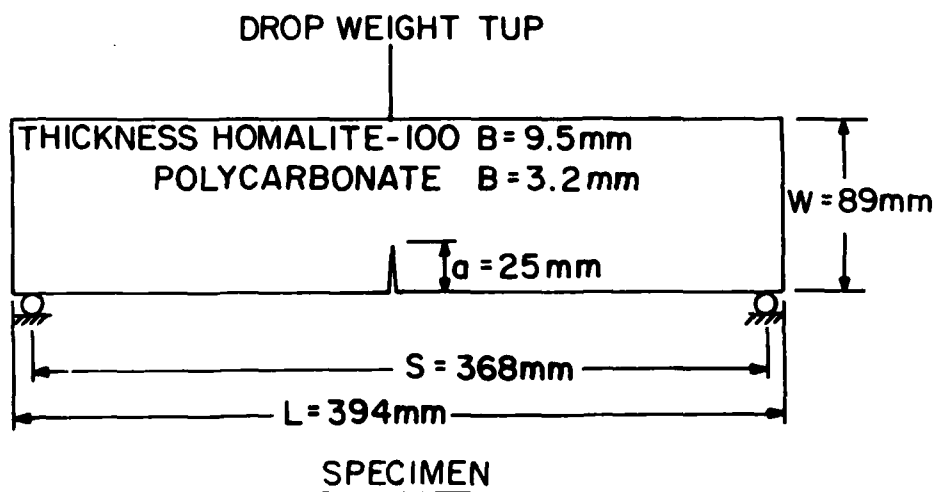
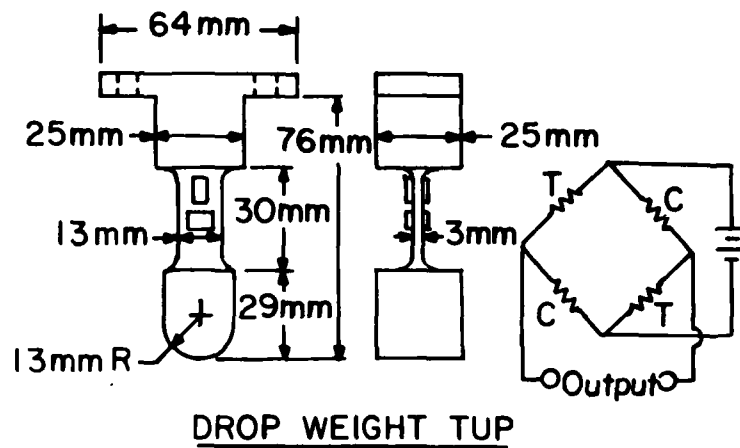
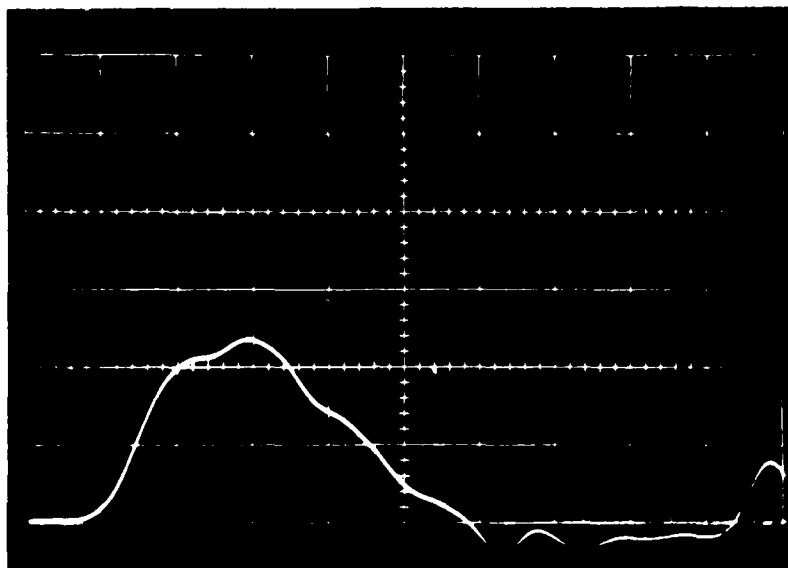
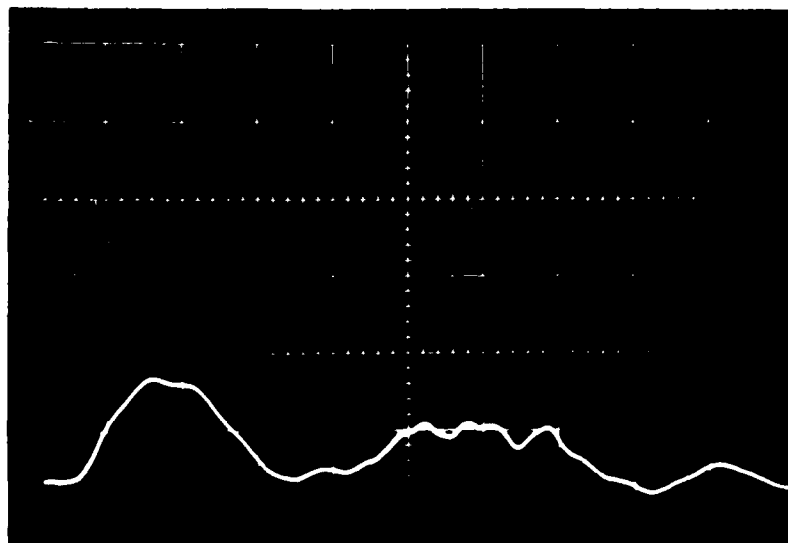


