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On the use of uniaxial one-parameter damage laws for estimating fatigue life under multiaxial loading

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Abstract

The goal of this paper is to evaluate the capabilities of different one-parameter fatigue laws to estimate crack initiation in notched components under multiaxial loading. Fatigue damage is accounted for through stress-based, strain-based, and energy-based approaches while the cyclic plasticity at the notch-controlled process zone is estimated using linear-elastic simulations. The results show that energy-based formulations established from both the absorbed energy at the mid-life cycle and the energy absorbed throughout the entire life are more accurate.

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1. Introduction

Fatigue life assessment of mechanical components experiencing multiaxial loading is a complex challenge. In part, this is because there is a huge number of variables involved in the analysis, namely the shape of the stress

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Nomenclature

| | |
|------------------|--|
| b | fatigue strength exponent |
| c | fatigue ductility exponent |
| E | Young's modulus |
| N_f | number of cycles to failure |
| N_E | experimental fatigue life |
| N_P | predicted fatigue life |
| W_T | cumulative total strain energy density |
| ΔW_{T0} | tensile elastic energy at the material fatigue limit |
| ΔW_T | total strain energy density at mid-life |
| α | material constant |
| α_t | material constant |
| ε_a | strain amplitude |
| ε_f' | fatigue ductility coefficient |
| κ | material constant |
| κ_t | material constant |
| σ_a | stress amplitude |
| σ_f' | fatigue strength coefficient |
| σ_m | mean stress |
| σ_{max} | maximum stress |

raiser, the normal stresses to shear stresses ratio, the loading orientation with respect to the notch configuration, among others (Socie and Marquis, 1999). The unlimited number of variables increases the difficulty and introduces some unpredictability. Thus, there is a need for unified models capable of accounting for the fatigue damage at the critical points in an accurate manner (Carpinteri et al., 2008; Zhu et al. 2020; Deng et al., 2022).

Within the most successful approaches to assess the multiaxial fatigue life of notched components, the idea of reducing the multiaxial state to an equivalent uniaxial state is one of the most popular (Carpinteri et al., 2011; Branco et al., 2017). These approaches can be established through stress-based, strain-based, or energy-based parameters. These parameters, frequently named as fatigue damage quantifiers, can be determined simply by an average value computed near the notch tip or using more complex concepts, such as weighted methods (Susmel and Taylor, 2007; Liao et al, 2020).

The Theory of Critical Distances (TCD) and the Strain Energy Density (SED) are two popular average methods. The former owes its success to the balance between simplicity and accuracy. Although the first formulations have been established using stress concepts (Susmel and Taylor, 2007; Ellyin, 1997), modern approaches also consider strain and energy quantities. Regarding the latter, its popularity relies on the possibility of dealing with a variety of problems and loading scenarios. However, comparative studies focused on both methodologies are not frequent (Hu et al., 2019; Branco et al., 2022).

Both methodologies can be formalised using elastic-plastic and linear-elastic simulations. Despite elastic-plastic analyses are, in theory, more accurate, linear-elastic analyses are simpler and faster because they do not require complex constitutive models. However, comparative studies on the capabilities of each approach rarely have been addressed in literature (Susmel, 2021; Branco; 2021). Thus, the main purpose of this paper is to evaluate the capabilities of TCD and SED approaches combined with different uniaxial one-parameter fatigue laws materialized in a linear-elastic framework for estimating the crack initiation life in notched components under multiaxial loading.

2. Material and methods

The material utilized in this study is the DIN 34CrNiMo6 high-strength steel. Experimental tests comprised both low-cycle fatigue (LCF) testes for evaluation of cyclic fatigue properties (see Table 1) and multiaxial fatigue tests

