DIRECTIONAL STABILITY OF CRACKS UNDER

BIAXIAL STRESSES

by

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Con amor y agradecimiento a mi esposa

TERESA

que con su cariño y dedicación ha sido la base fundamental para el desarrollo de este trabajo

A mis hijos

GUILLERMO BEATRIZ FRANCISCO CARLOS RICARDO EDUARDO

que son la fuerza que me impulsa.

A la memoria de mi madre

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de quien recibí todo y a cambio solo pidio mi superación personal.

ABSTRACT

The present work is aimed at the investigation of the development of cracks under biaxial loading conditions, and two co-related problems are approached.

In the first one, a purely theoretical study of a practical problem is carried out. The finite element method, the J contour integral method, Bueckner's method and stress field analysis, are combined in order to study the influence, that the point of crack initiation and the direction of crack propagation, have on the stress intensity factor.

The second problem tackled here is that concerning the determination of parameters that control direction of crack propagation. A combined computational-experimental approach is developed, and contributions are made in three areas.

- Development and testing of a computer approach to obtain characterising parameters which reflect fracture behaviour.
- (ii) Design of an experimental method to control direction of crack propagation, and its implementation by means of a rig with which a biaxial stress field is applied on cracked specimens.
- (iii) The directional stability parameter is identified as the second coefficient in the Williams' series (A_2) and it is shown how loading and geometry influence its value. It is demonstrated that three different physical conditions affect the A_2 value, i.e. geometry, opening load, and transverse load. The experimental crack path is followed and at different points of the path, a propagation angle (α) is measured, and it is shown a direct co-relation between A_2 and α .

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SYMBOLS AND NOTATION

ρ	notch root radius
σm	maximum stress at notch root
k	stress concentration factor (SCF)
К	stress intensity factor (SIF)
К _р	stress intensity factor for bending configuration
ĸ	stress intensity factor caused by a directive
-	compressive stress
σ ₁	maximum principal stress
σ2.	thind - principal stress
σ ₃	minimumprincipal stress
(r,¥)	polar coordinator with the crack tip as origin
a	crack length
σ	applied stress to a plate or specimen
т	surface tension
E	Young's modulus
σ _x	normal stress along x
σ	normal stress along y
σ _{xy}	shear stress on the plane xy
к _С	critical value of the stress intensity factor
t	thickness of plate or specimen
K IC	critical stress intensity factor under plane-strain
,	conditions, with limited crack tip plasticity
κ _I	stress intensity factor in mode I
ĸ	stress intensity factor in mode II
ĸ	stress intensity factor in mode III
G .	energy release rate
P	load
λ	compliance

iv

thickness

В

α	proportionality parameter for obtaining the value
	of K (depends on specimen and crack geometry)
SEN	single edge notch
R	fracture toughness as defined by Gurney and Hunt
v	Poisson's ratio
W/A	specific fracture energy
η	function of test geometry (Turner's (1972) Chapter 3
COD	crack opening displacement
J	contour integral as defined by Rice
Γ ·	curve surrounding the crack tip
W	strain energy
ds	element of arc length along Γ .
Ŧ	traction vector
ū	displacement vector
p	pressure applied on a crack face
	(as given by Hutchinson and Turner (1975))
X(r, \$)	Williams' stress function
A _i	coefficients in the Williams' series for the
	symmetric case
B _i	coefficients in the Williams' series for the
-	antisymmetric case
u	crack face displacement along the x axis
v	crack face displacement along the y axis
n	number of terms being considered in the expansion
	of the Williams' series
k	$\frac{3-\nu}{1+\nu}$ for plane stress as considered in the
k	3-4v for plane strain Williams' series
ε x	strain along the x axis
с У	strain along the y axis

 γ_{xv} shear strain

μ shear modulus

 f_{i} angle of crack propagation when the coefficient B_{1} , from the Williams' stress series, becomes apparent. Energy function of A_{i} , B_{i} $X_{e}(r, t)$ even terms for the Williams' stress function

 $\chi_{o}(r, \psi)$ odd terms for the Williams' stress function

 ζ energy function in terms of A_i , B_i

{} column vector

[] two dimensional matrix

{}^T transpose of a column vector = row vector

[]^T transpose of a matrix

 $\{\sigma\}$ stress vector

{A} coefficients vector

 $[\emptyset(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{v}] = [\varphi]$ a function of (\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{v})

W strain energy

{e} strain vector

[c] constitutive elasticity matrix (strain-stress)
[B] = [φ]^T[c][φ]rdrdt = BVEC as specified within program ANGCRK
{u} displacement vector = D as specified within

program ANGCRK

{t} traction vector - BDYLD as specified within
 program ANGCRK

∆ space interval

length of crack extension (Cotterell)

critical value for the directional stability parameter (σ_{ψ} on S), evaluated at a radius r_{o} , from the crack tip, characteristic of the material core radius as defined by Sih

r_o.

L

Р с strain energy density

σ_{sc} characteristic stress value of the material, for direction of crack extension (Williams and Ewing)
 S_c strain energy density value characteristic of the material (Sih)

uniform stress applied on the specimen along the . x axis (lb/in)

uniform stress applied on the specimen along the y axis (lb/in)

^σ (s _v) ^{,σ} (s _x)	stress at the crack tip, due to s_x, s_y
α _a	apparent initial angle of crack extension
α _F	final angle of crack extension
Pr	point at which α_F is measured
Р У	opening load applied to specimens .

S

 $s_{\mathbf{x}}$

s Y

CHAPTER 1

GENERAL PROBLEM AND INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Problem

Aspects of initiation, propagation, and re-initiation of cracks have been the main concern in the study of Fracture Mechanics. A further aspect that has recently started to develop is that of directional stability of crack propagation. In problems of practical interest, such as the one of a gear wheel in which if a crack develops, it would be preferable for the crack to run in a direction that cuts off a tooth and not towards the centre of the wheel. Another instance in which directional stability is of interest is that of turbine blades and also pressurised containers. Welded joints are also of interest concerning direction of crack propagation, here the main point is that when joining two different pieces, for example pressure vessel nozzles or reinforced components such as pipes, the material becomes heterogeneous in the welded zone, and imperfections and flaws that are crack starters appear. It is there when it becomes necessary to identify direction of crack propagation so that proper reinforcement is given.

In the first part of this study, the determination of stress fields and crack parameters takes an alternative philosophy to this problem - try to stop a crack starting on macroscale by rejecting gear blanks with defects near critical size, whilst in the second part, the problem is tackled directly by trying to identify crack parameters which define direction of crack propagation.

1.2 Introduction

The purpose of this work is to study the propagation of a crack when the conditions of rectilinear extension are disturbed. Once this happens, there arises a problem of determining not only the dimensions of the crack, but also the path of the crack propagation under such conditions of loading that a slow, quasi-static crack development is possible. This problem can actually be subdivided into two parts:

- obtaining the criteria for the determination of the dimensions and paths of the crack extension;
- (2) determination of the expressions for the characteristics of the stress-strain state which are constituent of these criteria, through the geometry of the cracked solid with the loads applied.

The present work is devoted to the investigation of the development of cracks under biaxial loading conditions and two different but related problems have been approached. In the first one, a purely practical problem was tackled by using a well known finite element method, with the objective of obtaining the stress intensity factor for a cracked gear subject to operative conditions, and an analysis is made of the effect of a crack interfering with the stress field produced in a gear tooth in:-

- (a) working loading conditions,
- (b) residual stresses of the gear tooth.

The most probable position for crack initiation is deduced, crack propagation is permitted, and stress intensity factors are calculated. The second and main problem tackled here is that concerning the determination of parameters that control direction of crack propagation. While in the former problem only analytical aspects are covered, in the second instance a hybrid experimentalcomputational system is devised to test the predictions of fracture mechanics, attention being focussed in mode I crack behaviour.

As a background to the determination of stress intensity factors for the gear case, a brief survey of general work developed in the field is made in Chapter 2. The whole of Chapter 3 is devoted to the description of work done in this study towards the determination of stress intensity factors, pointing out details and parts that presented difficulties and how they were overcome. Chapter 4 presents the background to the problem of directional stability of crack propagation, in order to set the foundation to back the analytical work described in Chapter 5, in which an account is made of the mathematical method used to model crack behaviour, and its computational implementation as well as a summary of the work done to test it. It was also necessary to produce experimental data to complement the computer procedure and in Chapter 6 a description is made of the development of the experimental rig to implement physically the computer work. A brief discussion is also made of special points which were a source of trouble and the way they were overcome. Experiments performed are described, and results are given as well as a discussion of the implications they have in relation to the parameters being sought. In Chapter 7 further work, both experimental and computational, is described and conclusions are reached. Finally in Chapter 8 the scope for future work is given, two main sections can be noticed. (a) Fundamental points that were originally included in a first list to be studied under the

present work - but time did not permit. (b) Further work that now seems to be desirable in the light of this work.

1.3 Brittle and Ductile Fracture

When a geometrical discontinuity occurs in a stressed material a stress concentration is likely to arise. When this geometrical discontinuity takes the form of a notch and its position and dimensions are such that they interfere dangerously with the behaviour of the material, then conditions are set for catastrophic failure that is breaking of the material, if the tip radius of a notch and the included flank angles tend to zero then the notch becomes a crack. There is a notable difference between a geometric discontinuity and a crack. In a typical machined geometrical discontinuity the stress level at the notch root could be raised in the order of 10 or 20 times if the root radius "p" is small, as if the crack is thought of as an elliptical void. Mathematical analysis shows that the stress level is raised to

$$\sigma_{\rm m} = \sigma \left(1 + 2\sqrt{a/\rho}\right)$$

whilst in the case of the crack the stress concentration is such that the state of stress at the tip could be raised conceptually to infinity. The stress concentration originated in geometric discontinuities is known as stress concentration factor SCF and denoted by "k", while that originated in a crack is called stress intensity factor SIF and denoted by K and can be demonstrated that

$$k = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{2} \sigma_{m} (\pi \rho)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$P \to 0$$

K has dimensions [stress $\sqrt{\text{length}}$]. σ_{m} = maximum stress at notch root, ρ = notch root radius.

The study of the stress conditions arising from situations like the one just depicted must tackle and overcome the very special characteristics of the singularity at the crack tip. The application of linear elasticity to the complicated situations around cracks has been called Fracture Mechanics.

Generally speaking one may classify the fracture of solids into two broad categories, namely Brittle Fracture and Ductile Fracture. By definition, all materials "in the ductile state" will undergo yielding before they ultimately fracture. Materials will be said to be in a "brittle state" if fracture takes place before any appreciable plastic flow occurs. Ductile fracture is usually associated with large deformations, very high rates of energy dissipation, and slow fracture velocities. Brittle fracture is a low-energy failure which, because of unstable loading conditions, takes place in a catastrophic manner, meaning that the fracture velocities are usually high.

McClintock and Irwin (1964) suggested that the fracture problem could be studied at nine distinct levels of size i.e. ions and electron cloud (10^{-7} cm) , dislocations (10^{-6}cm) , subgrain boundary precipitates (10^{-5}cm) , subgrain slip band (10^{-4}cm) , grain inclusions voids (10^{-3}cm) ,large plastic strains (10^{-2}cm) , elastic plastic fields (10^{-1}cm) , elastic singularity (1cm) and specimen or component (10cm). These could as well be grouped in three levels, i.e. atomistic (10^{-7}cm) , microscopic (about 10^{-3}cm), and macroscopic (10^{-1}cm) and greater). In the first case fracture occurs when bonds between atoms are broken and a new surface is created, in the last two cases fracture results from the passage of a crack through a region of material. Sometimes it is a repetitive cycling of loading which starts up the mechanism of fracture, while another way to fracture a material is to raise the load to such a level that the material fails locally around discontinuities, and cracks or tears then spread. The growth of cracks prior to catastrophic fracture is conveniently divided into processes of initiation as microcracks, and propagation as macrocracks. The macroscopic theories of fracture assume the existence of cracks, voids, or other imperfections which may readily act as fracture nuclei, the size of these imperfections is assumed to be sufficiently large, compared to the characteristic dimensions of the microstructure, to justify the use of the tools of continuum mechanics.

Under such conditions it can be shown that a concept of crack growth during test is that the crack extension force (called G in the literature) is raised to a value corresponding to the point of instability, and Fig.1.1(a) and 1.1(b) show the response of brittle and ductile materials to the conditions described. An infinite set of variations could occur which could be placed between these two stages of brittle and ductile fracture, and which depend on many different physical parameters such as dimensions, structure, state of strain, strain rate, temperature, etc. but these are phenomenological aspects that will not be the concern of the present work.

Fracture behaviour is called brittle if the local ductility is too low to relieve the peak stresses and fracture propagates rapidly with little or no deformation of the material adjacent to the crack surface. A brittle material is one for which the strain at fracture is less than a given value, usually less than 5%. The conditions under which brittle materials fracture depend

very much on statistically variable local effects such as inclusions, grain boundaries, minute imperfections, etc. and usually test procedures are designed around a rigorous mathematical analysis involving specimen dimensions, loading conditions, and their relationship with the stresses introduced at the crack. The study of fracture initiation must be accomplished at the microscopic or atomistic level, whereas the events preceding and following fracture initiation are often controlled by the above influencing factors, and research related to these factors is normally accomplished on a macroscale level using continuum mechanics.

This study will be concerned with "Brittle Fracture" and by that it is intended to mean "a complete absence of irreversible effects measurable on the macroscopic scale". Some other conditions which will be considered as operating are, perfect isotropy, constant temperature and no influence of time effects such as creep, relaxation, etc.

1.4 Failure Criteria

Different theories have been proposed in trying to explain the fracture process, the ones described below are well known and depending on general conditions, are usually used to develop fracture criteria for crack propagation. They are distinctly applied to brittle fracture (no plastic flow) or onset of yielding, by defining a local stress value to start the instability mechanism.

(a) Maximum tensile stress theory

This is a very simple approach for the failure of brittle materials without initially considering cracks at all. It is considered that fracture can be intiated by many mechanisms,

but in order to propagate a fracture surface across the section of a component and to cause separation, it is necessary to have a tensile stress normal to the fracture surface. The maximum tensile stress theory postulates that fracture is determined by the maximum principal tensile stress σ_1 , regardless of the magnitude of the other principal stresses, where $\sigma_1 > \sigma_2 > \sigma_3$.

When applied to the case of an already existing crack, it has already been shown that $\sigma_1 \rightarrow \infty$ when $r \rightarrow 0$ and there is not a general agreement on how the failure criterion could be applied although an idea of using a core region in conjunction with this criterion, has been put forward by Williams (1973) and Ewing (1972).

(b) Maximum strain theory

The maximum strain theory assumes that, under a given state of stress, there is a limiting strain of depletion of ductility which governs fracture. One popular form of limiting strain is the maximum elastic strain at the ultimate of the uniaxial tensile test for applying this criterion it is necessary to define the point in the material, in which this strain is taking place.

(c) Maximum shear stress theory

This is usually used for onset of plastic flow, i.e. yielding so it is not applicable to brittle materials and here it is only mentioned as additional information, the maximum shear stress theory states that fracture will occur when the maximum shear stress reaches a limiting value.

(d) Octahedral shear stress theory

This criterion is used to define onset of yielding, The octahedral shear stress is related to the strain energy of

distortion which is the total elastic energy stored in a unit volume, minus the elastic energy of volume dilatation. The maximum octahedral shear stress theory is widely accepted for the initiation of plastic flow and has been applied for those materials which exhibit large amounts of flow before fracture. The criterion of failure can be described as a limiting shear stress on the octahedral plane which has a normal stress equal to the mean stress. This is also called the distortion energy or Von Mises theory.

(e) Mohr theory

The Mohr theory is a more general theory than the maximum shear stress theory, in that flow or failure is initiated either (a) when the shearing stress reaches a critical value which depends on the normal stress acting on the same slip plane, or (b) when the maximum principal stress reaches a limiting value.

It has been mentioned that the conditions under which brittle materials fracture depend very much on statistically variable local effects such as inclusions, grain boundaries, minute imperfections, etc. At first thought it might seem rather hopeless to expect that any macroscopic criterion could predict fractures which originate at highly localised random imperfections at an atomic level (or, more likely, at the level of individual grains). However, Griffith (1924) showed that fractures originating near the tips of randomly oriented elliptical cracks lead to a macroscopical stress criterion failure.

CHAPTER 2

A SURVEY ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF FRACTURE MECHANICS

AND BRIEF DISCUSSION ON DIFFERENT METHODS TO

DETERMINE STRESS INTENSITY FACTORS

Chapter 2 is directed to two main aspects; one concerns theoretical and experimental work done in the field, and the second is centred on the use of the finite element method in relation to Fracture Mechanics. Within the review described here, care has been taken to select work that from this author's point of view is highly relevant to either the field in general, or the particular objectives of this work, specifically, initiation and propagation of Brittle Fracture, although some work related to non-linear material behaviour is discussed when necessary.

2.1 <u>Review of Work Done on Fracture Mechanics</u>

Griffith's (1920,1924) approach to the problem of fracture marked the beginning of the development of fracture studies; from then on investigators in the fracture field have shared in the general growth of applied mechanics.

Inglis (1913) made one of the earliest contributions to the field, he studied the behaviour of the stress field around elliptical holes in a flat sheet, and showed that the stress concentration at a crack point is infinite. Griffith and Taylor (1917) using soap films for torsion problems determined contour lines for shearing stress. Griffith (1920,1924) established the concept of crack propagation, he calculated the stresses and strains due to typical scratches with the help of mathematical work conducted by Inglis (1913) and the soap film method of stress estimation already mentioned, and concluded that the scratches ordinarily met with could increase the maximum stresses from two to six times, according to their shape, and that this increase of the stresses was not enough to make the material fail. In view of the inadequacy of the ordinary hypothesis he attacked the problem of rupture of elastic solids by using the "theorem of minimum energy", according to this theorem the equilibrium state of an elastic solid, deformed by specified surface forces, is such that the potential energy of the whole system is a minimum, and the criterion of rupture was obtained by adding to this theorem the statement that the equilibrium position, if equilibrium is possible, must be one in which rupture of the solid has occurred, if the system can pass from the unbroken condition by a process involving a continuous decrease in potential energy.

In order, however, to apply the extended theorem to the problem of finding the breaking loads of real solids, Griffith found it necessary to take account of the increase in potential energy which occurs in the formation of new surfaces in the interior of such solids. He reasoned that, in the formation of a crack in a body composed of molecules which attract one another, work must be done against the cohesive forces of the molecules on either side of the crack. This work appears as potential surface energy, and if the width of the crack is greater than the very small distance called the "radius of molecular action", the energy per unit area is a constant of the material, namely, its surface tension.

A general theorem was stated as "in an elastic solid body deformed by specified forces applied at its surface, the sum of

the potential energy of the applied forces and the strain energy of the body is unaltered by the introduction of a crack whose surfaces are traction free", and offered proof of it. The concept of crack propagation he arrived at was:- "An existing crack will propagate if thereby the total energy of the system is lowered". Another statement in Griffith's paper is that:- "The general conclusion may be drawn that the weakness of isotropic solids, as ordinarily met with, is due to the presence of discontinuities, or flaws, whose ruling dimensions are large compared with molecular distances. The effective strength of technical materials might increase to ten or twenty times at least if these flaws can be eliminated". Griffith's theory is regarded as describing situations of pure brittle fracture.

In 1934 the advent of the dislocation theory, and in 1939 Weibull's statistical theory, both helped to explain phenomenological material behaviour.

Zener and Holloman (1944) related the Griffith crack propagation concept to the brittle fracture of metallic materials. Orowan (1945) presented an interesting discussion on X-ray work which showed extensive plastic deformation on the fracture surfaces of materials which had failed in brittle fashion. Irwin (1948) pointed out that the Griffith-type balance must be between the strain energy stored in the specimen, and the surface energy plus the work done in plastic deformation. He was the first to appreciate the importance of the fact that the local stress near a flaw depends on the product of the nominal stress σ and the square root of the flaw depth 2a, and coined the term "stress intensity factor" to emphasise this

fundamental relationship. This stress intensity factor may be physically interpreted as a parameter which reflects the redistribution of stresses in a body, due to the introduction of a crack. In particular, these stresses indicate the type (mode) and magnitude of force transmission through the crack tip region.

Mott (1948) formulated the conditions for the dynamics of crack propagation and proposed that the velocity of crack extension is governed by the supply of kinetic energy to the crack field. This provided further evidence for Griffith's proposition for static, or slowly applied loads, that the energy necessary to support a brittle fracture must be provided from the available part, at the instant preceding fracture, of the elastic energy stored within the body which is being cracked.

Orowan (1955) demonstrated that the modified Griffith condition for brittle fracture is not only a necessary, but also a sufficient condition for crack propagation.

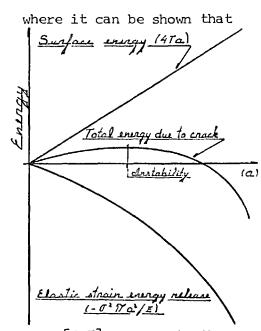
Irwin (1957) showed that the energy approach is equivalent to a stress-intensity approach, according to which, fracture occurs when a critical stress distribution, characteristic of the material, is reached.

Further work done by other investigators is to be discussed later on, as it is relevant to particular aspects of the fracture process that will be covered.

2.2 General Background

Briefly, Griffith's approach can be explained by stating that crack growth under plane stress conditions will occur if

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{da}} \left(-\frac{\sigma^2 \pi a^2}{\mathrm{E}} + 4 \mathrm{Ta} \right) = 0 \qquad 2.1$$



 $\begin{bmatrix} -\frac{\sigma^2 \pi a^2}{E} \end{bmatrix}^{\text{represents the elastic}}$ energy loss of a plate of unit thickness, under a stress, σ , measured far away from the crack, (a) if a crack of length 2a was value suddenly cut into the plate at right angles to the direction of σ .

[4aT] represents the energy gain of the plate due to the creation of the new surface with a surface tension T.

When the elastic energy release due to an increment of crack growth, da, outweighs the demand for surface energy for the same crack growth, the crack will become unstable, and it is under this condition that a gross critical fracture stress can be defined as

$$\sigma = (2 \text{ ET}/\pi a)^{\frac{1}{2}} \qquad 2.2$$

which has, in the form of $\sigma \sqrt{a}$ = constant, been shown to hold quite well for brittle and semibrittle materials, but for semibrittle materials T being effective surface energy, not just surface tension.

The linear theory of elasticity provides unique and single relationships among stress, strain, and energy. Therefore, a fracture criterion expressed in terms of an energy concept has its equivalent stress and strain criterion. The statement that "fracture occurs when the stress condition in a sufficiently large volume exceeds a critical value" may become a mathematical model by the use of Westergaard's (1939) stress field equations for cracks.

$$\sigma_{\rm X} = \frac{K}{(2\pi r)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \cos \frac{\psi}{2} (1 - \sin \frac{\psi}{2} \sin \frac{3\psi}{2})$$

$$\sigma_{\rm Y} = \frac{K}{(2\pi r)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \cos \frac{\psi}{2} (1 + \sin \frac{\psi}{2} \sin \frac{3\psi}{2}) \quad 2.3$$

$$\sigma_{\rm XY} = \frac{K}{(2\pi r)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \cos \frac{\psi}{2} \sin \frac{\psi}{2} \cos \frac{3\psi}{2}$$

in which, K the stress intensity factor, is a function of applied stress and crack geometry and, for a crack of length 2a in an infinite plate, is given by $K = \sigma (\pi a)^{\frac{1}{2}}$. If the critical stress system under which failure occurs is characterised by a critical value of the stress intensity factor, K_{c} , then a Griffith-type relationship results, without consideration of any energy-dissipation process involved. This energy-dissipation process is related to the problem of plasticity, but it will not be considered as this study is concerned with Brittle Fracture and as such, plasticity effects are considered to be negligible and there is no other effect than a local addition to the surface energy. This is based on the fact that, for brittle materials, where yielding in the region of the crack tip is very restricted, linear stress analysis implies that the local stresses and deflections depend on the stress intensity factor, K, and a criterion for brittle fracture in the presence of a crack, is that crack instability occurs when K attains a critical value.

According to the modes of separation that can occur at the crack tip the material behaviour can be described as

Mode I. The tensile component of stress is applied in the y direction, normal to the faces of the crack, either under plane-strain (thick plate, t large) or plane stress (thin plate, t small) conditions. Mode II. The shear component of stress is applied normal to the leading edge of the crack either under plane-strain or plane-stress condition.

Mode III. The shear component of stress is applied parallel to the leading edge of the crack (antiplane strain).

And for each different mode a corresponding $K^{}_{\rm I},~K^{}_{\rm II}$ or $K^{}_{\rm TTT}$ value can be calculated.

In a section thick enough to encourage plane strain, mode I is found for this opening mode of crack deformation, load displacements are such that the crack surfaces move directly apart. Under plane-strain conditions, with limited crack tip plasticity, the critical stress intensity factor is designated K_{TC} . The value of K_{IC} can be considered as a material property which represents the material's fracture toughness, or resistance to fracture by mode I separation in the presence of a crack, this appears to be the lowest value of toughness found and hence, its practical significance. (K_{TT} and K_{TTT} have hardly ever been found as pure cases but as value $K_{IC} < K_{c}$, where K_{c} is some mixed mode partly I and III.) Any combination of applied loads, structural configuration and crack geometry and size, which gives a stress intensity factor K_T , equal or greater than the value of K_{TC} for the material will result in failure of the structure.

As already described, there are two approaches to the study of Fracture Mechanics; the energetic treatment and the stress parameter approach. It has been mentioned that in the Griffith theory (1920,1924) the crack system is treated as a whole, assuming that cracks will propagate if the elastic energy released by their growth is greater than the energy required to

create new fracture surfaces. Alternatively, Irwin (1960) emphasised the stress conditions in the vicinity of the crack tip and used the critical intensity of the local stress field as a material constant commonly referred to as K_{IC}. It can be shown that there is a correspondence between Griffith's and Irwin's approaches to the crack problem. Under Irwin's approach the main crack parameter is defined as the energyrelease rate, G. The stress intensity factor, K, is directly related to the energy-release rate in the fully linear leastic situation by:

$$K^2 = E'G$$

E' = Young's modulus (plane stress) (2.4)
E' = Young's modulus/1 - v^2 (plane strain)

Irwin (1960) has noted that

$$K = \lim_{p \to 0} \frac{1}{2} \sigma_{m} (\pi p)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$
(2.5)

where $\sigma_{\rm m}$ = maximum stress at notch root; ρ = notch root radius. In this relationship, K will become insensitive to root radius whenever $\sigma_{\rm m}$ is inversely proportional to $\rho^{\frac{1}{2}}$. This is the case when the root radii are small compared to the notch depth or the slit length. Experimental data show that, in a finite radius specimen, it is possible to reach and exceed a value of strain energy release rate that is sufficient to satisfy the conditions for unstable fracture, and yet not have fracture ensue, making it evident that more than just the attainment of a critical value of G (or K) is involved in unstable fracture. (This point will be discussed further in Chapter 7.) It is thought that two conditions are needed to characterise fully the unstable fracturing of materials. One of these pertains to the conditions in a very small localised region near the crack tip which are necessary to initiate unstable fracturing. The so-called failure criteria described in Section 1.3 are among others, the theoretical models developed to describe conditions more remote from the crack tip which are necessary to sustain unstable crack motion once the initiation condition has been fulfilled. Some work related to these will be discussed in Section 2.3.

The compliance calibration is an experimental method for making a stress intensity calibration for tension-loaded plate test specimens containing through-the-thickness cracks. Calibration curves are obtained by machining a progressively longer slot (simulating the crack) into a calibration test specimen and determining the compliance at each known slot size for conditions of elastic loading. A graph of compliance versus crack length is constructed and the slope of the graph may be substituted into the known equation

$$G = \frac{P^2}{2B} \frac{\partial \lambda}{\partial a}$$
(2.6)

and K can be calculated through equation (2.4). In all cases the stress intensity factor has the form

$$K = \sigma \sqrt{\alpha \pi a}$$
(2.7)

its units being [stress x length^{$\frac{1}{2}$}], α is a parameter depending on specimen and crack geometry, and one main objective of fracture mechanics is to determine the stress intensity factor.

In general most of the research done in fracture is directed to two aspects, (a) crack initiation, (b) crack propagation.

Under point (a) attention is focussed on the conditions that are conducive to initial separation of the material. It is an observed fact that regions of higher stress are more

conducive to fracture initiation, and that, in relation to point (b), once a crack has started to develop it is most likely to extend along the axis of symmetry of the stress field (if there is one), and follow a path dictated by the releasing of the stresses in the material. For this propagation to be kept going, energy considerations are of overriding importance. The criterion for extension. (Griffith's) is that the energy required for separating the surfaces was just less than the decrease in elastic energy when the crack propagated. This approach has been proved to be right for brittle materials, such as glass in which there is no evidence of a dissipative flow process taking place (although even for glass surface energy \neq T, as there are effects such as moisture in atmosphere, and local plastic flow, that increase T to some "effective value", and so the experimental and calculated values of the energy criterion are in good agreement. The extension of the Griffith theory to real materials which are not fully brittle in which dissipative processes, such as plasticity, take place, makes it necessary to take into account the work done by deforming a localised region of material as the crack progresses. If sufficient energy cannot be supplied for this process, then crack propagation will be inhibited; so the work necessary for plastic deformation is a great deterrent to crack propagation and plays a vital part in its study. There are still other factors such as temperature, environment, strain rate, geometry, etc., that affect the fracture process. For example, the first three factors affect K_{TC} (a material property), by altering the stress flow and/or micromechanism

of separation, while the geometry affects K. This leads to the conclusion that care should be exercised in order to prevent these effects from interfering in experimental work.

It has been mentioned in Section 2.1 that the work of Mott (1948) took into consideration the dynamics of crack propagation. Before this, some experiments involving stable fractures (by stable it is meant to have certain external control on crack propagation) in mica were made by Obreimoff (1930); later on, Wells (1954) concluded that a moving crack must also be associated with movement of the material near the crack, and so with exchanges in kinetic energy. Naturally, if there is insufficient energy, available to supply the requirement for creating fresh surface there can be no propagation, excess energy beyond that necessary to create surface is converted into kinetic energy of the separating parts, and the crack velocity is maintained or increased.

Roesler (1956) showed under which conditions fracture can be stable (i.e. it can be propagated at an arbitrarily slow speed) showing as well that even in brittle materials such as glass the fracture process involves energy dissipation.

The development of stable fractures in more practically important materials, such as plastics, was described by Benbow and Roesler (1957). They showed how by introducing an auxiliary compressive stress parallel to the crack, its direction and speed can be controlled. Using this technique it is possible to produce stable fractures in sheets, or strips of plastic. Berry (1960) derived the equations of motion of cracks in tensile and cleavage (the cleavage specimen is designated single edge notch (SEN) specimen somewhere else) specimens, and showed that the behaviour of cracks in tensile samples depends on their initial size, and that large cracks are, in one sense, more stable than small cracks. He also showed that the behaviour of cracks of all sizes in cleavage samples resembles that of large cracks in tensile samples.

Svensson (1961) studied the variation of fracture energy with temperature. He found that the energy associated with a cleavage failure (micromode) decreases with increase in temperature, due to the greater thermal energy of the molecules, on the other hand, the strain energy absorbed in shear deformation preceding the growth of the crack is increased to a maximum and then falls. The increase is due to an increase in ductility at a substantially constant shear stress, at moderate temperatures. As the temperature is increased the ductility still increases, but the shear stress drops considerably until it is very low, when the material softens. Thus, the fracture energy should first fall with increase in temperature, rise to a maximum, and then fall to a low value at the softening temperature.

Gurney and Hunt (1967) called all the work that was necessary for cracking, above that required for elastic deformation, the local work to spread the crack. They conducted experiments in which cracks were spread quasi-statically, deformation modes other than fracture were suppressed so that all the work done = the fracture work, and by recording both load and corresponding displacement of load, the local specific work of crack spreading, or fracture toughness (R) was deduced without calculating the elastic stress distribution or even measuring the shape of the test piece. The work done during cracking divided by the increase in crack area was termed Rvalue of the material, and is synonymous with fracture energy and fracture toughness. This term (R) includes surface energy together with non linear elastic work due to large strain at the crack front, and delayed reversible and irreversible effects associated with atomic configurational changes, as well as plastic and viscous deformation at the crack surface. Barr (1968) worked on the same lines obtaining similar conclusions.

Turner (1972) took the specific fracture energy (W/A), considered it as an approximation to G_{IC} , the fracture toughness of a brittle material, and derived an exact relationship between these two terms from linear fracture mechanics, to give the compliance and hence the work done. He showed that $G = W/\eta \mathbf{A}$ where η is a function of the test geometry, and compared against experimental data finding good agreement with fracture toughness derived conventionally from the fracture load, provided that the fracture is completely brittle.

Mai et al (1975) working with tapered single edge notch (SEN) specimens found that they exhibited less stability than parallel SEN test pieces cracking under stiff testing conditions. He also conducted tests with load and crack applied at the thick base, instead of near the apex finding that regarding path direction, experiments agree with theory. This type of loading provides better cracking directional stability and thus easier control of the crack path together with a wider range of crack velocities in one test.

2.3 <u>Computational Methods to Determine Stress Intensity</u> Factors

There are a great number of numerical methods to deal with the determination of stress intensity factors. The most successful one, because of general applicability, seems to be that which makes use of a finite element method. Much literature has been devoted to the subject per se. Briefly the finite element method furnishes one with estimates of the displacement vector and stress tensor components at a limited (but more or less evenly distributed) number of points throughout a loaded structure. Although generally very good these are not exact but are approximations to the true solution.

In order to implement the method to achieve the solution of a problem by means of a finite element method (for cracked bodies) the points described hereafter have to be considered.

(a) Modelling geometry. Both, overall and localized, the mesh arrays have to be designed keeping in mind crack position so that the process of crack propagation is facilitated.

(b) Material properties. Elastic, (Young's modulus, Poisson's ratio) criterion of yielding post-elastic (stressstrain curve and laws of plastic flow), etc.

(c) Loading. Tractions, displacements, plane-stress, plane strain.

(d) Numerical evaluation of parameters and how to compare them with physical response in experimental work.

(e) Inherent limitations. Stiffness method, linear
 elasticity, material non-linearities, geometric non-linearities,
 limit loads, COD.

(f) Other aspects. Singularity representation, ordinary analysis, special elements.

(g) Beyond planar analysis. Axisymmetry, bending, three dimensions.

And for deciding on these aspects there is no substitute for experience. A number of investigators have used the finite element method in relation with elastic stress intensity factors, and a review of articles on the subject include those by Rice and Tracey (1973), Oglesby and Lomachy (1971), and Jerram and Hellem (1972).

Two basic approaches have evolved. When conventional finite elements, with polynomial interpolation functions, are used in the crack tip region, the characteristic elastic square root singularity necessitates the use of an indirect procedure, such as extrapolation of a field parameter to the crack tip or an energy method, to determine the stress intensity factor. In the first one, by choosing a value of i, the value of a particular stress component (or displacement component) may be plotted as a function of r, from the results of a finite element analysis and by fitting a polynomial in $r^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ and higher powers of r to these results, the value of K_T may be estimated, although it seems that an accuracy no better than 5% can be expected. The finite element analysis method will never, of course, register an infinite stress, however, if there are points at which a continuum analysis would give a singular result, a finite element analysis will indicate a high degree of stress concentration.

Watwood (1969) made use of a finite element method to obtain stress intensity factors and reported poor accuracy from this method unless extremely small elements are used near the crack tip, and abandoned it in favour of a direct computation

of the strain energy release rate which is equivalent to K. This procedure consists of computing the strain energy for two slightly different crack lengths and employing numerical differentiation to determine the strain energy release rate. A method similar to this one is used and described in Chapter 3.

Chan et al (1970) discussed the extrapolation procedure in conjunction with constant strain triangular elements. They plotted the product of $\dot{r}^{\frac{1}{2}}$ with a stress component as a function of distance, r, along a ray emanating from the tip, and performed a tangent extrapolation of this quantity to the crack tip, r = 0. Alternatively, the extrapolation may be based on the product $r^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ with a displacement.

Mowbray (1970) used an energy method very similar to experimental compliance methods to compute the energy release rate. He solved the same specimen geometry for several cracks of slightly varying length, and was able to obtain the compliance as a function of crack length. Numerical differentation of this relationship with respect to crack length enables determination of G and hence K.

Hayes (1972) made some applications of the finite element method in conjunction with two well known approaches; the J contour integral (this will be described in Chapter 3) and Bueckner's formulation (1958), and developed an efficient and accurate method that overcomes some of the usual difficulties encountered when using the finite element method approach, and originated in the singularity inherent to the stress field. A brief description of Bueckner's formulation (1958) follows. If sufficient care is taken in producing geometrical data, the strain energy U_d may automatically be evaluated for increasing

(or decreasing) crack length. One simply determines the point loads for each node and computes the crack face displacement. The next crack length is then analysed by simply relaxing the boundary conditions at the crack tip node and introducing new nodal point forces. This means that the total stiffness matrix of the finite element representation once produced, is simply adjusted for each crack length, by altering the appropriate terms (a maximum of four per nodal point), for each change in crack length. If the crack length is increased by small increments each displacement field will be very similar to that obtained previously. Thus the number of iterations required to determine the new displacements (by the finite element method) will be very small. Having, usually automatically, determined U_{d} for the range of crack lengths of interest, it is then simply a matter of determining its derivative with respect to crack length. Once again this procedure may be fully automated so that the net result of a single computer run is the desired relationship between crack extension force, or stress intensity factor, and crack length.

An alternative to these indirect procedures involves direct embedding of the elastic singularity in the displacement function for the near tip elements. Tracey (1972) used a mesh of isosceles trapezoidal elements focussed into the crack tip. The ring of elements nearest to the crack tip had a $r^{\frac{1}{2}}$ displacement variation specified, while the adjacent elements were ordinary isoparametric elements. He obtained 5% accuracy for the plane strain double edge notched, and notched round tensile bars using 248 degrees of freedom.

Parks (1974) presented a method based on the energy release rate which requires no special crack tip elements. Further, the solution for only a single crack is required, and the crack is "advanced" by moving nodal points rather than removing nodal tractions at the crack tip and performing a second analysis.

There are a great many works in the field that have not been mentioned because either they deal with non-linear material behaviour or simply because the time is limited and does not permit a rather extensive review of the literature in this part of the field. However, it is thought that the material selected describes quite well the general trend followed in the finite element method as applied to fracture mechanics.