FIGURE 1 . HOMALITE -100 AND POLYCARBONATE IMPACTED NOTCH BEND SPECIMEN.



(a) HOMALITE - 100 SPECIMEN
VERTICAL ONE DIVISION = 311 N
HORIZONTAL ONE DIVISION = 0.1 m sec



(b) POLYCARBONATE SPECIMEN
VERTICAL ONE DIVISION = 389 N
HORIZONTAL ONE DIVISION = 0.2 m sec

FIGURE 2 . TOP LOAD TRACES FOR IMPACTED HOMALITE - 100
AND POLYCARBONATE SPECIMENS.

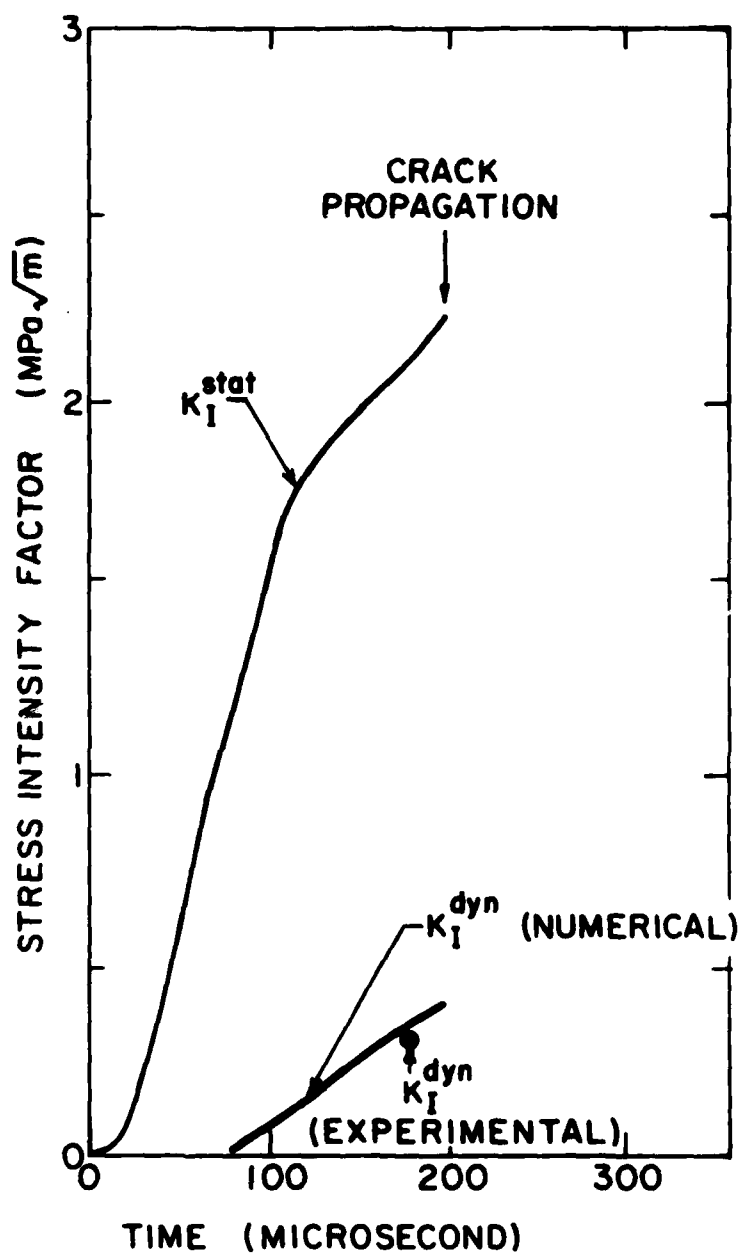


FIGURE 3. STRESS INTENSITY FACTORS OF AN IMPACTED HOMALITE-100 NOTCH BEND SPECIMEN.

