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Transition of ductile and brittle fracture during DWTT by FEM

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Abstract
Globally, steel pipelines are widely used to transport energy in the form of liquid petroleum and natural gas. The steel used in the manufacture of these pipelines must have high strength and toughness, and high resistance to fracture. The Drop Weight Tear Test (DWTT) is the most widely used test to assess brittle fracture characteristics in steel. The zones of ductile and brittle fracture during DWTT characterize the quality of pipeline steels. In this paper, the Gurson-Tvergaard-Needleman (GTN) fracture models are coupled in a Finite Element model. The ductile and brittle fracture zones in the samples are analyzed under different conditions. The results show that the change in fracture mode during the DWTT is from the brittle to the ductile, then again to the brittle. The calculated absorbed energies during DWTT compare well with experimental findings. Finally, we present an analysis of the transition from ductile to brittle fracture under different conditions.

Keywords
during, transition, dwtt, ductile, fem, brittle, fracture

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Abstract Globally, steel pipelines are widely used to transport energy in the form of liquid petroleum and natural gas. The steel used in the manufacture of these pipelines must have high strength and toughness, and high resistance to fracture. The Drop Weight Tear Test (DWTT) is the most widely used test to assess brittle fracture characteristics in steel. The zones of ductile and brittle fracture during DWTT characterize the quality of pipeline steels. In this paper, the Gurson-Tvergaard-Needleman (GTN) fracture models are coupled in a Finite Element model. The ductile and brittle fracture zones in the samples are analyzed under different conditions. The results show that the change in fracture mode during the DWTT is from the brittle to the ductile, then again to the brittle. The calculated absorbed energies during DWTT compare well with experimental findings. Finally, we present an analysis of the transition from ductile to brittle fracture under different conditions.

Keywords Energy pipeline; ductile fracture; brittle fracture; DWTT

1. Introduction

Oil and gas provide 60% of the world’s primary fuel and a large proportion is transported in pipelines. There is more than 33,000 km of high-pressure steel pipelines in Australia. The pipelines are designed, built and operated to well-established standards and rules, because the products they carry can pose a significant hazard to the surrounding population and environment. A combination of good design, adequate material properties and sound operating practices are therefore necessary, to ensure that transmission pipelines operate safely and efficiently.

Line pipe specifications specify minimum requirements for the shear area in a Drop Weight Tear Test (DWTT) to ensure the arrest of a long running brittle fracture. The DWTT, as specified in API RP 5L3 [1] or ASTM E436 [2], was developed by Battelle Memorial Institute in 1962 during the course of the American Gas Association NG-18 Research Program [3] to overcome some limitations of the Pellini drop-weight test which was developed by the US Naval Research Laboratory. In a DWTT, the test specimen is a rectangular bar with a length of 305 mm, a width of 76 mm and of the full material thickness (up to at least 19 mm). The specimen has a shallow pressed notch and is subjected to three-point bending, as shown in Fig. 1. The standards specify a 5 mm deep notch made by a sharp indenter with a 45° included angle resulting in a tip radius that is normally between 0.0127 to 0.0254 mm [1]. A series of specimens are broken under impact loading at various temperatures and the proportions of ductile fracture (shear) and brittle fracture (cleavage) on the fracture surfaces are measured. From correlations with full-scale pipe burst tests, a transition temperature corresponding to about 85 percent shear is normally defined in application standards as the fracture propagation transition temperature (FPTT) [4-5].

In this paper, a numerical method has been used to simulate the fracture behavior of pipelines. The most commonly used fracture model in computational fracture mechanics to characterize the toughness of line pipe steels is the modified Gurson model [6]. The Gurson model includes the influence of micro-voids on the plastic flow in a constitutive framework. The Gurson model was later modified extended by Tvergaard [7] and Needleman [8]. The modified Gurson-Tvergaard-Needleman(GTN) model is used to describe the acceleration of void growth. In this model, the
material is regarded as a continuum, composed of a ductile matrix with microvoids. There have been a limited number of studies applying this model to ductile materials [9-11].