2.4 General Approach to the Problem under the Present Work

A further point concerns Hayes' work (1970), he described a general procedure for designing against fracture (when the K_{TC} concept is valid), it is as follows:

- (i) Carry out overall stress analysis of the structure to determine positions where cracking would be dangerous;
- (ii) Carry out detailed analysis of these regions;
- (iii) From the results of (ii) and using any of the approaches already described, evaluate stress intensity factors for the worst crack (generally oriented normal to the plane of maximum direct stress) for a series of crack length;
- (iv) Using available test data for K_{IC} for the material to be used, determine the maximum size of flaw that is tolerable;

(v) In view of the results of (iv) accept or alter the design and/or material.

Within this work, use will be made of methods developed by Hayes, as the facilities are available; the approach used and described in Chapter 3 is very similar to the general procedure proposed by Hayes.

The problem to be tackled is a very particular one, so it is necessary to develop special subroutines to furnish the required data. Actually a whole computer program was built up in which the next steps were executed.

Subroutine 1. Mesh generation and boundary conditions. Subroutine 2. Crack development. Subroutine 3. Load application. Subroutine 4. Stress computation. Subroutine 5. K calculation.

Whereas subroutines 1, 2, and 3, were specially developed for this work, subroutine 4 is a standard finite element program, and subroutine 5 which calculates K through a J contour integral approach, was available from former work carried out by Sumpter (1973).

For the work described in the next chapter, elastic calculations were made with finite element computer programs devised at Imperial College. The finite element method is now well documented in numerous papers and in the book by Zienkiewicz (1971) and here it is necessary to give only a brief description of the program used. It employs elements of triangular shape, the apices of which will be referred to as nodes. The deformation characteristics of the elements are such that the displacement varies linearly over the element. The computer

program, calculates the deformation of each element composing the body in such a way that under the applied forces and displacements, there is equilibrium and displacement compatibility at the nodes. Stress components are calculated from the nodal displacements, and finally stresses are constant in any one element and taken to act at the centroid.

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CHAPTER 3

FRACTURE MECHANICS APPROACH TO A PRACTICAL PROBLEM

In this chapter the solution of two practical problems are described. For each one a different technique for determining the stress intensity factors, for a cracked body was used. The first one applies the J contour integral method mentioned in Section 2.3, and described in Section 3.4. In the second problem use is made of the method developed by Bueckner and described in Section 2.3. In doing this study computer programs which are commonly utilised at Imperial College were used although modifications were needed to suit the special requirements of these cases. A program to generate a gear profile and a finite element mesh within it was developed as well as additional subroutines to build up the whole computational approach and obtain a solution.

The stress intensity factor determination itself, is not a new contribution, originality here rests in the fact that the problem tackled is purely practical and there are a number of details which have to be considered to achieve a solution. A detailed discussion, of some of the most interesting aspects of this problem, is presented.

3.1 Problem Definition

The failure of gear teeth from small surface or subsurface defects can be posed as an example of the type of design problem to which fracture mechanics might contribute an understanding. It has been found that in gear manufacturing, a certain quantity of gears have reached a final stage of fabrication and are then rejected because of defects in the blanks. It is intended to include Fracture Mechanics Analysis as part of the research work to find out what are the maximum defects permissible in such blanks (type of defect, dimension, position, quantity, interelation, etc.) with the purpose of developing an acceptance criterion which could be applied in the early stages of fabrication, some of the work done towards this aim is described hereafter.

On information provided by industry it was decided to use a gear wheel typical of current design practice whose particulars are given in Appendix 3a. Two main problems are to be tackled*.

(a) Cracking of the gear under working conditions.

(b) Cracking of the gear originated on Residual Stresses.

3.2 Approach and Numerical Results

The general approach to the solution of these problems is given below:

Because of the finite element computer programs available (time and core) it was necessary to cut out a local region from the whole shape, former studies on the subject, Urriolagoitia (1970), set the basis to establish the general dimensions, and Figs.3.1a to 3.1e show the section to be used in a Finite Element Analysis.

The form of the tooth shown in Fig.3.1 represents the normal cross section of the helical gear with a normal pitch of 0.8.

A preliminary finite element analysis was made for this section; a program to generate the external contour, as well as a rough mesh within, was prepared. The boundary conditions

^{*}The problem is a single one but here it is presented as two different cases because of the approach needed to tackle it, as there are two calculations, each one with a different method, which will have to be added together to give the effective value of K in service for a given tooth load plus residual stress.

imposed on the portion of the gear are shown in Fig.3.2; a load of 100lb is applied at the pitch circle, in the computation plane strain is assumed and unit thickness taken. This implies the loading is per unit slant length along the helical face rather than per unit thickness of gear although the computational model is a two dimensional representation.

From the preliminary finite element analysis contours of principal stress near point A (Fig.3.1d) at the tooth root are shown in Fig.3.3 as a function of depth below the surface in the uncracked body. These stresses are taken to relate to the centroids of the elements, at the surface element the stress value is 768 $1b/in^2$ whereas the extrapolated value (Fig.3.4) is 804 $1b/in^2$.

Based on simple beam theory, using the circumferential component of force only, the nominal bending stress in the tooth root at A is 398 lb/in² giving a stress concentration factor of approximately 2.2. If the radial component of force is allowed for, there is a direct stress of 53 lb/in² and a further bending stress of 58 lb/in² (both compressive at the root of the loaded flank) giving a final nominal stress of 287 lb/in² and a stress concentration factor of 2.8 as detailed in Appendix 3b.

Point A was chosen as the point of maximum stress from the initial calculations. Subsequently in a more detailed analysis, a stress 2% higher was noted at an adjacent point B, one element removed from A, towards the root. Such discrepancies are within the limits of accuracy of the Finite Element Method.

K Calculations

A crack was introduced from point A, nominally normal to the surface. The crack direction is along a line of elements radial to a nominal circular arc connecting the flank and root circle. The true profile at the root is not this circular arc and this true profile is approximated to by the outer edge of the element (Fig.3.1d). The crack is thus not normal, by a few degrees, to the true local curvature. Since the precise direction of cracking is unknown this nominal radial direction was thought to be good enough. It arose in the first instance by reason of simplicity of mesh generation and as load is applied far away from the crack, the response obtained is thought to be a good one. However, for the case in which residual stresses are to be considered it is absolutely necessary to obtain a true normal direction to the surface and in that special case a modification is made.

Six crack length cases were computed, crack lengths of 0.24, 0.35, 0.5, 0.68, 0.83 and 1.03 mm were simulated, later on a 3mm crack was also tried. The smallest element size thus varied from approximately a/2 for the shortest crack to a/10 for the longest one. Even though Aida et al (1973) give a rough idea of the crack profile, there is not enough accurate data available, so a close representation of the crack profile was not attempted and the direction of crack propagation was assumed to be as shown in Fig.3.5 by line P-T. This first approximation was the result of an early attempt to analyse the shape with a very rough finite element mesh. The stress field though well defined, is not accurate enough to give reliable data concerning future fracture. Further analysis of the stress field obtained with better meshes and described in Section 3.3 seems to indicate that the crack profile should be slightly different from the one studied, but by now it is considered that for the objectives of this study it is adequate to consider the crack paths as they stand.

K was calculated from the J contour integral method described in Section 3.4 using $J \equiv G$ for elastic behaviour and $K^2 = \mathbf{E}G/1 - \nu^2$ for plane strain. J is averaged over 10 contours which give values constant to within <u>+</u> 3%. This variation is within the variation hitherto found for such contour evaluations.

Contours of maximum principal stress are shown in Fig.3.7 for the cracks up to 1mm. It is thought that study of stress trajectories combined with other calculations on energy release rate for selected crack orientations might reveal the direction in which a crack would propagate under a given applied load, and further analysis on this is described in Section 3.3. Discussion and Conclusions

Values of K for particular cracks in the root of one tooth form are given in Table 3.1. The computed values are appreciably less than a simple approximation sometimes used for cracks in regions of stress concentration, $K = k \sigma \sqrt{\pi a}$ where $k \sigma$ is the true local stress. The computed values are only some 10% or so more than a very simple approximation $K = \sigma \sqrt{\pi a}$ where σ is the actual stress in the uncracked body at the point where the tip of the crack is subsequently located. These uncracked body stresses are appreciably under estimated by simple bending theory for combined loading (Appendix 3) so that a good estimate of the uncracked body stresses would be required in order to

apply this approximation for K. It cannot be said how widely or narrowly applicable such an approximation might be since only the one geometry is here considered.

The accuracy of the very short crack results might also be in question owing to the small number of elements along the crack, further discussion on this topic is given in Section 3.4.

In connection with the longest crack (3mm) the computed K value is 172 psi $\sqrt{\text{in}}$. A simple estimate of it could have been made by using the stress values given in Appendix 3, which are

Major Bending Stress	+	398	lb/in ²
Eccentric Bending Stress	-	58	lb/in ²
Direct Stress	-	5 3	lb/in ²

Combining the first two into an effective bending stress of 340 lb/in² this may be taken together with a calibration factor Y from the well known solutions for bending configurations. The span/width ratio is here small since the tooth height to the load point is less than the root width. With a/W = 0.16 is extrapolated from the span width ratio s/W = 4 to give Y = 1.65 for this a/W

 $K_{\rm b} = (1.65)(340) \sqrt{0.118} = 193$ (lb in units)

The directive compressive stress is taken to cause a K value as for a single edge notch (SEN) piece, to be subtracted from the effective bending value.

$$K_{2} = 2.3 \times 53 \sqrt{0.118} = 42$$

Thus the estimated value of K is

$$K = 151 \text{ psi} \sqrt{\text{in}}$$

in fair agreement with the computed value.

3.3 <u>Stress Field Analysis and Determination of Most Probable</u> <u>Crack Place</u>

For arbitrary crack paths some form of criterion is required to assess direction of propagation from any instantaneous tip position of the growing crack. Here an attempt is made to predict crack behaviour by analysis of the stress field around the crack tip. Results from different work done by other researchers is useful for this purpose. It has been found that in brittle coatings, when the strain transmitted from the surface of the specimen to the lacquer reaches a critical value in tension, the lacquer will crack perpendicular to the direction of maximum tension. The first crack will initiate at the point in the specimen developing the highest strain and, as loading is continued will grow. Here it is important to note that a stress field is developed in the specimen and any change that occurs in this field would be in magnitude but not in distribution and the crack follows that magnitude change. On analysis of the growth of a crack in the specimen, it can be seen that the stress field will change in shape and magnitude as the crack advances (this can be observed in Fig.3.7). It is the view of this author that the stress field in the neighbourhood of the crack (immediately before crack expansion) could help to establish the direction of crack propagation; D. Post (1954) observed that "The eccentricity of load, or degree of non uniformity of the tensile field, appeared to have no effect on the orientation and shape of the inner loops of the isochromatic patterns, however, the outer loops showed a tendency to tip forward with increased eccentricity (see Fig.3.6a,b). Thus, close to the crack the stress pattern

is primarily a function of the sharp stress concentration, and a little further away the influence of the non-uniform tensile field becomes perceptible". Experiments using photoelastic techniques are reported by R.P. Hubbard (1969), among the results presented two photographs of the isochromatic field are of interest, in them it can be clearly distinguished a small deviation of the crack from the horizontal plane, and as a result, the photoelastic pattern becomes asymmetrical about the crack plane. M.L. Williams (1957) working through a mathematical series showed that the isochromatic fringe pattern for a symmetric case should be as shown in Fig.3.6c with loops emanating from the crack and perpendicular to the line of cracking (symmetry about the crack plane). While in the antisymmetric case, that is mode II crack behaviour, the loops are parallel to the crack surfaces (Fig.3.6d) (loading parallel to crack surface on top and bottom but different values), so:-

If the crack is only mode I, the loops should be perpendicular.

If the crack is only mode II, the loops should be parallel.

A combination of mode I, mode II would show loops with an inclination either backward or forward, but there still would be symmetry of the loops around the crack plane provided there is symmetry in both the loading and the specimen geometry. When this is not the case and one has an odd geometry as well as/or load asymmetry, the stress field will be peculiar, but by considering the already mentioned points it should be possible to identify and roughly separate effects and predict possible crack behaviour.

In relation to the present work, the preliminary analysis established within which zone the mesh had to be refined. From here a new finite element analysis was performed and the pattern of lines of maximum principal stress shown in Fig.3.7a was obtained. Being lines parallel to the gear surface there was no clear indication of the point in which the crack would initiate. On the other hand, in the neighbourhood of the tooth root the differences in the individual values of the stresses, either for the elements or for the nodes, are so small that they could be attributed to intrinsic errors contained in the finite element mesh. On this basis it was concluded that in the tooth root there is a zone about 1mm wide within which the highest possibility of crack initiation is present, so it was decided to consider five different points of crack initiation within this zone. The refinement of the finite element mesh was such that it allows the introduction of a crack in any one of these five points, and the elements were fairly small (i.e. a/10) so crack growth could be followed in adequate increments. Because of the stress field pattern present in the uncracked body, it was thought that any crack developing in the proposed zone would have a high probability of increasing in a direction normal to the boundary of the specimen, so the refined mesh had been designed contemplating this possibility. Table 3.2 gives the mean characteristics of these cracks.

The results from the finite element analysis in these five cases were used to trace and analyse.

- (a) Isochromatics field.
- (b) Isostatics field.
- (c) Isoentatics field.

In Fig.3.8 the isochromatic field for each one of the five cases is given. It can be noticed that for case 5 (Fig. 3.8c) the loops are totally asymmetrical (here it is not intended to imply absolute symmetry but roughly separate the stress field in two zones above and below the crack surface) and as the crack position is changed the stress field tends to become a symmetric one until finally in case one (Fig. 3.8a) these loops are normal to the crack faces. Even though there is still asymmetry in the dimension of the loops it was thought that this could be taken as indicative that provided the crack initiates at this point it will propagate along the line given. The asymmetry observed in the other cases could mean that the crack should have deviated before reaching those lengths. In addition, the isostatic field for case 1 and case 3 are shown (Figs. 3.9a and 3.9b respectively). Arad (1972) reported that in tests on direction of crack propagation, it was found that the crack turned to grow along the minimum principal stress trajectory passing through its tip. So the criterion for extension was taken to be that the crack propagates along lines of minimum principal stress. It can be seen that in case 3 the highest line of minimum principal stress makes an angle with the crack surface, and the loops with high values are away from the extension of the crack line, whilst in case 1, these loops envelop this line and there is some kind of symmetry, (here one also has to consider the fact that there is no symmetry of the centroids of the elements

around the crack tip). This should make the stress on the element whose centroid is the nearest below the tip to be the highest, while the nearest element above the tip has the next highest stress. This suggests that if symmetry of the centroids of the elements around the crack tip is present it would produce a better symmetry of the stress field in the very near neighbourhood of the crack tip, which could partially take account of the fact observed, in the stress field, that the lines of stress seem to point towards a zone on top of the tip, while it was expected that these lines would be directed towards some point ahead of and on the line of the fracture. But still, for the nearest elements to the crack tip in case 3, the stress values are 636 lb/in² above the crack tip, and 422 lb/in² below, that is, even though the centroid of the element below the crack tip is closer the stress is lower, so there is a strong natural asymmetry in the stress field. On the other hand in analysing case 1, it can be seen that the stress values are 535 lb/in² and 572 lb/in² for the same elements as above, which suggests that allowing for asymmetry of the mesh, there is a strong possibility of the stress field being totally symmetric.

In Fig.3.7 the isochromatic fields for different lengths of the same crack are reproduced and it is important to point out that

Fig.3.7a Body uncracked (crack length equal zero), the isochromatics are practically parallel to the boundary (within the highest stressed zone).

- Fig.3.7b Commencement of cracking (crack length = 0.0116mm). There is still a certain degree os symmetry for the stress field, the zone above the crack is stressed the most.
- Fig.3.7c Crack extension (length = 0.0238mm). An isochromatic loop pattern has formed, and the axes of symmetry for the different loops, above and below the crack, follow directions approximately parallel to the gear surface.
 Fig.3.7d, 3.7e
 Further crack extension (lengths = 0.036mm, 0.0521mm) the axis of the loop above the crack has only a slight variation in direction while the one below moves gradually to approach the direction of the axis above.

Fig.3.7f, Full crack (lengths = 0.068mm, 1.03 mm) the
3.7g
axes convergence reached for case of Fig."e"
is kept.

A further point is that once the notch is introduced the correlation between stress values above and below the crack tip is roughly the same, the value above being always higher.

The final conclusion from the analysis of the stress field above was that the crack should initiate at the point for which the coordinates are x = -8.914mm, y = 416.977mm (with reference to the gear centre) and continue to extend along a line with an angle of 0.80078 radians in relation to the horizontal axis, this seems to be confirmed by results and analysis of the K values, given in the next section.

3.4 J Values and Determination of Most Probable Crack

Using the method described by Hayes (1970) and by Sumpter (1973) (actually as a subroutine of the finite element program) the values of J for the different cracks (lengths and positions) were calculated, these are given in Table 3.3 and depicted in Fig.3.10a. In relation to this set of results it is important to point out that in this Fig.3.10a there are two zones of special interest. In zone 1, crack length range 0.0 to 0.5 there is no clear definition of the different K curves, it is thought this is due to the natural limitations of the finite element method as the relationships between element size and crack length are 1, $\frac{1}{2}$, 1/3 and 1/4, so rather poor results can be expected within this zone. If it was decided that values in this region were needed, it would be a matter of refining the finite element mesh. However, for the present case, where a crack 1mm long is being analysed, it is thought the present mesh is small enough.

The fact of having both the highest K value (here again it has to be pointed out that it cannot be firmly established which one of them is a better one, the one for 0.80078 or that for 0.82747) for an angle between 0.80078 and 0.82747, and that the curves are almost coincident, seems to indicate that the critical crack position is somewhere within these limits. It could be possible to define a narrower zone than this one by adjusting the finite element mesh and running cracks within that zone but this would not improve the analysis already done so it was decided that the point is adequately substantiated and no further extension of the work (unless experimental) in relation with this topic seems to be necessary.

3.5 <u>Alternatives to Approach the Residual Stress Problem</u> and Discussion

The aim of this part of the work is to obtain the K value for a cracked tooth under residual stress. Two sets of information are available:-

1. Stress pattern depicted in Fig.3.11

 Results and work done in the former cracked gear and described in the first part of this chapter.

To solve this case, the first step concerns the method to be used.

Because of the conditions given as well as availability of programs and computer facilities, two methods could be considered as a possibility, these are the J contour integral and Bueckners Method.

On revising work published, Rice (1968), it was noticed Rice's statement that when the crack faces are not stress free his method is not applicable; a plausible reason for this is described below.

As it is well known, the J contour integral is defined as

$$J = \int_{\Gamma} (W dy - \overline{T} \cdot \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} ds)$$

J being an average measure of the strain on the crack tip, Γ is a curve surrounding the crack tip, the integral being evaluated in a contraclockwise sense starting from the lower crack surface and continuing along the path T to the upper crack surface. \overline{T} is the traction vector defined according to the outward normal along Γ , $T_i = \sigma_{ij}n_j$, u is the displacement vector, and ds is an element of arc length along Γ' . The analysis by Rice was as follows. "Consider any two paths (Fig.3.12a) Γ_1 and Γ_2 surrounding the crack tip; traverse Γ_1 in the contraclockwise sense, continue along the upper flat notch surface to where Γ_2 intersects the crack, traverse Γ_2 in the clockwise sense, and then continue along the lower flat notch surface to the starting point where Γ_1 intersects the crack. This describes <u>contour so that the</u> a closed integral of Wdy - T($\partial u/\partial x$)ds vanishes. But $\overline{T} = 0$ and dy = 0 on the portions of the path along the crack surfaces. Thus the integral along Γ_1 contraclockwise and the integral along Γ_2 clockwise sum to zero. J has the same value when computed by integrating along either Γ_1 or Γ_2 , and path independent is proven".

In examining the case under study one is interested in the term

$$\overline{T} \cdot \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} ds$$

where , in relation with the present case we have

The traction T	On the path from Γ_1 to Γ_2 at the upper crack face, this traction is negative (as it is directed going in to the body).
The element of arc length ds	Is positive (it is measured from Γ_1 to Γ_2) the integration is being per- formed along the positive \times direction.
The traction T	On the path from Γ_2 to Γ_1 at the lower crack face is negative (same reason).

The element of arc length ds	Is negative (integration being carried out from Γ_2 to Γ_1 in the negative x direction).
The partial $\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}$	Is the strain on the path followed.

It is quite clear that provided $\partial u/\partial x$ is the same both in the upper and lower face the integration over these parts of the path would be zero, for this to be true it is necessary to have symmetry in loading and in geometry. For this case, symmetry in loading exists but not in geometry, so the quantities $T \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} ds$, corresponding to the upper and lower crack faces, do not cancel out and the J contour integral becomes different for different points on the crack face, so the conclusion is that loads applied (tractions) on the crack faces do make a difference on the J contour integral and so it is not possible to use this method in the present case.

Further comments on this topic were made by Hutchinson and Turner (1975) who gave a formula to obtain J for cracks loaded on the face by say pressure p

$$\int_{r_2} = \int_{r_1} + 2 \int_{-r_2}^{-r_1} p \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} dx$$

where r_1 and r_2 are the distances from the crack tip over which p is applied, v is crack face displacement, $J = \int_{1}^{1} r_1$, as $r_1 \rightarrow 0$, so Γ_1

$$J = \int_{\Gamma_2} + 2 \int_0^{L_2} p \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} dx$$

If p is constant from the tip to same radius r_2 , then

 $J = \int_{\Gamma_2} + 2 p v (r_2)$

If this is to be path independent then $\int_{\mathbf{T}}$ must itself vary with r_2 to compensate for the variation of p v (r_2) , and this formulation could be used for residual stress problems by Bueckner's method, which is the next possible choice as most of the computer material developed for the former case could be used although some additions are necessary.

Bueckner's (1958) method for evaluation of K is well known and a generalised description is presented to approach the problem, two situations are considered.

1. A body with prescribed boundary conditions on which certain tractions on surface S_1 and boundary displacements on surface S_2 are given. A crack is presumed to exist in the body with upper and lower faces C_1 and C_2 (Fig.12a).

2. Consideration of the same body, subject to the same loading, after a virtual crack extension resulting in new surfaces C_1' and C_2' (Fig.3.12b).

The combination of these two situations towards a sum state (Fig.3.12c) and a difference state (Fig.3.12d) allows the evaluation of tractions on the crack face which can be regarded as those tractive components of stress which act on the notional surfaces C'_1 and C'_2 prior to virtual crack extension. With these tractive components and the displacements obtained on applying them to the body it is possible to obtain the potential energy "u_d" and by allowing the crack to go progressively from zero to full length it is possible to obtain $\delta u_d / \delta a$, that is obtain G.

Boundary Conditions and Loading

The dimensions are those already given. A finite element analysis is to be used, for plane strain and unit thickness, with the same boundary conditions as in the former case but with no load at the pitch circle.

From analysis of the data given it is concluded that (a) the stress distribution on points under the surface of the body is compressive and parallel to the body's surface; (b) the crack will be perpendicular to the body surface, being the stress pattern imposed normal to the crack surfaces; (c) there is no shear stress accompanying this normal stress; (d) it was concluded that an opening effect takes place at some stage of the process in which the residual stresses are set up into the body, so the effect of the normal stress is to open up the crack.

The mesh used in the former case should be slightly modified so that the crack length is 3mm and normal to the true local surface of the tooth root.

The loading for this case is introduced as concentrated forces (tractions) applied to the nodes on the crack face, the value of each individual load as calculated from the stress pattern is given in Table 34 A preliminary analysis done in order to find out how well this loading would reproduce the stress pattern given, was carried out and the results of this are shown in Fig.3.13, (further discussion is given in Section 3.6).

3.6 Analysis of the Stress Field

In the computer simulation of this problem there are some characteristics of the stress field which must be preserved, and provided this is done in the computer analysis, the simulation will be a reliable one. In this case the data given establishes certain known values for the stresses on the crack faces, i.e. normal stress is as the pattern given in Fig.3.11(a) and shear stress equal to zero along the crack faces. Relevant results from the finite element analysis when the loading method described is applied, are given in Fig.3.13b. From this figure it could be wrongly concluded that the necessary conditions are not preserved as differences are encountered on the stress pattern produced in the body, but it is the singularity introduced by the crack in the stress field, and its influence in the neighbourhood of the tip that projects a deceptive pattern. Proper analysis of the stress field proves the correctness of the loading method. In order to illustrate this point use is made of Fig.3.14 which shows the neighbourhood of the crack as well as the respective positions of lines to which reference is to be made in the analysis below.

In Table 3.5 and 3.6 values of normal and shear stresses along lines perpendicular and parallel to the crack face are given. Plots of normal and shear stresses along those lines are given in Figs.3.15 (a to j).

In analysing Figs.3.15 (a,b,c) it can be seen that: the shear stress on elements which are the nearest to the crack face are -951 lb/in² and 693', 1982' and 798', 2635' and -2828' (by definition negative shear on the upper crack face and positive shear on the lower one mean positive traction, and the other way around), for lines 1, 3 and 5 respectively; from these figures one can conclude that it is not the particular value of the stress in an element which should be looked at, but the whole stress field. If these values were considered either each one by itself or the six, without relating them to the whole of the stress field, the conclusion would undoubtedly be that the shear stress at the crack surfaces is different from zero (even though it is known that the shear boundary forces fed to the finite element programme are zero). Proper analysis of the whole zone shows the fact that the stress field in the neighbourhood of the crack faces tends to zero and it is this tendency which shows that all these values are a computer approximation to zero. This is very clear in Figs. 3.15a, 3.15b and 3.15c although in the latter one it is not as clear as in the former two cases. Obviously, the singularity introduced by the crack becomes apparent at the neighbourhood of the tip. A finer mesh in this zone would show that the already described tendency of the shear values towards zero for the former two cases, applies to the third one as well. Another point to consider is that the straight lines drawn on Fig.3.14 do not always cross the elements through the centroids. As the line is nearer or farther away from a centroid the stress value for the element is respectively more or less representative of the true stress on that segment of the line. Because of this, some of the values are not really representative of the true stress in certain zones, and this is obvious for those zones in which the line (along which the stress is being evaluated) crosses the element far away from its centroid.

The argument already used for shear, applies to normal stresses and with relation to Figs.3.15d to 3.15j the points described below are relevant.

Fig.3.15d. Plot of normal stress values along line "1" (the farthest away from the crack tip). The stress value on the nearest element to the crack face is -14206 lb/in² but the tendency of the stress curve is towards a smaller value, the expected value (from Fig.3.13) is around -11500 lb/in². The conclusion is that the stress pattern is the correct one in that zone. The same analysis applies to Fig.3.15a with reference to line "2".

Fig.3.15f. Here, it can be seen that the influence of the x coordinate starts to show up and in order to perform a better analysis one has to split the stress values of at least the first 8 elements along this line. Obviously the true stress value for points on the line would be somewhere in between these values. It is thought that it is relevant to find out the tendency of the stress curve, and the two plots on this figure are good enough for this purpose showing similar tendencies in the neighbourhood of the crack surface. This tendency is clearly towards the value given in Fig.3.13. The same analysis is applicable to Figs.3.15g and 3.15h although for these it could seem that the stress values are different from the ones expected. However, it is thought that in this neighbourhood the influence of the stress field singularity is such that any small change of the coordinates greatly affects the stress value obtained (it has to be kept in mind that the stress values are for the centroids of the elements and these centroids are away from the crack face), but this stress field, on approaching the

crack face, has a tendency towards the expected value. A finer mesh would show this point. However, in solving the present problem this finer mesh is not necessary and so far, the analysis of results has shown that the stress values on the crack faces are as expected so it is thought that the whole stress pattern is correct.

3.7 Elastic Potential Energy and K Values

Results from the finite element calculations were used to obtain the values of the elastic potential energy for different crack lengths and these are given in Table 3.7 By differentiating these values with respect to crack length and later on fitting a polynomial, the curve of K_{I} values given in Fig.3.16 was obtained.

In relation to this stress intensity factor curve, it is fundamental to point out that for the present case there is a combined mode I mode II behaviour. This is because even though there is symmetry in the loading, the geometry of the specimen is asymmetrical, but the mode II effect is a negligible one. This statement rests in the fact that there is no shear stress on the crack surface so there is not a singularity on the mode II crack behaviour, that is, in considering the mathematical representation of the stress field around the crack, the first coefficient corresponding to the antisymmetric representation (directly proportional to K_{TT}) equals zero. Only higher order terms are considered and these approach zero when the crack tip is approached. For the case treated in the first part of this chapter this is not so (there is a singularity in mode II) as the loading is not symmetric, and it has to be pointed out that the K values given there include mode I and mode II crack behaviour.

CHAPTER 4

FRACTURE UNDER COMPLEX STRESSES AND

DIRECTION OF CRACK PROPAGATION

4.1 <u>Instances in which it is Desirable to Control Direction of</u> Crack Propagation

A case has already been discussed in which it was necessary to have a criteria for directional stability of crack propagation. The case of the gear tooth presented in Chapter 3 is only one among many in which it is desirable to control direction of crack propagation so that failure, if it occurs, is by loss of a tooth rather than complete severence of the gear. Another instance similar to the gear case in which this approach might apply, concerns turbine blades. Most of the research being conducted in laboratories uses test specimens which deal only with cracks loaded symmetrically (mode I behaviour), however, it will be shown (Section 4.5) that even when loading and geometry are symmetric, there may be a natural tendency for the crack to run away from the axis of symmetry. This tendency immediately introduces mode II behaviour and it has been shown (Section 2.2) that this makes slight changes in parameters such as fracture toughness that are considered to be dependent on only mode I behaviour. The nature of this change is negligible for the purposes of fracture toughness determination, but it surely has a strong influence (i.e. this influence is not negligible) in two other aspects, (i) fracture initiation mechanism, (ii) direction of crack propagation. It is well known that the stress intensity factor $K_{_{\rm TT}}$ designates the amplitude of the crack-tip stress owing to skew-symmetric loading, so it will only operate when asymmetry, either in loading or geometry, is present. In experimental work

this asymmetry is always present, sometimes coming from nonalignments in the experimental rig (this effect could be a very strong one), or from inhomogeneities in the material (which set up local stress concentrations). These effects have always shown up in the laboratory, the very fact that strong differences in crack path have been obtained in experiments which are supposed to be repetitive in their operative conditions, show the differences that a minor defect in material homogeneity could make.

In practice, problems of this type arise in multi-phased materials such as composites, bridge and aircraft structures, welded materials reinforced components, etc. in which inhomogeneities and flaws already exist and/or develop because of natural working circumstances. If conditions to control crack path can be known, then it should be possible, when a crack exists and propagates into a body, to drive its tip towards a zone in which arresting conditions exist.

The onset of rapid crack extension (and any other experimental behaviour) is not always sharply defined, but the load at which it occurs (for brittle materials) is very little different from the maximum load recorded. It is not clear how, for a practical case, one would calculate a representative value of say K_{1c} , or any other parameter which would agree with those obtained from a different specimen design, and because of this it can be said that some degree of uncertainty always exists, and that some specimens are conservative (standard K_{1c} method with its limitations on thickness, linearity, etc. seems to have overcome this difficulty). Since it is not known how conservative they are, a penalty may be imposed on the material that is being evaluated if a wrong

specimen type is used to evaluate the necessary parameters, so special care must be exercised when deciding upon specimen type. If this is so for the case of such a parameter as K_{1c} , which has been so extensively studied, then it can be seen how difficult the task of obtaining parameters to define directional stability of cracking could be. Surely there are a lot of questions which have to be answered before having a solution to this problem, they concern the effect of local inhomogeneities, anisotropies, residual stress, biaxiality, rate effect, is only a rapid crack unstable in direction or would a slow crack also be unstable? does scatter in K_{1c} values really matter? eg do high values of scattered K_{1c} data correspond to cracks wandering off direction?

The conclusion is that when performing experimental work, intended to define directional stability of crack propagation, it is necessary to select one of these aspects as variable and try to keep the others as constant as possible. For the purpose of the present study, mainly the effect of loading biaxiality will be looked at, but it is necessary to keep an open mind and try to identify possible co-relations between experimental results and any of the topics already mentioned.

4.2 Review of Work Done on Directional Stability of Crack

Propagation

A great deal of valuable work has already been conducted regarding directional stability of crack propagation, a short summary of some of the most important is given hereafter. It is felt by this author that the review presented is brief but this is because only work highly relevant to the specific objective of the present study was selected and presented here with the purpose of using it as an additional tool to expand the understanding of the phenomena that is being dealt with.

One of the very first comments on direction of cracking is found in Griffith (1920) who stated that, "it is necessary in the present application, however, for the resulting stress system to be symmetrical about the crack, as otherwise it is not obvious that the latter will remain straight as it spreads. The only stress distribution which will be considered, therefore, is that in which the principal stresses in the plane of the plate, at points far from the crack, are respectively parallel and perpendicular to the crack, and are the same at all such points. This is equivalent to saying that, in the absence of the crack, the plate would have been subjected to uniform principal stresses in and perpendicular to its plane. It is also necessary, on physical grounds, for the stress perpendicular to the crack and in the plane of the plate to be a tension, otherwise the surfaces of the crack are forced together instead of separated, and they cannot remain free from traction".

Obreimoff (1930) was the first one to study stable crack spreading. By wedging open a crack in mica and finding the length of crack in equilibrium with a given displacement normal to the crack surface, he also estimated the local work of crack spreading from simple beam theory.

Irwin (1957). In a discussion of the stress field parameters which significantly influence the fracture process, proposed that cracks will grow in a direction controlled by the orientation of the maximum stress direction at the crack tip.

Benbow and Roesler (1957). The aim of their work was the determination of a specific fracture energy which is shown to govern crack propagation. They used a wedge as the instrument for opening the crack on a flat strip specimen, and showed that

of symmetry and so it must, to some extent, provide directional stability of crack propagation.

jaligue Forsyth (1961). Proposed that the fracture process occurs in metals through two steps, phase I. Flaw growth takes place in a direction parallel to the crystallographic plane of maximum shear stress. Phase II - macroscopic fracture propagates in a direction perpendicular to that of the maximum stress.

Guernsey and Gilmain (1961). Reported photoelastic work made on the stress distribution in the vicinity of the root of the crack in a SEN specimen. This work indicated the nature of the deformation sustained by the uncracked region but did not explore the stress distribution over the complete sample as a function of crack length. They showed that the gradient of the maximum tensile stress in the vicinity of the crack tip is such that the crack tends to deviate from its median position and turn towards the edge of the sample, a tendency which increases with increasing deviation, so it is necessary to apply constraints to the sample to so change the stress distribution that the crack remains in the median plane. In relation to this topic, in Section 3.3 a similar analysis is made for a cracked gear, here the stress field was obtained numerically, but there is ample evidence that these field values are as good as the experimental ones, and it leads to the conclusion that the crack should propagate along a line of minimum principal stresses emanating from the crack tip, i.e. perpendicular to maximum principal stress.

Erdogan and Sih (1963) **c**arried out a study of the initial direction of crack growth in a biaxial stress field and reexamined the original hypothesis of Griffith that the crack extends in a direction perpendicular to the local maximum tensile

stress. A series of fracture experiments on plexiglass sheets with an inclined crack was performed and the results checked reasonably well with the criterion of maximum stress. They stated two hypotheses for the extension of cracks in brittle materials under slowly applied loads:-

(a) the crack grows in a direction normal to the maximum local stress at the tip of the crack;

(b) the crack growth in this direction releases the maximum energy. They also showed the first hypothesis to be true for the initial stages of propagation.

Schijve (1964). Studied the effect of the fracture angle on the shear stress distribution in the neighbourhood of the crack, describing the nucleation and the growth of a fatigue crack as being geometrical consequences of dislocation movements at the surface and in the crack tip region respectively. In his report he mentions some work carried out at NLR (Nationeal Luct-en Ruimtevaantlaboratorium, Amsterdam) in which a fatigue machine combined with a microscope and stroboscopic light was developed to follow crack propagation. Fatigue experiments were carried out and the results showed a constant rate of crack propagation while the crack was running straight. When a change of orientation in the crack occurred it was preceded by a slowing down of the growth (at the surface). Then no crack growth was observed for some time after which growing continued in another direction. The first part of this new crack extension sometimes occurred quite rapidly. Schijve argued that it is possible that the direction of growth before the change of orientation could not be maintained, because it was not compatible with the path of the crack below the surface. This restraind released the shear stress on the slip system being active at the surface, and the crack growth slowed down. Crack growth along another slip plane required an increase of shear stress

on that plane, which was effected after the crack below the surface had gone through some further growth, such a process leads to unbalanced crack extension at the surface and probably it will occur at the interior of the material as well, which implies that crack extension does not simultaneously occur along the entire crack front.

Valluri (1965). Made a study of the biaxial failure of metals and polymers, developing failure envelopeconcepts in which, failure planes described by the principal stress components, were used as loci of points of limiting stability for fracture under multiaxial loading conditions.

Cotterell (1965). Defined two classes of fracture: 1. fracture path completely predictable, and 2 fracture path predictable only after initial random propagation. Class I fracture occurs when there is a line of principal stress passing through the tip of the initiating notch or slit, across which the stress is a maximum away from the tip. (Cotterell did not establish a dimension for the distance "away from the tip", what his analysis states is not that σ_n is an absolute maximum but that the direction of maximum release of energy and of propagation in a perfect solid, is along a line of local symmetry.) All Class II fractures eventually become Class I. He also showed that although the probability for incremental growth in any one direction is low, the line of local symmetry is a highly probable path for macroscopic growth, and concluded that concerning crack behaviour, after a possible initiation of random Class II fracture, the macroscopic fracture path becomes very predictable. Fracture growth will be along the line of local symmetry across which the principal stress is a maximum, confirming the hypothesis that cracks will extend in a radial direction from the tip normal to the direction of maximum tangential stress. Later on Cotterell (1966), from consideration of the second term in the power series solution of the stress field in a

cracked body, reached the same conclusion, i.e. that a crack will propagate along the principal stress plane passing through its tip. Cotterell considered that there is only one line of principal stress passing through the tip of the crack - the line of local symmetry. In general two lines of principal stress normal to each other would be expected, but it must be remembered that the crack is considered to be the limit of an ellipse and in the limit the second line of principal stress becomes the line of the crack in the negative direction.

Gurney and Hunt (1967). The main topic of this work has already been presented in Chapter 2, i.e. determination of the local specific work of crack spreading or fracture toughness (R). Under this same work a principle controlling the path of a quasistatic crack is proposed that is, crack paths should be those directions into which strain energy is released at the maximum rate of entropy production for a cracking process, and offers some experimental confirmation.

Barr (1968). Found that the direction of rolling of the material during manufacturing, has an influence on the crack path. He also tried different geometries in trying to obtain directional stability of crack propagation, this involved linear variations of the I value (second moment of inertia of the section), sudden change of cross section, gradual change of cross section, special loading conditions, etc, but only partial success was obtained. Barr discussed as well, the effect that bending stresses have on the path of the crack in a test specimen.