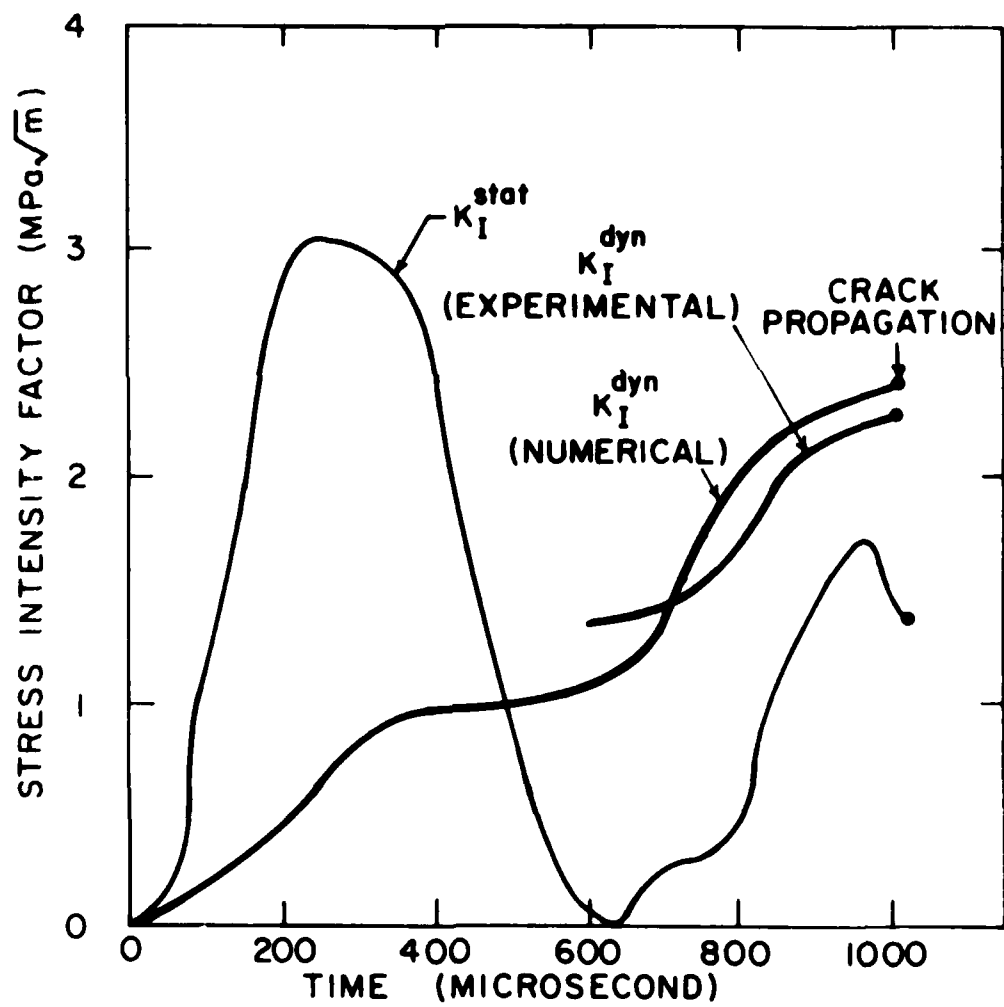


FIGURE 4. STRESS INTENSITY FACTORS OF AN IMPACTED POLYCARBONATE NOTCH BEND SPECIMEN.

