



Fracture Mechanics

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Fracture Mechanics

To my wife, Iris and my children, Edna, Clifford, and Leslie C. T. Sun

To my wife, Zhen Z.-H. Jin

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Preface

Fracture mechanics is now considered a mature subject and has become an important course in engineering curricula at many universities. It has also become a useful analysis and design tool to mechanical, structural, and material engineers. Fracture mechanics, especially linear elastic fracture mechanics (LEFM), is a unique field in that its fundamental framework resides in the inverse square root type singular stress field ahead of a crack. Almost all the fracture properties of a solid are characterized using a couple of parameters extracted from these near-tip stress and displacement fields. In view of this unique feature of fracture mechanics, we feel that it is essential for the reader to fully grasp the mathematical details and their representation of the associated physics in these mathematical expressions because the rationale and limitations of this seemingly simple approach are embodied in the singular stress field.

There are already more than a dozen books dealing with fracture mechanics that may be used as textbooks for teaching purposes. With different emphases, these books appeal to different readers and students from different backgrounds. This book is based on the lecture notes that have been used at the School of Aeronautics and Astronautics, Purdue University, for more than 30 years. It is intended as a book for graduate students in aeronautical, civil, mechanical, and materials engineering who are interested in picking up an in-depth understanding of how to utilize fracture mechanics for research, teaching, and engineering applications. As a textbook, our goal is to make it mathematically readable to first-year graduate students with a decent elasticity background. To achieve this goal, almost all mathematical derivations are clearly presented and suitable for classroom teaching and for self-study as well.

In selecting and presenting the contents for this book, we use the aforementioned rationale as a guide. In Chapter 2, the Griffith theory of fracture and the surface energy concept are introduced. Chapter 3 presents the elastic stress and displacement fields near the crack tip and introduces Irwin's stress intensity factor concept. The chapter describes detailed derivations of the stress fields and stress intensity factor K using the complex potential method and Williams' asymptotic expansion approach. Finally, the chapter introduces the fracture criterion based on the stress intensity factor (K-criterion) and discusses the K-dominance concept to make the reader aware of the limitation of the K-criterion.

Chapter 4 is totally devoted to energy release rate in conjunction with the path-independent J-integral. The energy release rate concept is first introduced, and the relationship between the energy release rate G and stress intensity factor (G - K relation) is established followed by the fracture criterion based on the energy release rate (G-criterion). The J-integral is widely accepted because its value is equal to

the energy release rate and it can be calculated numerically with stress and displacement fields away from the singular stress at the crack tip. Another simple, yet efficient, crack-closure method has been shown to be quite accurate in evaluating energy release rate. Therefore, a couple of finite element-based numerical methods for calculation of energy release rate and the stress-intensity factor using the crack-closure method are included in this chapter.

In most fracture mechanics books, the near-tip stress field is presented in plane elasticity for Mode I and Mode II loadings and in generalized plane strain for Mode III. In reality, none of these 2-D states exists. For instance, a thin plate containing a center crack is usually treated as a 2-D plane stress problem. In fact, the plane stress assumption fails because of the presence of high stress gradients near the crack tip and a state-of-plane strain actually exists along most part of the crack front. The knowledge of the 3-D nature of all through-the-thickness cracks is important in LEFM. In Chapter 4, a section is devoted to the the 3-D effect on the variation of stress intensity along the crack front.

Under static Mode I loading, experimental results indicate that the direction of crack extension is self-similar. As a result, in determining Mode I fracture toughness of a solid, the crack extension direction is not an issue. The situation is not as clear if the body is subjected to combined loads or dynamic loads. Of course, if the body is an anisotropic solid such as a fiberous composite, the answer to the question of cracking direction is not as simple and is not readily available in general. In view of this constraint, we only consider isotropic brittle solids in Chapter 5. The focus is on the prediction of crack extension direction. From a learning point of view, it is interesting to follow a number of different paths of thinking taken by some earlier researchers in the effort to predict the cracking direction.