Arad (1972). Some of the experiments he carried out were on grooved specimens and concluded that a general feature of the outcome of the series of tests was that irrespective of the groove orientation angle, the crack did not extend along the plane of the groove. However, the specific characteristics of the crack

propagation process could be influenced by the depth of the surface grooves. Up to a groove with about 60% reduction in specimen thickness, the initial crack turned immediately to form along a minimum principal stress trajectory.

Aida and Kobayashi (1969). Results obtained in their work suggest that a fatigue fracture that is initially under biaxial load will propagate initially in the direction of maximum value of K_I , and at the same time the K_{II} value tends to decrease until it reaches its minimum value. In Section 5.3 of the present study, some work which is relevant to this topic, is discussed.

Tuba and Wilson (1970). Proposed the use of a criticality plane described in terms of the three stress intensity factor components K_T , K_{TT} and K_{TTT} .

Cotterell (1970). Reported tests on the criterion developed in relation with the sign of the second coefficient of the Williams series, and suggested a simpler criterion based on the engineer's theory, for the determination of the stability of fracture path in the compact tension test. This will be discussed in some detail in Chapter 7.

Roberts and Kibler (1971). Found that under conditions of application of a combined static and reversed bending type of loading, the direction of fatigue crack growth on a macroscopic scale, was in the plane of the initial crack. Consideration of crack growth at a relatively lower scale, proved the growth mechanism to be as that described by Irwin (1957) and others, i.e. small extension in the direction perpendicular to that of maximum principal stress. However, due to the reversing nature of the load cycle, in each full cycle two principal stress directions, distributed symmetrically about the crack plane, are obtained and thus the crack tends to propagate in a saw-pattern. Williams and Ewing (1972). Applied a uniaxial stress to thin plates of polymethylmethacrylate (PMMA) containing a crack angled to the stress field, and showed that inclusion of the stress component parallel to the crack can improve the correlation between linear theory and experiment, using a critical stress at a critical distance for interpretation of the stress intensity factor. This inclusion of the stress component parallel to the crack means that the second term in the series expansion for the stress distribution in the neighbourhood of the crack tip is considered.

Finnie and Saith (1973). Discussed Williams and Ewing's work, and pointed out an error in the mathematical development carried out. Finnie and Saith's correction gave an improved correlation between theory and experimental results for centre notched sheets in tension.

Sih (1973). Proposed a new concept for fracture path prediction. For elastic materials the new criterion is expressed in terms of the strain energy density factor S. The application of the S-factor to fracture prediction is based on two hypotheses: (a) crack initiation occurs when the strain energy density factor reaches a critical value, (b) the initial crack growth takes place in the direction along which the strain energy density factor possesses a stationary maximum value. Since strain energy is considered, the prediction is a function of Poisson's ratio and will also differ for plane stress and plane strain conditions.

Finnie and Weiss (1974). Performed two experiments with beryllium sheet in order to compare the new Sih theory with the original Erdogan and Sih approach. Beryllium was used for these tests as its Poisson's ratio in the plane of the sheet is almost

zero and the experiments were simplified by making $\beta = 45$ deg. (being β the angle between loading direction and crack). They state that their experimental results strongly support the original Erdogan and Sih analysis rather than Sih's new theory.

Coughlan and Barr (1974). Carried out a finite element analysis for a square plate, with an angled crack, under biaxial loading conditions, as well as experimental work using PMMA (v = 0.3) and good agreement was obtained between the numerical and experimental results, and these results compare favourably with the results of Sih.

Mai et al (1975). Carried out tests on tapered SEN specimens, suggesting a modified test with loading applied at the thick base instead of near the apex, showing that experiments agree with theory, providing a better control of the crack path, concluding that backface loading may be chosen as an optimum alternative means for the determination of valid fracture toughness of materials, especially when good stability of cracking is desired for experimental applications such as in environmental testing. They also concluded that the simple criterion $\sigma_{\rm y}/\sigma_{\rm x} > 1.0$, coupled with elementary beam theory for the determination of a straight propagating crack along the mid plane of the specimen, is adequate for their analysis.

4.3 <u>Mathematical Description of the Stress Field in the</u> Neighbourhood of a Crack

Many investigators have studied the elastic stress distributions around cracks, with some of the earliest contributions from Inglis (1913) who studied an external crack using elliptical bounding surfaces, Westergaard (1934) who initially treated the crack problem as a series of expansions and later on (1939) by

the complex variable technique. Williams (1952) investigated the plane-stress distribution near the vertex of an infinite sector of included angle α for various boundary conditions and in (1957) considered the case where two radial edges of the plate are unloaded and the included angle approaches 2π , which corresponds to the case of a crack with flank angle $\omega = \alpha - 2\pi = 0$. He showed that the function

$$\chi(\mathbf{r}, \psi) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left\{ (-1)^{n-1} A_{2n-1} r^{n+\frac{1}{2}} [-\cos(n-3/2)\psi + \left(\frac{2n-3}{2n+1}\right) \cos(n+\frac{1}{2})\psi] \right\}$$

+ $(-1)^{n} A_{2n} r^{n+1} [-\cos(n-1)\psi + \cos(n+1)\psi]$
+ $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left\{ (-1)^{n-1} B_{2n-1} r^{n+\frac{1}{2}} [\sin(n-3/2)\psi - \sin(n+\frac{1}{2})\psi] \right\}$
+ $(-1)^{n} B_{2n} r^{n+1} [-\sin(n-3/2)\psi + \left(\frac{n-1}{n+1}\right) \sin(n+1)\psi]$
(4.3.1)

describes the stress field in the neighbourhood of the notch with zero angle, pointing out that even though the field equation and the boundary conditions along the radial edges are satisfied, the constants A_i and B_i are undetermined. Their values depend upon the loading conditions, more specifically, either upon the boundary conditions at infinity in the case of an infinite sector, or upon those at some fixed radius when the plate has finite dimensions. For the latter practical case, all the Eigen functions in general will be present in order to determine a solution in the large.

From the general definition of the stress function it is known that

$$\sigma_{r} = \frac{1}{r^{2}} \frac{\partial^{2} x}{\partial \psi^{2}}$$

$$\sigma_{\psi} = \frac{\partial^{2} x}{\partial r^{2}}$$

$$\sigma_{r\psi} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial^{2} x}{\partial r \partial \psi} + \frac{1}{r^{2}} \frac{\partial x}{\partial \psi}$$
(4.3.2)

the mathematical development of these partial derivatives is shown in Appendix for Chapter 5 and the equations for the stress fields are obtained as

$$\sigma_{r} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \{ (-1)^{n-1} r^{n-3/2} A_{2n-1}^{(n-\frac{1}{2})} [(n-7/2)\cos(n-3/2)\psi - (n-3/2) \\ \cos(n+\frac{1}{2})\psi] + (-1)^{n} r^{n-1} A_{2n}^{(n-\frac{1}{2})} \cos(n-1)\psi - (n+1)\cos(n+1)\psi] \\ + (-1)^{n-1} r^{n-3/2} B_{2n-1}^{(n-\frac{1}{2})} [(n-7/2)\sin(n-3/2)\psi - (n+\frac{1}{2})\sin(n+\frac{1}{2})\psi] \\ + (-1)^{n} r^{n-1} B_{2n}^{(n-1)} \sin(n-1)\psi - (n-1)\sin(n+1)\psi] \} \frac{1}{1+\nu}$$

$$\sigma_{\psi} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left\{ (-1)^{n-1} r^{n-3/2} A_{2n-1}^{(n-\frac{1}{2}) \left[(n+\frac{1}{2}) \cos(n-3/2) \psi - (n-3/2) \right] \right\}$$

$$Cos(n+\frac{1}{2})\psi + (-1)^{n} r^{n-1} A_{2n} n[(n+1) \cos(n-1)\psi - (n+1) \cos(n+1)\psi]$$

$$+ (-1)^{n-1} r^{n-3/2} B_{2n-1}^{(n-\frac{1}{2}) \left[(n+\frac{1}{2}) \sin(n-3/2) \psi - (n+\frac{1}{2}) \sin(n+\frac{1}{2}) \psi \right]}$$

$$+ (-1)^{n} r^{n-1} B_{2n-1} n[(n+1) \sin(n-1)\psi - (n-1) \sin(n+1)\psi] \frac{E}{1+\nu}$$

$$(4.3.4)$$

$$\sigma_{r\psi} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left\{ (-1)^{n-1} r^{n-3/2} A_{2n-1} (n-\frac{1}{2}) \left[(n-3/2) \sin(n-3/2) \psi - (n-3/2) \sin(n+\frac{1}{2}) \psi \right] \right. \\ \left. + (-1)^n r^{n-1} A_{2n} n \left[(n-1) \sin(n-1) \psi - (n+1) \sin(n+1) \psi \right] \right. \\ \left. + (-1)^{n-1} r^{n-3/2} B_{2n-1} (n-3/2) \left[(n-3/2) \psi - (n+\frac{1}{2}) \cos(n+\frac{1}{2}) \psi \right] \right.$$

+
$$(-1)^{n} r^{n-1} B_{2n} n[(n-1)\cos(n-1)\psi - (n-1)\cos(n+1)\psi] \frac{E}{1+\nu}$$

(4.3.5)

These equations fully describe the stress field in the neighbourhood of a crack and will be fundamental in the present study.

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4.4 The Stress Field and Directional Stability of Crack Propagation

Regarding the stress field, when a crack propagates there must be a gradual change in it, this has been shown in Section 3.3. When a material is stressed, and the condition is reached that the strength in the material is equal to its toughness, the material separates, resulting in a longer crack, Clausing (1969) has presented a good discussion on this point. The new crack dimension depends on conditions existing just before extension occurs. To illustrate this point, let us take as an example a blunt crack (meaning by this, that its tip is slightly rounded, with a ρ radius) and apply an energy criterion for extension. As load is applied to the specimen, energy is being stored and of course, a stress field characteristic of the geometry. develops. When a critical energy level (which is a characteristic of the material and a function of ρ) is reached, the crack extends by a jump of the crack tip, the tip of the crack becoming sharp. It is fairly easy to understand this jump, as when the crack extension starts the change in geometry at the tip is a sudden one and . there is an excess of energy available (as the energy necessary to propagate a blunt crack is higher than that necessary to propagate a sharp crack), this energy is partially transformed into kinetic energy and partially into surface energy (brittle fracture). This jump has an effect on the stress field because new geometric conditions are settled, and this effect is basically that the principal stresses at the crack tip (σ_1 and σ_2) change but the tangential stress remains zero, this is provided that the loading and geometry before and after crack propagation are symmetric. These changes could set up conditions conducive to directional instability of crack propagation, regardless of symmetry in geometry and loading.

It has been shown, Benbow and Roesler (1957), Cotterell (1966,1970), Mai et al (1975) that directional stability is achieved if, at the crack tip, the principal stress (σ_v) along the crack surface (as calculated theoretically) is equal to or lower than the stress perpendicular to the crack surface (σ_{ij}) . This effect is shown by the isochromatic field ($\sigma_v - \sigma_x/2$), as was shown in Section 3.1. Cotterell (1966) argued that as the crack length is increased, for certain loading conditions, the fringes (isochromatic lines) at the crack tip neighbourhood, become more upright and finally, for cracks longer than certain finite length, lean backwards. He also pointed out that for a SEN specimen only those fractures initiated from initial notches short enough to cause the isochromatic fringes to lean forward, run straight for any appreciable distance before deviating to one side or another. The work described in Section 3.3 of this study, leads to the same conclusions.

The isochromatics behaviour already described, only shows the changes that are occurring in σ_1 and σ_2 . With this as background, it can be stated that the conditions that govern directional stability change as the crack extends, and this is whether or not the specimen and loading conditions remain symmetric. This aspect will be discussed further in Chapter 7.

A further point can be made by means of the following discussion, supposing that a SEN specimen is being analysed, and that in order to determine the stresses, the Williams' series is to be used. To start with, only transverse load is applied i.e. load parallel to the crack, and it is perfectly symmetrical so, under this loading, there will not be any stress singularities, i.e. $A_1 = B_1 = 0$ (A_1 and B_1 are symmetrical and antisymmetrical coefficients in the Williams' series), the A_2 coefficient will

have a value which when multiplied by $F(\theta)$ should describe the transverse stress, and higher order terms have zero value coefficients. The next step is to introduce mode I and/or mode II behaviour. This will introduce a singularity and also the A_2 coefficient will be modified, its full value being the addition of the effects of each load, but it will still determine the value of σ_x and so could define (through $\sigma_y/\sigma_x > 1$ Cotterell, 1970) directional stability. So it can be said that the second coefficient in the series is very important because its value is directly related with σ_x at the crack tip, and the already discussed changes in the stress field, are depicted by any change in this second coefficient.

4.5 <u>Directional Stability of Crack Propagation and Proposed</u> Criteria

It is thought that a factor of considerable importance in the process of fracture under arbitrary loading conditions, is the determination of the path of crack extension. The aim of this part of the work is to investigate proposed criteria for directional stability of crack propagation, mainly under mode I although some aspects of mode II will be tackled as well.

The bibliographical material which has been reviewed, as well as personal work, has led this author to think that the direction of crack propagation aspect of the fracture process, could be depicted as follows.

There are two types of conditions that influence the fracture process. (a) Global conditions - such as geometry, loading, material, environment, etc. and (b) local conditions - such as flaws and material imperfections encountered in the neighbourhood of the fracture path. The former can be modelled mathematically and the crack behaviour is predictable, the latter cannot be predicted (unless by statistical analysis), as they could be thought of as accidental elements in a material's structure and as such they are unpredictable. Taking this into consideration, the process of propagation of the crack could be described as:

(1) Geometry, loading, material, environment, etc., establish global conditions which in the first instance determine, in a general way, where the crack will go.

(2) As the loading process takes place (either displacement or load), local conditions become apparent. These are a consequence of imperfections, and modify the stress field in the neighbourhood of the crack tip.

(3) When the condition in which the stress in the material is equal to the critical fracture stress (material's toughness), the material separates and the fracture advances until its tip reaches a point in which arresting conditions exist, i.e. the stress level in the material is lower than the material's toughness, so crack propagation stops.

(4) If, under (3), global conditions dominate, the crack will extend in a prescribed way, a predictable path, according to Cotterell (1966) class I fracture and stop. If the local conditions are the ones that dominate, the crack will propagate in a random direction (most probably towards the imperfection), in a class II fracture and stop.

(5) Once it has stopped, global conditions for the new general geometry are settled and a new process for further crack propagation starts.

Regarding global and local conditions, there are some factors that are known to influence this global condition. i.e. specimen dimensions (for SEN specimens, the square ones have a better directional stability than the long ones), grooving is another geometrical influence, and stressing (compression) the specimen longitudinally to the crack surface has a stabilising effect as well. Up to now, the quantification of this directional stability has not been fully achieved, however, it is perfectly clear that there are experimental conditions which can set up a greater degree of directional stability i.e. in reference to a $\sigma_{\mathbf{x}}$ stress (by this it is meant the magnitude of the transverse stress set up within the specimen because of the application of a compressive load parallel to the crack) the higher it is, the longer the crack runs straight, so even if limits are not numerically quantified, it can certainly be established that a specimen is highly stable (concerning direction of crack propagation) under certain experimental conditions.

According to this and in relation with directional stability of the extension process, in point (1) above, the global condition at the start of an experiment could be

- (a) highly stable
- (b) stable

(c) unstable.

For case (a), when (2) operates, two different situations could develope:-

(i) the local condition could not be such as to overcome the global one, so the crack runs straight;

(ii) the local condition is such that it overcomes the..</li

Once it has stopped, new global conditions become apparent and, as the initial global conditions were highly stable, most probably the new ones are still highly stable and the crack will tend to come back to the original path.

For case (b), when (2) operates, two different situations could develop:-

(i) The crack runs straight unless a local condition becomes apparent.

(ii) Any small local condition overcomes the global one and the crack runs away from the straight path. As the crack just was/stable, any change in direction will make it more unstable and it will keep changing for the worse.

For case (c), when (2) operates, the crack will only become more and more unstable.

It has been pointed out that it is extremely difficult to predict local conditions, however this is not especially relevant as this author's view is that, regardless of what the local con ditions are, global conditions are the main factors that control crack path and if these conditions can be kept highly stable, the crack will continue its extension in the original direction. So, the first step under this part of the work should be to establish roughly which are the parameters that govern global conditions, so that in a second step they can be quantified.

In the past, different criteria for directional stability have been put forward, here it is intended to do some work on two of these approaches, although only the first step already mentioned will be covered.

It is proposed:-

 To investigate the roll of the second coefficient of the William's series, as a parameter defining directional stability.
 To use the values determined for the coefficients in the Williams' series, and apply to the SEN specimen the criteria proposed by (a) Williams and Ewing (1972) i.e. determination of a critical stress at a core radius, (b) Sih (1973) i.e. determination of the critical Strain Energy Density Factor S.

Further discussion on this topic is to be done in Section 6.5.

CHAPTER 5

THE WILLIAMS' STRESS FUNCTION AND ITS APPLICATION TO THE SINGLE EDGE PLATE SPECIMEN

In this chapter the basic problem of analysis of a crack tip stress field is being examined by means of the Williams stress series. The main steps to develop a computer program for obtaining the values of higher order coefficients are discussed, and work on the testing of this program is done by comparing results with former work carried out by other researchers.

5.1 <u>The Coefficients of the Williams' Stress Series as Parameters</u> Characterising the Behaviour of Cracked Specimens

Williams (1957) obtained the function

$$\begin{split} \chi(r_{1}\psi) &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left\{ (-1)^{n-1} A_{2n-1} r^{n+\frac{1}{2}} \right. \\ &\left[-\cos(n-3/2)\psi + \frac{2n-3}{2n+1} \cos(n+\frac{1}{2})\psi \right] \\ &+ (-1)^{n} A_{2n} r^{n+1} \left[-\cos(n-1)\psi + \cos(n+1)\psi \right] \right\} \\ &+ \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left\{ (-1)^{n-1} B_{2n-1} r^{n+\frac{1}{2}} \right. \tag{5.1.1} \\ &\left[\sin(n-3/2)\psi - \sin(n+\frac{1}{2})\psi \right] \\ &+ (-1)^{n} B_{2n} r^{n+1} \left[-\sin(n-1)\psi + \frac{n-1}{n+1} \sin(n+1)\psi \right] \right\} \end{split}$$

from which a complete stress field description in a crack tip neighbourhood can be obtained; in Section 5.2 it will be shown how the expressions for σ_r , σ_{θ} and $\sigma_{r\theta}$ are arrived at from the expression given. Other researchers working in this field have obtained conclusions presented hereafter. Cotterell (1965) in analysing the symmetric terms of the stress field (mode I only) defined two classes of fracture, this was done by taking into consideration the way a crack behaves.

<u>Class I</u>, Fractures that, when they deviate from the ideal path, straight ahead of the crack (for mode I) have a tendency to return to the original path.

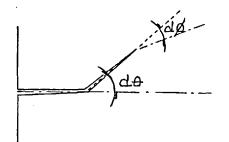
<u>Class II</u>. Fractures that have the tendency to continue to deviate from the ideal path.

Later on, Cotterell (1966) showed that the first term of this series determines the stress intensity factor generally accepted to control the initiation of fracture in a brittle material and the second controls stability of the crack direction; stability of crack propagation is controlled by the third term, and the fourth term determines whether the maximum shear stress on the prolongation of the crack increases or decreases with distance from the crack tip. In his study he considers a distance "\$" from the original crack tip to a point in which the extended crack is to have its new crack tip, and through a mathematical analysis obtains the expression

$$d\theta = \left[1 - \frac{4}{\pi} \left(\frac{A_2}{A_1}\right) \left(\frac{S}{\ell}\right)^2\right] d\emptyset \qquad (5.1.2)$$

which relates the original angle of crack propagation d0 and the angle of further extension d0, establishing that if A_2 is negative then d0 > d0 (see Fig.5.1) and the fracture has the tendency to return to its original path, however, it seems some cases could not be fully accounted for with this criterion. According to Cotterell the fact of A_2 being negative means that the crack goes back to its original direction, if the case of a straight notch is analysed, it is supposed that crack extension has taken place from say point "a" to point "b", and the A_2 value obtained here is to be applied to equation 5.1.2, so if A_2 is positive, then $d\theta > d\emptyset$ and the crack is unstable and runs away from the original direction.

If A_2 is negative, then dØ is different from d θ so that the crack should also run away, and finally when $A_2 = 0$, $d\emptyset = d\theta = 0$ and the crack continues running straight this discrepancy could be viewed as an exception. It will be shown that the A2 value for specimens with very small straight cracks, in a symmetric stress field, is very near zero, but as the crack advances a situation develops in which the A_2^2 value becomes positive, even though the crack keeps going straight, i.e. the crack becomes unstable. The fact that the specimen and loading are still symmetric, should be the only factor that makes the crack keep to the original path, and theoretically there is no other influence affecting this behaviour so there should not be any change in crack direction. Experimentally, the picture is quite different, any material has flaws and imperfections which are physical factors that affect the local stress field at the crack tip neighbourhood, and as directional stability is very weak, any small change of the stress field could drive the crack tip away from the original path and the crack obtained is depicted below.



The analysis for this configuration will be that given by Cotterell i.e. if $A_2 = 0$, $d\emptyset = d\theta$ and the crack in the next extension will follow a path parallel to the original one, if $A_2 =$ negative, $d\emptyset > d\theta$ and the next increment in crack extension is going back to the original direction, and finally if $A_2 =$ positive, $d\emptyset < d\theta$ and on further increments of crack extension the crack goes further away from the original crack.

Results from further work made by Cotterell (1970) on specimens that exhibited directionally stable crack paths, made him conclude that equation (5.1.2) seems to fail to give a reasonable prediction of the stability of the path. However, this author in trying to reproduce Cotterell's work noticed a small error in his approach, this is reported in Section 5.6.

Examination of the expressions for stresses shows that the sign of the coefficient A_2 is directly related to the transverse stress (parallel to the initial crack) applied to the specimen, being negative whenever a compressive transverse stress is present at the crack tip. Other workers, Benbow and Roesler (1957), Guernsey and Gilmain (1961), Larsson and Carlsson (1973), have shown experimentally this relationship.

In relation to the antisymmetric terms, the first term is also directly related to the stress intensity factor but in mode II, while the coefficient B_2 turns out to be of no great interest here in that it represents a rigid rotation term in the series for displacements and does not appear in the expressions for stress.

The present chapter will be focussed on the determination of the second and higher order coefficients of the series expansion as applied to practical cases so that a relation between experimental work and the value of the coefficients can be established or otherwise. A secondary objective to keep under consideration is to study the influence of higher order terms on crack behaviour.

5.2 Definition of the Stress Field from the Williams Series

In order to define the equations expressing the stress field, it was necessary, under the approach being described here, to obtain expressions for the displacements "u" and "v", the mathematical development shown in Appendix 5a was done by Professor J.L. Swedlow (1974); it was obtained $2\mu u = \int \{ (-1)^{n-1} A_{2n-1} r^{n-\frac{1}{2}} [-(k+n-3/2)\cos(n-\frac{1}{2})\psi + (n-\frac{1}{2})\cos(n-5/2)\psi]$ + $(-1)^{n} A_{2n} r^{n} [-(k+n+1)\cos n\psi + n\cos(n-2)\psi]$ + $(-1)^{n-1}B_{2n-1}r^{n-\frac{1}{2}}[(k+n+\frac{1}{2})Sin(n-\frac{1}{2})\psi - (n-\frac{1}{2})Sin(n-5/2)\psi]$ + $(-1)^{n}B_{2n}r^{n}[-(k+n-1)\sin n\psi + n\sin(n-2)\psi]$ } Sint (5.2.1) $2\mu \quad v = \int \left\{ (-1)^{n-1} A_{2n-1} r^{n-\frac{1}{2}} \left[-(k+3/2-n) \sin(n-\frac{1}{2}) \psi - (n-\frac{1}{2}) \sin(n-5/2) \psi \right] \right\}$ + $(-1)^{n} A_{2n} r^{n} [-(k-1-n) \sin n\psi - n \sin(n-2)\psi]$ + $(-1)^{n-1}B_{2n-1}r^{n-\frac{1}{2}}[-(k-n-\frac{1}{2})\cos(n-\frac{1}{2})\psi - (n-\frac{1}{2})\cos(n-5/2)\psi]$ + $(-1)^{n}B_{2n}r^{n}[(k-n+1)\cos n\psi + n\cos(n-2)\psi]$ } Cos ψ (5.2.2) where $k = \frac{3-\nu}{1+\nu}$ for plane stress, and $k = 3-4\nu$ for plane strain, v is Poisson's ratio, and n is the number of terms being

considered in the expansion of the Williams' function. The procedure to obtain $\{\sigma\}$ is to find

$$\varepsilon_{x} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}$$

$$\varepsilon_{y} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial Y}$$

$$(5.2.3)$$

$$(xy) = \frac{\partial u}{\partial Y} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$$

from these

$$\sigma_{\mathbf{x}} = \alpha \varepsilon_{\mathbf{x}} + \beta \varepsilon_{\mathbf{y}}$$

$$\sigma_{\mathbf{y}} = \beta \varepsilon_{\mathbf{x}} + \alpha \varepsilon_{\mathbf{y}}$$

$$\sigma_{\mathbf{xy}} = \mu \gamma_{\mathbf{xy}}$$
(5.2.4)

and finally

$$\sigma_{r} = \frac{\sigma_{x} + \sigma_{y}}{2} + \frac{\sigma_{x} - \sigma_{y}}{2} \cos 2\psi + \sigma_{xy} \sin 2\psi$$
$$\sigma_{\psi} = \frac{\sigma_{x} + \sigma_{y}}{2} + \frac{\sigma_{x} - \sigma_{y}}{2} \cos 2\psi - \sigma_{xy} \sin 2\psi$$
$$\sigma_{x\psi} = \frac{\sigma_{y}}{2} \sin 2\psi - \frac{\sigma_{x}}{2} \sin 2\psi + \sigma_{xy} \cos 2\psi$$

This was done as shown in Appendix 5b, where only the derivation of σ_r is shown; the whole expressions for the values of σ_r , σ_{θ} and $\sigma_{r\theta}$ arrived at by the procedure described, are given in Section 4.3, Equations 4.3.3, 4.3.4 and 4.3.5. Having obtained these relationships, it is possible to develop an approach for the determination of the coefficient values as described in Section 5.4.

5.3 <u>Value of the Coefficients and their Influence on the Stress</u>

Field

In order to examine the influence of the different coefficients on the stress field, it was decided to start with a symmetric specimen. Many different researchers have reported the fact that when a SEN specimen is cracked, directional instability becomes apparent even though loading and geometric conditions are perfectly symmetrical. It can be shown experimentally, that the application of symmetric opening loads on the cleavage specimen produces patterns that although symmetrical, present local maxima ahead of the tip, which are away from the crack plane, and these local maxima are the ones which are responsible for direction of crack extension. A brief mathematical description of the behaviour of the specimen, once this local maximum becomes apparent, is given hereafter.

Consider σ as given by the first three terms of the stress series, i.e.

$$\sigma = \frac{C_1}{4r_2^1} (f_1 + f_2) + Cf_3$$
 (5.3.1)

where for σ_r

$$f_1 = [-5 \cos \frac{\psi}{2} + \cos \frac{3\psi}{2}]A_1$$
 (5.3.2)

$$f_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} -5 \sin \frac{\psi}{2} + 3 \sin \frac{3\psi}{2} \end{bmatrix} B_{1}$$
 (5.3.3)

$$f_3 = 2(1+\cos 2\psi)A_2$$
 (5.3.4)

and for σ_{θ}

+

$$F_{1} = \left[-3\cos\frac{\psi}{2} - \cos\frac{3\psi}{2}\right]A_{1}$$
 (5.3.5)

$$f_2 = [3 \sin \frac{\psi}{2} - 3\sin \frac{3\psi}{2}]B_1$$
 (5.3.6)

$$f_3 = 2(1 - \cos 2\psi)A_2$$
 (5.3.7)

The coefficient ^B₁ has been included here. This term is an antisymmetric one, that is, its value is zero if symmetry in loading and geometry exists, but it has to be pointed out that the criteria being discussed here, establish that the stress conditions in the neighbourhood of the crack tip are the ones that determine the direction of crack propagation (experimentally it is possible that local anisotropies exist) and if there is a local anistropy away from the axis of symmetry, the crack would initially propagate towards this anisotropy as it is a stress concentrator. This fact makes the value of B, for the new condition, become different from zero as the specimen is not a symmetric one any more, and it is then that the value of the A 2 coefficient would determine if the crack goes back to the initial path or otherwise.

A further point to be made (and it will be proved later) is that as both opening load and specimen geometry establish the values for all the coefficients of the stress series, for most cases (with no transverse load) the coefficient A, is positive, (this is because it is proportional to the transverse stress at the crack tip. Whenever this stress is a tension, A, is positive and otherwise). This means local instability, that is, there is a high possibility that if the crack deviates, it will not go back to its initial path. Furthermore, to start with, the coefficients being calculated are for the straight crack; once it propagates the crack tip has got a new position and the value of $\frac{A}{2}$ has to change. The view is taken that if initial propagation is along the ideal path, the value of the coefficient would be that one which is the least unstable for the conditions given. But as loading and geometry establish the initial value for the coefficient, if this value means instability to start with, then any propagation away from the axis of symmetry will make it more unstable and even if this initial value is just above the one for stability, the new conditions could bring it to instability. So if directional stability is desired, an initial condition in which a high directional stability exists is sought in order that, when crack extension puts the crack tip away from the ideal path, there is still directional stability and the crack tends to go back to the initial path.

In looking at numerical values for the stresses, Fig.5.2(a,b,c) show plots of the functions f_1 , f_2 , f_3 and in Fig.5.2(d,e,f) is depicted another function resulting from the addition of the former three under different conditions. For selecting these conditions certain fixed values of coefficients A_1 , B_1 and A_2 have been chosen in order to substantiate the point; of course for real cases the relationship among them will depend on factors such as geometry, loading conditions, boundaries, etc.

Fig.5.2(d,e,f) show the influence A_2 and B_1 have on the stress field and the position of its maximum. Different combinations of coefficients are shown for $\sigma\psi$. To start with, a hypothetical case in which only $(f_1 + f_2)$ Fig.5.2(d) is considered; a fixed curve which will be called initial condition is then obtained. When during an experiment, natural conditions arise that change crack path, its influence is shown by a change on the coefficient value, so that one of the functions becomes dominant; supposing that:

- (a) Coefficient ^A is dominant. Then the maximum on the curve 1 approximates to $\psi = 0$.
- (b) Coefficient B₁ is dominant. The maximum on the curve moves towards $\psi = \emptyset_1$.
- (c) When initial conditions are set under A_1 , B_1 a local maximum exists and if the third function is considered, its effect is to move this local maximum either away from $\psi = 0$ if A_2 is positive or towards $\psi = 0$ when its value is negative. This is shown in Fig.5.2e for A_2 positive and Fig. 5.2(f) for A_2 negative.

This brief discussion has been restricted to some of the first terms but of course each term makes its contribution and

will in turn have an effect on this maximum and its position; how significant this effect is, will depend mainly on the values of "r" and the coefficients.

5.4 General Problem, Its Solution and Programming

It has been shown that it is required to identify higher terms in the series representation of stresses at the crack tip. The aim of this section is to describe the work done in order to obtain these coefficients, so that

- (a) Former work on the significance of the second coefficient`is confirmed or otherwise.
- (b) Further research on the implications of the second and higher order terms can be made.
- (c) Numerical analysis on different specimen configurations can be done, as it is expected to determine optimum specimen dimensions and conditions to carry on experimental work on direction of crack propagation.

The information in hand is

$$\chi(r, \psi) = \chi_{e}(r, \psi) + \chi_{o}(r, \psi)$$
 (5.4.1)

in which the even and odd terms of this series can be represented by

$$\chi_{e}(r, \psi) = \sum_{n=1,2,3..} \{ (-1)^{n-1} A_{2n-1} r^{n+\frac{1}{2}} [-\cos(n-3/2)\psi + \frac{2n-3}{2n+1} \cos(n+\frac{1}{2})\psi] + [(-1)^{n} A_{2n} r^{n+1} [-\cos(n-1)\psi + \cos(n+1)\psi] \}$$
(5.4.2)

and

$$\begin{split} \chi_{0}(\mathbf{r},\psi) &= \sum_{n=1,2,3..} \left\{ (-1)^{n-1} B_{2n-1} \mathbf{r}^{n+\frac{1}{2}} \left[\sin(n-3/2)\psi - \sin(n+\frac{1}{2})\psi \right] \right. \\ &+ (-1)^{n} B_{2n} \mathbf{r}^{n+1} \left[-\sin(n-3/2)\psi + \frac{n-1}{n+1} \sin(n+1)\psi \right] \, \} \quad (5.4.3) \end{split}$$

It is sought to find a function

$$\zeta = \iint_{A} \operatorname{Wrdrd} \psi - \int_{s_{\sigma}} t_{i} u_{i} ds \qquad (5.4.4)$$

in terms of the coefficients "A" and "B", and it is required that ζ

is stationary (a minimum) with respect to the coefficients. For doing this it is necessary, at any point, to define the stress $\{\sigma\}$, this can be done as described in Section 4.3 where

$$\{\sigma\} = \begin{cases} \sigma_{r} \\ \sigma_{\psi} \\ \sigma_{r\psi} \end{cases} so \{\sigma\}^{T} = [\sigma_{r} \sigma_{\psi} \sigma_{r\psi}]$$
(5.4.5)

the coefficients for the series can be represented as

$$\{A\} = \begin{cases} A_1 \\ B_1 \\ A_2 \\ B_2 \\ \vdots \end{cases}$$
 (5.4.6)

and it is known as well that

$$\{\sigma\} = [\emptyset(r, \psi)]\{A\}$$
 (5.4.7)

or.

$$[\sigma] = [\phi] \{A\}$$
 (5.4.7a)

and

$$W = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \sigma \right\}^{\mathrm{T}} \left\{ \varepsilon \right\}$$
 (5.4.8)

where

$$\{\varepsilon\} = [C] \{\sigma\}$$
; being $[C] = cte$ (5.4.9)

or

$$W = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ A \right\}^{T} \left[\varphi \right]^{T} \left[C \right] \left[\varphi \right] \left\{ A \right\}$$
 (5.4.9a)

it is also known that

$$u = \iint Wrdrd\psi$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \{A\}^{T} \iint_{A} [\phi]^{T} [C] [\phi] rdrd\psi \{A\} \quad (5.4.10)$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \{A\}^{T} [B] \{A\}$$

and it has been shown (Appendix 5a)

$$u = \frac{1}{2\mu} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left\{ (-1)^{n-1} A_{2n-1} r^{n-\frac{1}{2}} [-(k+n-3/2)\cos(n-\frac{1}{2})\psi + (n-\frac{1}{2})\cos(n-5/3)\psi] + (-1)^{n-1} B_{2n-1} r^{n-\frac{1}{2}} [(k+n+\frac{1}{2})\sin(n-\frac{1}{2})\psi - (n-\frac{1}{2})\sin(n-5/2)\psi] + (-1)^{n} A_{2n} r^{n} [-(k+n+1)\cos n\psi + n \cos(n-2)\psi] + (-1)^{n} B_{2n} r^{n} [-(k+n-1)\sin n\psi + n \sin(n-2)\psi] \right\} (5.4.11)$$

$$v = \frac{1}{2\mu} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left\{ (-1)^{n-1} A_{2n-1} r^{n-\frac{1}{2}} \left[-(k-n+3/2) \sin(n-\frac{1}{2}) \psi - (n-\frac{1}{2}) \sin(n-5/2) \psi \right] \right. \\ \left. + (-1)^{n-1} B_{2n-1} r^{n-\frac{1}{2}} \left[-(k-n-\frac{1}{2}) \cos(n-\frac{1}{2}) \psi - (n-\frac{1}{2}) \cos(n-5/2) \psi \right] \right. \\ \left. + (-1)^{n} A_{2n} r^{n} \left[-(k-1-n) \sin n \psi - n \sin(n-2) \psi \right] \right. \\ \left. + (-1)^{n} B_{2n} r^{n} \left[(k-n+1) \cos n \psi + n \cos(n-2) \psi \right] \right\}$$

$$(5.4.11a)$$

or
$$\{u\} = \{u\} = [\theta(r, \psi)] \{A\}$$
 (5.4.11b)

and specifying stresses on the specimen surface as tractions

$$\left\{ t \right\} = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} t \\ t \\ y \end{array} \right\}$$
 (5.4.12)

$$\int_{s_{\sigma}} t_{i} u_{i} ds = \int_{s_{\sigma}} \{t\}^{T} [\theta] \{A\} ds$$
$$= \int_{s_{\sigma}} \{t\}^{T} [\theta] ds \{A\} = \{R'\}^{T} \{A\}$$
(5.4.12a)

so

$$\zeta = \frac{1}{2} \{A\}^{T} [B] \{A\} - \{R\}^{T} \{A\}$$
(5.4)

and by differentiating with respect to $\{A\}$ in order to minimise, it is obtained

$$[B] \{A\} - \{R\} = 0 \qquad (5.4.13)$$

The computer implementation of the program shown in Appendix 5c, used to obtain the solution to Equation (5.4.13), was developed using a finite difference method applied to the Taylor series.

In this program, subroutine SET UP obtains BVEC as

$$BVEC = \int D.BDYLD.ds \qquad (5.4.14)$$
$$BVEC = [B]$$

where

specimen

BDYLD = Tractions applied to the specimen boundary

points '

The numerical calculations within the program are actually done as

BVEC[NTRM] = Σ D[NBPT,NTRM].BDYLD[I,NBPT]

Where NTRM is the number of terms being considered in the expansion of the Williams' series

NBPT is the number of boundary stations along the edges of the specimen. (Fig.5.3)

I is equal to 1 or 2, depending on the applied specimen traction being considers [1 for x, and 2 for \dot{y} traction].

The matrix D (displacements) is obtained as described in Appendix 5a and is given as

$$D(I, N-3) = (-1)^{n-1} r^{n-\frac{1}{2}} [(n-3/2-k)\sin(n-\frac{1}{2})\psi - (n-\frac{1}{2})\sin(n-5/2)\psi] Cos\psi + [(n-3/2+k)\cos(n-\frac{1}{2})\psi - (n-\frac{1}{2})\cos(n-5/2)\psi] Sin\psi BDYLD(M,N)$$
$$D(I, N-2) = (-1)^{n-1} r^{n-\frac{1}{2}} [(n+\frac{1}{2}-k)\cos(n-\frac{1}{2})\psi - (n-\frac{1}{2})\cos(n-5/2)\psi] Cos\psi$$

$$= [(n+\frac{1}{2}+k)\sin(n-\frac{1}{2})\psi - (n-\frac{1}{2})\sin(n-5/2)\psi]\sin\psi\}BDYLD(M,N)$$

$$D(I,N-1) = (-1)^{n}r^{n} [(n+1-k)\sin\psi - \sin(n-2)\psi]Cos\psi$$

$$+ [(n+1+k)Cos\psi - Cos(n-2)\psi]Sin\psi\}BDYLD(M,N)$$

$$D(I,N) = (-1)^{n}r^{n} [(n-1-k)Cos\psi - Cos(n-2)\psi]Cos\psi$$

$$- [(n-1+k)Sin\psi - Sin(n-2)\psi]Sin\psi BDYLD(M,N) (5.4.15)$$

and

$$BDYLD(I,N) = t(I,N)/E'$$
 (5.4.16)

where N = number of the boundary station

n = number of coefficients being considered

E' = E(1 + v)

 (r, ψ) = Polar coordinates at which stresses are evaluated.