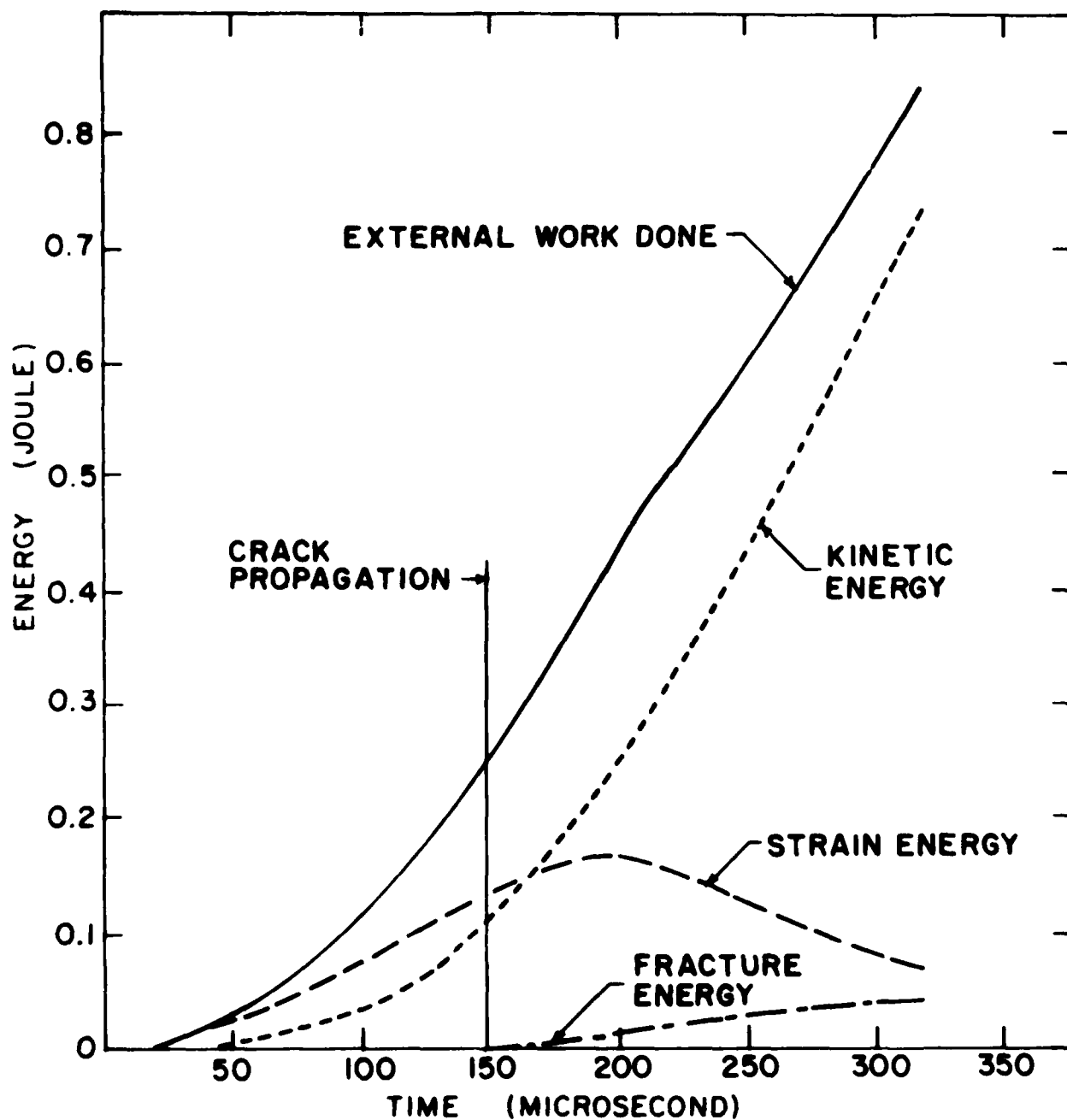


FIGURE 5 . COMPUTED ENERGIES IN IMPACTED HOMOLITE-100 NOTCHED BEND SPECIMEN.