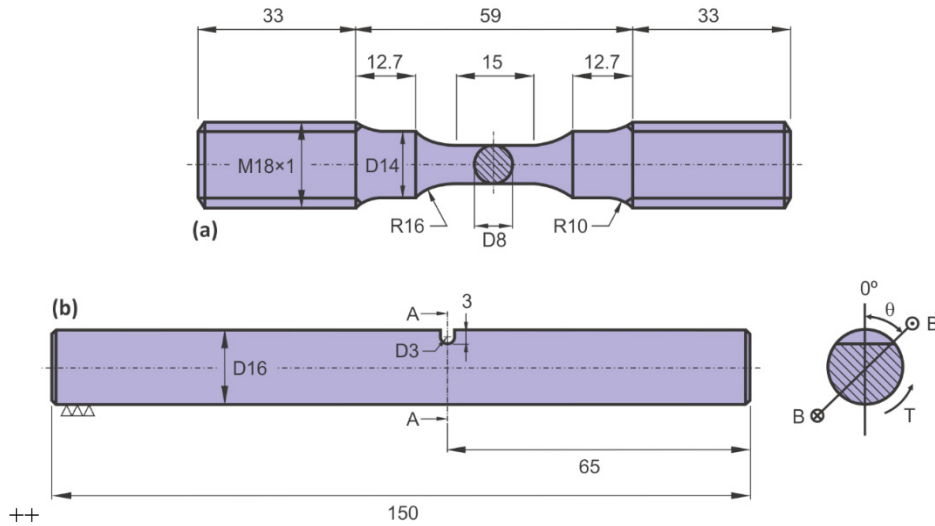


Fig. 1. Specimen geometries: (a) low-cycle fatigue tests; and (b) multiaxial bending-torsion fatigue tests (unit: mm).

Table 1. Cyclic fatigue properties of the 34CrNiMo6 high-strength steel.

| σ'_f (MPa) | b | ϵ'_f | c | κ_t (MJ/m ³) | α_t | ΔW_{t0} (MJ/m ³) | κ (MJ/m ³) | α |
|-------------------|---------|---------------|---------|---------------------------------|------------|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------|
| 1183.7 | -0.0545 | 0.4697 | -0.6059 | 2165.37 | -0.6854 | 0.7049 | 1022.62 | 0.356 |

Table 2. Summary of multiaxial fatigue tests.

| Test | B/T | θ | σ_a (MPa) | σ_m (MPa) | τ_a (MPa) | τ_m (MPa) | N_i (cycle) |
|------|-----|----------|------------------|------------------|----------------|----------------|---------------|
| 1 | 2 | 0° | 179.1 | 194.0 | 44.9 | 48.5 | 102,386 |
| 2 | 2 | 0° | 223.8 | 238.7 | 56.0 | 59.7 | 49,103 |
| 3 | 2 | 0° | 298.4 | 313.3 | 74.6 | 78.3 | 24,207 |
| 4 | 2 | 45° | 208.9 | 223.8 | 52.2 | 56.0 | 64,754 |
| 5 | 2 | 45° | 253.7 | 268.6 | 63.4 | 67.2 | 39,331 |
| 6 | 2 | 45° | 328.3 | 343.2 | 82.1 | 85.8 | 11,422 |
| 7 | 2 | 90° | 343.0 | 365.3 | 85.8 | 91.3 | 68,010 |
| 8 | 2 | 90° | 356.4 | 383.1 | 89.1 | 95.8 | 72,072 |
| 9 | 2 | 90° | 364.1 | 379.0 | 91.0 | 94.8 | 51,878 |
| 10 | 1 | 0° | 179.1 | 194.0 | 89.6 | 97.0 | 92,544 |
| 12 | 1 | 0° | 179.1 | 194.0 | 89.6 | 97.0 | 83,278 |
| 13 | 1 | 0° | 179.1 | 194.0 | 89.6 | 97.0 | 56,749 |
| 14 | 1 | 0° | 223.8 | 238.7 | 112.0 | 119.4 | 26,420 |
| 15 | 1 | 0° | 223.8 | 238.7 | 112.0 | 119.4 | 21,225 |
| 16 | 1 | 0° | 223.8 | 238.7 | 112.0 | 119.4 | 31,306 |
| 17 | 1 | 0° | 298.4 | 313.3 | 149.2 | 156.7 | 8314 |
| 18 | 1 | 45° | 208.9 | 223.8 | 104.5 | 111.9 | 67,160 |
| 19 | 1 | 45° | 223.8 | 238.7 | 111.9 | 119.4 | 46,822 |
| 20 | 1 | 45° | 238.7 | 253.7 | 119.4 | 126.9 | 25,276 |
| 21 | 1 | 90° | 282.9 | 298.5 | 141.5 | 149.3 | 63,105 |
| 22 | 1 | 90° | 283.5 | 298.4 | 141.8 | 149.2 | 88,655 |
| 23 | 1 | 90° | 311.8 | 334.1 | 155.9 | 167.0 | 28,730 |