With relation to the actual application of the finite difference method to this problem, the main points are described below.

To start with, a certain number of boundary points are chosen along the stressed boundaries, representing this boundary by the straight line shown below:

$$\begin{array}{c} & \Delta \mathfrak{l} & \Delta \mathfrak{r} \\ \hline \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{p} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{q} & \mathbf{k} & \mathbf{j} \\ \end{array}$$
Let $\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{k}} - \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{j}} = \Delta \mathbf{r} & \Delta \mathbf{r} + \Delta \mathfrak{k} = \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{k}} - \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{j}} \\ \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{j}} - \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{i}} = \Delta \mathfrak{k} & \Delta \mathbf{r} - \Delta \mathfrak{k} = \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{k}} - 2\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{j}} + \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{i}} \\ \end{array}$
The Taylor's series are given as
$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{j}}) + \Delta \mathbf{x} f'(\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{j}}) + \frac{1}{2} \Delta \mathbf{x}^2 f''(\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{j}}) + \frac{1}{6} \Delta \mathbf{x}^3 f'''(\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{j}}) \mathbf{t} \dots (5.4.17)$$
from which, for consecutive points $\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j}, \mathbf{k}$

$$f_{\mathbf{k}} = f_{\mathbf{j}} + \Delta \mathbf{x} f'_{\mathbf{j}} + \frac{1}{2} \Delta \mathfrak{k}^2 f''_{\mathbf{j}} + \frac{1}{6} \Delta \mathbf{x}^3 f'''_{\mathbf{j}} + \cdots \\ f_{\mathbf{j}} = f_{\mathbf{j}} & (5.4.18) \\ f_{\mathbf{i}} = f_{\mathbf{j}} - \Delta \mathfrak{k} f'_{\mathbf{j}} + \frac{1}{2} \Delta \mathfrak{k}^2 f''_{\mathbf{j}} - \frac{1}{6} \Delta \mathfrak{k}^3 f'''_{\mathbf{j}} \cdots \\ \text{considering these functions up to the second term only,} \\ (1) & \mathbf{a} f_{\mathbf{k}} + \mathbf{b} f_{\mathbf{j}} + \mathbf{c} f_{\mathbf{i}} = f'_{\mathbf{j}} & (5.4.19) \\ \text{is obtained} & \Delta \mathfrak{k} \\ \text{where} & \mathbf{a} = \frac{\Delta \mathfrak{k}}{\Delta \mathbf{r} (\Delta \mathbf{r} + \Delta \mathfrak{k})} \\ \mathbf{b} = -\frac{\Delta k}{\Delta k} (\Delta \mathbf{r} + \Delta \mathfrak{k})} & (5.4.20) \\ \mathbf{c} = \frac{\Delta \mathbf{r} - \Delta \lambda}{\Delta t \Delta \Delta} \\ \text{and} & \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c} = \mathbf{0}; \ \Delta \mathbf{r} \mathbf{a} - \Delta \mathfrak{k} \mathbf{c} = \mathbf{1}; \ \Delta \mathbf{r}^2 \mathbf{a} + \Delta \mathfrak{k}^2 \mathbf{c} = \mathbf{0} \\ (2) & \mathbf{a} f_{\mathbf{k}} + \mathbf{b} f_{\mathbf{j}} + \mathbf{c} f_{\mathbf{i}} = f''_{\mathbf{j}} & (5.4.21) \\ \text{where} \\ \mathbf{a} = \frac{1}{\Delta \mathbf{r} (\Delta \mathbf{r} + \Delta \mathfrak{k})} \\ \mathbf{b} = -\frac{1}{\Delta r \Delta k} & (5.4.22) \\ \mathbf{c} = \frac{1}{\Delta k (\Delta \mathbf{r} + \Delta k)} \\ \text{In cutting the Taylor series to the second derivative, it can be}$$

In cutting the Taylor series to the second derivative, it can be demonstrated that the error obtained in evaluating the function, is proportional to Δ^4 .

The former equations have slightly different applications along the specimen boundary, i.e.

- (a) First station.
- (b) Intermediate stations.
- (c) Last station.

For first station the analysis is applied to

$$f_{q} = F_{o} = f_{1}(\Delta \ell - \frac{3\Delta r}{8} + \frac{4\Delta x^{2}}{8\Delta r}) + f_{2}(\frac{\Delta r}{8} - \frac{\Delta \ell^{2}}{2\Delta r})$$
(5.4.23)

and the correspondance between the former work on D and this is

$$f_1 = D(1,j); \quad f_2 = D(2,j)$$

For intermediate stations

(b)

$$\Delta l$$

$$\Delta r$$

$$F_{q} - F_{p} = f_{1}(1/48\Delta l)(-5\Delta l^{2} + 5\Delta r\Delta l + \Delta l^{2})$$

$$+ f_{k}(1/48\Delta r)(\Delta r^{2} + 5\Delta r\Delta l - 5\Delta l^{2}) \quad (5.4.24)$$

$$+ f_{1}(1/48\Delta r\Delta l)(5\Delta r^{3} + 18\Delta r^{2}\Delta l + 18\Delta r\Delta l^{2} + 5\Delta l^{3})$$

where

 $f_{i} = D(N-1,j); f_{j} = D(N,j); f_{k} = D(N + 1,j)$

and finally for the last station

where $f_{(n-1)} = D(M-1,j)$ and $f_{(n-2)} = D(M-2,j)$ and M = total number of boundary stations.

So expression (5.4.15) is implemented and solved by means of subroutine SOLVER, and applied to obtain values of the coefficients A_n, B_n .

5.5 Test Cases, Results and Comparison against Methods

Already in Use

Convergence test for program ANGCRK.

In applied mathematics, it is quite common to initialise the process of obtaining the solution to a problem, by starting with an approximate solution which does not quite satisfy the boundary conditions and then adjusting it until it does. In the science of Fracture Mechanics, this process has been called "boundary collocation", and the solution already described in Section 5.4 is a kind of boundary collocation technique in the sense that the data that are being considered for the solution of the problemare the applied loads on points at the boundaries of the specimen.

For the boundary collocation methods, there is no general proof for their convergence, thus it does not necessarily follow that the terms in the series expansion stabilise as the number of terms increase, so the accuracy of solution to a given problem can only be estimated by repeating the analysis for an increasing number of boundary points until the change in value of the terms become insignificant. Convergence within the present work was tested as follows:-

(a) convergence with respect to the number of terms in the series;(b) convergence against the number of boundary stations.

The actual value of the coefficients A_n for the stress series, depends on the number of coefficients considered in solving the system of equations. As the number of terms is increased the real value of the coefficient is approached. To find out which value is the correct one, the curve (A_n vs n) should be plotted and stabilisation looked for. Another way to approximate the real value is by fixing a ΔA_n for successive values of

the number of terms. This was done and 20 terms proved to be an acceptable value.

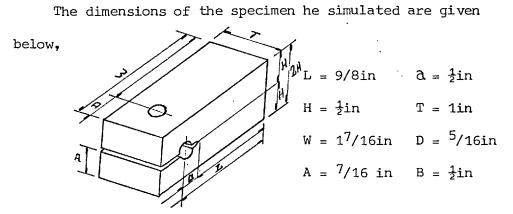
Fig. 5.4 shows the convergence curve for A_1 and $K_1/P\sqrt{\pi a}$ obtained for two different specimens, i.e. 2.2 x 1.0 x 0.3*l* as in Gross (1964), and 12.0 x 1.0 x 0.3*l* as in Benbow (1957). It can immediately be seen that for a relationship *l/W* small, the value of the coefficient A_1 stabilises quite well for a small number of boundary stations. This is not so for the specimen 12.0 x 1.0 x 0.3*l*, which requires approximately 200 boundary points to stabilise.

A whole range of crack lengths, to simulate Gross' work (1966) was run and results are reported in Table 5.1. The values obtained with the present method agree completely with those by Gross.

Finally on the same topic, specimens with dimensions 12.0 x 1.0, 8.0 x 1.0, 6.0 x 1.0, 4.0 x 1.0, 2.2 x 1.0, and crack lengths 0.3 ℓ were simulated for 198 NBPT (NBPT = number of boundary points), the value of the parameter $K_{I}/P \sqrt{\pi a}$ was calculated as described later on within this Section 5.5, and results are shown in Table 5.2. For all cases, the results from the present method are between those obtained by Gross (1964) and the ones obtained by Hayes (1970).

Test cases, results and comparison against other methods already in use. Once a test for convergence was made, different cases were chosen to test the program developed. Work done by Wilson (1965), Gross et al (1964) and Hayes (1970) was taken as a reference.

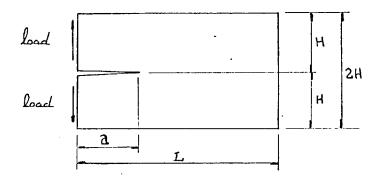
W.K. Wilson (1965) used a collocation method and the Muskhelishvilli complex variable method to determine the stress intensity factor for the standard Manjoine specimen, and compared his results against those obtained from an experimental compliance method.



and three different cases were considered, i.e.

Case 1. H/L = 0.444 and a/L = 0.3472. H/L = 0.444 and a/L = 0.4443. H/L = 0.444 and a/L = 0.587

The shape for a bidimensional computer simulation becomes



With a constant unit width and either plane stress or plane strain defining the state of stress, only dimension "d" is to be altered for each case simulated. The values of 'd" are

 $a_1 = 0.39, \quad a_2 = 0.5, \quad a_3 = 0.661$

The three cases were set on program ANGCRK and the values of the first coefficient of the Williams series, stress intensity factor ($K_{I} = -A_{1}\sqrt{2}$), and dimensionless parameter ($K_{I}\sqrt{d/P}$) obtained were,

	<u>Case 1</u>	Case 2	Case 3
A 1	- 12.261	- 14.883	- 21.615
ĸŢ	17.33	21.05	30.55
K _I √c/P	10.82	14.89	24.80

The load used for the simulation carried out under the present work was 100lb. As this value (P) appears as an inverse factor on the values given in Wilson's paper, it is necessary to consider the relationship between any of the above values and the corresponding one in Wilson's paper, say the second case; so

6.305/14.89 = 0.424

Using this factor for the three cases:-

Case 1 = 10.82 x 0.424 = 4.59; Case 2 14.89 x 0.424 = 6.305; Case 3 24.8 x 0.424 = 10.52 which can be compared with Wilson's values as shown in Table 5.3 where D_{IF_1} is the difference encountered between the complex method and the collocation method, while DIF_2 is the difference of the complex method against results obtained with program ANGCRK. As can be seen the differences are within the same limits and so it can be concluded that the present computational approach is an acceptable one. It has to be pointed out, as well, that Wilson's results are backed by experimental work which is reported in ASTM 410.

Hayes (1970) using a finite element technique obtained the stress intensity factors for a series of plate length to width ratios of 2.0, 4.0 and 6.0. It was decided to simulate this work and the results obtained are shown in Fig. 5.5. A dimensionless parameter (K^2W/P^2) is applied to the results for the present work. Gross et al (1964) mention that for their work, "P" is the load per unit thickness, this point is not very clear as the approach is bidimensional and supposes a unit thickness. In analysing results, it was concluded that this load P, for the program ANGCRK, is the value of the transverse load applied on each one of the boundary points, i.e. per unit width so for specimen 12 x 1, the values of the dimensionless parameter $K_{\rm I}/\sigma\sqrt{\pi a}$ (where $\sigma = P$) are as follows:

NBPT	κ _I	a	Р	$K_{I}/P_{1}\sqrt{\pi a}$
100	2.24	3.6	2.5	0.913
162	2.15	3.6	1.429	1.5603
200	1.94	3.6	1.25	1.604

It can be seen that the value of the dimensionless parameter converges to around 1.6; this is in agreement with Gross' values for his specimen 2.2.x 1.0 and his statement that the curve $[K^2w^2/P^2 vsa/w]$ (equivalent to $[K_T/P\sqrt{\pi a} vs l/d]$ for Haye's cases) can be applied to any l/d value greater than about 0.8. The values obtained by the three different methods are

Gross Hayes Present Method $K_{I}/P\sqrt{\pi a}$ 1.6628 1.5796 1.604 this also seems to indicate that Hayes was right in his statement that the correct value of K_{I} could be somewhere between the values given by Gross and those calculated by him.

5.6 Computer Simulations of Work done by Cotterell

In trying to reproduce work done by B. Cotterell (1970) differences in the results were obtained in the values of the terms corresponding to the coefficients of the power series. In Cotterell's paper the following values are given.

*Table 5.4 gives the whole set of results for different crack lengths.

l/W	A_/(P/D) 1	A ₂ /(P/D)	A ₃ /(P/D)	A_/(P/D) 4
0.2	2.543	0.728	- 1.704	0.156
0.3	2.554	1.444	- 2.826	0.186
0.4	2.775	2.093	- 4.340	0.182
0.5	3.260	2.774	- 6.851	0.180
0.6	4.210	3.564	-12.150	0.448
0.7	6.167	5.296	-26.860	2.250

while the values obtained for computations made with program ANGCRK are

L/W	A ₁ /(P/D)	A ₂ /(P/D)	A ₃ /(p/D)	A ₄ /(P/D)
0.2	2.190	0.241	- 0.693	0.187
0.3	3.295	0.579	- 1.191	0.210
0.4	4.780	0.885	- 1.870	0.194
0.5	7,000	1.187	- 2.950	0.208
0.6	10,800	2.52	-11.580	0.358
0.7	18.230	2.52	-11.580	0.358

Having found this difference in the results, it was noticed that the series presented in Cotterell's paper and that on which program ANGCRK is based, are slightly different, that is:-

 $\sigma_{\theta} \text{ values - the series used within program ANGCRK is given as } r^{n-3/2}(n-\frac{1}{2})[(n+\frac{1}{2})\cos(n-3/2)\psi - (n-3/2)\cos(n+\frac{1}{2})\psi]$ (5.6.1) $r^{n-3/2}(n-\frac{1}{2})[(n+\frac{1}{2})\sin(n-3/2)\psi - (n+\frac{1}{2})\sin(n+\frac{1}{2})\psi]$ (5.6.2) $r^{n-1}n[(n+1)\cos(n-1)\psi - (n+1)\cos(n+1)\psi]$ (5.6.3) $r^{n-1}n[(n+1)\sin(n-1)\psi - (n-1)\sin(n+1)\psi]$ (5.6.4)

۰.

where (5.6.1) and (5.6.3) are the terms corresponding to the symmetric case, i.e. coefficients $A_{1,3,5..}$ and $A_{2,4,6..}$, while (5.6.2) and (5.6.4) are those for the antisymmetric case (coefficients B_1 , B_2).

Taking the symmetric case and substituting values of n = 1,2, the following results are obtained.

Coefficient	Function 🕴	
A ₁	$\frac{1}{4\sqrt{r}} \left[3 \cos \frac{\psi}{2} + \cos \frac{3\psi}{2} \right]$	(5.6.5)
A ₂	$2 \sin^2 \psi = 2(1 - \cos 2\psi)$	(5.6.6)

$$A_3 = \frac{3r^2}{4} \left[3 \cos \frac{\psi}{2} + \cos \frac{5\psi}{2} \right]$$
 (5.6.7)

 $\begin{array}{ccc} A & & & & & & & & \\ A_4 & & & & & & & \\ As shown below all these terms, except the one for A & & & \\ are equal to those given by Cotterell. For A & the terms are:- \end{array}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 \cos \psi + \cos \frac{5\psi}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$
Cotterell's
$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 \cos \frac{\psi}{2} + \cos \frac{5\psi}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$
Program ANGCRK

This difference also exists for σ_r and σ_{rA} .

It is thought that as results obtained with the present method are in full agreement with those obtained by Wilson (1965), Hayes (1970), Gross (1964), it can be concluded that the series being used here is correct.

A further point to be made here concerns the correspondence between the coefficients used within this work (A_{ns}) and those in Cotterell's (A_{nc}) , i.e.

$$-\int l A_{1s} = A_{1c}$$
 (5.6.9)

where " ℓ " is the length of crack extension.

 $4 A_{2s} = A_{2c}$ (5.6.10)

$$3 \int l A_{3s} = A_{3c}$$
 (5.6.11)

$$-4lA_{45} = A_{45}$$
(5.6.12)

$$\begin{array}{l} -A_{1} \text{ proportional to } K_{I} \\ K_{I} = \lim_{r \to 0} \sigma_{\psi} & (5.6.13) \\ K_{I} = \lim_{r \to 0} \sqrt{2\pi} \left\{ \frac{A_{1}}{4\sqrt{r}} \left[-3\cos\frac{\psi}{2} - \cos\frac{3\psi}{2} \right] + 0[r^{\circ}] \right\} \\ = \lim_{r \to 0} \sqrt{2\pi} \left\{ \frac{A_{1}}{4} \left[-3(1) - 1 \right] + 0(r^{\circ}) \right\} \\ = \lim_{r \to 0} \sqrt{2\pi} \left\{ -A_{1} + 0(r^{\circ}) \right\} \\ K_{I} = -A_{1}\sqrt{2\pi} & (5.6.14) \\ \frac{K_{I}}{\sigma/\pi \, a} = \frac{-A_{1}\sqrt{2\pi}}{\sigma/\pi \sqrt{a}} = -\frac{A_{1}}{\sigma}\sqrt{\frac{2}{a}} \end{array}$$

CHAPTER 6

EXPERIMENTAL WORK AND COMPUTATIONAL SIMULATION ON DIRECTIONAL STABILITY OF CRACK PROPAGATION

6.1 General Characteristics and Specimen

The present section aims to describe the design of experiment, rig, and computer simulation. Under the study being carried out one is concerned with establishing the conditions that improve directional stability of crack propagation and implement them practically; a second objective is the simulation of the experiments by means of a computer.

Gurney and Hunt (1967) have discussed the main factors to bear in mind when selecting the test specimen, most of them are concerned with the recording of the load-displacement history in order to evaluate the energy put into the process. Even though the objective of the present work is basically different, it is interesting to note that most of those conditions are satisfied by choosing rectangular test specimens with either edge cracks or central cracks. It is recognised, Barr (1968) that uniform rectangular specimens with central cracks give better results than specimens with edge cracks. He found that there is a tendency for the crack to run out uncontrollably when it starts off as an edge crack. This had already been reported by Benbow and Roesler (1957); Berry (1960) and others, who proposed different ways to avoid this problem such as applying transverse load to the specimen, Benbow and Roesler (1957), Svensson(1966); groove the specimens in the direction the crack is required to propagate and/or change the specimen geometry, Barr (1968). The work done under the present study, and described in the previous sections, has led to choosing a specimen with a single edge notch, so for the experimental work it is necessary to overcome this tendency to run out and it is obvious that the application of transverse load is the most suitable method to control cracking under the present work.

It was decided that Perspex (PMMA) is a good material for the study of crack propagation. Some of the reasons for selecting it are: the material is brittle; easy to obtain and fairly cheap; easy to machine especially the initial slot from where the crack starts; it has photoelastic properties that could facilitate, if desired, a wider study of the stress field; as the material is transparent it is very easy to follow the crack path.

6.2 Experiment Design and Rig Design

In order to assess the correspondence between experimental and theoretical work it is absolutely necessary to establish which is the best set of circumstances that will produce the expected material behaviour and how this behaviour matches the theoretical approach. The selection of this set of circumstances concerns the experiment design, while for the rig design, one is concerned with the physical implementation of the conditions depicted by the above set of circumstances, by means of mechanical devices.

The objectives of the experimental work to be performed can be described as:-

- (a) reproduce work done by Benbow and Roesler (1957),
- (b) measurement of the loads applied to the specimen,
- (c) assessment of the direction of crack propagation for different loading conditions,
- (d) contemplate the possibility of analysing the specimens photoelastically,

(e) test, in conjunction with computer work, the possible correspondence between the second coefficient of the Williams' stress series and directional stability of crack propagation.

Work done by other researchers, as well as that described in Chapters 4 and 5 of this study have already shown that the cleavage specimen is the one to be considered, the relevant information about it is given hereafter.

Specimen: Cleavage specimen (single cracked edge plate) Dimensions: Maximum 12 x 4 x 1/4 (in) see Fig. 6.1 Minimum 4 x 1 x 1/4 (in)

> It should be possible to cover the whole range of dimensions between these limit values.

(a) Transverse load: Maximum 500 lb/in²

Loading:

(Compressive)

(b) Opening load: Maximum 600 lb

(c) Load to be applied independently.

Minimum 0 1b

Other Limitations: Constraint against buckling for narrow specimens, rigidity of the rig is essential, availability of accessory equipment and apparatus to calibrate and operate the rig has to be considered.

Very many problems were encountered during the design stage and most of them were solved satisfactorily. The rigid straining frame shown in Fig.6.2 was developed. By means of this frame, load is applied to an initially rectangular specimen which has a slot cut into it along the centre line parallel to the longer edges. The end of this slot is cut into a swallowtail shape with a sharp blade. This system was devised in order

to achieve control of the cracking process, provision was made to apply compressive transverse load so that direction of crack propagation could be controlled. The splitting force is transmitted to the specimen through a set of pins passing through four specimen-holding blocks (two of them instrumented with strain gauges). These blocks are forced apart by a calibrated screw with right and left hand threads which in rotating induces the separation of the blocks. The load is measured by means of the strain gauges on the blocks. The compression force required to control the crack path is applied by means of eight individual fingers, at the far end of the plate, which are driven by horizontal screws. Each finger is instrumented with a couple of strain gauges in such a way that any bending stress applied is suppressed. This feature allows a good control of the whole stress field.

In all, some 20 strain gauges are used for measuring the magnitude of opening load and eight pairs for the transverse loads. As the measuring equipment provides half a wheatstone bridge, it was necessary to provide dummy gauges to build up the half bridge needed (28 half bridges). The calculations of stresses for the measuring points of the rig are given in Appendix 6.a.In brief, the most relevant parts of the rig and their function are:

Piece No.	Named	Function
3	Opening load cell	Plate that contains a set of five cantilever beams through- out which load is applied. Strain gauges are conveniently located on these beams to measure opening load.
5	Opening bolt	Double threaded screw to drive the opening movement of plates No.3.

Piece No.	Named	Function	
. 9	Lateral blocks	Blocks to prevent buckling of the specimen.	
10	Base frame	Frame to support the whole rig.	
13	Transverse load cell	Elements to measure transverse load	
27	Transverse bolt	Screw to apply transverse load.	
1	Opening frame	Frame to hold opening load cells.	
12	Transverse frame	Frame to hold transverse load cells.	

6.3 Experimental Data, Description and Results

Apparatus

- (a) Instron Tensile Testing MachineModel TT-C, capacity up to 10,000 lb.
- (b) Data-Log with a capacity up to 100 Wheatstone bridges, facilities to make gauge readings of up to 4 readings/sec, and accessory equipment to record either by printing or punching the readings.

Rig calibrations

Two types of loads have to be calibrated.

(a) Transverse load. The transverse frame holding the eight transverse load cells was mounted on an Instron machine, the strain gauges on the load cells were connected to a "data log" (instrument for the automatic recording of the strains developed in the load cells). Each individual element was calibrated under compressive load. The results of these calibrations are shown in Table 6.1a and Fig.6.3a. The response of the measuring elements was an excellent one and no deviations from the expected linear behaviour were detected to within 2%. Photographs (Fig. No.65)show the experimental calibration detail. (b) Opening load. The same procedure was used as with the axial frame, but unexpected behaviour was detected and two kinds of problems became apparent. One was that the fit between the moving pieces was not as good as expected, and the second was that it was extremely difficult to simulate accurately the combined opening-transverse load needed to calibrate the beams, and extraneous effects were recorded. Problem one was easily overcome but it was not possible to solve the second one totally, and a rather poor calibration was obtained.

As the calibration of the rig for the transverse load was successful it was decided to perform a whole set of experiments under these circumstances and later on use the computer to scan the zone of possible values for the opening load. Discussion of this work is given in Chapter 7.

Later on a modification to the rig was made. By then it had been found (Section 6.4) that it was not necessary to determine wholly the distribution of the opening load along the edge of the specimen but just its total magnitude, this simplified the modification needed to measure opening load. This time, the opening bolt was instrumented with four strain gauges put in such a way that two of them measure axial strain and the other two determine any torsional strain so, if required, the stress system could be theoretically analysed, this was not necessary as the calibration proved to be a successful one.[•] Another set of experiments was done and results and discussion are presented in Chapter 7.

Experiments and operational description

Two types of experiments were performed. (a) Specimen under opening load plus transverse load. (b) Specimen under opening load and no transverse load.Under experiment (a) the procedure was as follows:

(1) Obtain an approximate value of transverse load under which one could expect straight crack propagation, this was done by means of results reported by Benbow and Roesler (1957).

(2) Under no load, all the load cells were set to zero reading (it was found that this could be done within ± 2 microstrains).

(3) Apply the transverse-load, determined in (1). Through the transverse load cells.

(4) Record the readings for transverse load.

(5) Apply opening load and print the readings. Usually readings were taken while load was being applied. This was repeated until it was noticed that the crack started to extend, then continuous readings were taken until the rate of crack extension was so small as to seem that crack propagation had stopped. (No detectable crack growth after five minutes.)

In experiment (b) the same procedure was followed but for point 3.

Specimens 12 x 4, 8 x 4, 6 x 4, 4 x 4 (in) were tried and the complete loading records are given in Tables 7.7 to 7.11 Fig. 7.17 show the loading history for specimen No.6/4 and discussion about it is made in Section 7.4.

6.4 Computer Simulation of Experimental Work and Results

In Section 5.4 the work done to develop the program to calculate the coefficients for the Williams' series has been described, in order to obtain these coefficients, the data required is; load applied on each boundary point, Young's modulus Poisson's ratio and specimen dimensions. For the experimental work it is known that there are five precise points on which load is applied; as the coordinates of boundary points, as calculated with the computer program for the different specimens, will not always be coincident with those from the experimental work, it was necessary to test, with the computer, the effect of different loading on the values of the coefficients. This is reported hereafter.

Effects of load applied on different boundary points

Five cases were considered, Fig. 6.4 shows schematically the physical description and loading conditions are described below.

General conditions. A transverse applied stress of 400 lb/in^2 . Specimen dimensions 12 x 4, crack length

3.6 in.

Particular conditions.

(a) Total opening load, 100 lb applied on the boundary point of the cracked edge, the nearest to the crack surface.

(b) Total opening load, 100 lb applied on a boundary point half way on the cracked edge.

(c) Total opening load, 100 lb applied on the boundary point of the cracked edge, farthest away from the crack surface.

(d) Four loads of 6.25 lb applied on boundary points at the neighbourhood of the crack face plus three loads of 25 lb applied on points at the edge further away; the coordinates of these seven points were approximately those of the real experimental specimen.

(e) The opening load is applied as a uniform stress on the edge; total opening load magnitude is 100 lb.

The values obtained for the first three coefficients of the Williams' series, are shown in Table 6.2. In relation to these results the first fact to be pointed out is that the computer formulation is critically sensitive to the application point only for that point the farthest away from the crack plane.

It is considered that the values obtained for case (e) are the best ones. It can also be observed that the coefficient values are directly proportional to opening load, and for the different cases being the same load applied along the same direction, all values should be equal to those of case (e) (differences for cases (a) and (b) can be considered negligible and a consequence of the behaviour described below).

Case (c) is the odd one, it is thought that the great difference encountered between the values for this case and those for the others is because the position of neighbouring points to that on which load is applied, influence the results obtained; for case (a) this is not as critical as there are no boundary stations on the crack face, but for case (c) one of the neighbouring boundary points is along the upper specimen edge and its X coordinate is an influencing factor.

In reference to case (d), the values obtained are a consequence of the point just discussed. In order to gain a better understanding about the computer program response, this case (d) was treated in two ways:

- (i) as described;
- (ii) as seven individual cases, four of these cases had one load of 6.25 lb applied to a different point, and the other three had a load of 25 lb applied on other points.

The superposition of effects under (ii) should reproduce case under (i), this was so, and data and results of these seven cases are given in Table 6.3.

It is immediately apparent that allowing for the already described behaviour for the extreme points, the addition of the coefficients for cases 1 to 7 is approximately equal to case (e). In relation with A_2 it has to be remembered that its value is proportional to both opening load and axial (this point will be discussed further in Qhapter 7), so if it is desired to obtain the value of case (e) from these seven cases, only those parts of A_2 proportional to opening load should be considered, plus one of the parts proportional to the axial load.

Additional work was done in connection with the influence of Young's modulus on the coefficient values. Some cases were run with the same data but different values of Young's modulus. The results obtained show that Young's modulus has no influence on the value of the coefficients, (most probably this should be clear from theoretical analysis, but this author has made no attempt towards probing this point).

Finally, the conclusion from this section is that the experimental work can be correctly simulated in the computer by applying a uniform stress along the edges of the specimen, which is equal in magnitude to the total opening load.

The specimens tried experimentally were all simulated with the computer program, and a whole range of crack lengths up to 0.91 with a load of 10 lb was done for specimens considered. Coefficient values for these cases are shown in Table 6.4 and depicted in Fig.7.5. Analysis of these results is done in Chapter 7.1.

6.5 <u>Computational Determination of Parameters Defining</u> Criteria for Direction of Crack Propagation

Up to now the work done in this study seems to indicate a straight correspondence between A₂ (second coefficient of the Williams' series) and direction of crack propagation, further discussion related to this point is given in Chapter 7. Here, the computer implementation for evaluating criteria of directional stability for crack propagation is discussed.

For Brittle Fracture in an isotropic material under combined stress, Griffith (1924) stated that the "general condition for rupture will be the attainment of a specific tensile stress at the edge of one of the cracks". This is in fact the maximum normal stress criterion of fracture, which assumes that the crack moves along a path normal to the direction of greatest tension so that the component of shear stress on the line of expected extension of the crack is zero. Erdogan and Sih (1963) obtained results that checked reasonably well with this criterion, later on Cotterell (1966) and Pook (1971) confirmed the former work. More recently, Williams and Ewing (1972) have shown that data on direction of crack propagation can vary substantially depending on a critical distance from the crack tip where measurements were made. The second criterion to be considered is that due to Sih (1973), the S criterion, even though this one is not as yet fully tested. One of the basic concepts of the S criterion is that fracture initiates from an interior element near the crack tip. According to this criterion, incipient fracture is reached when the strain energy density factor at this interior element attains a critical value, "S_", characteristic of the material under consideration. In both

cases, Williams and Ewing with σ_{ψ} , and Sih with S, the approach to the problem is to obtain the maximum value of the critical parameter by differentiating the expression that defines it and equating to zero, i.e.

$$\frac{\mathrm{dP}_{\mathrm{C}}}{\mathrm{d\psi}} = 0 \tag{6.5.1}$$

where $P_c = \sigma_{\psi}$ for Williams, and S for Sih. Since $P_c = f_{(r,\psi)}$ Williams and Ewing define a critical distance, r, which should be a material characteristic. Sih chose to analyse the fracture field defining a finite core region, surrounding the notch tip, such that r is not allowed to be any smaller than r_o , which he relates to properties of the material and nature of deformation. So for both cases, it can be considered that $P_c = f_{(\psi)}$, and through Equation (6.5.1), it is straightforward to obtain the value of ψ for which P_c is stable (maximum).

In this work, obtaining the values for these criteria will follow a different approach, i.e. define r_0 and search for the maximum by means of a numerical method. So the function to be considered as a criterion is either

 $\sigma_{\psi} = \sum_{n=1}^{\sum} \{ (-1)^{n-1} r^{n-3/2} A_{2n-1}(n-\frac{1}{2}) \}$

$$[(+\frac{1}{2})\cos(n-3/2)\psi - (n-3/2)\cos(n+\frac{1}{2})\psi]$$

$$+ (-1)^{n}r^{n-1}A_{2n} n[(n+1)\cos(n-1)\psi - (n+1)\cos(n+1)\psi]$$

$$+ (-1)^{n-1}r^{n-3/2}B_{2n-1}(n-\frac{1}{2})[(n+\frac{1}{2})\sin(n-3/2)\psi - (n+\frac{1}{2})\sin(n+\frac{1}{2})\psi]$$

$$+ (-1)^{n}r^{n-1}B_{2n}n[(n+1)\sin(n-1)\psi - (n-1)\sin(n+1)\psi] \} \frac{E}{1+\nu}$$

$$(6.5.2)$$

or, as given by Sih (1973)

$$S = \frac{1}{8\mu} \left[(1-2\nu) (\sigma_{x} + \sigma_{y})^{2} + (\sigma_{y} - \sigma_{x})^{2} + 4\sigma_{xy}^{2} \right]$$
(6.5.3)

So in order to determine direction of crack propagation it is necessary to determine the r coordinate characteristic of the material and obtain the value of ψ for which the criterion under consideration (either σ_{ψ} or S) attains a maximum, and provided this maximum is equal to or higher than σ or S_{c} (depending on which criterion is being used), characteristic of the material as well, the crack will propagate in that specific direction.

It has been shown that the stress field in the crack neighbourhood is depicted by Equations 4.3.3, 4.3.4 and 4.3.5. These equations are repeated here for convenience.

$$\sigma_{r} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \{(-1)^{n-1} r^{n-3/2} A_{2n-1}(n-\frac{1}{2}) [(n-3/2)Cos(n-3/2)] \}$$

$$= (n-3/2)\cos(n+\frac{1}{2})\psi]$$

$$+ (-1)^{n}r^{n-1}A_{2n} n[(n-3)\cos(n-1)\psi - (n+1)\cos(n+1)\psi]$$

$$+ ([1)^{n-1}r^{n-3/2}b_{2n-1}(n-\frac{1}{2})[(n-7/2)\sin(n-3/2)\psi$$

$$- (n+\frac{1}{2})\sin(n+\frac{1}{2})\psi]$$

$$+ (-1)^{n}r^{n-1}b_{2n}n[(n-3)\sin(n-1)\psi - (n-1)\sin(n+1)\psi]$$

$$[\frac{E}{1+\nu}]$$

$$(6.5.3)$$

$$\sigma_{\psi} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \{ (-1)^{n-1}r^{n-3/2}A_{2n-1}(n-\frac{1}{2})[(n+\frac{1}{2})\cos(n-3/2)\psi$$

$$- (n-3/2)\cos(n+\frac{1}{2})\psi]$$

$$+ (-1)^{n}r^{n-1}A_{2n}n[(n+1)\cos(n-1)\psi - (n+1)\cos(n+1)\psi]$$

$$+ (-1)^{n-1}r^{n-3/2}b_{2n-1}(n-\frac{1}{2})[(n+\frac{1}{2})\sin(n-3/2)\psi$$

$$- (n+\frac{1}{2})\sin(n+\frac{1}{2})\psi]$$

$$+ (-1)^{n}r^{n-1}b_{2n}n[(n+1)\sin(n-1)\psi - (n-1)\sin(n+1)\psi]$$

$$+ (-1)^{n}r^{n-1}b_{2n}n[(n+1)\sin(n-1)\psi - (n-1)\sin(n+1)\psi]$$

$$+ (\frac{E}{1+\nu}]$$

$$(6.5.4)$$

$$\sigma_{r\psi} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left\{ (-1)^{n-1} r^{n-3/2} A_{2n-1} (n-\frac{1}{2}) \left[(n-3/2) \sin(n-3/2) \psi \right] \right. \\ \left. - (n-3/2) \sin(n+\frac{1}{2}) \psi \right] \\ + (-1)^{n} r^{n-1} A_{2n} n \left[(n-1) \sin(n-1) \psi - (n+1) \sin(n+1) \psi \right] \\ \left. + (-1)^{n-1} r^{n-3/2} b_{2n-1} (n-\frac{1}{2}) \cos(n-3/2) \psi - (n+\frac{1}{2}) \cos(n+\frac{1}{2}) \psi \right] \\ \left. + (-1)^{n} r^{n-1} b_{2n} n \left[(n-1) \cos(n-1) \psi - (n-1) \cos(n+1) \psi \right] \right\} \\ \left[\left[\frac{E}{1+\nu} \right] \right]$$
(6.5.5)

Sih (1974), Chose to ignore the terms of higher order than one as their contribution for $r \ll$ (than a characteristic length) is negligible in comparison with the $1/\sqrt{r}$ terms; in the present work, all the calculated coefficients (about 20) for the Williams series are considered, and the directional stability criterions are evaluated from Equations 6.5.3, 6.5.4, 6.5.5.

Within the crack stress field, there are an infinite number of points in which the criterion function can be evaluated, and for localising the critical one an optimization approach should be employed. The author collaborated with Swedlow (1974) in the development of a computer program to search for the critical value of the function that defines directional stability, and a brief description of this approach is made hereafter.

Mathematically, there are two ways to achieve the desired objective;

(1) Indirect methods, in which the first and second derivation of the function are evaluated and from them the maximum is obtained.

(2) Direct methods (specifically elimination), in which the value of the function is calculated, and as information is accumulated one moves into regions where the maximum may lie and eliminates areas where it cannot be.

The elimination technique called the Golden Section, Wilde and Beightler (1967), has been employed to develop the computer program to determine the parameters desired. Some of the basic conditions needed to apply a method such as the one mentioned are:-

(a) It is desirable to have but one variable as elimination methods are extremely effective then, so it was decided to fix "r" and vary " ψ ".

(b) The function should be an unimodal objective function defined in a closed region. Suppose that we wish to find the location X* where y(x) achieves its maximum value y* in an interval $\ell < x < r$. The unimodality of y(x) assures that there is only one local maximum, more precisely, y(x) is assumed to increase monotonically up to the maximum, after which it decreases monotonically (unimodal here does not require smoothness or even continuity). Strict unimodality makes it possible to say, after examining the results of any pair of evaluations of the objective function, that the maximum lies in some interval shorter than the original one.