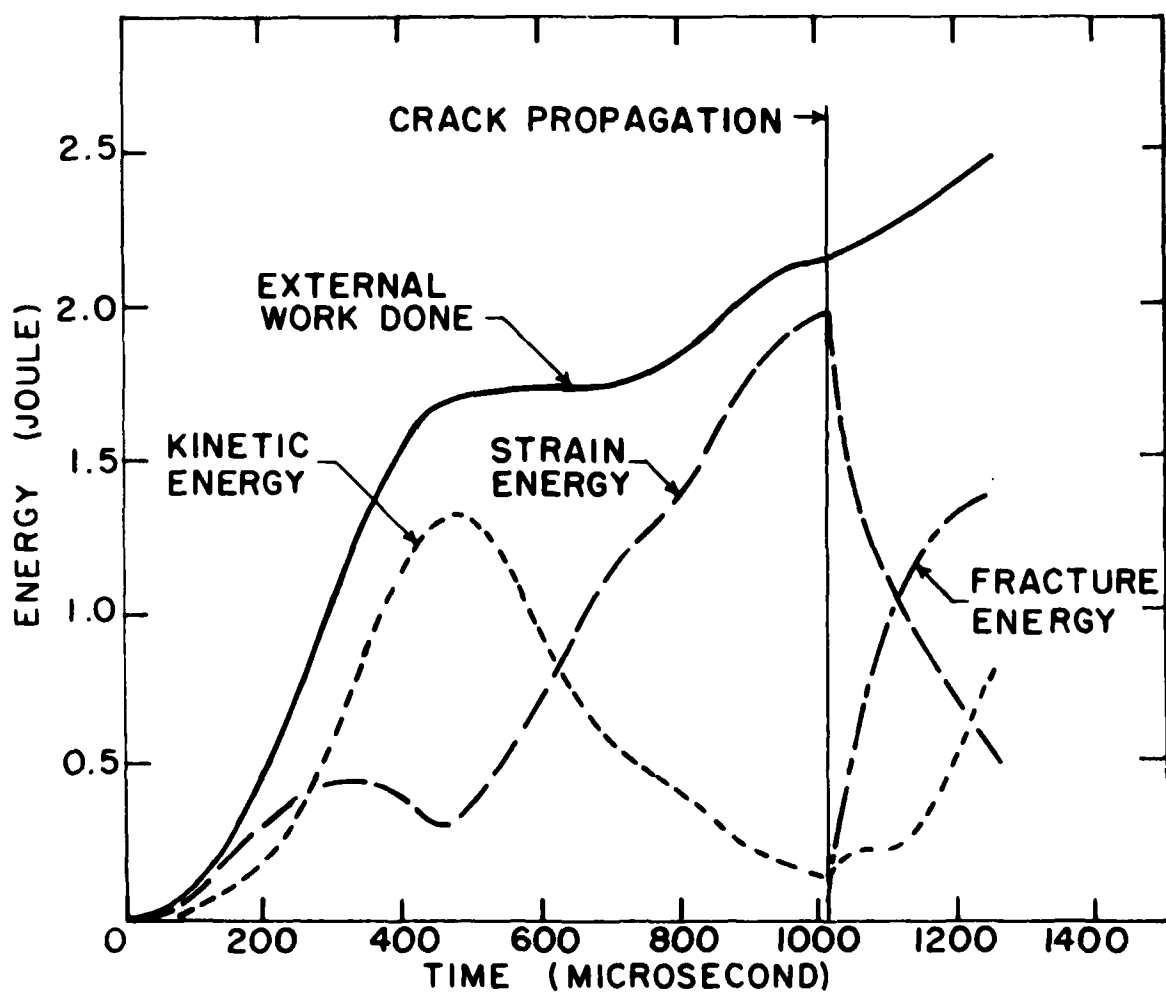


FIGURE 6 . COMPUTED ENERGIES IN IMPACTED POLYCARBONATE NOTCHED BEND SPECIMEN.