Chapters 6 and 7 present the result of the effort in extending the LEFM to treat fracture in elastic-plastic solids. In Chapter 6, plastic zones near the crack tip for the three fracture modes are analyzed. Several popular and simple methods for estimating the crack tip plastic zone size are covered. The initial effort in taking plasticity into account in fractures was proposed by Irwin who suggested using an effective crack length to account for the effect of plasticity. Later, the idea was extended to modeling the so-called *R*-curve during stable crack growth. Another approach that uses the *J*-integral derived based on deformation plasticity theory to model the crack tip stress and strain fields (the HRR field) also has many followers. In addition to Irwin's adjusted crack length and the *J*-integral approach, crack growth modeled by crack tip opening displacement (CTOD or CTOA) is also discussed in Chapter 7.

Interfaces between dissimilar solids are common in modern materials and structures. Interfaces are often the weak link of materials and structures and are the likely sites for crack initiation and propagation. Interfacial cracks have many unique physical behaviors that are not found in homogeneous solids. However, surprisingly, the development of fracture mechanics for interfacial cracks has followed exactly the same path as LEFM. In other words, fracture mechanics for interfacial cracks is all centered on the crack tip stress field. The only difference is in the violently oscillatory behavior of the crack tip stress field of interfacial cracks. Chapter 8 presents a

thorough derivation of the crack tip stress and displacement fields. Attention is also focused on the significance of stress oscillation at the crack tip and the nonconvergent nature of the energy release rates of the individual fracture modes.

The cohesive zone model (CZM) has become a popular finite element-based tool for modeling fracture in solids. CZM is often considered by some as a more realistic form of fracture mechanics because it does not employ the idealized singular stresses. Although there are fundamental differences between the two concepts, the purposes of the two are the same. Therefore, it is reasonable to include CZM in this book. In Chapter 9 we make an effort to present the basic formulation of CZM, especially the cohesive traction law. Instead of covering examples of applications of the cohesive zone model, we place greater emphasis on the logic in the formulation of CZM.

Chapter 10 contains brief and condensed presentations of three additional topics, namely, anisotropic solids, nonhomogeneous solids, and dynamic fracture. The reason for including these three topics in this textbook is, perhaps, just for the sake of completeness. For each topic, the coverage is quite brief and with a limited scope and does not warrant a full chapter.

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Fracture Mechanics

Contents

Preface			xiii
About the A	Autho	ors	xvii
CHAPTER	1	Introduction	1
	1.1	Failure of Solids	1
	1.2	Fracture Mechanics Concepts	2
	1.3	History of Fracture Mechanics	5
		1.3.1 Griffith Theory of Fracture	5
		1.3.2 Fracture Mechanics as an Engineering Science	6
		1.3.3 Recent Developments in Fracture Mechanics	
		Research	7
	Ref	erences	8
CHAPTER	2	Griffith Theory of Fracture	11
	2.1	Theoretical Strength	11
		2.1.1 An Atomistic Model	11
		2.1.2 The Energy Consideration	13
	2.2	The Griffith Theory of Fracture	14
	2.3	A Relation among Energies	17
	Ref	erences	22
	Prol	blems	22
CHAPTER	3	The Elastic Stress Field around a Crack Tip	25
		Basic Modes of Fracture and Stress Intensity Factor	25
		Method of Complex Potential for Plane Elasticity	
	0.2	(The Kolosov-Muskhelishvili Formulas)	27
		3.2.1 Basic Equations of Plane Elasticity and Airy	
		Stress Function	27
		3.2.2 Analytic Functions and Cauchy-Riemann Equations	29
		3.2.3 Complex Potential Representation of the Airy Stress Function	30
		3.2.4 Stress and Displacement	32