Having examined the function and decided that it can be treated by an elimination method, one has to establish the initial interval to evaluate and from there start searching for a maximum. Of course it is not known in advance how many evaluations to use and the procedure is usually to change the variable and keep experimenting until the change in value of the criterion of interest is negligible. A procedure like this would produce the desired result but would not be an efficient one. It is necessary to use a search plan so that the solution will close on the maximum as quickly as possible in the search,

and the already mentioned Golden Section search is such a technique that, being completely independent of the number of evaluations, is highly efficient. In it, if one represents by "j" the number of experiments already run, it can be demonstrated that the experimental plan should place successive experiments in such a way that the interval "I" between successive experiments is given by

$$I_{1}^{n-j} = I_{1}^{n-(j-1)} + I_{1}^{n-(j-2)}$$
(6.4.1)

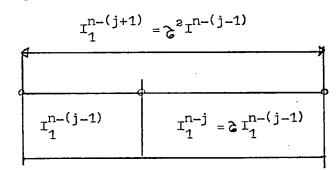
Actually, what is done by this technique is to hold the ratio of successive intervals constant; calling this ratio **2**,

$$\frac{I_{1}^{n-j}}{I_{1}^{n-(j-1)}} = c = \frac{I_{1}^{n-(j-1)}}{I_{1}^{n-j}}$$
(6.4.2)

by dividing equation 6.4.1 throughout by $I_1^{n-(j-1)}$ and noting that

$$\frac{I_{1}^{n-(j+1)}}{I_{1}^{n-(j-1)}} = \xi^{2}$$

it is found $\chi^2 = \chi + 1$ as shown in the diagram below



Only one root of this equation is positive, and so it is seen that

$$\delta = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$$

The results of two experiments determine which segment is explored further, and the remaining segment will contain one of the previous trials and to continue the search it is only a matter of placing the next experiments symmetrically in the interval. After n experiments, the interval remaining is given by

$$I^{n} = \frac{1}{a^{n-1}}$$

so it is a matter of deciding which is a satisfactory minimum interval and performing a series of calculations on the criterion proposed until the maximum value of the function is obtained. Program Hunter (Appendix 6) was developed as described; data for it are specimen dimensions, coefficient values, stress state, and material constants.

The values of the critical parameter and the crack extension angle for specific values of the radius were obtained for some of the specimens and are given in Table 6.3. Further discussion on these results is given in Section 7.7.

CHAPTER 7

COMPUTER AND EXPERIMENTAL WORK ON

DIRECTIONAL STABILITY OF CRACK PROPAGATION

In this chapter a summary of computer and experimental work on Directional Stability of crack propagation is presented, and the relationship between the two sets of results are discussed.

Computer study is made of cases that can be checked experimentally, the results obtained are interesting and the correlation between experiments and computation seems to be a good one. There is, as well, some computer work that cannot be verified experimentally with the rig in its present state. However, provided the co-relation of the former work is a good one, tentative conclusions can be drawn purely on the basis of the computer work.

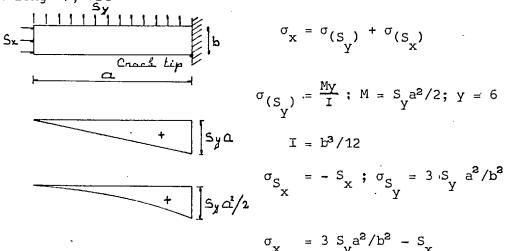
Independent analysis either from the computer simulation on the experimental work is made and discussions are presented on directional stability of crack propagation and other parameters already put forward by previous researchers which help to explain the phenomena that seem to be taking place.

7.1 <u>Analysis of Simple Approaches to Define Directional</u> Stability of Crack Propagation

Some of the earliest work done with the program ANGCRK was directed at obtaining the first coefficient values (specifically A_1 , A_2 , A_3) for a pair of specimens geometrically similar, i.e. dimensions 12 x 2, and 6 x 1 (Fig.7.1c), with the crack running up to 5/6 of the full length. The results are depicted in Figs.7.1a,b. The values for the coefficients, as well as cracking conditions, are given in Table 7.1.

Cotterell's (1966) original approach was that only negative values of A_2 would mean that the crack is directionally stable, so according to the values obtained, both cracks are unstable. However, a conclusion here could be that there is a higher instability for specimen 12 x 2 than for specimen 6 x 1. (Some work carried out at Imperial College on steel, for specimens which are geometrically similar, i.e. dimensions are 2:1, have given results showing that smaller specimens are more stable, that is, proportionally the crack runs straight farther. This seems to agree with the computational work on A_2 .)

A simple approach to this work, to try to explain the difference in A_2 values, was made. By using beam theory, the stress values at the crack tip, in the longitudinal direction (along X), are



and for the different crack lengths, the stress values are identical, as for both the relationship between a and b is kept constant. This approach through σ_x was tried because it was thought that the difference between values of A_2 for similar specimens was due to a possible difference in the stress value along the X axis, however, it seems that consideration of only σ_x through heam theory cannot account for the differences in A_2 values, so some other condition has to be considered.

Cotterell (1970) suggested a similar approach to define directional stability, i.e. "if $\sigma_v / \sigma_x > 1$, the crack is directionally stable". In order to test this, it was decided to apply the loading conditions, described by Cotterell (1970), i.e. the opening load is applied at the edge of the specimen as a concentrated load, see Fig.7.3, a feature not included in Cotterell's work, was the application of transverse load, and this has to be considered. The values of the transverse stress (σ_x) at the crack tip are calculated as shown in Appendix 7, given in Table 7.2, and depicted in Fig.7.2. On account of these results, it could be said that for this case, σ_v / σ_x values being between zero and one, the specimen is in a zone nearly stable, but the values obtained would mean that as the crack advances, the specimen goes from an unstable condition for short cracks to a stable condition for longer ones, a fact which does not seem to agree with experimental work.

A further point must be raised, the effect of the transverse load S_x , is to reduce the tension, along the x axis, introduced by the opening load at the crack tip. If there was a case in which a sufficiently high compressive stress was applied, say -1392 lb/in², σ_y/σ_x would become negative, as shown in Table 7.3. Clearly, for this case, as there is such high transverse stress applied, the crack will run straight, but $\sigma_y/\sigma_x < 1$. So it seems that this is not in agreement with Cotterell's argument. However, it could be that Cotterell's criterion was meant to be applied to the case of the SEN speciment with only opening load applied. In Section 7.2 a discussion is made of specimen geometry and its stabilising effect, it is possible that it is this effect which could be accounted for with Cotterell's argument.

7.2 <u>Second Coefficient of the Williams' Series and its</u> Dependence on Physical Parameters

It will be shown that the value of the $\frac{A}{2}$ coefficient depends on load and geometry, and that:-

(a) The dependence on load can be split into that caused by the $\sigma_{\rm Y}$ stress (mainly opening load) and that caused by the $\sigma_{\rm X}$ stress (transverse load and opening load).

(b) The dependence on geometry is centred on the dimensions length, width and crack length. In considering changes of geometry, two divisions will be made. (i) Dimensions "length and width", which have an influence on the proportionality between the A_2 value and transverse stress, and (ii) the dimension crack length, which has an influence on the proportionality between A_2 and the opening load.

Work on the determination of the values of A_2 for the specimen depicted in Fig.7.1(c) of dimensions 6 x 1, 6 x 4 and 6 x 6 from 0.2l crack length was carried out. The values obtained are shown in Table 7.4. In this table the A_2 values have been split so that there are two parts which, when added become A_2 for the composite load system. One part is proportional to the load along the "y" axis, and the other to the load along the x axis.

It is noticed that for the same geometry but different crack length, that part of A_2 which is proportional to the transverse load, remains constant i.e. the crack length does not affect this value, however, that part of A_2 which is proportional to opening load changes when the crack length is increased, and this change could be a notable one (see values for specimen 6 x 1). This could be explained by arguing that the normal stress, at the crack tip along the x axis (σ_x),

depends mainly on crack length. When the crack grows this stress is increased and as A_2 mainly shows this effect, its value changes as well (positive for a tension stress and negative for compression). In order to reverse this effect (for stabilising direction of crack propagation), a higher compressive x stress is needed so that the tension stress from the opening load is nullified.

There is another factor to be considered when determining. proportional parts for A2. As can be noted in Table 7.4, the proportional part of A_2 dependent on the transverse load, is a function of specimen dimensions, i.e. a, b, l, and directly proportional to $\sigma_{\mathbf{x}}$, this proportionality factor being equal to -0.31456 for the specimen 6 x 1 i.e. each compressive longitudinal load of 101b changes the A_2 value in -0.31456. For specimen 6 x 4 the proportionality factor is -0.5 and finally for specimen 6 x 6 it is -0.62476. So, for specimen 6 x 1×0.3 if it is necessary to neutralise the effect of an opening load of <u>101b</u>, the transverse load to be applied on the lateral boundaries of the specimen would be 311 lb, while for specimen 6x4xoslit would be 34.5, and finally for specimen 6x6xosl, A would become zero by applying a transverse load of only 6.21b. This is a point which could partially explain the observed fact of square specimens being more stable than rectangular ones (longer in the x direction).

The specimen shown in Fig.7.3 was considered as well for calculation of A_2 . The values obtained are shown in Table 7.5. Conclusions similar to those reached for the former specimens can be drawn from these figures. Further work on this topic and experimental application is discussed in the following section.

7.3 Influence of the Applied Loads on the First Coefficients of the Williams' Series, and Link to Experimental Work

In the test specimen in Fig.7.3, the factors affecting the values of coefficient A_2 (a, ℓ , b, S_x , P_y) are shown, and this dependence has already been demonstrated. Further work on the influence of S_x and P_y over A_2 is to be discussed within this section. This time, the stress conditions chosen are $S_x = 0.0, 10.0, 20.0, 30.0, 40.0, 50.0$ combined in each case with $P_y = 10.0$. This loading was applied to specimens 6.0 x 6.0, 6.0 x 4.0 and 6.0 x 1.0. Under these conditions program ANGCRK was run and the set of values obtained for coefficient A_2 is shown in Table 7.6, and depicted in Figs.7.4. The following points are relevant:

(a) the rate of change for A_2 is higher for longer specimens (x direction);

(b) even though different transverse loads are applied the pattern of the curve (A_2 vs a) Fig.7.4a,b,c, is kept. The way the transversal load affects this curve is by shifting it along the A_2 axis;

(c) for no transverse stress, there is a definite crack length for which $A_2 = 0$ (about 2.2in for specimen 6.0 x 6.0, 1.3in for specimen 6.0 x 4.0, and 0.35 for specimen 6.0 x 1.0);

(d) the shifting of the $(A_2 vs a)$ curve changes the crack length for which $A_2 = 0$;

(e) the shape of the curve (A $_2$ vs a) is similar to the curve ($\sigma_{\rm v}/\sigma_{\rm x}$ vs a).

The A₂ behaviour shown is significant. In the past it has been put forward by Cotterell (1965) that this is the parameter defining directional crack instability and that the condition $A_2 = 0$, marks the critical point above which the crack is unstable (A_2 positive), becoming stable below the critical point (A_2 negative), and this seems to reflect quite well experimental behaviour, where it has been shown, that cracks are made stable by applying transverse stresses.

Computer work which is to be linked with experimental work, was conducted on specimens 12.0 x 4.0, 8.0 x 4.0, 6.0 x 4.0 and 4.0 x 4.0. In Figs.7.5 curves $(A_1 \text{ vs a/l})$, $(A_2 \text{ vs a/l})$, and $(A_3 \text{ vs a/l})$ are depicted, while the actual coefficient values are given in Tables 7.5. Initially only opening load was considered. The same specimen behaviour already noted in the former work was obtained, but for these a different combined loading was applied, i.e. (a) Transverse load = 0.10 lb/in (S_x)

> Opening load = 10, 20, 40 lb (P) Y (b) Transverse load = 0, 20, 30 lb/in (s_x) Opening load = 20 lb (P) Y

Coefficient values were obtained and plotted for each specimen. The following points are relevant.

(i) As in former work, specimen dimensions define a characteristic slope for the curve $(A_2 \text{ vs transverse load})$. This is shown in Fig.7.7. Loading conditions used for these cases were those from "b".

(ii) The values for coefficients A_1 , A_2 , A_3 , for these cases, are given in Tables 7.5, it is possible from these data to find out which is the main influence on the behaviour of these first three coefficients, opening load being responsible for the changes experienced by the three of them, while transverse load affects solely the coefficient A_2 and this effect (for A_2) is not proportional to crack length.

(iii) If Fig.7.6 is considered, by using the slope value characteristic of the specimen, Section 7.2, and knowing the loading conditions, it is straightforward to define a trans-verse load value that makes A_2 become zero or negative.

Based on these facts, an experimental approach can be proposed as follows.

Once the desired experimental conditions are defined, through them the behaviour of the coefficients of the Williams' series is set up as well. This is done as follows. For experimental work, a factor which is necessary to consider is the material, as material properties will determine the opening load that is needed to extend the crack, i.e. K_{IC} or G_{IC} . When in loading the specimen, the value of K_{I} (which is proportional to A_{1} and so to opening load) becomes equal to K_{IC} , the crack extends. The opening load level fixes specific values for all the coefficients in the Williams series, and it has been shown that for no transverse load, these coefficients are negative for A_{1} and A_{3} , and positive for A_{2} , so A_{2} being positive, the crack is directionally unstable. In order to stabilise the crack A_{2} should become zero or negative and for obtaining this condition it is necessary to proceed as follows:-

(a) Define the opening load value necessary to reach K_{TC} .

(b) Obtain $\frac{A}{2}$ value induced by the opening load defined from "a".

(c) Know the proportionality factor between A_2 and transverse load (S_y) characteristic of the specimen.

(d) From "c", calculate S_x necessary to overcome the A_2 value obtained from "b", and apply it to the specimen so that the experiment is carried out under directionally stable conditions.

7.4 Load Application, Rig Response and Physical Interpretation of Gauge Readings

It has been shown in the computer analysis that the effects of the opening and axial load can be separated, this is a feature that if it could be applied to experimental results would be a great help to the analyst. In the sections to follow, it is shown that this is so, and the different characteristic behaviour is analysed as a consequence of geometry, transverse load, or opening load.

In order to calibrate the rig, it was necessary to have a device to apply, upon the load cells, the combined transverse and opening load. It was found that this device should be a very special one because of the fact that the transverse and opening load had to be applied simultaneously. Practically this introduced a high uncertainty in load determination, as when opening load is applied, there is a displacement of the loading point, and under the calibration conditions the response from the gauges was not repeatable, and it was not possible to properly calibrate the rig for the opening load. However, as a high number of attempts to calibrate in this initial state were made, it was possible to define a wide zone, within which the actual opening load value is located. Attempts were made to combine the results from calibration (regarding that opening load zone) with theoretical analysis of the configuration, but this implied assumptions and guesswork about the physical behaviour of the rig and specimen, which in brief would mean unreliable results, so two courses of action were plausible.

(1) Design of an additional load cell (as described in Section 6.3).

(2) Carry out experimental work with the rig in its initial state (i.e. study of stress field and effect of transverse load).

The work under (2), was carried out while the elements needed for the rig modification were being made available, and is described hereafter.

(i) Load application and rig response

In Fig.7.16, the gauges position within the rig is shown. In trying to get a better understanding of the phenomena taking place while the crack propagates, the loading records were plotted. Figs.7.17(a to h) depict the whole loading record given in Table 7.7(f) (specimen No.6/4). Five loading zones (although only four seem to be defined) are of interest here.

Zone 1. Transverse load application. This is done through the transverse load cells at the far end of the specimen. As can be seen in Table 7.7(f), a balance of gauge readings, 60 μ s, for gauges 21 to 27 was obtained (the small differences are because the calibration constants for each cell are slightly different). Zone 2. Opening load application. This is the actual process which leads to the crack extension. Some differences that show the physical behaviour of the specimen, can be noticed, i.e. in gauges 23,24 (nearest to the crack tip) the opening load effect at the crack tip zone is clearly noticeable. An initial higher normal stress (here, because of the way in which the gauges were connected to the bridge, compression is read as positive) originated on the transverse load, diminishing when the opening load has a small releasing effect on this compressive stress. In the main, this compressive stress remains so that at the breaking point there is still compression parallel to the

crack tip. This should mean stable directional behaviour (actually the angle of crack extension was \approx 2 deg). The gauges 22 and 25 show almost the same pattern as the former ones. For gauges 21,26 the opening load has a different effect, increasing the value of gauge readings. This means that compression is being put on. Finally, gauges 20,27 show a similar behaviour to 21,26. It is interesting to notice that in the first stages of opening load application, some irregularity in the expected trend of the curve is detected, however, it rapidly corrects itself and then the curve follows what is thought to be the correct pattern. This most probably shows the kind of behaviour obtained during calibration. The rest of the gauges show reliable responses as they follow similar trends. The main fact to point out is that all the gauges show a load peak at the point of fracture.

Zone 3. Crack extension. Within this zone different behaviours are obtained for the strain gauges, i.e. for those gauges farther away from the crack tip, 20 to 27, the stress is released at a uniform rate, and for those nearer to the crack tip, 0 to 19, the stress is released at a higher rate immediately after crack extension and then stabilises to a fairly constant decreasing rate.

Zone 4. Removal of opening load. The remaining strain values, shown by strain gauges 20 to 27, after removal of opening load, are slightly lower than the original ones. The strains for gauges 0 to 19 show similar tendencies but this is not a uniform pattern.

Zone 5. Removal of transverse load. Gauges at the far end (20 to 27) show zero readings but the other ones (0 to 19) still show strain, this is a point that is not clear. Zero values were

expected. It is thought this behaviour is because once displacements have taken place, on removal of the loading the relative position of pieces in the rig and those in connexion with the specimen, do not go back to their relative original position, and keep the specimen slightly strained.

A further attempt was made to obtain some kind of calibration by measuring the distances involved in the position of the gauges on the rig, and through beam theory and the relative electrical constants of interest, work out the theoretical stress values, but it was not possible to obtain any sensible result.

The type of analysis using the loading measured at different boundaries, as depicted in Fig.7.17(a to h), seems to the writer to be a valuable one, because as the rig response is monitored at the boundaries on which load is being applied, it is possible to understand very well the way in which the stress field varied. But it is necessary to solve the technical difficulties encountered so that proper calibration of each gauge is achieved. Once this is sorted out, a more refined experimental method should be planned. This point will be put forward in Chapter 8.

(ii) Physical interpretation of gauge readings

When the crack propagates, for most cases there is a sudden initial crack extension after which a slow continuous propagation takes place, the readings from the gauges show this by means of a high change in the reading immediately after the peak value, and then keeping a slow rate of change of the magnitude of the readings. The fact that during the second stage of crack propagation the velocity of crack extension is low, suggests that the readings are values slightly above the critical ones necessary

for the crack to stop (arrest). The observed effects of raising the load once the crack is propagating in this second stage or has stopped, are:- (a) it raises the rate of crack extension. (b) it originates a noticeable directional change. Roughly, it is possible to imagine how the crack developed by just having a look at the loading record after initial crack extension. As can be seen in the different tables, when the crack continues to propagate by itself, i.e. without load increments, the direction of crack propagation changes but in a stable manner, whilst in changing loading conditions the change in direction is a sudden one. It could even be possible to form a rough idea of the way a crack has run by just having the loading record of the specimen, when in the loading history a sudden rate of change is observed between two subsequent readings (readingstaken at constant rate), it can be assumed that load was applied at that instant, it could not be thought that the mentioned reading change was because of change in the direction of crack extension, as it would not take place unless an inhomogeneity was encountered, and this, for a slowly propagating crack, most probably would stop crack propagation. Another possibility would be that the small quantity of potential energy (which is being transformed into kinetic energy for the running crack) that the test piece still possesses, could be used to overcome the energy level necessary to surpass the inhomogeneity by separating the material, in which case, most probably a change in direction would take place as well as a reduction in the velocity of crack propagation, although the behaviour just described has not been observed in the experiments performed.

(iii) Effect of crack tip radius

Two experimental cases are considered in relation to this topic, those of specimen 8 x 4 (case 1 and 5), for which the characteristics are

Crack Tip	Sharp	Blunt
Load value to start crack extension	325 1b	412 lb
Length of crack extension	0.375in	0.75 in

The same experimental conditions applied to both. Photographs in Fig.7.11 (a and e) show the crack path obtained.

When examining the case of the blunt crack, it can be seen that the crack tip radius only affects the opening load necessary to extend the crack, this radius has the effect of reducing the stress concentration at the crack tip neighbourhood, so in order to raise the stress level to that corresponding to the fracture toughness, it is necessary to apply a higher opening load. When the material finally separates, there is in the body a certain state of strain. The separation of the material means a transition from a tip with a finite radius to a tip with a sharp radius characteristic of the moving crack. This geometrical condition has the effect of producing a stress concentration in the neighbourhood of the crack tip, higher than in the former case so that within the new conditions of the system, there is no equilibrium. This stress level developed at the crack tip means in fact that there is an excess of strain energy within the body, which has to be spent. Berry (1961) has shown that this energy is split between surface energy and kinetic energy, so the crack experiences a sudden jump.

The same can be argued for the case of a sharp crack, with a small difference. The sharp crack is made by means of fine tools, and it was found that at the best the tip radius approximates the natural characteristic one of a moving crack and so the obtained value of load (represented by the reading of 3421b) approximates the true fracture toughness of the material. This is easy to understand: the tip radius being smaller, a proportionally higher stress concentration is produced(compared with the case of the blunt crack) and a lower opening load is needed to reach the fracture toughness. This in turn means less strain energy available and so a shorter length of jump for crack extension. Some researchers have obtained a practical sharp tip by pre-fatiguing their specimens, this could be done under the present approach for future work.

Something else that must be pointed out is that regardless of crack tip geometry, the crack paths were identical, which again seems to show the influence of the transverse load as the factor controlling crack path. Further discussion on this topic is made in Section 7.6.

7.5 <u>Analysis of Experimental Crack Path under Biaxial</u> Loading and Co-relation to Theoretical Predictions

In the present section use is made of shadow photographs taken of the cracked specimens, in order to illustrate relevant points and how it is thought that through them, a link between theoretical results, obtained from the computer program, and experimental ones, could be established.

Figs.7.8 to 7.12 show a visual record of the paths the cracks followed, when the loads of which details are given in . Tables 7.7 to 7.11, were applied on the specimens.

126.

In all some 40 specimens were tested in two different experimental stages. For the first experimental stage, as it had not been possible to achieve a proper calibration for the opening load see Section 7.4 an attempt was made to apply different levels of hand stress and see what effect it had on the crack path. Results were very promising as with no transverse load the crack path always went away from the original one, while on introducing a low transverse load, the deviation of the crack path was reduced, transverse load was subsequently increased until for a level high enough, the crack path became straight. For the second stage, a new load cell for the opening load had been introduced and proper calibration achieved so a whole analysis could be made quantifying all the parameters that have an influence in crack propagation. Within the different discussions to follow, use will be made of results from these two experimental stages and any relevant experimental detail will be given whenever it is necessary.

In order to facilitate discussions on the crack propagation phenomena, it is necessary to define, for the present analysis, some terms to be used (see Fig.7.13).

(i) In the experimental work, the actual crack propagation developed as follows:-

(a) An initial slow crack propagation following the same direction as the original crack, under this "phase I" (see Fig. 7.14) crack extension the surface of the crack appears as slightly rough areas with a fan shaped marking of lines .
(b) A very fast crack propagation following a natural direction established by the different specimen parameters. For this "phase II" (Fig.7.14) crack extension the crack surface is very clean and smooth, like a mirror surface.

(c) A slow decreasing crack propagation, following the same trend of path initiated under phase II. The surface of the crack under this "phase III" (Fig.7.14) crack extension is very similar to that under phase I.

(ii) For most cases, especially when there is a well defined radius at the crack tip or a blunt crack, there is a very short straight extension (phase I). Immediately after this the crack propagates (phase II) and deviates towards a direction with an "apparent initial angle" (α_a), and as propagation continues there is a continuous change of this angle until at point $\frac{P_r}{r}$, whose coordinates will be identified, the crack has a final angle (α_F). Point P_r could be either in the zone of phase II or of phase III. This is not highly relevant for the time being.

For each specimen of interest, the already defined angles and lengths were measured and are given in Tables 7.12 to 7.15, in which is also included

- (i) the opening load (three quantities are given I = initial reading from the gauge, A = reading just after crack extension(for most of the cases under phase II)
 B = peak reading for opening load (has taken place).
- SC this is the maximum load (lb) applied to the specimen
 by the opening load, it equals B-I, and should be equiva lent to the fracture toughness;
- (iii) Sload. It is the quantity (B-A) and it was expected (according to Section 7.4) that some kind of proportionality should exist between the phase II crack propagation length and this quantity;

(iv) A₂ coefficient value as calculated from Tables 7.5.

Tables 7.12 to 7.15 are self-conclusive, however, the following points are of interest:-

- (a) for most cases the fracture has a very small starting zone in which the crack runs straight. This is thought to originate in the fact that the crack tip did have a finite radius which creates a local stress field and establishes a local direction of propagation, but once the crack surpasses the local condition, the crack tip becomes sharp and the extension follows the natural path dictated by the specimen boundary conditions;
- (b) in Fig.7.8 (a to d), a series of photographs of the different cracked specimens is shown, it can be clearly seen that for specimens 4, 6, 8, the apparent initial angle (α a) experiences a gradual change, running away from the original straight path, and the change is a low one for the smallest specimen, becoming higher for specimen 6, and reaching its maximum for 8. It was expected that specimen 12 should have an even higher α_a , but this was not so, and on repetition of the experiments on specimen 12, the same result was achieved;
- (c) regarding the value of the transverse load required to stabilise the crack path, it is shown that the value required to stabilise the smaller specimens is lower than that for the longer ones. Besides, it can be said that for the small specimens (square), under biaxial loading, the condition is achieved in which the crack really follows a straight path, while for the rectangular ones (larger in the transverse sense), one has to resort to a definition of straight path, i.e. like the one mentioned by Benbow and Roesler (1959), and accept as straight paths, those

which are slightly away from the axis of symmetry. The point which has to be kept in mind is that provided the apparent initial angle (α a) changes subsequently towards the initial crack direction, the crack is directionally stable (class I fracture according to Cotterell (1965) definition), and this is a fact shown by all the crack paths, that is, whenever a transverse load is applied, the crack tends to come back to the straight path and the higher the transverse load, the smaller the initial deviation;

- (d) the subsequent point has already been mentioned in the last paragraph, but here it concerns specimen geometry. It is clearly shown by experimental results that the larger (in the transverse sense) the specimen, the higher is the transverse load necessary to stabilise crack path (for a specimen 12 x 4, it is clearly seen that a higher load is necessary to reduce the apparent initial angle;
- (e) for all the different specimens, no transverse load, produces a directionally unstable crack extension. When transverse load is considered instability is reduced, and as transverse load increases the instability diminishes until eventually, the condition of straight crack propogation is reached;
- (f) regarding the actual opening load value at which the crack extends, only for those cases of specimens 12×4 and 4×4 , could it be said that a positive conclusion has been obtained, as for the first case (12×4) there are 5 cases in which the opening load values repeats, while for specimen 4×4 this is so for four specimens. There is not enough information for specimens 8×4 and 6×4 . Furthermore, it has to

be pointed out that from the opening load values, about 30% seem to be completely out of range, two causes may be relevant:- (1) the specimens were cut from different sheets of material, some of them were tested after about three months had elapsed since they were cut, and others within a week, (2) the whole experimental method is still in a state of development, and even though great care was taken in trying to set experimental repeatable conditions, the method still needs to be refined.

A further point to be discussed is that for most of the experimental cases tried, a tendency to directionally stable conditions was obtained (this is a characteristic of the rig) and this was so in spite of the fact that there was directional insstability for the initial conditions. (This point will be discussed further in Section 7.6.) When initial conditions are unstable and at the same time an imperfection either from the material or from the rig configuration becomes apparent, then the crack runs away. It is thought that there is still a small defect coming from the rig (introducing mode II crack behaviour) which is slightly interfering with the stress field. However, these are practical difficulties that can be overcome, the main point is to show that the directional crack response can be characterised by the coefficient A2, and it seems, according to the combined computer and experimental results that this is so. It can be seen (Tables 7.5) that the value of the coefficient A, is negative for specimens with a transverse load high enough (for each geometry, depending on the opening load value, it is necessary

to have a minimum transverse load), and experimentally these specimens showed directional stability. On the other hand A₂ is always positive for cases in which no transverse load was applied and these experimentally, showed directional instability.

7.6 <u>Directional Stability Level, Transverse Load Influence, and</u> Possible Co-relation with Energy Input to the System

(a) Experimental directional stability, rig response and crack path. Some of the earliest experimental work (specimen No.1) showed that under combined biaxial loading, the crack initially extended showing it to be a class II fracture (Cotterell, 1965) tending to go back to the initial path. Once the crack extension had naturally stopped, the opening load was increased and the crack path changed direction still towards the original path. Within this section an attempt is made to co-relate this behaviour with the A_2 coefficient. Actually, the loading record of the already mentioned specimen No.1 was not taken. However in the following discussion, use will be made of load values obtained from specimen 3/12, in order to illustrate the different points under consideration.

The experimental work on crack extension under combined transverse and opening load for this specimen showed that:when the crack is about to extend there is a peak opening load the value of which was 3401b, and the transverse load 360 lb/in. This opening load in turn sets the A₂ coefficient value (originated in the combined loading) at +36.626. Once the crack had extended and deviated away from the transverse axis, further opening load was applied and the crack deviated towards the initial path. It had been initially expected that it should be the other way around, i.e. increase in opening load means increase in directional instability and the crack should turn away from the original path, but this was not so.

In examining the opening load values (for specimen 3/12) it was found that in crack extension from a = 3.35 in to a = 4.51 in, the opening load values went down from 3401b to

1401b, whilst the transverse load remained at 3601b/in. That is, the cracked situation could be viewed as a completely new case with: (a) opening load = 1401b, (b) transverse load = 360lb/in, (c) crack length = 4.51 in and so, the A_2 coefficient value for this condition is set to 14.40 . Which means that the directional stability level is higher now than it initially was, and the crack should tend to go back to the original path, which explains satisfactorily the observed crack behaviour. Transverse load and its influence on crack path. The data (b) shown in Tables 7.15 as well as the photographs of the crack path in Fig.7.12, show different specimens (same dimensions), under the same loading conditions i.e. 2/12, 3/12, 4/12. It is shown as well, that for specimen 6/12 a high transverse load made the system partially overcome a tendency to behave asymmetrically. When the case with a lower transverse load is considered, this asymmetric tendency is more apparent, and its effect can be clearly noticed on the initial apparent angle and the crack extension path of the already mentioned specimens. While in specimen 6/12 the crack path tends to go back to the centre, this tendency is not as marked for specimen 2/12. Another experiment in which loading conditions were the same, was that for specimen 3/12 in which the crack followed the same path as it did for specimen 2/12.

Having analysed the results, it was concluded that this tendency was because the blocks to apply the opening load (pieces No.3, opening load cells) were slightly out of centre with respect to the transverse load cells and on operation this introduced an unbalancing effect (mode II). The rig was dismantled and corrected, and specimen 4/12 was tested with the same loading conditions as for specimens 2/12 and 3/12. This

time a better experimental result was obtained as the difference in crack path can show (Fig.7.12), as well as load values in Table 7.15, which are similar to those from specimen 6/12. This time the crack path is closer to the axis of symmetry of the specimen, than those of specimens 2/12 and 3/12, and the difference it shows when compared with specimen 6/12 is thought to be only because of differences in the transverse load magnitude. (c) Observed behaviour of crack propagation and possible co-relation with energy input. In general, for a cracked body under a rising load, it is an observed fact that, as the load increases, any crack existing in the body does not initially expand. When the load reaches a certain value the crack begins to spread, with the extension behaviour for a given material depending on the manner in which the load is applied. In some cases, the crack extends rapidly up to complete rupture. of the body, in other cases it extends slowly, eventually stopping. Barenblatt (1961) in his approach to the theory of cracks, by an equilibrium model stated the hypothesis:

- (i) the tensile stress at the contours of the crack is finite;
- (ii) the opposite faces of a crack close smoothly at its contour;

and from them the formulation of the problem of equilibrium cracks is possible. In the case of stable equilibrium, the slow quasistatic transition of cracks from one equilibrium to another takes place when the load is increased gradually. But, if the equilibrium is unstable, the slightest excess over the equilibrium load is followed by a rapid crack extension. In some cases, when there exists no neighbouring stable states of

equilibrium, this could lead to complete rupture of the body.

Practically, the statements above can be illustrated by results from specimens 1/8 and 4/8, for which the loading records are given in Table 7.14. The only difference between the conditions under which these specimens were tested, is the geometry of the crack tip (a geometric factor that obviously influences position of neighbouring stable states). In the first case, when the load level was raised to 3251b the crack showed the already mentioned slow quasistatic transition natural of a stable state. In the second case the behaviour of the unstable equilibrium state is obtained at a load level of 4121b, here, because of physical conditions (specifically crack tip radius) the crack is prevented from extending slowly so that the only way for the crack to spread, is by a sudden jump from a₁ to a₂. That is, because of crack tip conditions, when the material finally separates to make the crack grow, there has been put into the body a considerable amount of energy, which is in excess of that in the former case, so at the point of crack propagation there is energy available to create new surface and supply kinetic energy.

.135

7.7 Transverse Load, Mode II Influence, and Crack Path

Photographs in Fig.7.15 show the crack paths for different 12 x 4 specimens, the loading records for these specimens are shown in Tables 7.11.* The first point to be made concerns the values of the recorded transverse loads in gauges 20 to 27, it can be seen that for these tests the unbalance between gauges (20 to 23) and (24 to 27) is almost zero, which means that this time the alignment of the system is very good and the mode II influence for crack propagation is very small. This is shown as well in the magnitude of the transverse load necessary to make the crack run straight, it is noticed that with as little as 280 lb/in, the crack is already running straight, while in the former cases (Section 7.6), in which it was concluded that mode II was operating, it was necessary to go up to 700 lb/in to obtain a path that could be considered straight. The photographs of Fig.7.15 are in a sequence starting with the one with the least transverse load (160 lb/in) and up to 440 lb/in. It is clear that the transverse load has a strong influence in the direction of crack propagation and these figures show it quite well. However, when a more detailed analysis is made, i.e. measurement of the initial apparent angle (α_{r}) and final angle (α_{r}) already defined, the results shown in Table 7.16 are obtained, and here the co-relation does not seem to be as straightforward. Clearly there is still another factor that is showing up in these results, i.e. the crack tip shape. In relation to this, two of the specimens had a tip completely blunt and they show the two highest initial apparent angles. This state of the crack tip is a local condition that dominates the initial stage of crack

*Only three records are shown.

propagation and directs the path at random, but once this initial stage takes place, the local condition disappears and global conditions take over (in this case dominance of transverse load) and re-direct the crack towards a path which is natural for the whole system, the straight path.

The results from the two sets of experiments, i.e. those with a mode II effect (Section 7.6(b)) and those with no mode II effect (or at least a negligible one), seem to show that it is the influence of mode II behaviour (because of the biaxial stress field introduced by anisotropies, inhomogeneties, etc, that could appear at each stage of crack propagation) which is being controlled by the transverse load, and that the value of A2, which effectively has a relation to direction of crack propagation, shows a level of directional stability. That is, for a symmetric specimen, if it is highly stable (a high negative A, value), a strong local condition would be necessary to make the crack run away from the straight path, but once the local condition is overcome, the crack returns. If there is a weak stability (A₂ very near zero), it is very probable that the crack will deviate, but with the possibility of the crack returning. Finally, if this A, coefficient is positive, any local condition, perhaps at microscopic level, will make the crack turn away from the former path and it will never come back. However, when mode II behaviour starts to operate, the whole stress field in the neighbourhood of the crack is modified, i.e. global conditions are modified, and in order to overcome this situation, a strong transverse load is necessary. The function of this transverse load is to correct these global conditions so that the tendency of the crack path is again towards the original direction.

The writer's opinion is that stable and unstable directional behaviour develops as the crack propagates, this is reflected in A_2 and when it decreases with crack extension (tending to a negative value), the crack can be considered directionally stable. This is a point which seems to be substantiated by results shown in Tables 7.12 to 7.15 in which positive values for A_2 are obtained, but as the crack extends, the coefficient value diminishes.

7.8 Angle of Crack Extension as obtained Computationally from the Criteria Considered

A full discussion of the results obtained from computation for the expected angles of crack extension cannot be made because only a very limited number of cases were tried, and in addition experimental results would have to be found very carefully if comparison is to be meaningful. Some work was done with the specimens 12 x 4, 8 x 4, 6 x 4, 4 x 4, and others: These have been the first attempts to use this computational approach (regarding determination of the angle of crack extension) and there is still some uncertainty on the whole approximation as it is necessary to fully co-relate the mathematical numerical. approach, the behaviour of the criteria, zones of relevance, etc. Experience will show which is the best criterion to apply and this experience will be gained by means of a combined computational-experimental approach. The first step has been the development of the computational method (i.e. Williams and Ewing criterion of a maximum circumferential stress σ_{tt} at a core radius, and Sih's criterion of minimum strain energy density, (S) and the testing of this computational approach has only been initiated by the cases and discussion given within this section. It has already been shown, Section 6.5, how the stress field in

the crack neighbourhood is scanned and the critical value of the criterion function is obtained, fixing the angle at which the crack is expected to grow. As expected, it was found that the value of the criterion function varies with the core radius. The conclusions that can be arrived at from the few cases run are very limited.

(a) There are zones of disagreement between the two tested criteria.

(b) Williams and Ewing's criterion seems to show results that are consistent and well behaved. The values obtained show a well defined trend.

(c) The trend of values obtained from Williams and Ewing's criterion show a certain degree of similarity with experimental results (see Fig. 7.18) in which the apparent initial angle for the same specimens are shown).

(d) For all the cases in which transverse load of the specimen was considered, the expected angle of crack extension is very near zero.

(e) Another fact to point out concerns the dimension of the radius at which the criterion function should be evaluated. Both William and Ewing, and Sih point out that it is a material characteristic, and Williams and Ewing have given it to be 0.002in for PMMA. Probably this is the sort of dimension that would be involved for most of the materials and it can be seen that for a zone with that dimension, both criteria give very similar (equal) results.

An attempt was made to obtain some sort of description of the curve of maximum values of the criterion function, and for this the values from the Williams and Ewing criterion were considered. Fig. 7.18 depicts this curve for specimen 12×4 and conditions given in Table 7.17(a).

Extensive work needs to be done using this approach. Experimental work linked with the computational method should be carefully planned so that a better understanding of the phenomena can be achieved and if need be, the necessary modifications to the numerical approach can be made.

7.9 Initial and Final Directional Stability Level

In Section 7.6(a) a particular case, in which the directional stability level for two stages of crack extension in a specimen, was discussed. As this point is considered to be of the greatest importance, the same approach was applied to all the remaining specimens for which experimental data was available. Table 7.18 shows results obtained by a combination of the experimental and computational work for this, the two stages of crack extension considered were:-

(i) Initial conditions.

a = Initial crack length.