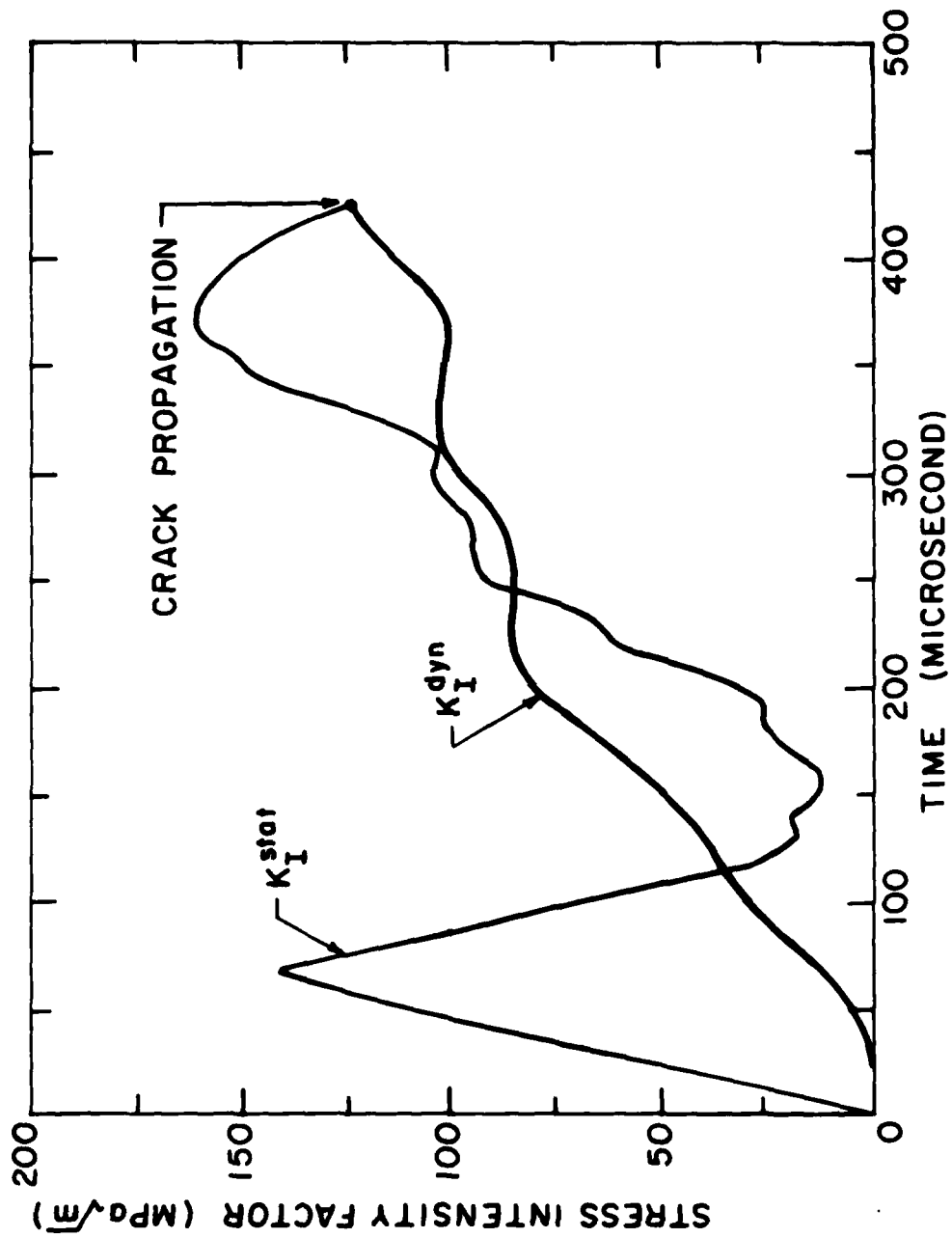


FIGURE 7 .STRESS INTENSITY FACTORS OF AN IMPACTED A533B STEEL NOTCHED BEND SPECIMEN. ($L=229$, $W=51$, $B=25$, $a=25\text{ mm}$).