for calculating the crack initiation life. As far as the LCF tests are concerned, they were performed under uniaxial strain-controlled conditions using standard smooth specimens, see Fig. 1(a), with strain amplitudes (ϵ_a) in the range 0.5-2-0% and a strain ratio equal to -1 (Branco et al., 2012). In relation to the multiaxial fatigue tests, they were

performed under stress control mode, with a stress ratio equal to 0, considering proportional bending-torsion loading and the notched geometry presented in Fig. 1(b). The loading cases included three relations between the normal stress and the shear stress and three different orientations of the normal stress with respect to the notch root (Branco et al., 2017). Details about the applied stress level and the corresponding values of crack initiation life can be seen in Table 2. Crack initiation life was calculated for a crack size equal to the material characteristic length (a_0). For the material under investigation, for a stress ratio of 0, a_0 was equal to 129 μm (Branco et al., 2017).

The uniaxial one-parameter damage laws analysed in this work included stress-based, strain-based, and energy-based approaches. Regarding the stress-based approaches, it was used the well-know Basquin model:

$$\sigma_a = (\sigma_f' - \sigma_m) (2N_f)^b \quad (1)$$

where σ_f' is the fatigue strength coefficient, b is the fatigue strength exponent, σ_m is the mean stress, and N_f is the fatigue life. Concerning the strain-based approaches, it was selected the Coffin-Manson (CM) model:

$$\varepsilon_a = \frac{(\sigma_f' - \sigma_m)}{E} (2N_f)^b + \varepsilon_f' (2N_f)^c \quad (2)$$

where ε_f' is the fatigue ductility coefficient, c is the fatigue strength exponent, and E is Young's modulus. In relation to the energy-based approaches, two alternative models were used, namely the total strain energy density (TSED):

$$\Delta W_t = \kappa_t (2N_f)^{\alpha_t} + \Delta W_{0t} \quad (3)$$

and the cumulative total strain energy density (cTSED):

$$W_T = \kappa (N_f)^\alpha \quad (4)$$

where κ_t , α_t , κ and α are material constants obtained from experimental results, and ΔW_{0t} is the tensile elastic energy at the material fatigue limit. The total strain energy density was calculated from the mid-life cycle while the cumulative total strain energy density was calculated from all cycles. Note that the total strain energy density was calculated by summing both the plastic and the elastic positive components of the stress-strain hysteresis loop.

All the above-mentioned quantities were calculated at the notch region by applying the Line Method (LM) of the TCD over a straight line emanating from the crack initiation site of the notch root. The crack initiation site was defined as the node with maximum value of the first principal stress. This criterion has been successfully validated in previous studies for proportional bending-torsion loading (Branco et al., 2017). The cyclic plasticity at the notch-controlled process zone was simulated using linear-elastic finite-element simulations along with the Equivalent Strain Energy Density concept (Branco et al., 2021).

3. Results and discussion

For each loading case, the multiaxial stress state was reduced to an equivalent uniaxial stress state. This task was carried out by using the stress and strain fields simulated numerically assuming a linear elastic framework combined with the ESED concept (Branco et al., 2021). Then, from the stress-distance, strain-distance, and energy-distance relationships determined over a straight line emanating from the notch root, the LM of the TCD was used to estimate an effective value of the tested quantities, namely an effective value of stress amplitude (Eq. (1)), an effective value of strain amplitude (Eq. (2)), an effective value of total strain energy density (Eq. (3)), and an effective value of cumulative total strain energy density (Eq. (4)).

Figure 2 shows the typical results obtained for the different bending-torsion fatigue tests using the: Basquin model (Fig. 2(a)), the CM model (Fig. 2(b)), the TSED model (Fig. 2(c)), and the cTSED model (Fig. 2(d)). For the sake of comparability, scatter bands with factors of two were also displayed, represented by the dashed straight lines.