O.P._i = Opening load value, as measured from the experimental rig, when initial crack : extension took place.

T.L. = Transverse load.

(ii) Final conditions.

a_F = Final length of crack (considering that this final length is defined by the change in fracture surface i.e. phase II and Phase III).

 $O_{\bullet}P_{\bullet}F_{F} = Opening load value measured just after extension under phase II has taken place.$

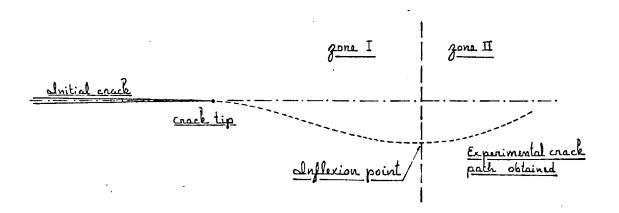
T.L. = Transverse load (same as for initial conditions).

For final conditions in most of these cases there was a small deviation of the crack path from the original direction. Neglecting mode II effects and considering the final crack length as a completely straight one, the first three coefficient values given in Table 7.18 were obtained.

These results clearly show that the value of A_2 is positive to start with (directional instability and moves towards a negative A_2 value gradually approaching a stable state). That is, the fact that A_2 diminishes with crack extension means higher directional stability.

In Table 7.18, a set of data which firmly establishes a relationship between the A_2 value and the experimental angle of crack extension is given. All the values considered, except A_2 , were taken from the experimental work, and from these, the A_2 coefficients were calculated as described in Section 7.2. (The program ANGCRK was used as well as a final check and the same values were obtained.)

It has been considered, for the present discussion, that the mode II effect introduced by the crack running asymmetrically, is supposed to be negligible.



The figure above shows the typical observed crack path. For all cases, except those with no transverse load, whenever the angle of crack extension diminishes, the A_2 value decreases as well. As this analysis was the latest development of this study, it was made with the experimental data already available and so, only cracks that were within zone one were considered. However, specimen 5/8 (8 x 4) is the closest to the inflexion point, with a final angle very near zero, and the corresponding A_2 value being already negative, i.e. negative A_2 value means that the crack goes back towards the straight extension. Speciment 4/4 (4 x 4) also shows a negative A_2 final value, although the final angle of crack extension is not still zero.

Even though only one case is presented in which there is true straight propagation and a corresponding negative A₂ value, the tendency shown is quite clear and further work using this approach will prove this point.

CHAPTER 8

CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE PRESENT WORK, CONCLUSIONS AND SCOPE FOR FUTURE WORK

8.1 Contributions of the Present Work

The test procedure was designed around a rigorous mathematical analysis involving specimen dimensions, loading conditions, material properties, and their relationships with the stresses introduced at the crack. The experimental rig presented many problems. Most of them were satisfactorily overcome, and results were obtained so that correspondence between computational and experimental method was demonstrated.

The discussion presented in Chapters 6 and 7 indicates that much valuable work can be carried out based on the solutions now available so that rational inclusion of this work can be accomplished within the already broad Fracture Mechanics fields. However, there is a need to refine these solutions in order to tackle most of the work proposed as scope for future work.

In the first part of this study, an approach to a practical problem was presented. Use was made of the stress field in the neighbourhood of the crack and a correlation between this and crack behaviour was looked for. It was shown how valuable the finite element method is as a tool for Fracture Mechanics, when used in conjunction with the J contour integral and with Bueckner's method. Analysis of the stress field, prior to crack extension, was made and an attempt was made to co-relate it with future path, some conclusions were reached but experimental verification is required.

Under the second part of this work, a combined computational experimental method to obtain parameters of interest to Fracture Mechanics, was developed and proved to work properly. The method was applied to obtain a parameter defining directional stability and partial success was achieved. It is also possible, working through the first coefficients of the Williams' series, to obtain the values of K_{T} and K_{TT} for complex loading situations, further work is required in this particular matter. There are some other aspects of Fracture Mechanics that could very well be tackled by using the present method but require further special work and/or modifications either to the method or to the computer approach or experimental rig, and because of this they are presented in Section 8.3 as scope for future work, where two parts are listed, under "1" there is a brief description of work that was originally intended to be done under the present study but time did not permit. In "2" some work is described that has become apparent in the light of the present study.

8.2 Conclusions

The computer program developed for determining the coefficients for the Williams series expansion has been fully tested, both by comparing results with those from other researchers and by experimental work done under the present study. The results are satisfactory and the scope for future work using the method developed is wide.

The main objectives of the project have been partially achieved. Correspondence between the second coefficient of the Williams series and the direction of crack propagation has been shown, it has been demonstrated as well that the geometry of the specimen has an influence on this second coefficient, i.e. a

co-relation exists between specimen dimensions, loading, and directional stability of crack propagation.

It has also been established that for all cases of the rectangular or near square DCB type geometries (except for a few with extremely small crack lengths) the application of opening load, but no transverse load, produces positive A_2 coefficient values, which imply directional instability, and experimentally the crack behaviour is like this.

There is evidence which indicates that the change in value of A_2 is of the greatest importance for directional stability, it was pointed out in Section 7.9 that most of the specimens tested experimentally had conditions which according to A_2 had certain initial level of directional instability and that on crack extension, neglecting deviations, the new directional stability level was higher (i.e. smaller A_2 values), which agrees completely with the observed experimental behaviour.

A final approach to fully substantiate the point that a negative A_2 value means directional stability was made by applying the computer program ANGCRK to two specimens that are commonly known to be directionally stable, i.e. single edge crack bend (three point crack bending, a specimen with dimension 8 x 2in was considered), and single edge crack tension (a specimen with dimensions 15 x 1.5in was considered). The values of the first three coefficients of the Williams series are shown in Tables 8.1. As expected the values of A_2 are negative (up to a \approx 0.8in for the single edge crack bend and up to a \approx 0.6in for the single edge crack tension specimen), which again seems to demonstrate a co-relation between A_2 and directional stability.

8.3 Scope for Future Work

(1) Two aspects originally intended to be developed within this work were not fully tested.

(i) Definition of a critical value of A as a parameter
 defining a point of directional stability.

One of the initial objectives of this work was to obtain a qualitative relationship between the second coefficient of the Williams series and the direction of crack propagation. It has been demonstrated that whenever a sufficiently large transverse compressive load is applied to the specimen, the crack path follows the original path. However a critical point separating stable and unstable directional paths has not been identified, within the scope for future work and by refining the present method this could be done.

(ii) Other criteria for directional stability.

Some work on different criteria for directional stability of crack propagation had been planned and a computer program for evaluating these criteria was developed (Section 6.5). However, shortage of time rendered it impossible to fully test this program. Some of the results obtained were given in Section 7.7 with a very brief discussion, but it is thought that a great deal of work is necessary in relation to this program and possible corelation with experimental implementation of it.

(iii) Although it was not fully planned, during the design stage of the experimental rig it was found that provision could be made for making photoelastic studies at the crack neighbourhood, so this facility was incorporated. Work in this field should prove to be interesting, especially under complex loading, either by introducing an angled crack (which introduces mode II loading) or by applying a fixed relationship between opening and transverse load to study biaxial effects.

(2) In the light of the present work, some ideas for future work have evolved. They concern different topics most of which the writer knows only superficially and so only time would have permitted the development of the necessary method to obtain reliable information. However, a very brief attempt has been made to illustrate some of the points, and a description of these follows. The first point concerns:

(i) Conditions of crack arrest - Fig. 8.1 shows the specimen crack surface obtained on crack extension, and Table 8.2 gives relevant data about the conditions in which extension took place. The first point to be made here concerns the magnitude of the opening load. As could be expected it is practically the same for all the specimens. The small changes noticed can be easily explained by one of two facts:-

(a) possible differences in tip radius;

(b) as crack extension occurred during load application and there is no clear assessment of the rate with which load was applied it is quite possible that the point of maximum applied load occurs nearer or farther away in time from the last reading taken by the opening load cell.

The second point concerns crack arrest. In Figs.8.1 (a to e) the difference in length of phase II crack surfaces can be clearly seen, so the initial crack extension can be measured. Even though this was not an objective of these experiments, it turned out that crack extension in specimen no. 6/12, Fig.8.1(a), was completely phase III (no sudden crack extension), while on specimens 4/12, 2/12, 3/12 the initial length of crack extension is

progressively higher and there is a direct correspondence between these lengths and the opening load value at which crack arrest (here crack arrest is taken as the change from a high velocity spreading to a low velocity) was obtained. This measurement of the value of load for crack arrest was obtained in all cases, so it is thought that within future work, the experimental rig could be used to study conditions for crack arrest.

Studies on the fracture toughness value - The work (ii) done shows the fact, already known that the fracture toughness of the material is independent of the transverse load. It has also been shown that straight cracks can be obtained by applying transverse load, so it should be possible to obtain multiple determinations of toughness for the same specimen at different crack lengths. Work can be done on the fracture toughness (R) as defined by Gurney. It has to be kept in mind that in the present method, load is applied through displacement of the specimen arms, so by measuring both, load and displacement, it should be possible to plot the curve (x - u) as Gurney did and compare results. The evidence obtained from the different specimens suggests that the actual opening load values for increasing crack lengths are as depicted in Fig.8.2. It should be pointed out that for the opening load, because of the way in which load is applied (a displacement of the specimen's arms), there is a reduction of the load value as the crack advances. As the objective of the experiment was not to co-relate opening load with crack lengths, no complete records of crack lengths were taken, the only true load values in the curve depicted (Op.load vs a), are those shown. Anyway, on the basis of the observed behaviour

an experiment can be devised in order to obtain the true experimental curve (Op.load vs a). It has also been shown that an opening load value for a given crack length, induces a particular positive A_2 value, the curve (Op.load vs a) would be used to determine through A_2 , the transverse load necessary for straight crack propagation and from it the previously mentioned multiple determination of toughness can be made.

(iii) In order to be able to apply the approach developed in this work, to more complex situations, say determination of critical parameters for complicated structures, a fully computed approach is proposed in which for application to real problems, the finite element method is combined with program ANGCRK. The approach would be to obtain the stress field developed within a cracked body, isolate a zone (with the form required for program ANGCRK, see Fig.8.3 and use the stress field to calculate normal and tangential tractions along the isolated zone boundaries. From these tractions the coefficients for the Williams series can be computed parameters of interest thus obtained.

	TABLE	3.	.1
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Crack Length . mm	K psi∫in computed	k _t σ√πa	σ.∕та
1.03	147	281	116
0.87	144	236	115
`0 . 67	139	230	115 [.]
0.51	133	198	113
0.35	122	198	108
0.24	108	166	103

STRESS INTENSITY FACTORS

TABLE 3.2

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE DIFFERENT CRACK LENGTHS CONSIDERED ON THE GEAR

Crack	Initiating Point in.x in.y		Angle (Rad	Length (mm)
1	35095	16.41645	0.80078	1.03
2	 35095	16.41645	0.82647	1.03
3	35872	16.4043	1.10256	1.03
4	36165	16.4043	1.10256	1.03
5	36480	16.40175	1.13479	1.03

J VALUES FOR DIFFERENT CRACKS

Angle Rad Crack Length	0.80078	0.82747	0.97397	1.09140	1.10256	1.13479
0.11	85.797	85.7	80.798	94.9	91.101	88.639
0.22	107.88	108.00		116.4	110.68	107.20
0.35	121.95	121.00	123.34	123.04	119.89	116.27
0.52	133.00	131.37	131.11	128.07	125.48	121.13
0.68	140.35	139.28	135.86	131.74	129.27	126.00
0.83	144.00	143.00	138.11	134.04	131.58	128.40
1.03	146.11	146.97	140.7	136.05	133.94	131.26

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LOAD VALUES TO BE APPLIED AT THE NODES

Nodes on the Lower Face	Load(1b)	Nodes on the Upper Face	Load(1b)
328	- 36.487	5	36.487
329	- 95.352	254	95.352
330	-172.14	255	172.14
331	-205.77	256	205.77
332	-179.18	257	179.18
333	-174.36	258	174.36
334	-170.70	259	170.70
335	-147.49	260	147.49
336	-112.07	261	112.07
337	- 78.72	262	78.72
338	- 49.16	263	49.16
339	- 11.59	264	11.59
340	- 2.00	45	2.00

ON THE CRACK SURFACES

VALUES OF NORMAL STRESS ALONG THE DIFFERENT LINES

·Lir	ne 1	Line 2		Lj	ine 3	Lir	ne 4
Elem.	Stress	Elem.	Stress	Elem.	Stress	Elem.	Stress
467	-14206	472	-25823	476	-6776	477	-1581
455	-10500	448	-24443	464	-10642	465	-6171
443	-16076	424	-22718	452	-7100	453	-2581
431	-12920	400	-21241	440	-11159	441	-6635
419	-17467	339	-18641	428	7308	429	3000
407	└ 15753	24	-16192	416	-11731	417	-7425
395	-17995	30	-16308	392	-11734	393	-7813
383	-16257	3	-14478	345	-8290	346	8181
				33	-7343	347	-5000
				5	7530	39	-6504
				74	-6617	40	-3971
				83	13645	41	-5142
		•.		82	-7105	74	-6617
						83	13645
						82	-71 05 '

SHOWN IN FIG. 3.14(1b/in²)

TABLE 3.5 (cont.)

Line	e 5	Line 6		Lj	ne 7	Lir	ne 8
Elem	Stress	Elem	Stress	Elem	Stress	Elem	Stress
478	2016	356	21390 -	467	-14206	479	-107444
466	-1330	355	1047	468	-24306	480	-15157
454	535	354	1500	469	-29988	481	-25745
442	2314	353	13281	470	-28115	482	-31076
430	2035	352	1057	471	-27068	483	-29138
418 .	-3356	351	2525	472	-25823	484	-27840
406	- 280	350	2642	473	-22492	485	-26192
394	-3906	349	-1124	474	-17397	486	- 22645
348	-2941	40	-3971	475	-11994	487	-17329
349	-1124	41	-5142	476	- 6776	488	-11612
40	-3971	48	-2112	477	- 1581	489	- 6121
41	-5142	42	1235	478	2016	490	- 16
74	- 6617	83	13645	356	21390	586	17264
83	13645	82	-7105			587	15939

SHEAR STRESS VALUES ALONG THE DIFFERENT LINES SHOWN IN FIG.3.14(1b/in²)

Lir	ne 1	Lir	ne 1	Lir	ne 3	Liı	ne 3	Lir	ne 5	Lir	ne 5
Elem	Stress	Elem	Stress	Elem	Stress	Elem	Stress	Elem	Stress	Elem	Stress
467 455 .	693 414	479 491	- 951 - 671	484 496	1982 _1217	472 460	768 -1261	490 502	2635 4093	478 466	-2828 -6306
443 431	2684 1696	503 515	-3401 -3764	520 532	58 2460	448 436	- 420 -1368	514 526	4852 4654	454 442	-3611 -2656
419	4062	527	-5364	544 556	919 2278	424 412	_1221 _1231	538 550	6838 6914	430 418	-7074 -4889
40 7 39 5	3275 5227	539 551	-5931 -6720	374	2339	400	– 1617	562	7723	406	-6735
383 331	4504 5763	563 382	-7496 -7608	373 372	3834 2410	388 338	- 900 99	574 365	7789 8746	394 348	-5527 -7746
332 14	5937 7103	381 330	-8265 -8083	79 67	3604 1864	23 24	- 625 - 828	363 364	7065 4471	349 40	-4484 -5202
15 Upper	6022 Crack	329 Lower	-7562 Crack	6	1288	3	-2490	77	5 7 99	41	-4113
opper Sic		Sid									

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Lin	ne 1	Lir	ne 1	Lir	ne 3	Liı	ne 3	Liı	ne 5	Lir	ne 5
Elem	Stress	Elem	Stress	Elem	Stress	Elem	Stress	Elem	Stress	Elem	Stress
11	4627	16	-4543	12	1596	4	-2610	71	4551	74	-5423
20	3929	25	-2627	61	1022	64	-4075	78	5902	83	-7991
28	2124	34	-1124	62	1194	73	-3581	87	2959	82	-4580
37	1993	26	- 1185	80	2254			80	2254		
		35	- 615	81	- 76			88	2818		
		44	- 297								
		53	- 266								
		45	403								-
		54	- 725								
		13	- 86								
		70	- 356								
Upper Sid	Crack le 	•	Crack ide 								

TABLE 3.6 (cont.)

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TABLE	3	.7	

ELASTIC ENERGY VALUES FOR DIFFERENT CRACK LENGTHS

·····	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
Crack Length (in)	Energy Value (1b/in)
0.10503	19.088
0.087261	18.818
0.077362	17.656
0.068877	16.007
0.061894	14.090
0.055089	11.806
. 0.048370	9.2845
0.041476	6.7247
0.03467	4.4084
0.027951	2.5285
0.021235	1.1282
0.014165	0.32527

$\frac{\text{TABLE 5.1}}{\text{COMPARISON OF VALUES OF } 2\pi A_1/P^2 \text{ AS OBTAINED}}$

BY THE METHOD DEVELOPED IN THIS WORK,

		^{2πA} 1′	∕₽ ²
a/£	A 1	Present Method	Gross
0.1	-0.09561	0.482	0.445
0.2	-0.1503	1.191	1.180
0.3	-0.2224	2.600	2.603
0.5	-0.48534	12.410	12.399
0.7	-1.2425	81.400	-

AND GROSS' RESULTS

For the present method, NBPT = 182;

P = 0.345

NE	3PT	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
A	198	12.0 x 1.0 x 0.3l	1.604
N	198	8.0 x 1.0 x 0.3l	1.631
G C	198	6.0 x 1.0 x 0.3l	1.652
R	198	$4.0 \times 1.0 \times 0.3l$	1.654
К	198	2.2 x .0 x 0.3l	1.6599
Gross			1.5796
Hayes			1.6628

TABLE 5.3

VALUES OF $K_{I} \int a/P$ AS GIVEN BY DIFFERENT METHODS

Tending				K _I ∫a/P				
Loading Condition	H/L	C/L	Complex Method	Collocation Method	Program ANGCRK	Dif ₁ *	Dif ₂ *	
Shear Stress	0.444	0.347	4.737	4.599	4.590	2.8 %	2.8 %	
Shear Stress	0.444	0.444	6.305	6.332	6.305	0.43%	-	
Shear Stress	0.444	0.587	10.670	10.600	10.520	0.63%	1.5 %	

 Dif_1 is the difference between complex method and collocation method

 Dif_2 is the difference between complex method and Program ANGCRK

TABLE 5.4

STRESS INTENSITY FACTORS FOR UNIFORMLY LOADED

SINGLE EDGE CRACKED SPECIMENS

(EFFECTIVELY INFINITE IN LENGTH)

K _I /σ / πa								
a/d	Gross et al (1964)	Hayes (1970)	Present Method					
0.1	1.1864	1.1062						
0.2	1.3734	1.2961						
0.3	1.6628	1.5796	1.604					
0.4	2.1066	2.0079						
0.5	2.8298	2.6798						

TABLE	6.1(a)	

LOAD CALIBRATION FOR TRANSVERSE CELLS

Load	Load Cell Reading (µv)									
(1ъ)	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27		
20	112	122	105	114	106	103	117	108		
40	220	249	218	228	221	208	235	217		
60	335	375	330	347	338	315	347	327		
80	448	498	444	463	457	4 2 5	462	435		
100	563	622	555	577	575	537	576	547		
120	677	745	668	6 98	696	650	690	660		
140	790	874	782	814	815	763	810	775		
160	909	995	893	935	935	878	930	890		
180	1020	1120	1008	1051	1053	993	1050	1002		
200	1135	1248	1124	1173	1175	1108	1168	1115		
µ v/Load	5.68	6.22	5.75	5.83	5.83	5.48	5.81	5.54		

TABLE 6.1(b)

LOAD CALIBRATION FOR OPENING LOAD

	First	t Assemb	olage	Second Assemblage		
Opening Load		μv			μν	
(1b)	1 *	2 *	3 **	1 *	2 *	3 *
0	-46	40	52	0	–29	45
100	26	102	120	46	16	95
200	91	171	190	92	61	140
300	166	.242	261	138	109	187
400	238	312	330	184	154	235
500	308	380	400	229	203	278
Load UV	1.413	1.470	1.438	2.182	2.16	2.15
Average	1.44				2.164	

* for each particular calibration (1,2,3) different values of transverse load were applied in conjunction with the opening load.

TABLE	6.	2

DEC	ידיד ד	C.
RES	ULT	2

Case	A ₁	^A 2	^A 3	A 4
а	-40.3226	-0.4078	-21.2494	0.320
ъ	-39.3164	-0.8442	-20.6243	0.415
с	-64.057	9.3999	-33.241	1.291
đ	-45.460	1.7205	-23.7423	0.661
e	-40.405	-0.349	-21.148	0.517

TABLE 6.3

		·				
	Case	Load	Aj	А ₂ .	^А з	A4
1–198	1	6.25	- 2.52492	-15.60978	-1.37875	0.013097
2–197	2	6 .2 5	- 2.42185	-15.65214	-1.32460	0.012180
3–196	3	6.25	- 2.47243	-1 5.63257	-1.35082	0.01292
4–195	4	6.25	- 2.47043	-15.6338 5	-1.34870	0.01401
6–193	5	25.00	- 9.83291	-12.67850	-5.19663	0.09838
9–190	6	25.00	- 0.75057	-12.69464	-5.11628	0.14883
12-187	7	25.00	-16.01811	-10.11745	-8.35084	0.31725

TABLE 6.4

	^А 1	^A 2	A ₃		A ₁	^A 2	A ₃
0.1l	- 0.68086	-0.012870	-00.17578	0.12	- 0.95084	0.057679	- 0.30236
0.2	- 0.85622	0.10595	- 0.30783	0.2	- 1.24700	0.25484	- 0.51259
0.3	- 1.04127	0.19862	- 0.41413	0.3	- 1.53919	0.44354	- 0.70979
0.4	- 1.27620.	0.28472	- 0.53307	0.4	_ 1.84374	0.62667	- 0.90316
0.5	- 1.62405	0.36351	- 0.69659	0.5	- 2.19409	0.80258	- 1.10287
0.6	- 2.22784	0.44140	- 1.01109	0.6	- 2.71039	0.95420	- 1 . 33785
0.7	- 3.44878	0.57641	- 1.87494	0.7	- 3.77872	1.07542	- 1.82175
0.8	- 6.41977	1.13795	- 5.23577	0.9	 - 6.69945	1.35074	- 3.84640
0.9	-15.85566	5.78747	-27.06240	0.9	-17.86976	4.67371	-20.43743

COEFFICIENT VALUES FOR SPECIMEN 4 x 4 COEFFICIENT VALUES FOR SPECIMEN

COEFFICIENT VALUES FOR SPECIMEN 12 x 4

COEFFICIENT VALUES FOR SPECIMEN 8 x 4

	А ₁	^A 2	^А з		A ₁	A 2	А ₃
0.2L	- 1.80256	0.47063	- 0.80076	0.26	- 1.31190	0.15279	- 0.46465
	- 3.0 282	1.02170	- 1.46217		- 1.80256	0.47063	- 0.80076
0.3	- 4.04007	1.62739	- 2.10940	0.3	- 2.28660	0.78602	- 1.12740
0.4	- 5.00505	2.21707	- 2.71333	0.4	- 2.77604	1.09078	- 1.44532
0.5	- 6.02231	2.83414	- 3.38994	0.5	- 3.27723	1.40243	– 1 .7 7803
0.6	- 6.97822	3.45972	- 4.03048	0.6	- 3.83434	1.69837	- 2.10147
0.7	- 8.03905	4.07437	- 4.70821	0.7	- 4.78749	1.93386	- 2.51018
0.8	-10.11481	4.54930	- 5.57145	0.8	- 7.57352	2.13052	- 3.86985
0.9	-22.82669	5.43279	-13.67574	0.9	-20.14883	4.52048	-17.30471

Loading conditions for all cases

Opening load 10 lb (P)

Transverse load 0 (S)

(Tables 7.5 are a complement for covering different S_x/P_y relationships)

165

6 x 4

(i) <i>l</i> = 6	(ii)	l = 12	$\sigma_{x} = 10 \text{ lb/ins}$
b = 1		b = 2	$\sigma_v = 10 \text{ lb/ins}$

ā	3	l/ 6	l/ 3	l/2	2 l/ 3	5 l/ 6
	i	-9.025	-29.999	-62.464	-105.885	-160.087
^A 1	ii	-3.191	-10.606	-22.084	- 37.436	- 56.599
	i	2.49625	13.5517	32.78309	63.15581	109.33239
^A 2	ii	1.248	6.775	+16 . 391	31.577	54.666
	i	-6.369	-26.097	-58.630	-107.607	-179.529
^A 3	ii	-4.503	-18.453	-41.450	. 76.089	-126.946

TABLE 7.2

NORMAL STRESS VALUES AT THE CRACK TIP FOR

 $S_x = 10 \text{ lb/in } P_y = 10 \text{ lb}$

a	σ Υ	σ _x	^σ y ^{/σ} x
0.2	5 . 975	28	0.214
0.5	6.936	100	0.069
1.0	7.8	220	0.0355
2.0	15.94	460	0.0347
3.0	31.66	700	0.0453
4.0	78.75	940	0.0838
5.0	345	1180	0.292
5.5	1440	1300	1.109
5.8	9225	1372	6.22

TABLE	7	• 3	

NORMAL STRESS VALUES AT THE CRACK TIP FOR

a	σ _y	σχ	^ϭ ៴ ^{៸ϭ} ϫ
0.2	36.5	-1344	-0.0267
0.5	41.0	-1272	-0.0322
1.0	48.9	-1142	-0.0428
2.0	80.4	- 912	-0.0728
3.0	146.0	- 672	-0.217
4.0	336.0	- 432	-0.776
5.0	1376	- 192	-7.16
5.5	5556	- 72	-77.2
5.8	5500 0	0	-

 $\frac{S}{X} = 1392 \text{ and } \frac{P}{Y} = 10$

TABLE 7.4

PROPORTIONAL PARTS OF A VALUES FOR SPECIMENS <u>6 x 6, 6 x 4, 6 x 1</u>, LOADING CONDITIONS $S_x = 10 \text{ lb/in}, P_y = 10 \text{ lb/in}$

lx2b a	Prop.	6.0 x 1.0	6.0 x 4.0	6.0 x 6.0
0.2	i	-0.51950	-0.54224	-1.08600
	ii	-0.20494	-0.34201	-0.46149
	iii	-0.31456	-0.50023	-0.62451
	iv	Stable	Stable	Stable
0.5	i	-0.0981	-0.81937	-1.0509
	ii	0.21470	-0.31912	-0.42305
	iii	-0.31280	-0.50025	-0.62785
	iv	Stable	Stable	Stable
1.0	i	1.77758	-0.71591	-0.98316
	ii	2.08718	-0.21616	-0.35840
	iii	-0.31018	-0.49975	-0.62476
	iv	Unstable	Stable	Stable
2.0	i	9.479	-0.04802	-0.73216
	ii	9.79450	0.45208	-0.10737
	iii	-0.31550	-0.50010	-0.62479
	iv	Unstable	Stable	Stable
3.0	i	23.20145	1.22262	-0.23829
	ii	23.51677	1.72227	0.38541
	iii	-0.31532	-0.49965	-0.62370
	iv	Unstable	Unstable	Stable
4.0	i	44.39859	2.79720	0.58688
	ii	44.71380	3.29766	1.21127
	iii	-0.31521	-0.50037	-0.62439
	iv	Unstable	Unstable	Unstable

i - Total value of A_2

$$i = Value of A propertional to $V$$$

ii - Value of A_2 proportional to P_y iii - Value of A_2 proportional to S_x

iv - Stability condition according to sign of A2

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TABLE 7.5(a)

COEFFICIENT VALUES FOR SPECIMEN 4.0 x 4.0

WITH DIFFERENT LOADING CONDITIONS

a	S/P x y	0/10	0/20	10/10	10/40	10/20	20/20	30/20
0.4	A A1 A2 3	- 0.680 - 0.012 - 0.175						
0.8	A A1 A2 3	- 0.856 0.105 - 0.307						
1.2	A. A1 A2 A3	- 1.041 0.198 - 0.414	-2.082 0.397 -0.828	-1.041 -0.001 -0.414	-4.165 0.594 -1.656	-2.082 0.197 -0.828	-2.082 -0.002 -0.828	2.082 0.202 0.828
1.6	A A1 A2 A3	- 1.276 0.284 - 0.533						
2.0	A A1 A2 A3	- 1.624 0.363 - 0.696						
2.4	A A1 A2 A3	- 2.227 0.441 - 1.011						
2.8	A A1 A2 A3	- 3.448 0.576 - 1.874						
3.2	A A1 A2 A3	- 6.419 1.137 - 5.235	-					
3.6	A A1 A2 3	-15.855 5.787 -27.062						

For a = 1.2; S = 10lb/in $\rightarrow A_{2A} = -0.19996$ (constant for any crack $P_{2}^{x} = 10lb \rightarrow A_{20}^{2A} = 0.19862$ length) $A_{2}^{y} = A_{2A} + A_{20}$

(Table 6.4 gives a complete record for $s_x/P_y = 0/10$ and $a = 0.1\ell$ to 0.9 ℓ)

						•		
a.	S/P xx y	0/10	0/20	10/10	10/40	10/20	20/20	30/20
0.6	A A1 A2 3	- 0.950 0.057 - 0.302						
1.2	A A1 A2 3	- 1.247 00.254 - 0.512						
1.8	A A1 A2 3	- 1.539 0.443 - 0.709	-3.078 0.887 -1.419	-1.539 1.524 -0.709	-6.156 1.524 -2.839	-3.078 0.637 -1.419	-3.078 0.387 -1.419	-3.078 0.137 -1.415
2.4	A A1 A2 3	- 1.843 0.626 - 0.903						
3.0	A A1 A2 3	- 2.194 0.802 - 1.102						
3.6	A A1 A2 3	- 2.719 0.954 - 1.337						
4.2	A A1 A2 3	- 3.778 1.075 - 1.821						
4.8	A A1 A2 A3	- 6.699 1.350 - 3.846	- -					

WITH DIFFERENT LOADING CONDITIONS

COEFFICIENT VALUES FOR SPECIMEN 6.0 x 4.0

TABLE 7.5(b)

For a = 1.8; $S_x = 10 \rightarrow A_{2A} = -0.24995$ (constant for any crack length) $P_y = 10 \rightarrow A_{20} = 0.44354$

and as these loads change, there is a proportional change in A_{2A}

-17.869

4.673 -20.437

A A1 A2 A3

5.4

 $A_2 = A_{2A} + A_{2O}$ (Table 6.4 gives a complete record for $S_x/P_y = 0/10$ and a = 0.1l to 0.9l)

						<u></u>		
а	s_∕₽ x y	0/10	0/20	10/10	10/40	10/20	20/20	30/20
0.8	A A1 A2 A3	- 1.311 0.152 - 0.464						
1.6	A A1 A2 3	- 1.802 0.470 - 0.800						
2.4	A A1 A2 3	- 2.286 0.786 - 1.127	-4.573 1.572 -2.254	-2.286 0.473 -1.127	-9.146 2.831 -4.509	-4.573 1.259 -2.255	-4.573 0.947 -2.255	-4.574 0.634 -2.255
3.2	A A1 A2 3	- 2.776 1.090 - 1.445						
4.0	A A1 A2 3	- 3.277 1.402 - 1.778						
4.8	A A1 A2 3	- 3.834 1.698 - 2.101						
5.6	A A1 A2 3	- 4.787 1.933 - 2.510						
6.4	A A1 A2 3	- 7.573 2.130 - 3.869						
7.2	A A A 2 3	20.148 4.520 -17.304			•			

COEFFICIENT VALUES FOR SPECIMEN 8.0 x 4.0 WITH DIFFERENT LOADING CONDITIONS

TABLE 7.5(c)

For a = 2.4 in; ${}_{x}^{5} = 10 \text{ lb/in} \rightarrow {}_{2A}^{4} = -0.31250 \text{ (constant for any crack length)}$ ${}_{y}^{P} = 10 \text{ lb} \rightarrow {}_{20}^{A} = 0.78602 \text{ length}$

 $A_2 = A_{2A} + A_{20}$

(Table 6.4 gives a complete record for $S_x/P_y = 0/10$ and a = 0.1l to 0.9l)

TABLE 7.5(d)

COEFFICIENT VALUES FOR SPECIMEN 12.0 x 4.0

WITH	DIFFERENT	LOADING	CONDITIONS

a	5/P x y	0/10	0/20	10/10	10/40	10/20	20/20	30/20
1.2	A A ¹ A ² 3	- 1.802 0.470 0.800				-		
2.4	A A1 A2 3	- 3.042 1.021 - 1.462						
3.6	A A1 A2 3	- 4.040 1.626 - 2.109	-8.081 3.254 -4.218	-4.040 1.211 -2.110	-16.160 6.094 - 8.438	-8.080 2.839 -4.220	-8.080 2.423 -4.221	-8.080 2.008 -4.222
4.8	A A1 A2 3	5.005 2.217 - 2.713						
6.0	A A1 A2 3	- 6.022 2.834 - 3.389						
7.2	A1 A A ² 3	- 6.978 3.459 - 4.034						
8.4	A A1 A2 3	- 8.039 4.074 - 4.708						
9•6	A A ¹ A ² 3	-10.114 4.549 - 5.571						
10.0	A A1 A2 3	-22.826 5.432 -13.675						

For a = 3.6 in; ${}^{S} = 10 \text{ lb/in} \rightarrow {}^{A}_{2A} = -0.41558 \text{ (constant for any crack } {}^{P^{X}} = 10 \text{ lb} \rightarrow {}^{A}_{20} = 1.62639 \text{ length} \text{)}$ ${}^{A}_{2} = {}^{A}_{2A} + {}^{A}_{20} \text{ v}$

(Table 6.4 gives a complete record for S_X/P_Y = 0/10 and a = 0.11 to 0.91)

	<u> </u>		Values dep	picted in Fi	ig.7.4			
	а	s/p 0/10 x y	10/10	20/10	30/10	40/10	50/10	
	0.2	-0.44885	-1.086	-1.7232	-2.3604	-2.9976	-3.6348	
	0.5	-0.41377	-1.0509	-1.6881	-2.2253	-2.8625	-3.4997	
9	1.0	-0.35840	-0.9831	-1.60785	-2.2326	-2.8573	-3.4821	ble
x Q	2.0	-0.10737	-0.7316	-1.3556	-1.9802	-2.6047	-3.2288	Stable
-	3.0	0.38541	-0.23829	-0.8619	-1.4856	-2.1093	-2.7331	
Specimen	4.0	1.2240	0.5868	-0.0370	-0.661	-1.3849	-1.9106	
ped	5.0	7.57679	6.9539	6.3311	5.7083	5.0855	4.4627	a,
	5.5	45.86069	45.2343	44.6080	43.9817	43.3554	42.729	[db]
	5.8	150.79623	150.1412	149.4862	148.8311	148.1761	147.5211	Instabl

1.1

A COEFFICIENT VALUES FOR DIFFERENT LOADING CONDITIONS AND DIRECTIONAL STABILITY OF PROPAGATION

TABLE 7.6

1	a	s _x /P _y 0/10	10/10 [.]	20/10	30/10	40/10	50/10	
	1.0	-0.215	-0.715	-1.215	-1.715	-2.215	-2.714	le
	2.0	0.452	-0.048	-0.548	-1.048	-1.548	-2.048	Stable
X 4	3.0	1.722	1.22	0.7229	0.223	-0.276	-0.776	St
9	4.0	3.2972	2.7972	2.2969	1.796	1.296	0.7958	
uen	5.0	7.2769	6.7769	6.278	5.779	5.281	4.782	Ъе
Specimen	5.5	36.8899	36.3899	35.8957	35.4051	34.9072	34.4130	Unstable
Spe	5.8	170.3402	169.8402	169.341	168.857	168.3654	167.8738	Uns
	0.2	-0.20501	-0.5195	-0.8341	-1.1486	-1.4632	-1.777	ble
	0.5	0.21462	-0.0981	-0.4109	-0.7237	-1.036	-1.349	Stabl
	1.0	2.08776	1.777	1.4674	1.1572	0.847	0.5368	
×	2.0	9.7945	9.479	9.163	8.848	8.533	8.218	
9	3.0	23.20145	22.890	22.580	22.2696	21.959	21.648	
nen	4.0	44.39859	44.083	43.769	43.455	43.139	42.8249	U
Specimen	5.0	76.61821	76.307	75.996	75.686	75.375	75.064	abl
S D	5.5	89.71938	89.4063	89.0932	88.7802	88.4672	88.1541	Unstabl
	5.8	189.10466	188.7919	188.4791	188.12	187.8536	187.5409	5
	L	I	l	L				1

TABLE 7.6 (cont)

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							4 × 09D		-	14 CY	CLES)					 1	Ta.k.	la 7.	710) Lo	adin	q n	Iror.	rd				
Reading		IJŀ	PER	? F.	ORW	ARD	GA	UGE	5		1		لمل	IER	FDR	WAR.	56	RUSE	<u>'</u>		1	B	ACKW	ARE) 6A	UGES	s .<		
Nº	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	24	27	
	-134	147	-30	0	3	-14	-28	43	61	_	66	-159	17	-14	1	- 7	96	-83	-5	0	-4	1	-0	4	- 3	-/	3	2	NO LOADING
	-129	176	-13	43			-22/			_	108	-283	84	- 95	59	-35	97	-98	160	-64									
				48			-240					-301					97	-101	172	- 7/								<u> </u>	
	-131	181	-12	49	-49	39	-231	154	0		117	-294	95					- 99		-62	Į								
							-225				117	-236	71			-37	99	- 99	155	-58									
							- 221				115	-283	90	-97	56	-35	99	-78	152	-55	I					<u> </u>			
	-133	176	-//	45	-43	36	-219	139	0	_	116	-28/	88	-96	53	-35	98	-98	150	-53			_						
	-133	177	-10	45	-43	35	-2/7	135	-1	-	115	-280	27	-94	53	-34	98	- 98	149	-5Z									
	-134	175	-10	44	-42	32	-215	133	-5	-	115	-277	86	-91	51	-33	88	-98	146	-50				_					
	-135	174	-11	43	- 41	32	-212	131	0	-	114	-275	86	-90	48	-33	99	-78	144	-50			_						
	-135	173	-10	43	-40	33	-211	130	0	-	114	-274	84	-89	49	-33	99	-99	142	-48									
							-226			~	132	-279	100	- 78	63	-35	100	-91	152	-54									OPENING LOAD
	-141	174	-15	39	-38	31	204	121	-4	-	125	-261	86	-81	47	-29	100	- 77	136	-44				_					
	-143	168	-15	35	-34	29	-193	111	0	-	121	-252	20	-71	42	-25	101	-95	129	-38									
	-142	167	-16	33	- 31	28	-186	106	0	1	117	-246	76	-66	39	-22	101	-95	124	-35									
	-144	165	-15	32	-30	58	-181	103	3	-	116	-243				-22													
	128	159	-17	28	-24	24	-168	93	6	-	112	-2.33	65	-54	29	-19	100	-93	111	-26								1	Reading Alter 1/2 Ene
									·										·										
	-151	146	-39	3	-34	-134	-155	41	-137	<u>-</u>	65	-219	33	-55	-123	-37	82	-98	68	-14									Red After 12 har.
	-143	رو ر	-45	,	- 32	-155	-38	-9	-121	-	19	-176	- z -	-38	-124	-32	23	-36	-38	5									

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	PEC							4	×¥	<u> </u>							7	abl	, 7.7	I (d)) Lo	nclis	29	писл	пd					· · ·
Reading	·		PER		5.2.6		GAL	UGES	;				Lou	IEL	FDL	LAR.) 6.	AUGE	_ ک			-			GA				0.2	
Nº	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24		_		32	
	112	-58	-89	24	38	222	23	-93	8	-	- 89	293	250	0	106	28	-26	15	120	-32	125	125	119	120	118	100	53	78	- 37	TRANS. LOAD
	-40	-53	-88	21	-63	334	8	-71	9	-	-34	256	375	-85	184	9	0	25	154	- 49	161	141	120	100		83	88	84	34	OP. LOAD
		-60	-129	39	-110	388	-10	-31	32	1	24	232	459	-149	239	-13	1	27	170	-154	178	152	125	100	93	84	96	98	58	·
	5	-54	-174	64	-149	438	-37	7	50	-	89	201	544	-216	299	-46	-1	26	194	-207	187	164	132			84	106	+	85	
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1	1	-27	-9	24	-2	-67	168	11	-21	16	-	68	0	61	36	95	56	24	15	0	23	152	227	232	236	251	244	224	230	12 -14
1	2	-44	-S	10	-6	43	-62	9	- 40	-91	-	21	-4	37	19	-87	30	20	13	-9	27	165	205	212	228	242	205	184	207	AFTER 20 Pros.
1	3	2	25	61	-/	รร	-42	31	-40	-100	-	-18	1	1	26	-32	57	15	42.	2	65		204 .		-			176		Creaning Fourt
1.	4	-20	4	0	-4	19	-105	30	-26	-/35	-	-24	13	-35	-21	-145	+5	- 2	25	-30	·31	. ۋ	5	0	5	ప	-/	- 3	-5	ANIAL LOAD REME Jed.