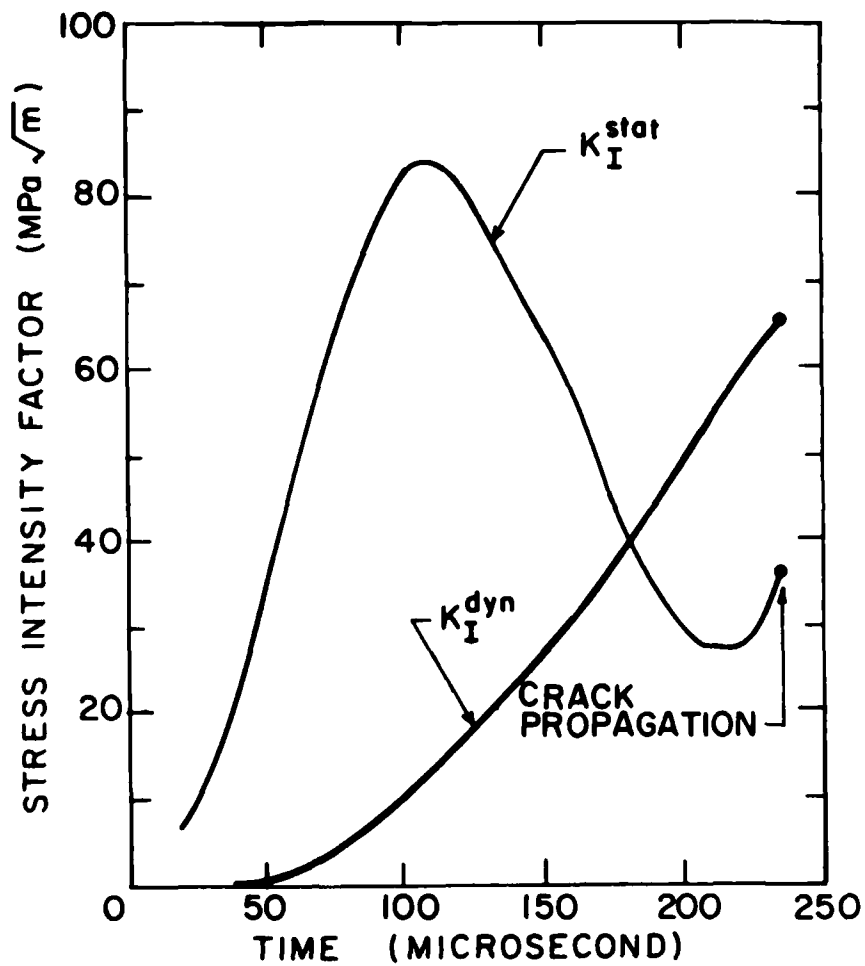


FIGURE 8 . STRESS INTENSITY FACTORS OF AN IMPACTED A533B STEEL NOTCHED BEND SPECIMEN. ($L = 229$, $W = 51$, $B = 25$, $a = 25\text{mm}$)