Fig. 1 Drop weight tear test (DWTT) specimen [2]

As opposed to simulations of the DWTT, simulations of Charpy tests are widely carried out to characterize the toughness of line pipe steels. Koppenhoefer and Dodds [12] investigated specimen size and loading rate effects on cleavage fracture of ferritic steels tested in the ductile-to-brittle transition region in pre-cracked Charpy specimens. The probability distribution for fracture of a cracked solid is defined by a two-parameter Weibull distribution [12]. Eberle et al. [13] developed 2D as well as 3D explicit dynamic finite element analyses, in combination with the rate-dependent Gurson model, to simulate Charpy tests. The simulated load-displacement curve and crack front are in close agreement with experimental observations. Tanguy et al. [14] conducted a numerical simulation of the Charpy V-notch test in the ductile-brittle transition regime using a modified Gurson-type model for ductile damage and Beremin model for cleavage fracture. Folch et al [15] also developed a local coupled brittle/ductile fracture approach model to predict either Charpy energy or fracture toughness and to investigate conditions for correlations between them using the Beremin and Gurson models. The modified Beremin model is based on the principles of Weibull statistics for the distribution of the defects and their size as is the standard Beremin model. The modified Gurson model, which incorporates a yield function for porous metal plasticity, was utilized in this work in conjunction with the Lemaitre and Beremin models. Thibaux and van den Abeele [16] reported on the fracture mechanics of instrumented Charpy tests performed on an X70 material. The tests were then simulated using a finite element method and the GTN constitutive model. Damage is represented by an internal variable, $f$, representing the void volume fraction which is assumed to be isotropic.

There have been very few reports on studies of the ductile-to-brittle transition region during a DWTT. Nonn et al [17] performed numerical simulations of a DWTT by applying the GTN model and compared the simulation results with experimental results from an instrumented DWTT. The results show that GTN model gives a reliable prediction of the load level variation with time when considering strain rate dependence. By applying GTN parameters validated on quasi-static fracture mechanics tests, the maximum load level including the beginning of the load drop for a DWTT can be well described quantitatively. The model equations were not provided in the publication.

In this paper, we used the GTN model to simulate the fracture behavior during DWTT. The stress at the notch was included as an initial condition in this model for the first time. The equivalent stress, nucleation of voids, void size distribution, etc. were analyzed. We found that the fracture propagates in a triangular shape at the crack tip, and the inverse fracture occurs when the fracture propagated about 3/4 of sample width in current study case. Some of the cases show that the transition during DWTT test is from the brittle to the ductile and then again to the brittle zone.

2. Models and simulation
The GTN damage model could be used to analyze the ductile fracture behavior under tension loads. In this paper, we also used the model to predict the damage behavior, as shown in Eq. (1),

\[
\phi = \frac{\sigma_{eq}^2}{\sigma_0^2} + 2q_1 f^p \ln \left( \frac{3p}{2\sigma_0} \right) - \left( 1 + q_2 f^p \right)
\]  

(1)

where \( p \) the hydrostatic pressure, \( \sigma_{eq} \) the effective Von Mises stress, \( \sigma_0 \) the yield stress of the matrix (function of the plastic deformation), \( q_1, q_2 \) are material parameters and \( f^p \) is the effective porosity. Material grade API 5L X80 was adopted in the models and the parameters are listed in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Density, kg/m³</td>
<td>7850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young’s Modulus, GPa</td>
<td>206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yield stress, MPa</td>
<td>610</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( f^p )</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( q_1, q_2 )</td>
<td>1.5, 1.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As specified in the ASTM E436 [2], the DWTT specimen is loaded in three-point bending by a drop hammer with 400kg weight and loading span of 254 mm. The simulated fracture test comprises two steps employed, as shown in Fig. 2: (1) pressing the notch and, (2) fracturing the sample under the action of the hammer. A three-dimensional geometrical model of the DWTT process was created with a pressed crack was set up with the above parameters and computational meshes with 8-node elements. The elements around the expected fracture zone are much finer than elsewhere in order to accommodate steeper gradients in parameters. In the models, there are 124864 elements and 127002 nodes. In the DWTT process, the hammer descends with an initial impact speed of 7 m/s.