	PE XIa				12 1 20 1	7 16/iu²	12	? ×4		13 גוו	nt.	lonar				lene						2							Loading Conditions
Readi	r	1.11.	PER	F	ORUI	RRD.	GAL	GES				<u> </u>	100			2LJAN						£	ACKL	UDR	0 6	RUG	ES -		and Cacek
: Nº	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	Deve Popment
1	-/	50	74	10	72	111	-1	-19	-44	_	90	34	22	-20	52	18	53	51	-//	32	229	245	227	233	231	217	230	221	TRANS LOAD
2	-9	33	11	25	56	178	-28	-29	-1	-	170	57	39	-51	95	З	54	0	17	1	218	241	226	236	234	224	237	234	OPENING LOAD
}	-15	34	-4	28	51	195	-32	-22	9	-	192	60	42	-60	106	-2	57	- 37	27	-6	217	240	227	236	235	225	240	238	
	-19	33	-6	26	18	204	-36	-/7	14	-	207	61	13	-67	113	0	57	-/3	34	-11	215	240	227	237	236	225	242	241	
Ì	-23	34	-14	25	25	212	-39	-14	17	-	218	62	13	-73	119	-2	59	-24	39	-16	215	240	227	237	236	226	242	242	
	-27	З6	-24	23	41	221	-41	-8	21	-	233	62	43	-80	127	-5	60	-35	46	-22	212	239	226	236	236	227	241	244	
	-28	36	-26	22	41	222	-44	-6	21	-	236	42	42	-81	130	-5	60	-35	47	-22	211	239	227	237	236	226	243	245	
	- 29	37	-25	22	42	225	-43	-7	20	-	235	62	42	-83	130	-5	60	-39	47	-22	213	239	227	237	236	228	242	243	
	- 33	39	-35	18	36	242	-46	-/	25	-	252	61	41	-90	141	-10	64	-56	58	-37	214	240	228	238	237	227	245	249	
	-46	40	-44	19	20	249	-53	8	38	-	285	63	43	-99	160	-17	66	-61	63	-42	215	240	228	239	238	231	245	2.49	
		41	- 46	21	11	260	-59	13	45	-	307	64	43	-104	173	-25	74	-43	70	- 52	215	240	230	239	239	229	247	250	
	-61	41	-47	22	6	267	-59	23	47	-	318	65	44	-105	1ŝ0	-28	77	-66	70	-58	215	242	230	239	240	230	247	253	
		41	-48	20	0	274	-63	30	52	-	330	64	45	-106	187	•32	32	-67	72	-66	216	242	230	240	240	230	248	253	
	- 20	43	-49	20	-/	254	-67	39	58	-	348	65	46	-109	200	-36	40	-69	76	-75	218	2.42	231	237	240	231	249	253	,
	-90	44	-50	19	-9	295	-72	49	64	-	366	66	44	-113	211	-41	97	-70	78	-85	219	2.43	231	239	241	232	250	254	[3 Ioi
		44		19	-15	303	-76	57	68	-	381	65	45	-115	220	-45	104	-70	79	-93	221	244	232	241	242	233	250	256	
3	ļ	44	-50	20	-14	303	-76	56	68	-	381	66	-4	-81	83	16	61	30	26	1	181	218	219	235	237	233	256	271	t.
-1	-4	14	-9	2	87	174	0	-8	36	-	213	よう	-1.	-78	79	18	64	34	23	1	184	219	219	235	237	232	256	272	3 [123
1	2	16	0	-2	87	162	3	-8	28	-	202	34	-2	-74	75	20	65	41	19 .	5	156	221	220	234	236	232	255	270	and the second
	3	17	1	-2	86	158	4	-8	27	-	197	84	-3	-73	73	20	65	44	17	7	186	222	220	235	235	231	254	270	1011 1011
	5	132	-3	-3	87	154	5	-9	24	-	192	83	-4	- 73	70	21	65	47	15	9		223				230			KNC
5	_//_	55	ĴŶ\$	-7	79	62	-19	-35	- 42	-	54	26	-9	-31	22	26	100	127	-20	53	221	234	221	229	225	214	229	220	Opening Joed Kemowell
6	13	15	0	-14	20	-16	-11	-19	-/7	-	-19	-15	-16	-6	-19	24	59	19	-4	26	10	7	2	-1	-2	/	9	24	Ardal Joag

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TABLE 7.12(a)

RELEVANT DATA ON THE CRACK PROPAGATION OF SPECIMENS 4.0 x 4.0

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		Crack Longth				Crack Ler	ngth Under	Opening	Trans-			A 2
4 x 4	Crack Tip	Crack Length under Phase I (mm)	α _a (deg)	α _F (deg)	P coord. (mm)	Phase II (mm)	Phase III (mm)	Load (1b)	verse Load (lb/in ²)	Sc (lb)	5 <i>l</i> 1b	Initia Load Final
1/4	Sharp	≈ 1	8 Incre	13.6 eases	y = 7 x = 23		not a clear erence	-	NO			
2/4	Rounded	≈ 1/2	5.8 Incre	11.5 eases	y = 5.5 $x = 27$	7	21	B 194 A 126	NO	205	68	
3/4	Rounded	1	Decre 26	ases 12.5	y = 7.1 x = 21.8	11	12	B 192 A 115	80	222	77	1.32 1.06
4/4	Rounded	. 1 2	16.5 Decre	8 eases	y = 7 x = 33.5	20	14	B 209 A 68 ⁻	100	227	141	1.75 [·] 0.22
5/4	Rounded	1	18 Decre	11.5 eases	y = 6.7 x = 35.6	10	16	E 201 A 115	100	222	86	0.61
6/4	Sharp	1	9 Decre	3 ases	y = 1.3 x = 24	NO	24	_	160	-	-	

TABLE 7.13(a)

RELEVANT DATA ON THE CRACK PROPAGATION OF SPECIMENS 6.0 x 4.0

	Gundia	Crack Length			P	Crack Ler	ngth Unde	Opening	Trans-	Sc	T = = -	A
6 x 4	Crack Tip	under Phase I (mm)	α _a (deg)	α _F (deg)	P Coord. (mm)	Phase II (mm)	Phase III (mm)	Load (1b)	verse Load (lb/in ²)	(1b)	Load (1b)	A Dimension- less Initial/ Final
1/6	Sharp	No	19 Incre	30 eases	y = 14.5 x = 31.5	No		-	No	-	-	
2/6	Slight ly Rounded	1	23 Incre	4 eases	y = 11.2 x = 51	23	28	-	160		-	
3/6		No ,	22 Incre	3 eases	y = 11.0 x = 51	· 36	17	B 312 A 170	160	318	142 _	7.58. 9.6
4/6	Roundec	1	14 Decre	5 eases	y = 4.5 x = 38	14	17	-	160	-	-	
5/6	Sharp	No	4 Decre	<1 eases	y = 1 x = 52	No	52	B 296 A 187	360	296	109	2.58 1.6

 $a_i = initial crack length = 1.574 in$ $<math>a_f = final crack length to calculate A_2 values = a_i + (length under phase II)$

TABLE 7.14 (a)

RELEVANT DATA ON THE CRACK PROPAGATION OF SPECIMENS 8.0 x 4.0

	Cup els	Crack Length	α _a	α _F	P Coord.	Crack Ler	ngth Under	Opening	Trans-	Sc	Slood	A Dimension-
8 x 4	Crack Tip	under Phase I (mm)	a (deg)	r (deg)	(mm)	Phase II (^{mm})	Phase III (mm)	Load (1b)	verse Load (lb/in ²)	(1b)	3 Load (1b)	less Initial/ Final
1/8	Sharp	1	21 Incre	46 eases	y = 14.5 x = 20.0	9	15	I 17 B 342 A 244	No	325	98	22,03
2/8	Sharp	< 1/2	14 Incre	33 eases	y = 6.5 x = 13	NO	14	-	NO	-	-	
3/8	Sharp	< 12	14 Incre	29 eases	y = 11.7 x = 26.5	NO	29	-	NO	-	-	
4/8	Blunt	12	13.5 Decre	6 eases	y = 3.8 x = 20	.5	30 .		240			
5/8	Sharp	< 1/2	7 Decre	1 eases	y = 2.5 x = 36	19 '	15	I - 22 B 390 A 250	850	412	 140	1.23 1.95

a. = initial crack length = 2.125in a_{f}^{i} = final crack length to calculate A_{2} values = a_{i} + (length under phase II)

TAPLE 7. 15 (a)

	Crack	Crack Length			Pr	Crack Ler	igth Under	Opening	Trans- verse	Sc	S Load	A2
12 x 4	Tip	under Phase I (mm)	α _a (deg)	a _F (deg)	Coord (nun)	Phase II (mm)	Phase III (mm)	Load (1b)	Load (1b in ²)	(15)	(1b) Final Load	Dimension- less Initial/ Final
1/12	Blunt	3	10 lnc	21 reases	y = 6.3 x = 26.5	27	35 15	B 327 A 281	No	327	46	49.6 54.6
2/12	Sharp	No	18 Decr	13 cases	y = 7.5 x = 26.5	15	13	I 20 B 320 A 181	360	340	140 (200)	36,55 20,95
3/12	Blunt	1	17 Decr	9.5 eases	y = 6.8 x = 26.5	29	9	I 2.18 B 342 A 142	360	340	201 (110)	36.55 14.05
4/12	Blunt Slight Sharp- ness	1	13 Decr	11 eases	y = 5.7 x = 26.5	6	19	I 2.18 B 312 A 194	360	310	118 (152)	31,95 17.80
5/12	Blunt	-	6.5 Incr	23 cases	y = 6.0 x = 26.5	No	30	в 327° Т 4.5	No	-	-	
6/12	Blunt Slight Sharp- ness	1	12 Decr	4.5 eases	y = 3.0 x = 26.5	No	26	I 2.18 B 329 A 314	700	327	15	20.4

RELEVANT DATA ON THE CRACK PROPAGATION OF SPECIMENS 12 × 4

ci = initial crack length 3.35 in

 $\Omega_j = \text{final crack length to calculate } A_2$ values

= a_i + (length under phase II)

TABLE 7.12(b)

Load (1b)		Case 2	Case 3	Case 4	Case 5	Case 6
*Length(mm		67.5	76.3	142	85	-
Transvers		15.26	. 24	44	22	-
Ioad		NO	.80	100	100	160
Δα	5.6	5.7	13.5	8.5	6.5	6
	Increases	Increases	Decreases	Decreases	Decreases	Decreases

•	TABLE	7.13	(b)

	- • ·				
	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3	Case 4	Case 5
۵۸	+ 11	- 19	- 19	- 9	- .5
ح	Increases	Decreases	Decreases	Decreases	Decreases

TABLE 7.14 (b)

	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3	Case 4	Case 5
load	98	· ·	-	140	-
langth under phasa I	20	-	. –	41	-
p	+ 25	+ 19	+ 15	- 7. 5	- 6
α	Increases	Increases	Increases	Decreases	Decreases

TABLE 7.15 (b)

	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3	Case 4	Case 5
Load (1b)	46	140	201	1 1 8	15
Length under Phase II mm	27	15	29	6	-
· α	+ 11	- 5	-7.5	- 2	-7.5
	Increases	Decreases	Decreases	Decreases	Decreases

*The length of crack extension considered here is that under phase II

There is a definite co-relation between the load value and the length of crack extension. There is a co-relation as well between the change in the angle of the crack ($\Delta \alpha$) increasing when there is no transverse load and decreasing when transverse load operates.

TA	BLE	7.16	

VALUES OF INITIAL APPARENT ANGLE AND FINAL ANGLE FOR SPECIMENS 12 x 4 (Fig.7.15)

x _r	31 mm							
r	a	b	С	d	е	f	g	h
Crack tip	Sharp	Sharp	Sharp	Blunt	Blunt	Sharp	Sharp	Sharp
Load (lb/in)	160	240	280	320	320	320	400	440
α _a	12.5	16	7	19	24	7	10	14
α _F '	12.5	7	4	- 2	0	3	2.5	5

TABLE 7.17 (a)

Specimen 12 x 4	0.2	14.1315 0.60388E-03	- 63.98 0.0
a = 3.6 Coefficients A ₁ -8.080	0.5	6.2757 0.8950E-04	- 88.07 94.32
A ₂ 2.354 A ₃ -4.218	0.8	1.99681 0.29126E-04	-116.02 - 94.32
Loading $\sigma_x = 0.0$ $P_y = 20.0$	1.2	-2.01791 0.17664E-04	0.91 -123.18
Y	1.6	-2.74774 0.4317E-04	0.91 - 43.40

TABLE 7.17 (b)

	Specimen 8 x 4	0.2	7.62776 0.17460E-03	- 49.11 0.0
	a = 3.6 Coefficients	0.5	3.16823 0.29263E-04	- 73.4 - 85.68
	A ₁ -4.972 A ₂ . 1.572 A ₃ -2.254	0.8	0.81072 0.10817E-04	- 74.65 - 88.07
	Loading $\sigma_{\mathbf{x}} = 0.0$ $P_{\mathbf{y}} = 20.0$	1.2	-0.87343 0.98658E-05	0.91 - 94.32
•	У •	1.6	-1.27531 0.11945E-04	0.91 - 43.62

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TABLE 7.17 (c)

Specimen		7.40398	- 48.58
6 x 4	0.2		
a = 2.4		0.1105E-03	0.0
Coefficients		5.91252	- 57.73
A ₁ -3.078	0.5	0.40276E-04	- 71.49
A ₂ 0.887		5.512	- 57.73
A ₃ -1.418	0.8	0.31101E-04	- 70.23
Loading		5.29198	- 57.73
$\sigma_{\rm x} = 0.0$	1.2	0.25975E-04	- 71.14
P =20.0		5.4247	- 47.61
	1.6	0.23079E-04	- 77.39

TABLE 7.17 (d)

Specimen	0.2	3.57991	0.91
4 x 4		0.27715E-04	0.0
a = 1.8		1.34967	0.91
Coefficients	0.5	0.7064E-05	- 67.28
A ₁ -2.082		0.48006	0.91
A ₂ 0.397	0.8	0.26177E-05	- 72.43
A ₃ -0.818		0.17672E-02	- 11.59
Loading	1.2	0 . 18786E-05	- 19.66
$\sigma_{\rm X} = 0.0$		0.11072	- 14.75
P _y =20.0	1.6	0.32395E-06	- 16.50

TABLE 7.17 (e)

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Specimen 4 x 4

Loading	Coe	fficient	Radius	Value of the Criteria	Expected Angle of Crack Growth {deg)
$\sigma_{x} = 10\frac{lb}{in}$ $P_{y} = 40lb$ $a = 1.2in$		-4.1652 0.5945 -1.6565	2.0	$\sigma_{ij} = 1.2725$ S = 0.1945E-05	0.91
$\sigma_{\mathbf{x}} = 0$ $P_{\mathbf{y}} = 101b$	^A 1 ^A 2		0.2	σ _ψ = 1.78392	0.91
a = 1.2in	А ₃	-0.41413		S = 0.6928E-05	0.0
	A 1 A2	-2.0827 -0.00268	0.2	σ = 3.5798	0.91
a = 1.2in	_	-0.8283		S = 0.17059E-04	0.91
$\sigma_{\rm x} = 30 \frac{\rm lb}{\rm in}$	A 1	-2.08283		σψ = 3.5788	0.91
$P_{y} = 201b$ $a = 1.2in$		-0.22026 -0.82836	0.2	S = 1.3899E-05	0.91

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TABLE 7.17 (f)

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Specimen 6 x 1

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Load	ing	Coefficient		Radius	Criteri on Value	Expected Angle of Crack Growth
$\sigma_x = \frac{1}{P_y}$	400 <u>1b</u> in 1001b	A 1 A ₂	-13.814 - 4.187	0.002	σ _♥ = −306.462	0.91 deg
-	0.2in	2 A ₃	-17.880		S = 0.147	0.91 deg
di	tto		ditto	0.02	σ _ψ = - 90.148	0.91 deg
					S = 0.0113	0.91 deg
di	tto		ditto	0.2	σ _ψ = - 9.816	0.91 deg
					S = 0.000145	0.91 deg
di	tto		ditto	2.0	σ, = - 0.736	0.91 deg
					S = 0.000328	-35.11deg
di	tto	A 1	-13.814		$\sigma_{\psi} = -306.471$	0.91 deg
		^A 2 ^A 3	+ 4.187 -17.880	0.02	S = 0.13565	0.91 deg
		A 1	-13.814		$\sigma_{\psi} = -306.466$	0.91 deg
di	tto	^A 2 ^A 3	0.0 -17.880	0.02	S = 0.1409	0.91 deg
		A 1	-13.814		$\sigma_{\psi} = -306.462$	0.91 deg
di	tto	^A 2 ^A 3	- 4.187 -17.880	0.02	S = 0.1469	0.91 deg

TABLE 7.18

VALUES OF A FOR EXPERIMENTAL CASES

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	Initial 3/4 Final		Initial ^{3/4} Final Initial ^{4/4} Final		Initial	5/4 Final	
0.L.	192	109	209	67.6	200	115	İb
T.L.	80	80	* 100	100	100	100	lb/in
а	1.0	1.414	1.0	1.788	1.0	1.433	in
A ₂	1.32	1.06	1.75	- 0.27	0.61	0.51	
a	26	18	16 . 5 ·	10	18	15.5	degree

(a) Specimen 4 x 4

(b) Specimen 6 x 4

	3	3/6	5/	′6
	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
	240	4.50	00.0	407
0.L.	312	170	296	187
T.L.	160	160	360	360
a	1.574	2.992	1.574	2.2
A2	7.58	9.6	2.58	1.6
α	22	10	4	1

(c) Specimen 8 x 4

	5/		
	Initial	Final	
0.L.	412	250	lb
T.L.	850	850	lb/in
a	2.125	2.937	in
A2	1.231	- 1.95	
α	,7	1	deg

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TABLE 7.18 (cont.)

(d) Specimen 12 x 4

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	1/12		2/12		3/12		4/12		6/12		
	Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final	
0.L.	327	281	340	200	340	140	310	192	329		lb
T.L.	0	0	360	360	360	360	360	360	700		lb/in
a	3.38	,4 . 44	3.38	3.97	3.38	4.52	3.38	3.616	3.38		in
A2	49.6	54.6	36.55	20.95	36.55	14.05	31.95	17.8	20.4		
α	10		18		17		13		12		degree

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TABLE 8.1

COEFFICIENT VALUES FOR SINGLE EDGE CRACK BEND SPECIMEN

AND SINGLE EDGE CRACK TENSION SPECIMEN

(a)

а	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.8	1.0
A 1	-8.031	-11.059	-14.599	-19.145	-25.484
A 2	-5.116	- 3.583	- 2.181	- 0.643	⁻ 1.515
^А з	1.428	- 1.908	- 5.413	-10.035	-17.420

(b)

a	0.3	0.6	0.9		
A 1	-18.027	-33.835	-370.759		
^A 2	- 5.165	- 3.722	135.285		
А ₃	5.622	- 2 . 512	-444.330		

TABLE 8.2

Specimen	Fig.8.1	0.L.	Load	Length of Crack Ext. (Phase II)	T.L.
6/12	a	327	0	0	700
4/12	b	283	118	6	360
2/12	с	320	140	15	360
1/12	d	327	• 46	27	0
3/12	е	342	201	29	360

CRACK ARREST

*The crack extension for this specimen was not totally phase II, this can be noticed on the cracked surface.

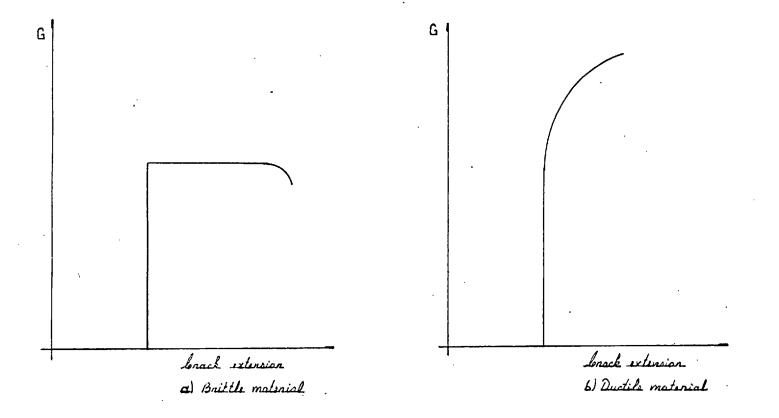
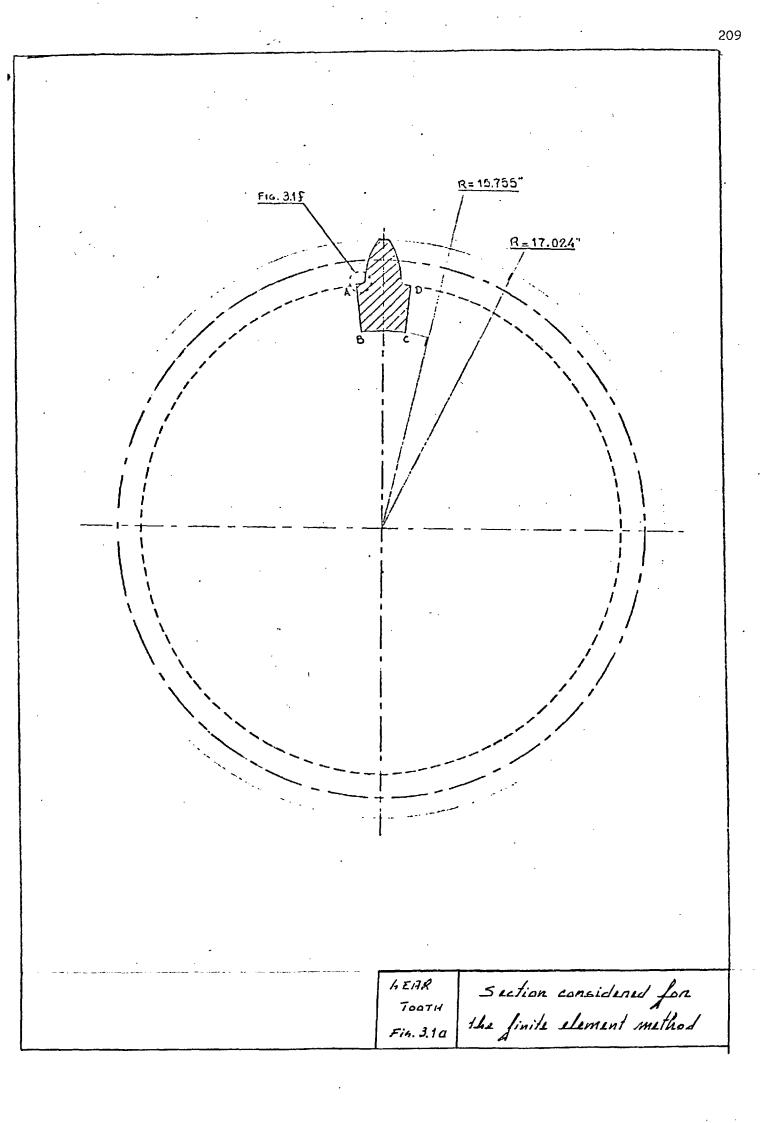
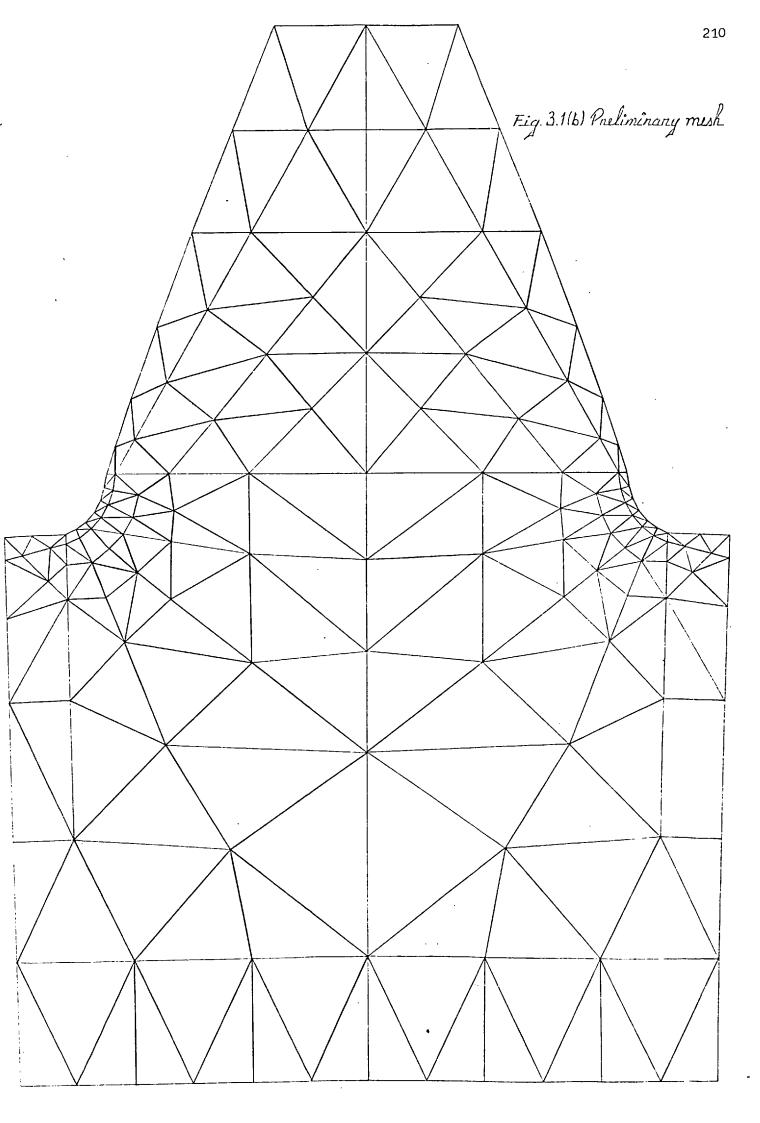
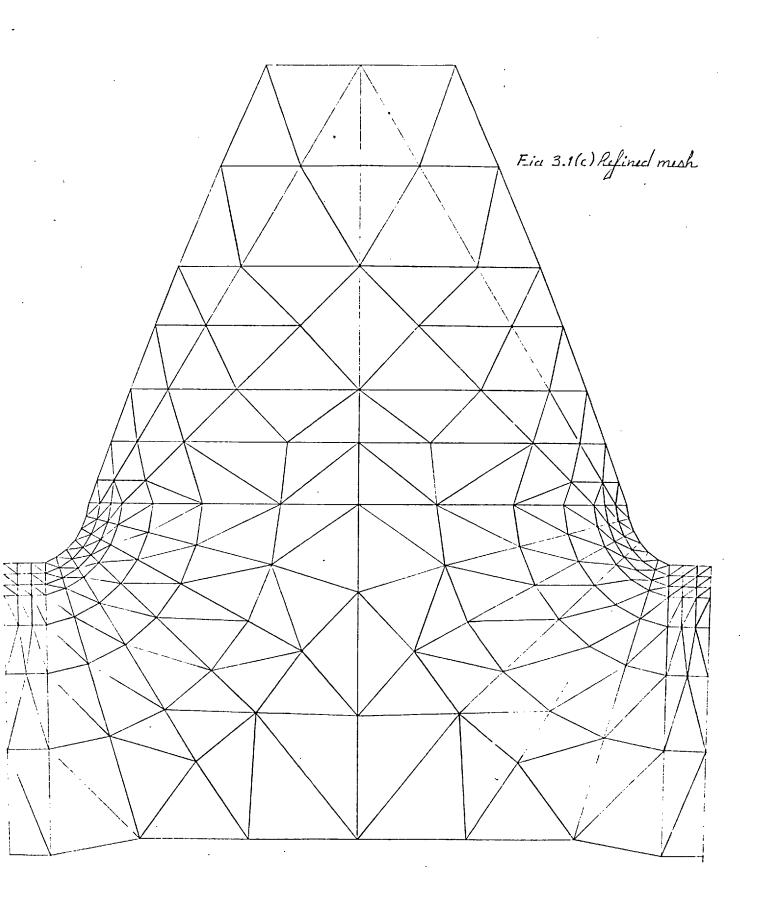
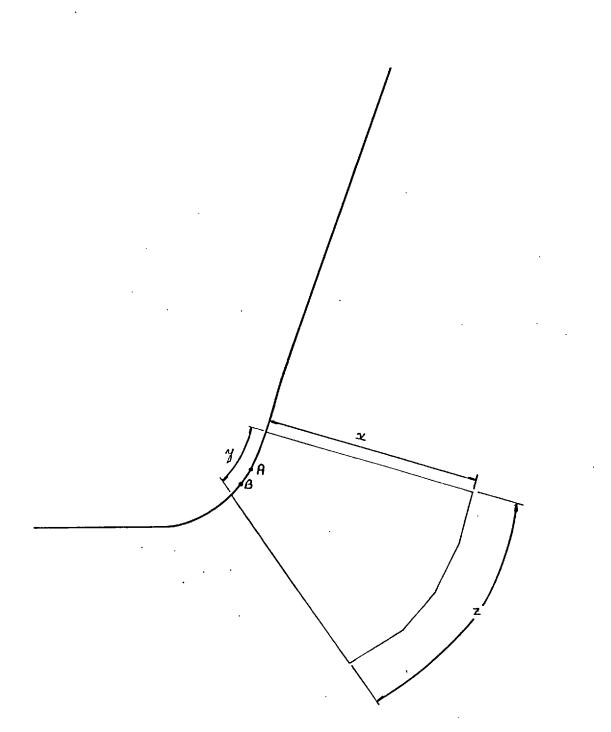


Fig. 1.1 Material behaviour



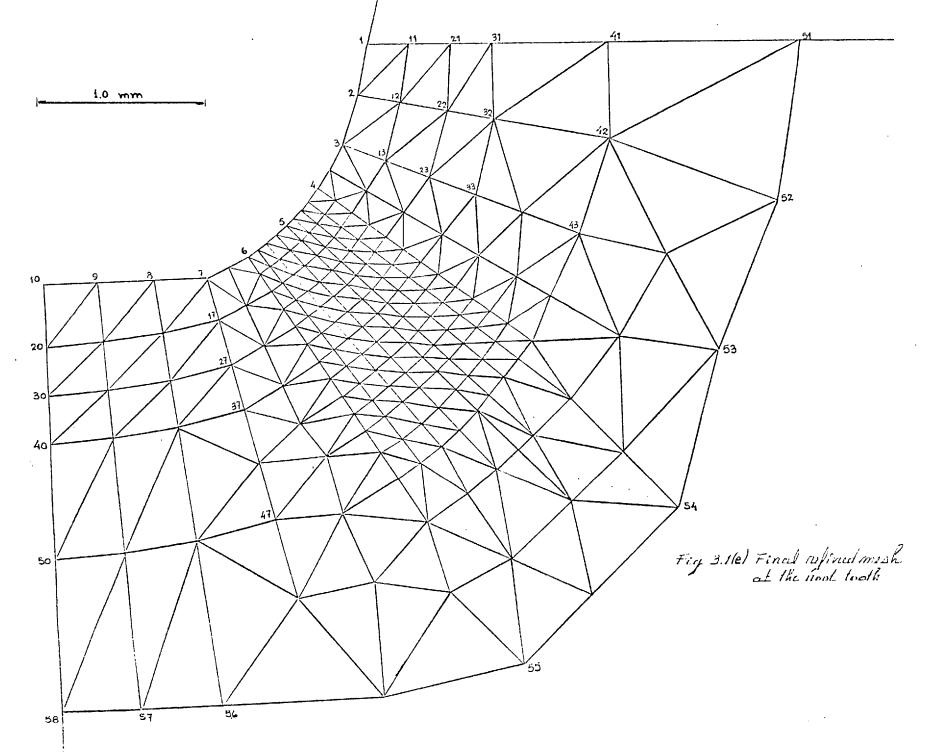


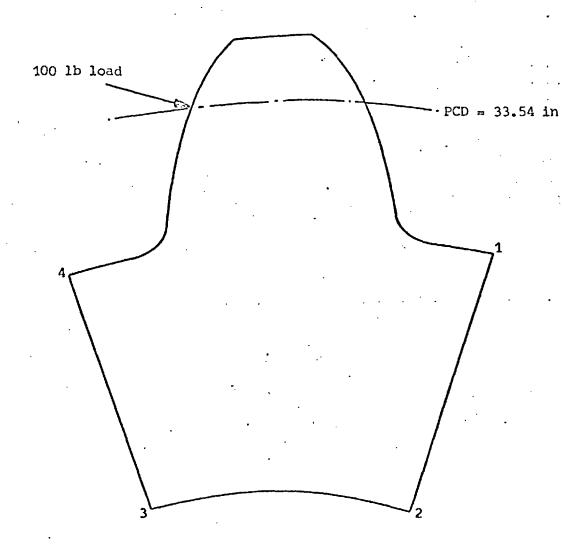




196 Triangular elemente on the stress concertration region

Fig 3.1(d) Region of refined much at the tooth noot





Point 2 is fixed Points 2-3 lie on a circular arc constrained to move circumferentially about the gear centre Points 1-2 and 3-4 are allowed to move perpendicular to the radius

from the gear centre

Fig. 3.2 Boundary conditions for tooth stress calculations

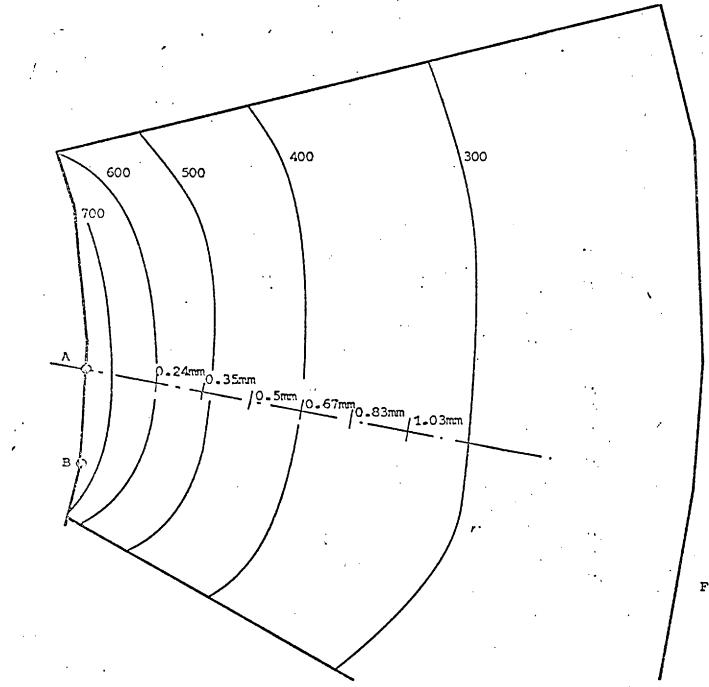


Fig. 33 Lines of …aximum principal * stress in uncracked tooth root per 100 lb load (lb/in³)

