

PRACTICAL APPLICATION OF FAILURE MODELS TO PREDICT THE RESPONSE OF COMPOSITE STRUCTURES

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Keywords: *failure, damage, finite element*

1 Introduction

Industrial structures present a large variety of geometries, stacking sequences, constraints and types of loadings. Such variety requires adequate meshing techniques, types of analysis and material models to be adopted at the different stages of design and development.

For composites structures, there is an additional need to account for failure and damage, as these may initiate at relatively low stress levels. It is therefore important to understand how damage modelling approaches are affected by the many factors listed above.

The present contribution focuses on the modelling techniques for failure in structures made of unidirectional carbon reinforced polymers. In particular, the added accuracy that can be expected from using advanced physically-based models versus simpler ones, as well as the added complexity costs, is investigated so that the former may be more widely used in industry. Three different damage models are investigated and compared. This manuscript presents the formulation and validation of the models as well as some basic examples highlighting differences in failure criteria, methods to handle damage propagation and type of solver used. Complementary examples dealing with meshing technique and interlaminar modelling will be presented during the oral presentation.

2 Failure Models

The failure models presented here are implemented following the same approach, based on three key elements: (i) a constitutive law, (ii) a set of failure criteria and (iii) a progressive damage model.

Constitutive laws (prior to failure onset) accounting for nonlinearity, effect of hydrostatic pressure [1,2] and damage [3] are available in the literature. These are not the focus of the present work, and the models

developed here assume a linear elastic constitutive law prior to failure.

The failure criteria and progressive damage models are detailed in the next sections. The models are implemented as user material subroutines, for explicit and implicit schemes, to the FE package ABAQUS [4] for 3D solid elements.

In total, three different models are investigated:

1. an implicit model based on a physically-based failure criteria,
2. an explicit model based on a physically-based failure criteria (implemented in [2]),
3. an implicit model based on the maximum stress failure criteria.

2.1 Failure Criteria

Amongst the many criteria available in the literature, two of them are implemented and compared: (i) the simple, limit, criteria based on the maximum stress and (ii) a physically-based set of failure criteria.

2.1.1 Maximum Stress Criteria

For the 3D formulation of the maximum stress criteria, six different failure indices are defined: longitudinal direction (tension and compression), transverse direction (tension and compression), through the thickness (tension and compression) and failure in shear. The six indices are written in reduced form in Equation 1 and Equation 2

$$\frac{\langle \sigma_i \rangle_+}{\Sigma_T} + \frac{|\langle \sigma_i \rangle_-|}{\Sigma_C} \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

with $i = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and

$$\text{if } \begin{cases} i=1 & \Sigma_T = X_T & \Sigma_C = X_C \\ i=2 & \Sigma_T = Y_T & \Sigma_C = Y_C \\ i=3 & \Sigma_T = Z_T & \Sigma_C = Z_C \end{cases}$$

and where X_T and X_C are the longitudinal tensile and compressive strengths, Y_T and Y_C are the transverse tensile and compressive strengths and Z_T and Z_C are

the through the thickness tensile and compressive strengths, respectively.

$$\frac{|\tau_{ij}|}{S} \quad \text{Equation 2}$$

with $(i, j) = \{(12), (13), (23)\}$ and $S = S_{ij}$.

and where S_{12} is the longitudinal shear strength, S_{13} is the transverse shear strength and S_{23} is the through the thickness shear strength (because of the transverse isotropy $S_{12} = S_{13}$).

2.1.2 Physically-based Criteria

The physically-based criteria involve five indices: fibre tension, fibre kinking, fibre splitting, matrix failure (as defined in [2]) and shear-driven fibre compressive failure [5].

Matrix cracking Equation 3

$$\sqrt{\left(\frac{\tau_T}{S_T^{is} - \eta_T \sigma_N}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\tau_L}{S_L^{is} - \eta_L \sigma_N}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\langle \sigma_N \rangle_+}{Y_T^{is}}\right)^2}$$

Fibre tension ($\sigma_1 \geq 0$)

$$\frac{\sigma_1}{X_T} \quad \text{Equation 4}$$

Shear-driven fibre compression $\sigma_1 < 0$

$$\frac{\tau_N}{S_C} \quad \text{Equation 5}$$

Fibre kinking if $\sigma_1 < -X_C/2$ or

Matrix splitting if $-X_C/2 < \sigma_1 < 0$

$$\sqrt{\left(\frac{\tau_{23}^m}{S_T^{is} - \eta_T \sigma_2^m}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\tau_{12}^m}{S_L^{is} - \eta_L \sigma_2^m}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\langle \sigma_2^m \rangle_+}{Y_T^{is}}\right)^2} \quad \text{Equation 6}$$

where S_T^{is} , S_L^{is} and Y_T^{is} are the transverse shear, longitudinal shear and transverse tensile in-situ strengths. The tractions on the fracture plane for the matrix and fibre modes, τ_{mn} , τ_n , σ_n and τ_{23}^m , τ_{12}^m and σ_2^m are defined in a general context in Fig.1 and in detail in [2].