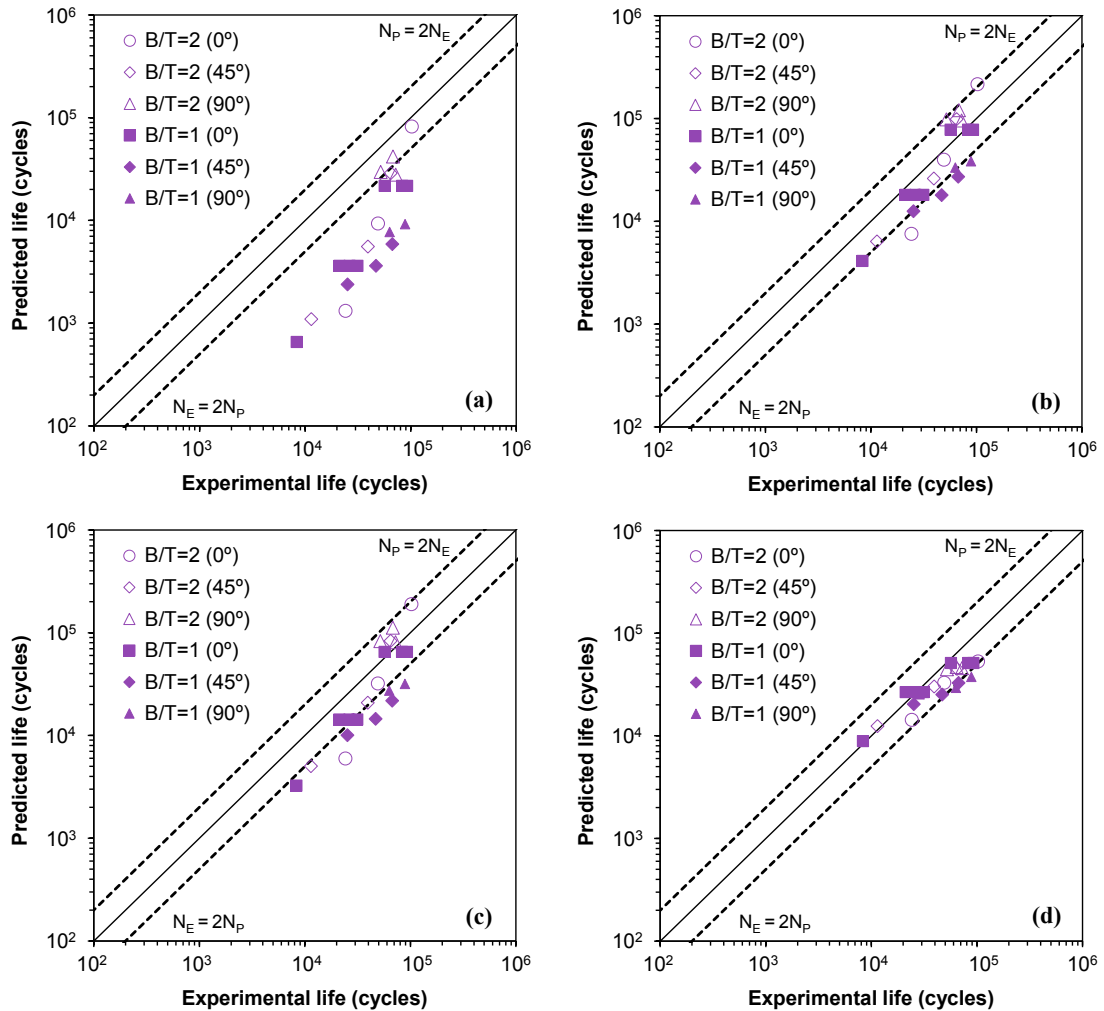


Fig. 2. Fatigue life prediction: (a) stress-based; (b) strain-based; (c) total strain energy density; and (d) cumulative strain energy density.

Overall, as shown in the figure, the predictive capabilities associated with each model are relatively different. In the case of the stress-based approach (see Fig. 2(a)), the results do not correlate well with the experimental fatigue lives for lower lives but are in line for higher fatigue lives. Stress-based approaches are generally more suitable for the high-cycle fatigue regime, which may explain these trends. As far as the strain-based approach is concerned, see Fig. 2(b), the quality of predictions was increased in the entire range. A close analysis of the figure demonstrates that the data are much closer to the scatter bands and the number of points within this delimited region is significantly higher than in the previous case. Strain-based approaches are more adequate to deal with problems in which the fatigue process is governed by cyclic plasticity. This behaviour is also confirmed in this work.