![Fig. 2 Geometry of the full simulation process](image)

### 3. Results and discussion

Fig 3 shows the equivalent stress distribution around the pressed notch position. After the pressed notch was introduced (step 1) at the centre of the specimen, stress concentration in the notch tip
area is observed prior to commencement of fracture. In the figure, we observe the maximum initial stress appeared in the notch tip zone, and this will affect the fracture behavior during the DWTT process.

Fig. 3 Equivalent stress distribution and detail around the notch (MPa)

Fig.4 shows the equivalent stress distribution sequence during crack propagation (step 2). The equivalent stress is a three-dimensional stress calculated by Eq.(2). A maximum stress of 813 MPa is found at the notch tip and at the loading point, due to high stress concentration at these places. The stress value in the central area between the notch tip and the loading point is relatively small. A ‘butterfly-wing’ stress distribution is observed at the crack tip and at the loading point. The stress distribution is almost symmetrical about the loading line. As the crack propagates, the maximum stress distribution extends along the loading line till the specimen fractures.

\[
e_{eq} = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2} S_{ij} S_{ij}}
\]

(2)

Where \(S_{ij}\) are the components of the stress deviator tensor.

Fig.4 Equivalent stress distribution in DWTT sample (MPa)
Figure 5 shows the development of void nucleation during crack propagation from the notch tip to the impact side. The maximum void density always occurs at the two sides of the fracture surface where fully ductile fracture is seen. The voids appear to peak faster near the plane of symmetry. Which implies that the plasticity at the two sides of the sample is larger than that near the plane of symmetry.

Fig. 5 Nucleation of voids in DWTT samples

Fig. 6 shows the void volume fraction distribution in the DWTT sample at different stages. It is seen that the void volume fraction in the pressed notch zone is slightly larger than in the other zone, suggesting that the process of notch pressing affects the initiation of fracture in the test sample. Hong et al. [18] concluded that the stress was less concentrated at the notch tip in the pressed-notch specimens compared to a Chevron notch, and this makes the initiation of fracture of pressed-notch specimens more difficult, and accordingly the deformation preceding the fracture initiation resulted in strain hardening in the hammer-impacted region increased.

As seen in Fig. 7, the effective strain rate shows a peak near the plane of symmetry until the specimen fractures. This is consistent with the higher crack growth rate due to stress concentration near the surface of symmetry. As expected, the shape of effective strain rate distribution is found to be similar to the shape of the voids distribution. In Fig. 7 (g), it was observed that the inverse
fracture occurred when the fracture propagation reached 3/4 of sample width. The fracture also occurred at impact zones at same time.

The appearance of the simulated fracture surface is in close agreement with the experimental results [18] in terms of stress distribution and fracture morphology as shown in Fig.8. Fracture was initiated as cleavage fracture followed by shear fracture, and then an inverse fracture occurred at the impact zone of the sample. Further analyses on ductile-brittle transition will be carried out by developing a coupled brittle/ductile fracture model in the near future. The relationship between the initiation of inverse fracture and the length of mixed fracture zone need to be further investigated.

4. Conclusions

(1) A finite element model using the Gurson-Tvergaard-Needleman damage model was employed to simulate the fracture process of pipeline steel during DWTT, in particular, considering the state of initial stress around the pressed notch.

(2) During DWTT, the fracture follows a triangular shape in the sample due to higher constraint at
the mid-thickness. This is compatible with the simulation results for void nucleation distribution and effective strain rate distribution.

(3) The simulated results are in good agreement compared with the experimental results in terms of stress distribution and fracture morphology. The relationship between the initiation of inverse fracture and the length of mixed fracture zone need to be further investigated.

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