2.2 Progressive Damage

Damage is often handled using damage mechanics, i.e. by introducing a damage variable representing the loss of load carrying area, which results in the definition of nominal stress as function of the effective stress:

$$\sigma = (1 - d) \bar{\sigma} \quad \text{Equation 7}$$

2.2.1 Damage evolution

The evolution of the damage variable can be defined using a phenomenological approach [6] or based on cohesive law [7]. The second approach is chosen here. Once failure initiation is predicted, by one of the criteria described above, Equations 1 and 2 or Equations 3-6, the stresses on the elements considered are decreased according to a cohesive law, see Fig.2. The models are formulated using a smeared approach [7] so that the area under this cohesive law is equal to the fracture energy of the failure mode initiated divided by a characteristic dimension of the finite element. The shape of the curve can be adapted to account for R-curve effects [8], however only bi-linear cohesive laws are considered in the present work. The stress and strain defining the cohesive law (driving stress and strain) are the direct or shear stress and strain corresponding to the failure index activated for the model based on the maximum stress criteria, while for the models, explicit and implicit, based on the physically-based criteria, the driving stress and strain are as defined in [7].

For the different models implemented only two damage variables are introduced, namely one associated for fibre damage and one for matrix damage, and do not interact with each other. A regularisation scheme similar to the one in [4] is used.

2.2.2 Effect of damage

The effect of damage on the elastic constants of the material can be applied on the compliance tensor defined in the ply coordinate system or on the tractions acting on a given fracture plane (compliance tensor in the fracture plane coordinate system).

For the first approach, assuming transverse isotropy, the compliance tensor, \mathbf{H} reads

to capture the load drop after failure. A small amount viscous regularisation is used to improve convergence ($\eta = 10^{-3}$ for the model based on the physically-based criteria and $\eta = 10^{-4}$ for the model based on the maximum stress)

Several meshing techniques and a mesh size sensitivity study have been done and the best compromise in terms of accuracy and CPU time is shown in Fig.7b.

The specimens are made of IM7/8552 (Table 1) with a stacking sequence of $[90/0/\pm 45]_{3S}$ and the model is built on a ply by ply approach. Some models using cohesive contact to model interlaminar failure were investigated but are not presented here as the effect of delamination is minor for this stacking sequence.

Longitudinal strains are measured on the outer 90° ply at 3mm from the center line.

3.3.2 Failure patterns

In Fig.8, matrix damage patterns predicted by the models based on the physically-based criteria, both implicit and explicit, are very similar, with transverse cracking in the 90° plies and splits running in the $\pm 45^\circ$ plies. The plots are taken at the moment the strain in Fig.9 bifurcate. This happens earlier in the implicit model even though the extent of damage appears greater than in the explicit model. For the model based on the maximum stress criteria, the damage pattern in the 45° ply is similar to the other models but differs in the 90° ply with the crack branching at a short distance from the hole.

3.3.3 Overall response

The stress versus strain curves for the three models are shown in Fig.9. The models based on the physically-based criteria predict a failure stress in good agreement with the average experimental value.

The model based on the maximum stress criteria faces convergence difficulties at a strain of $\sim 8.8 \times 10^{-3}$, which are not resolved by adding regularisation.

For the models based on the physically-based criteria, the CPU time on 8CPUs varies from 15 mins for the explicit case to 46 mins for the implicit case.

4 Discussion and conclusion

The failure envelopes predicted by the different models show that physically-based criteria are better able to capture experimental trends.

Implicit and explicit formulations differ in the way the effect of damage can be included in the model and also in the way strain softening is handled (for instance viscous regularisation is not required in explicit). When similar failure criteria are used, the fracture angle and direction of damage predicted are similar in the cases studied here. The non-physically based model predicts relatively well failure patterns in in-plane cases but not the more complex through the thickness ones.

The explicit scheme does however show a more pronounced localisation of damage which can affect the global deformation of the model, Fig.6.