Concerning the energy-based approaches, as described above, two alternative models were considered. Figure 2(c) plots the fatigue life predictions against the experimental lives for the TSED model. In this case, the relationship between the loading level and the fatigue durability is expressed using the mid-life cycles under uniaxial strain-controlled conditions (Branco et al., 2021). It is clear that this model leads to better fatigue life predictions than the other two. In fact, all points are within the scatter bands, and are placed either in the conservative side or in the non-conservative side. Moreover, there are no significant differences for the low-cycle fatigue regime or the high-cycle fatigue regime. Finally, Fig. 2(d) exhibits the fatigue life results for the cumulative strain energy density model. In

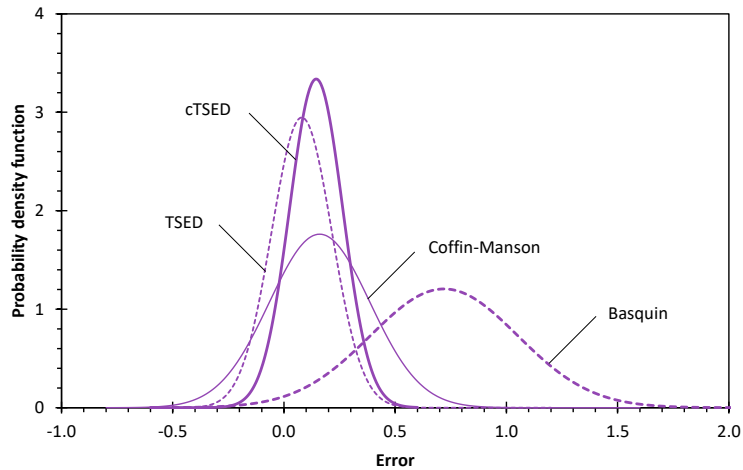


Fig. 3. Probability density functions for the: (a) stress-based; (b) strain-based; (c) total strain energy density; and (d) cumulative strain energy density.

this case, unlike the previous energy-based model, the relationship between the loading level is accounted for by summing the total strain energy density absorbed throughout the entire lifetime, i.e. by accounting for the so-called fatigue toughness (Branco et al., 2022). Similar to the previous case, the cTSED model also led to very good results for the entire range. Nevertheless, in this case, the results were more conservative, which can be attractive from a perspective of fatigue design. On the other hand, it is clear that the results are in a narrow region, which may suggest higher correlation between the applied loading level and the associated fatigue life than in the previous models.

In order to better compare the quality of fatigue life predictions of all tested models, the probability density functions of the fatigue error, defined by the following expression, were calculated:

$$E_N = \text{Log } N_E - \text{Log } N_P \quad (5)$$

where N_E represents the experimental fatigue life, and N_P represents the predicted fatigue life. As shown in Fig. 3, the two energy-based models led to mean errors close to zero and lower standard deviations, which is in line with the results exhibited in Fig. 2. Comparing both energy-based approaches, it can be seen that the cTSED is slightly more conservative, since its probability density function is moved to the right-hand side, and results in lower predictive errors. By contrast, both the stress-based and the strain-based models were less accurate for this notched geometry under the tested loading scenarios.

4. Conclusions

This paper compared the predictive capabilities of the different one-parameter fatigue laws to estimate the crack initiation life in notched components under bending-torsion loading, namely stress-based, strain-based, and energy-based models. Different relations between the normal stress and the shear stress and different loading orientations with respect to the notch root were studied. The following conclusions can be drawn:

- The stress-based approach was not suitable to correlate the applied loading level with the crack initiation life in the low-cycle fatigue regime. In the high-cycle fatigue regime, the results were well correlated;
- The strain-based approach led to better correlations than the stress-based approach, either in the low-cycle fatigue regime or in the high-cycle fatigue regime, but most of results were non-conservative;
- The two energy-based models exhibited good predictive capabilities in the LCF and HCF ranges. The TSED exhibited the lowest mean errors, while the cTSED exhibited the lowest standard deviations.

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