3	.3 Weste	ergaard Function Method	34
		Symmetric Problems (Mode I)	34
	3.3.2	Skew-Symmetric Problems (Mode II)	36
3	.4 Soluti	ions by the Westergaard Function Method	38
		Mode I Crack.	38
		Mode II Crack	43
		Mode III Crack	46
	3.4.4	Complex Representation of Stress Intensity Factor	48
3		amental Solutions of Stress Intensity Factor	50
		A Finite Crack in an Infinite Plate	51
	3.5.2	Stress Intensity Factors for a Crack Subjected	
	2.5.2	to Arbitrary Crack Face Loads	53
		A Semi-infinite Crack in an Infinite Medium	54
3	.6 Finite	Specimen Size Effects	55
3	.7 Willia	nms' Crack Tip Fields	56
	3.7.1	Williams' Crack Tip Stress and Displacement	
		Fields: Mode I and II	57
	3.7.2	Williams' Crack Tip Stress and Displacement	
		Fields: Mode III	63
3	.8 <i>K</i> -Do	minance	66
3	.9 Irwin'	's K-Based Fracture Criterion	68
F	eferences	s	71
F	roblems	blems	
CHAPTER 4	Energ	y Release Rate	77
4	.1 The C	Concept of Energy Release Rate	77
4	.2 The R	Relations between G and K by the Crack Closure	
	Metho	od	78
4	.3 The .I	-Integral	82
		J as Energy Release Rate	83
		Path-Independence	86
		Relation between <i>J</i> and <i>K</i>	87
	4.3.4	Examples	89
4	.4 Stress	Intensity Factor Calculations Using the Finite	
		ent Method	92
	4.4.1	Direct Method	92
	4.4.2	Modified Crack Closure Technique	93

	4.5	Three-Dimensional Field near Crack Front	94
		4.5.1 Distribution of Stress Intensity Factor over	
		Thickness	95
		4.5.2 Plane Strain Zone at the Crack Front	99
	Refe	erences	101
	Prob	olems	102
CHAPTER	5	Mixed Mode Fracture	105
	5.1	A Simple Elliptical Model	105
	5.2	Maximum Tensile Stress Criterion (MS-Criterion)	108
	5.3	Strain Energy Density Criterion (S-Criterion)	111
	5.4	Maximum Energy Release Rate Criterion	115
		(ME-Criterion).	115
		Experimental Verifications	117
		erences	119
	Prol	blems	120
CHAPTER	6	Crack Tip Plasticity	123
	6.1	Yield Criteria.	124
		6.1.1 Tresca Yield Criterion	124
		6.1.2 von Mises Yield Criterion	125
	6.2	Constitutive Relationships in Plasticity	125
		6.2.1 Flow Theory of Plasticity	126
		6.2.2 Deformation Theory of Plasticity	128
	6.3	Irwin's Model for Mode I Fracture	130
		6.3.1 Plastic Zone Size	130
		6.3.2 Effective Crack Length and Adjusted Stress Intensity Factor	133
		6.3.3 Crack Tip Opening Displacement	
	64	The Dugdale Model	
	0.4	6.4.1 Small-Scale Yielding	
		6.4.2 A Crack in an Infinite Plate	137
	6.5	Plastic Zone Shape Estimate According to the Elastic	
		Solution	140
		6.5.1 Principal Stresses	140
		6.5.2 Plane Stress Case	141

	6.5.3 Plane Strain Case	143
	6.5.4 Antiplane Strain Case	145
6.6	Plastic Zone Shape According to Finite Element	
	Analyses	146
6.7	A Mode III Small-Scale Yielding Solution	148
	6.7.1 Basic Equations	148
	6.7.2 Elastic-Plastic Solution and the Crack Tip Plastic Zone	149
6.8	A Mode III Small-Scale Yielding Solution—Elastic	
	Power-Law Hardening Materials	152
	6.8.1 Basic Equations	
	6.8.2 Boundary Conditions of SSY	
	6.8.3 Elastic-Plastic Solution	
6.9	HRR Field	162
6.10	Energy Release Rate Concept in Elastic-Plastic	
	Materials	164
	erences	
Pro	blems	168
CHAPTER 7	Elastic-Plastic Fracture Criteria	171
7.1	Irwin's Adjusted Stress Intensity Factor Approach	171
7.2	K Resistance Curve Approach	173
7.3	J-Integral as a Fracture Parameter	177
7.4	Crack Tip Opening Displacement Criterion	178
7.5	Crack Tip Opening Angle Criterion	181
Ref	erences	185
Pro	blems	186
OUADTED O		100
CHAPTER 8	Interfacial Cracks between Two Dissimilar Solids	
8.1	Crack Tip Fields	
	8.1.1 Asymptotic Stress and Displacement Fields	
	8.1.2 Mode III Case	
	8.1.3 Dundurs' Parameters	19/
8.2	Complex Function Method and Stress Intensity Factors	197