The explicit scheme shows also much better performance in terms of computational time. Furthermore, even though an explicit solution does not always exactly satisfy equilibrium (as in implicit), implicit models applied to highly non-linear problems typically require some form of viscous regularization and other artificial energy absorbing mechanisms.

Acknowledgments

EPSRC through the Knowledge Transfer Scheme and Airbus UK are gratefully acknowledged.

Table 1. Material properties
1- IM7/8552, 2-T300/914, 3-E-glass

Property	Value			Source		
	1	2	3	1	2	3
Material system						
E_1 (GPa)	171	129	45.6	[10]	[2]	
E_2 (GPa)	9.08	5.6	16.2	[10]	[2]	
G_{12} (GPa)	5.29	5.5	5.83	[10]	[2]	
ν_{12}	0.32	0.31	0.27	[10]	[2]	
X_T (MPa)	2326	1378	1280	[10]	[2]	
X_C (MPa)	1200	950	800	[10]	[2]	
Y_T (MPa)	62	40	40	[10]	[2]	
Y_C (MPa)	199	125	145	[10]	[2]	
S_L (MPa)	92	97	73	[10]	[2]	
G_{IC} interlaminar (kJ/m ²)	0.27				[10]	
G_{IIC} interlaminar	0.78				[10]	

(kJ/m ²)		
G_{IC}^{FT} (kJ/m ²)	97.8	[2]
G_{IC}^{FC} (kJ/m ²)	106	[2]
G_{IC}^{MT} (kJ/m ²)	0.25	[2]

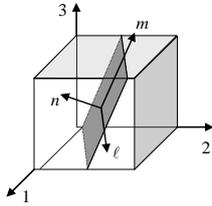


Fig.1. Coordinate system aligned with the crack [2].

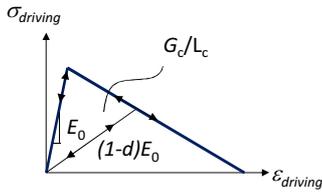


Fig.2. Bi-linear cohesive law.

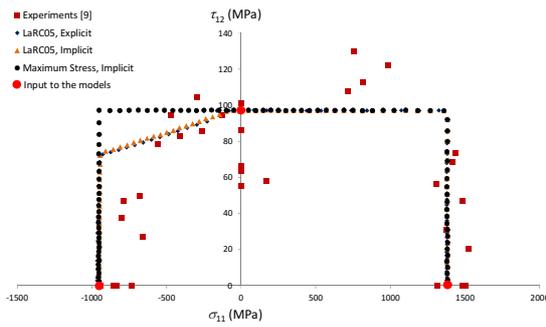


Fig.3. Failure envelopes for longitudinal loading combined with in-plane shear for the different models.

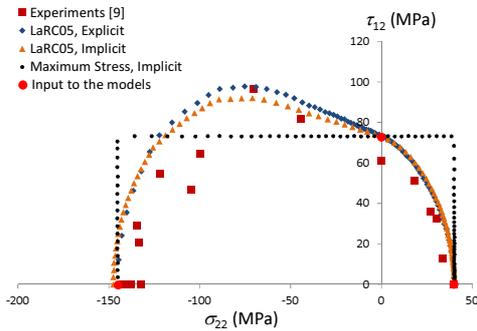


Fig.4. Failure envelopes for transverse loading combined with in-plane shear for the different models.

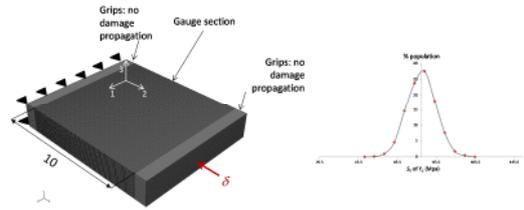


Fig.5. FE model for transverse compression specimen (dimension in mm)