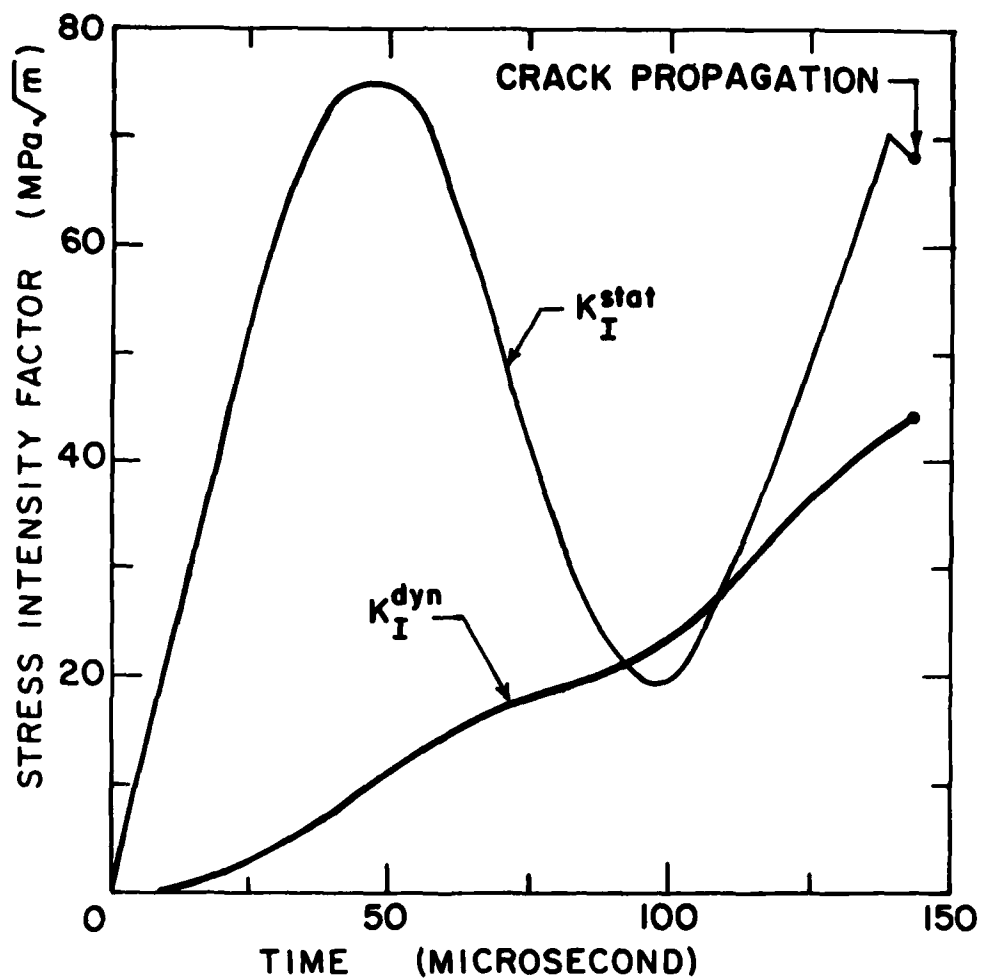


FIGURE 9 .STRESS INTENSITY FACTORS OF AN IMPACTED 6061 ALUMINUM NOTCHED BEND SPECIMEN. (L = 178, W = 41, B = 16, a = 13 mm).

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