		8.2.1 Stress Intensity Factor Solutions for Two Typical	
		Crack Problems	198
		8.2.2 Further Comments on the Stress Intensity Factor Definitions	200
	0.2		200
	8.3	Crack Surface Contact Zone and Stress Oscillation Zone	202
		8.3.1 Crack Surface Contact Zone	203
		8.3.2 Stress Oscillation Zone	
	84	Energy Release Rate	
	0.1	8.4.1 Energy Release Rate	
		8.4.2 Stress Intensity Factor Calculations	
	8.5	Fracture Criterion	
	8.6	Crack Kinking Out of the Interface	213
	8.7	Contact and Friction in Interfacial Cracks	215
		8.7.1 Crack Tip Fields	215
		8.7.2 Finite Element Procedure for Energy	
		Calculation	
		8.7.3 Fracture Criterion	
		8.7.4 Effect of Compressive Loading	
	Ref	erences	223
	Prol	olems	224
CHAPTER	9	Cohesive Zone Model	227
	9.1	The Barenblatt Model	227
	9.2	Cohesive Zone Concept in Continuum Mechanics	
		and Cohesive Laws	230
		9.2.1 The Dugdale Model	233
		9.2.2 A Linear Softening Model	
		9.2.3 A Trapezoidal Model	
		9.2.4 An Exponential Model	
		9.2.5 A Cohesive Zone Model Based on Necking	
	9.3	A Discussion on the Linear Hardening Law	235
		Cohesive Zone Modeling and LEFM	
	9.5	Cohesive Zone Modeling of Interfacial Fracture	
		9.5.1 Mixed Mode Cohesive Law	
		9.5.2 Cohesive Energy Density	
		9.5.3 Cohesive Zone Length	243

	Refer	ences	246
	Probl	ems	246
CHAPTER	10	Special Topics	247
	10.1	Fracture Mechanics of Anisotropic Solids	247
		Solids	248
		under Uniform Crack Surface Pressure	250
		under Uniform Crack Surface Shear	251252
	10.2	Fracture Mechanics of Nonhomogeneous Materials	253
		Nonhomogenous Materials	256
		Graded Interlayer between Two Dissimilar Materials	264
	10.3	Dynamic Fracture Mechanics	266268271
	Refe	rences	
APPENDIX:	Stress	s Intensity Factors	287
Index			295

Introduction

1

1.1 FAILURE OF SOLIDS

Failure of solids and structures can take various forms. A structure may fail without breaking the material, such as in elastic buckling. However, failure of the material in a structure surely will lead to failure of the structure. Two general forms of failure in solids are excessive permanent (plastic) deformation and breakage. Plasticity can be viewed as an extension of elasticity for decribing the mechanical behavior of solids beyond yielding. The theory of plasticity has been studied for more than a century and has long been employed for structural designs. On the other hand, the latter form of failure is usually regarded as the strength of a solid, implying the total loss of load-bearing capability of the solid. For brittle solids, this form of failure often causes the body under load to break into two or more separated parts.

Unlike plasticity, the prediction of the strength of solid materials was all based on phenomenological approaches before the inception of fracture mechanics. Many phenomenological failure criteria in terms of stress or strain have been proposed and calibrated against experimental results. In the commonly used failure criteria, such as the maximum principal stress or strain criterion, a failure envelope in the stress or strain space is constructed based on limited experimental strength data. Failure is assumed to occur when the maximum normal stress at a point in the material exceeds the strength envelope, that is,

 $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_f$

where σ_1 (> 0) is a principal stress and σ_f is the tensile strength of the solid. The failure envelope has also been modified to distinguish the difference between tensile and compressive strengths and to account for the effects of stress interactions.

In general, the classical phenomenological failure theories predict failure of engineering materials and structures with reasonable accuracy in applications where the stress field is relatively uniform. These theories are often unreliable in the presence of high-stress gradients resulting from cutouts. Moreover, there were many premature structural failures at stresses that were well below the critical values specified in the classical failure theories.