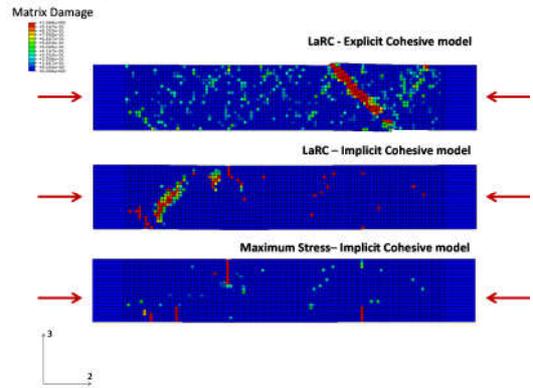


Fig.6. Transverse compressive failure

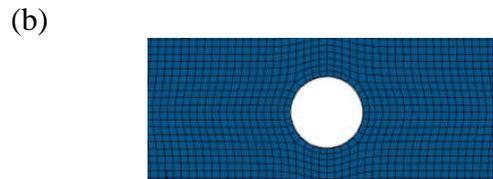
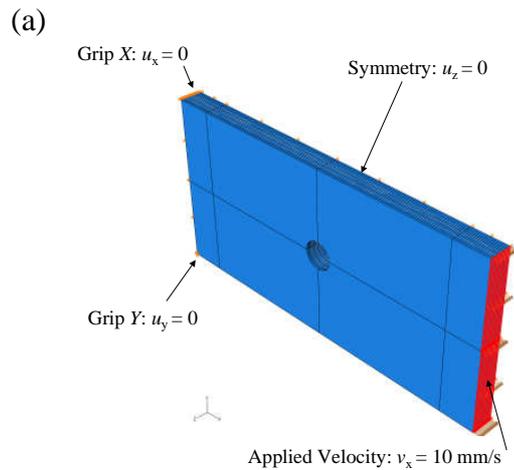


Fig.7. Open Hole Tension FE model (a) geometry and boundary conditions (b) mesh around the hole.

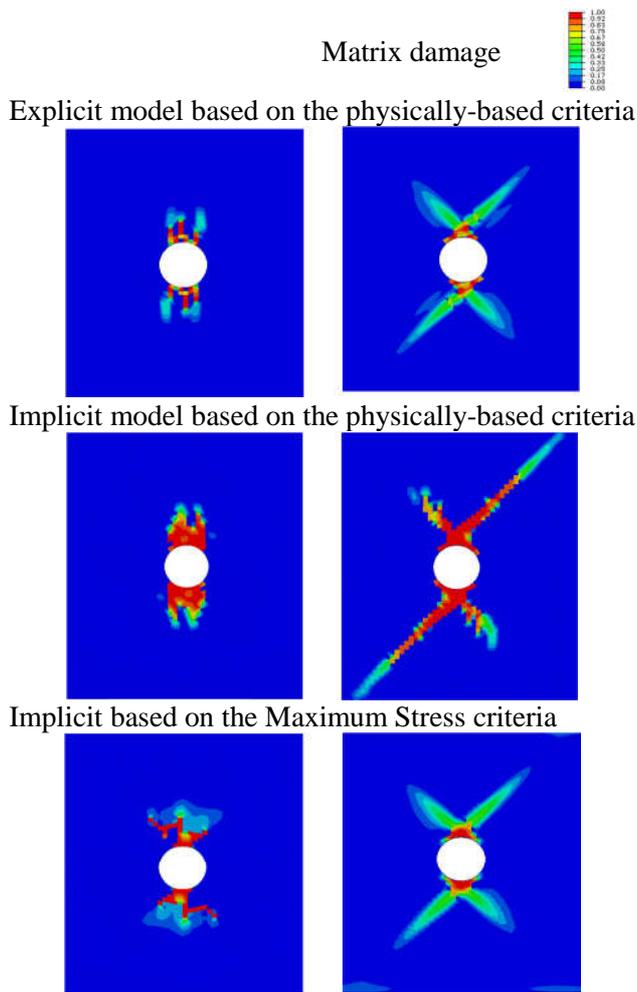


Fig.8. Matrix damage on outer 90° and inner 45° plies of an OHT for the three models.

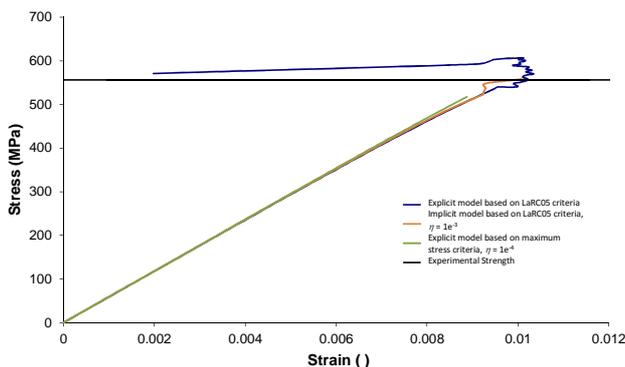


Fig.9. Predicted responses for an OHT test for three different failure models.

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