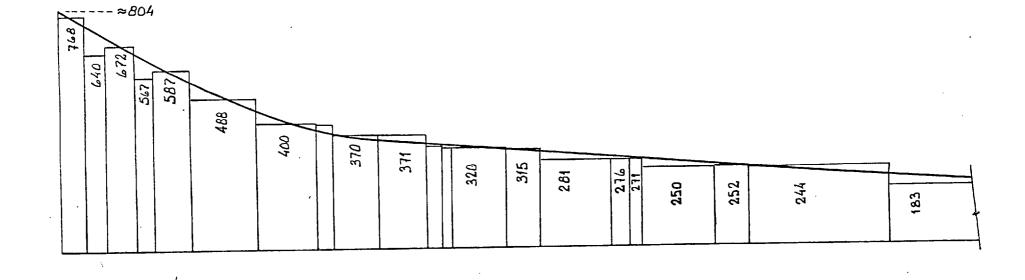
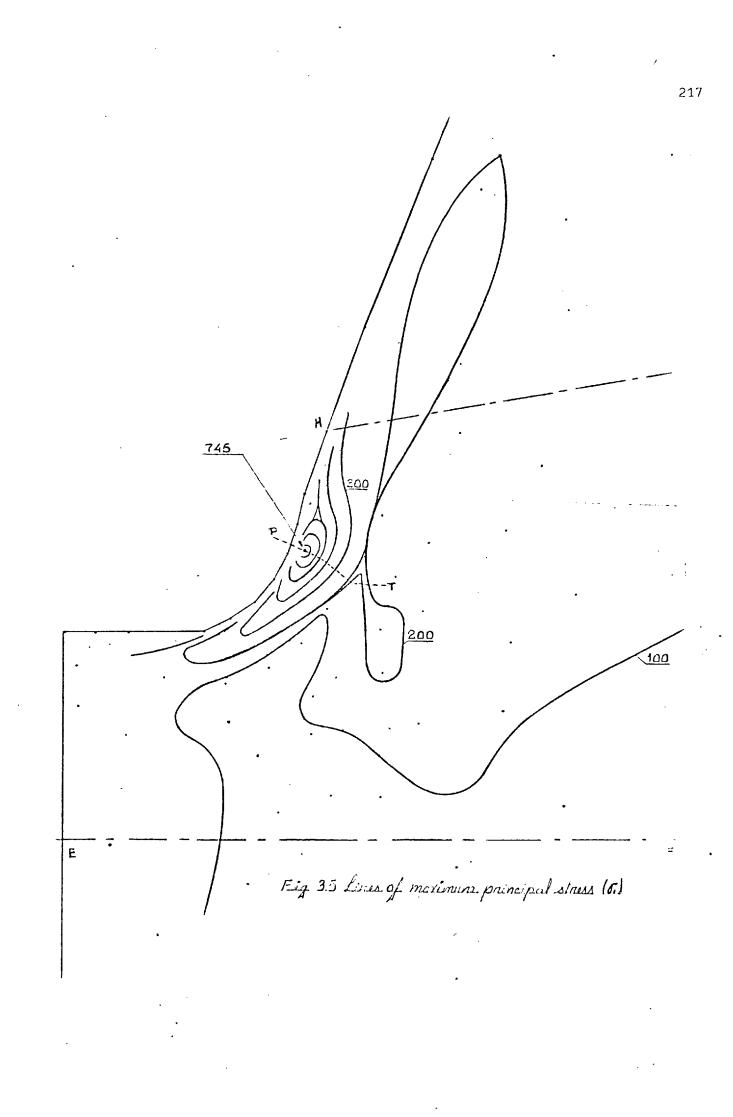
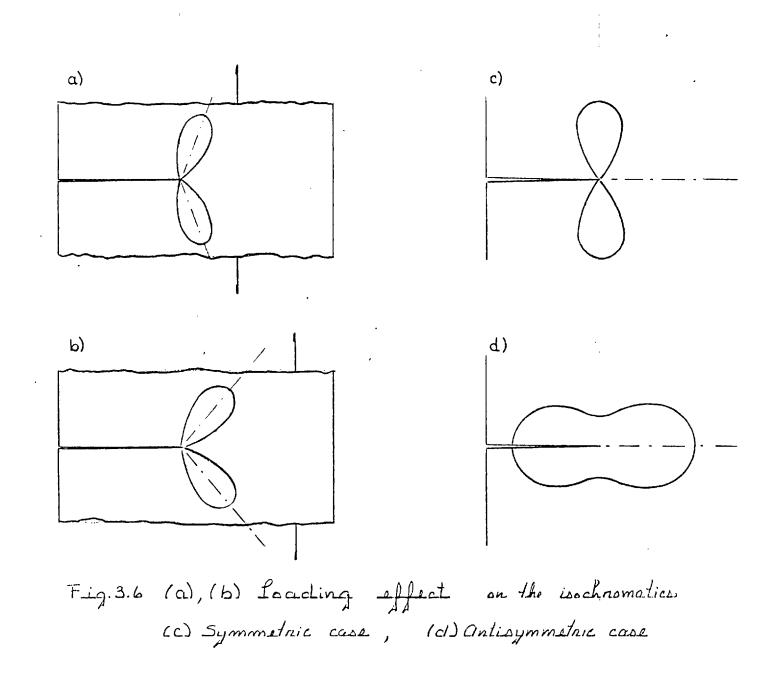
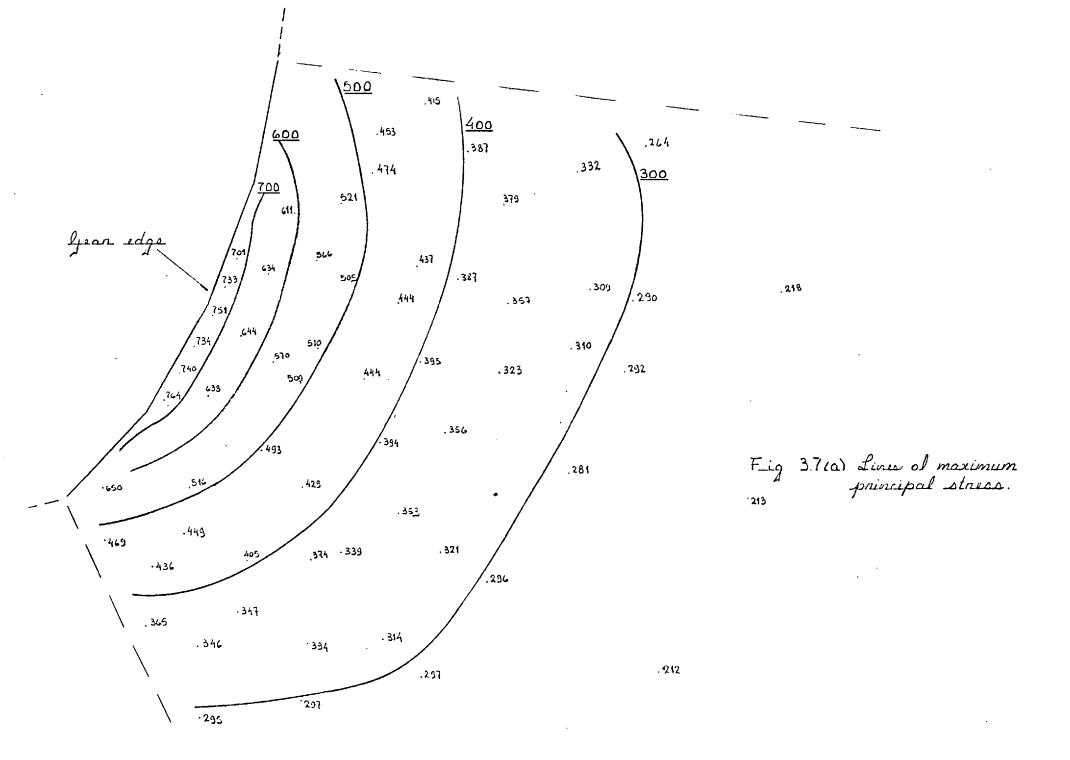
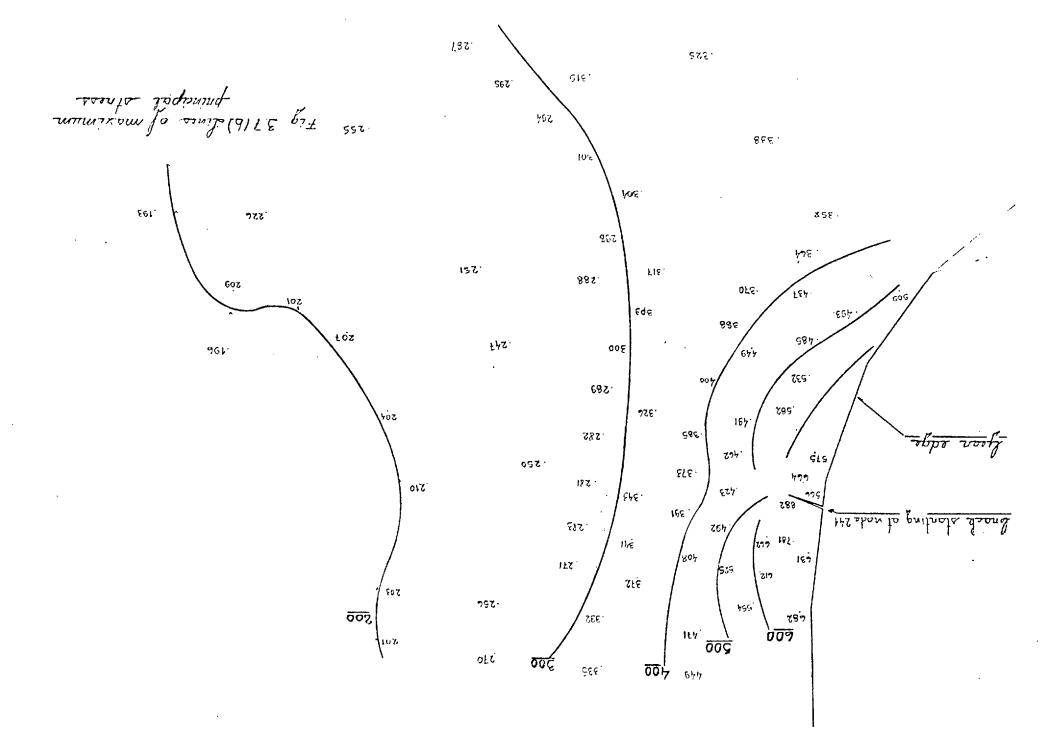


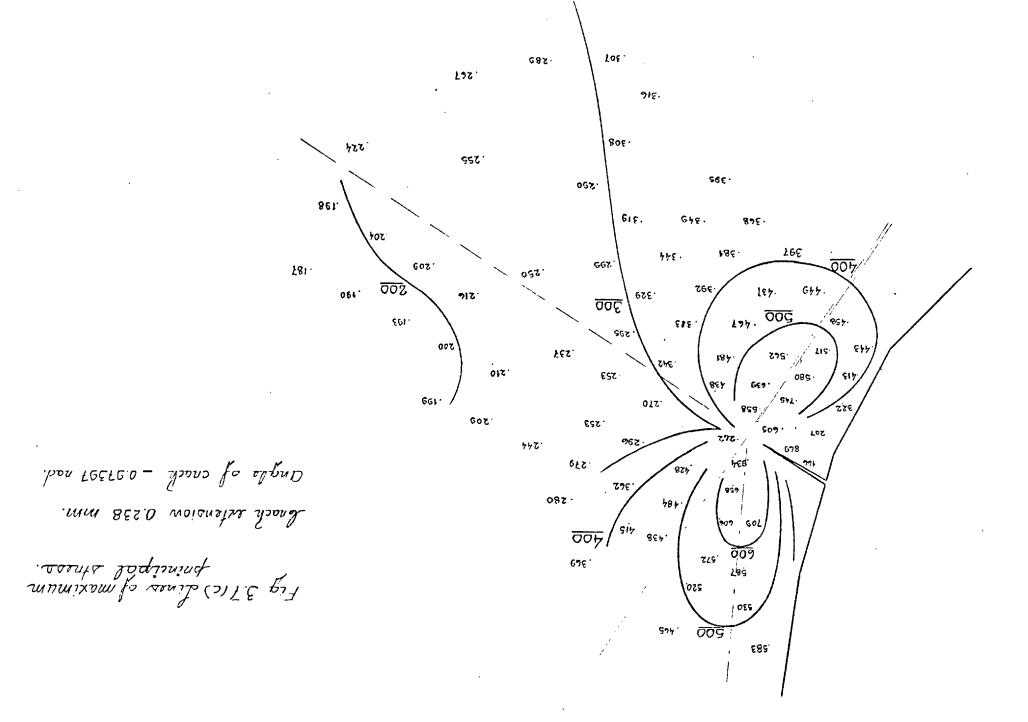
Fig 3.4 Extrapolation to the surface of element stresses in uncracked tooth (16/in2)

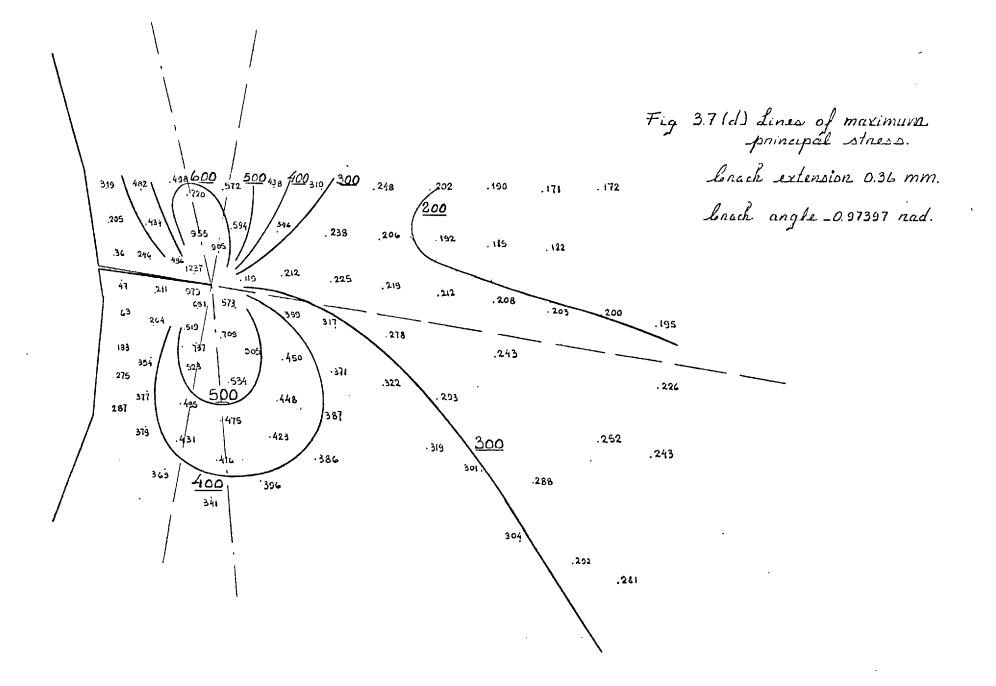


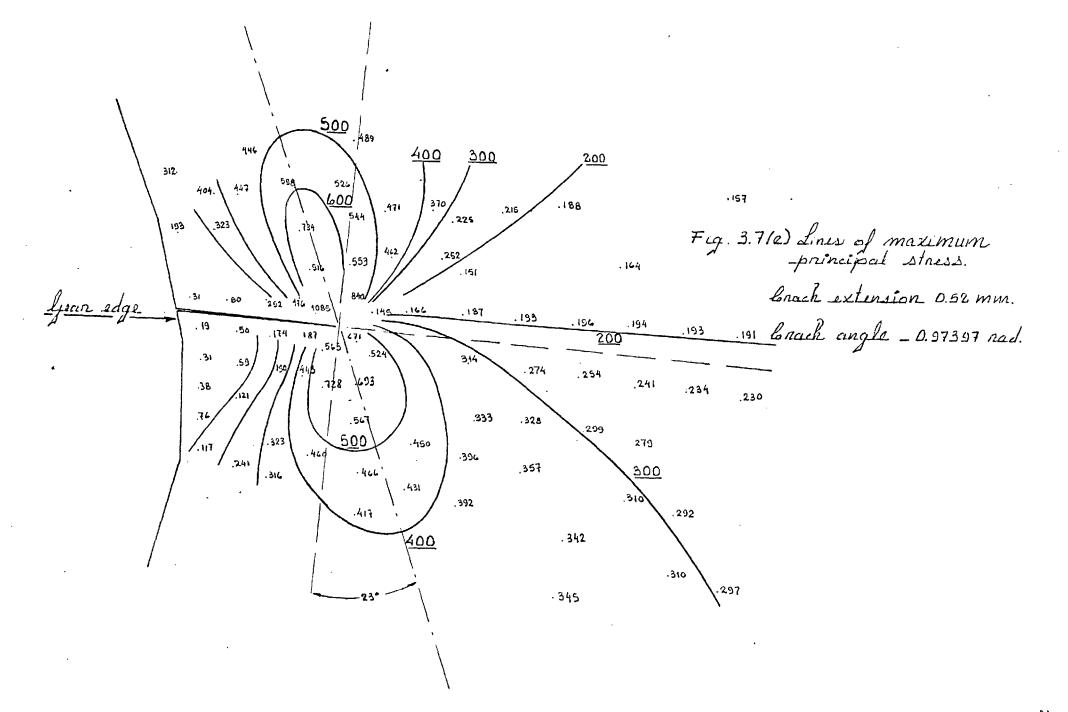


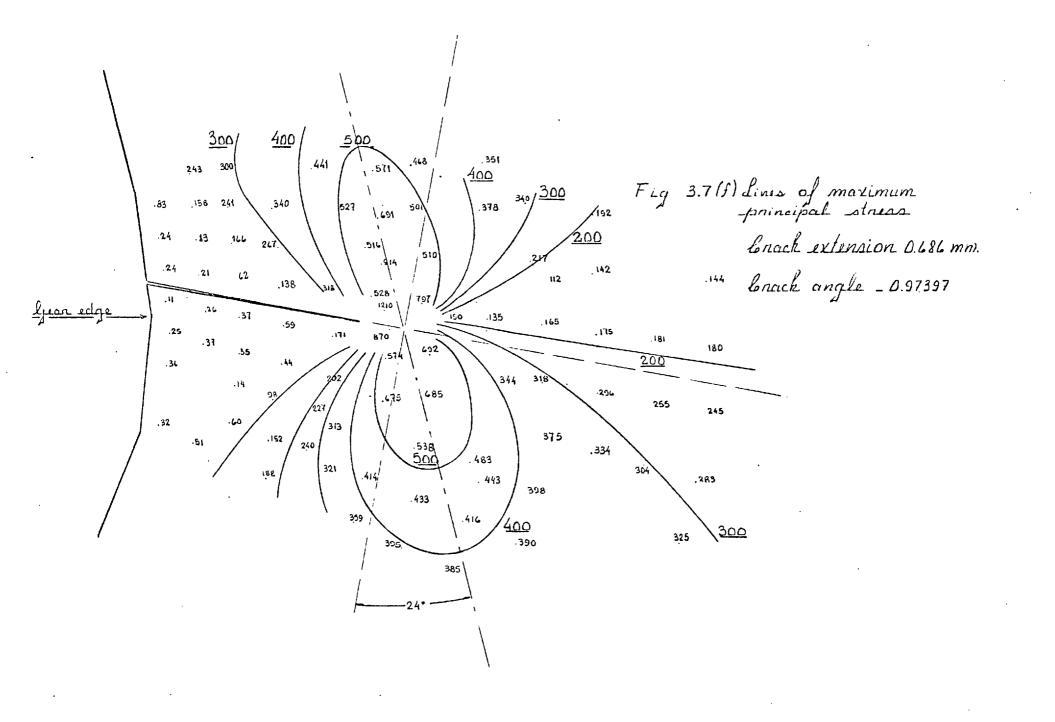


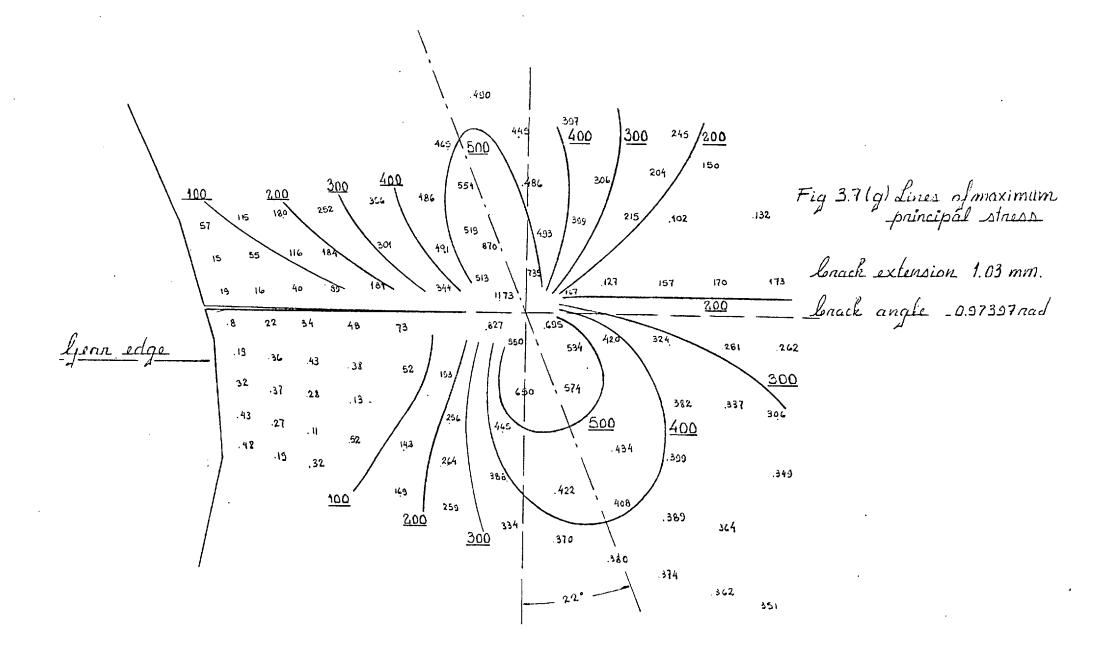


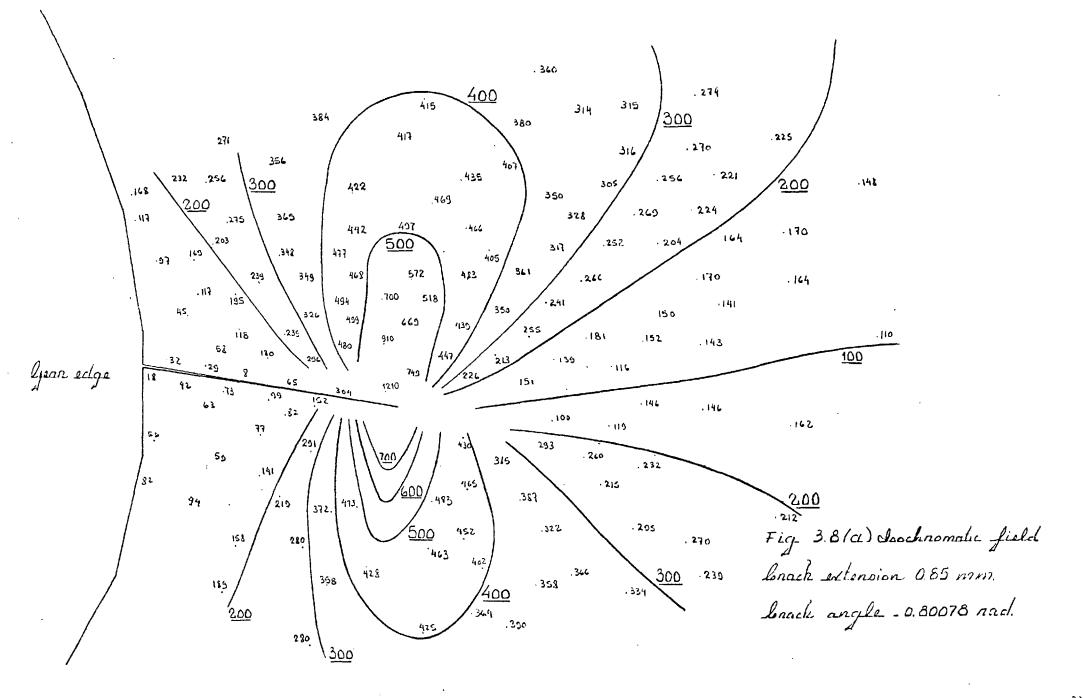


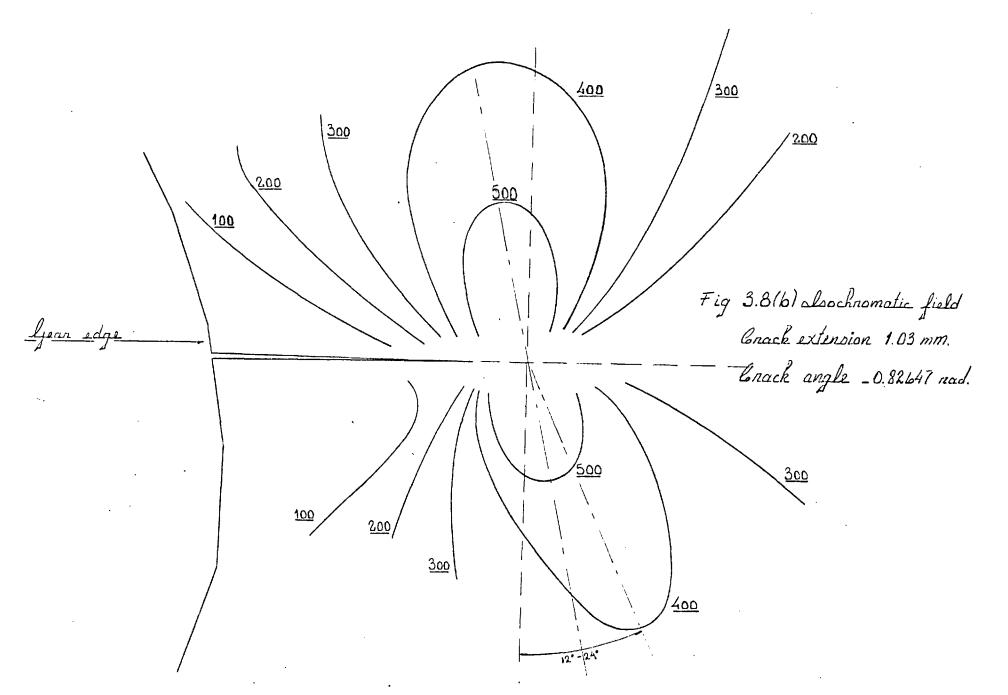


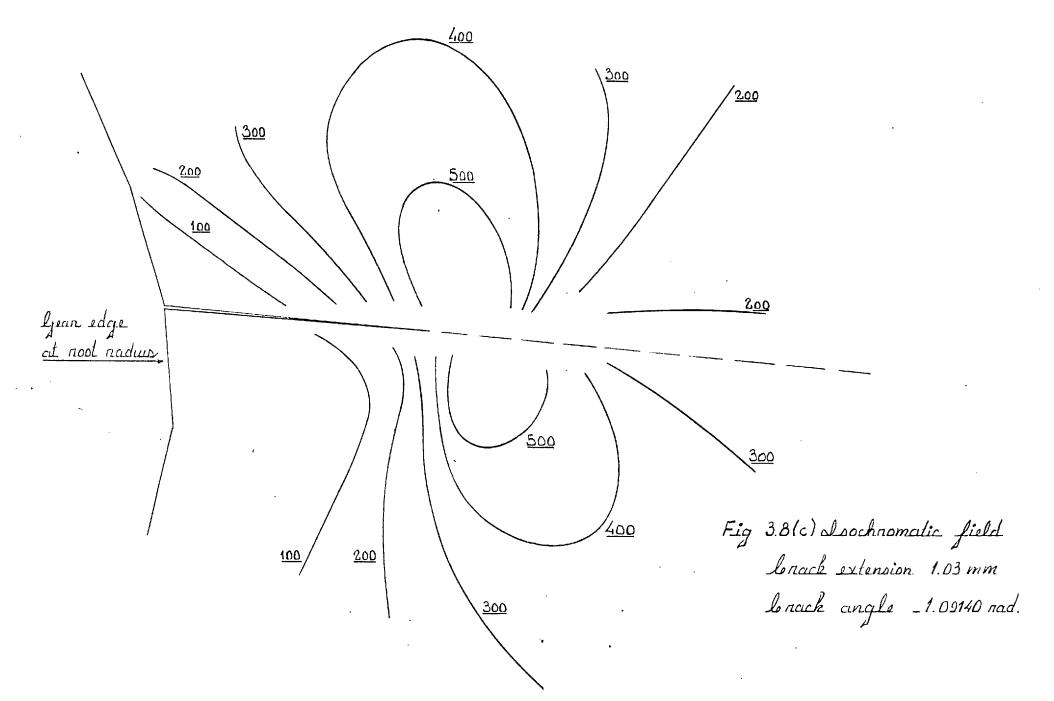


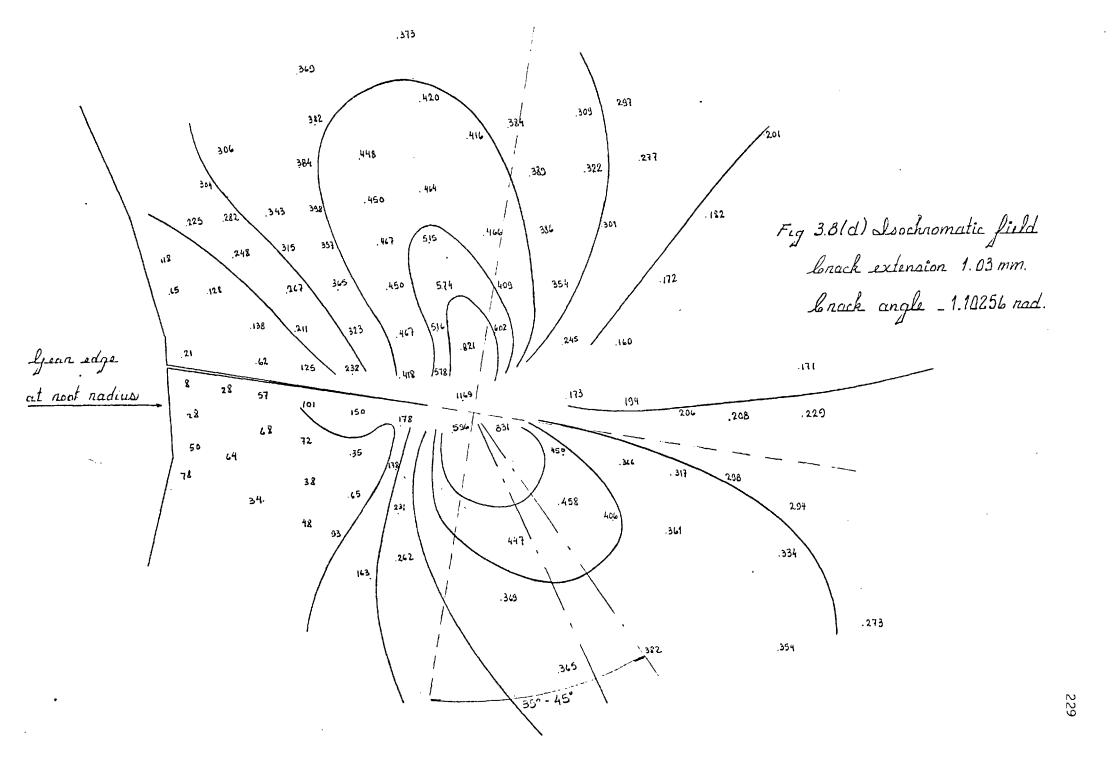


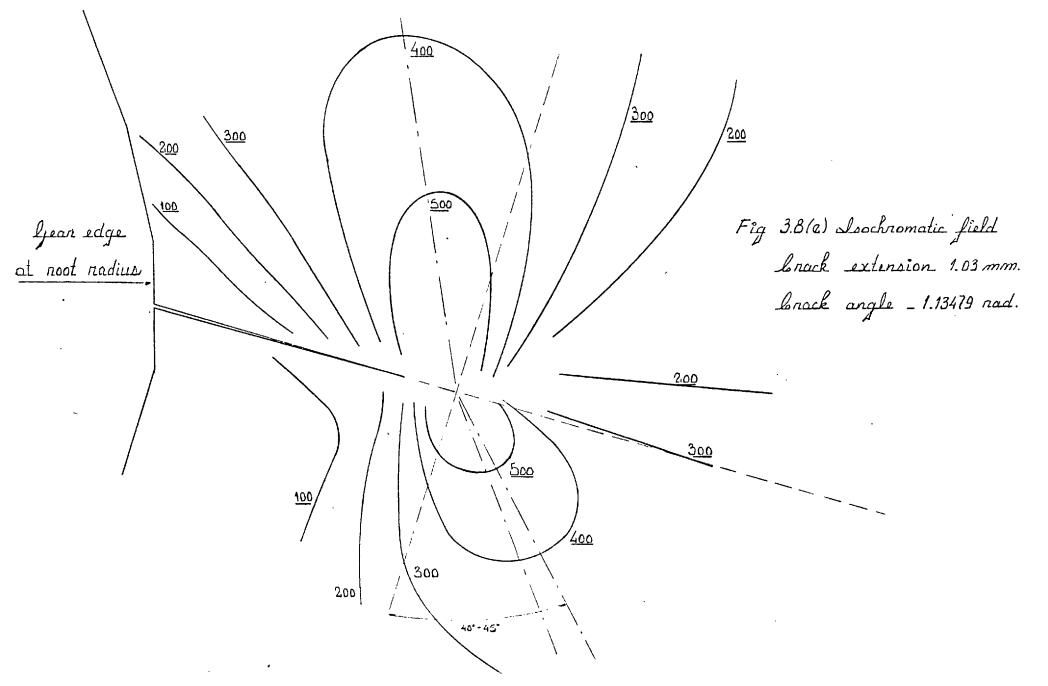


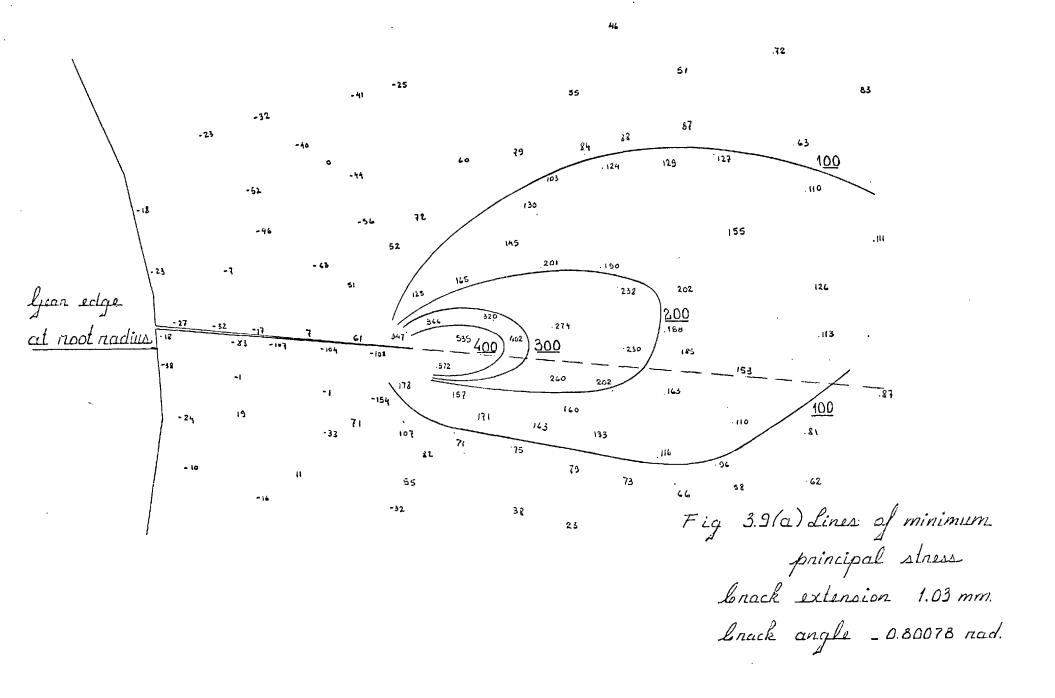












.94 100 89 131 . 127 . 64 F01. .67 -12 -63 . 140 .22 . 63 . 126 -59 . 183 . 193 ۰ća 205 202 143 .234 -52 12 W 293 .157 300 293 -52 -52 200 lyean edge . 144 400 .300 267 .17 500) ·276 -249 -190 422 145 at noot radius. .157 301 - 29 -166 154 145 116 121 195 222. 151 116 102 100 -13 . 52 57 55 5 - 16 20 .20 -45 33 26 Fig 3.9(b) Lines of minimum principal stress. brack extension 1.03 mm. brack angle _ 1.09140 rad.

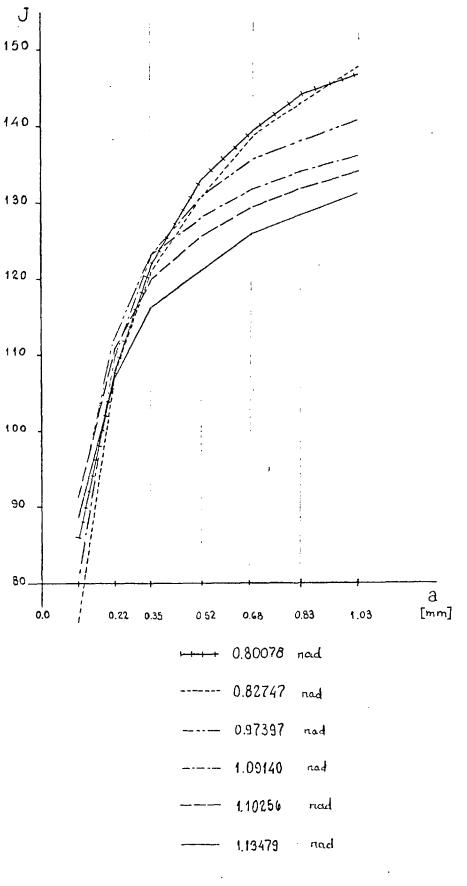


Fig 3.10 Values of the I contour Integral.

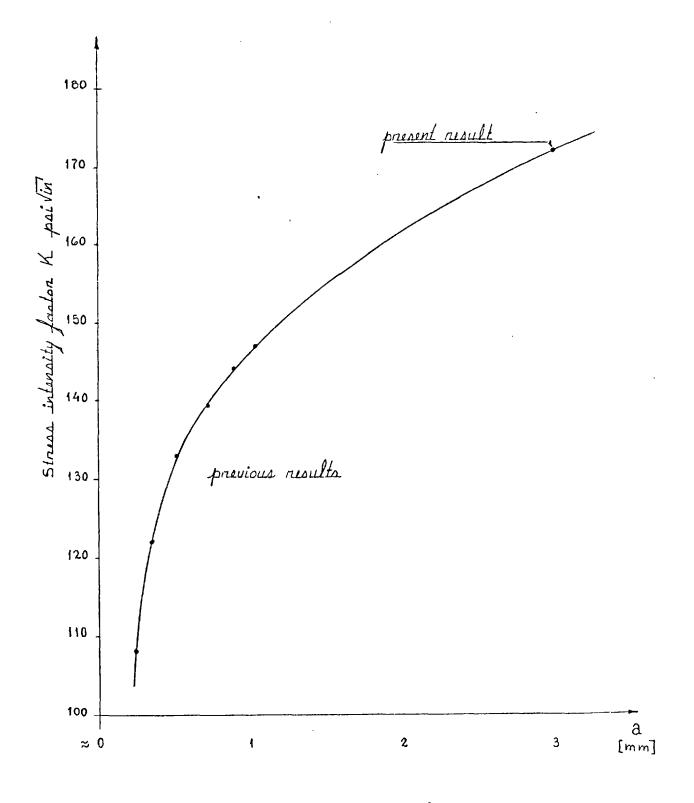
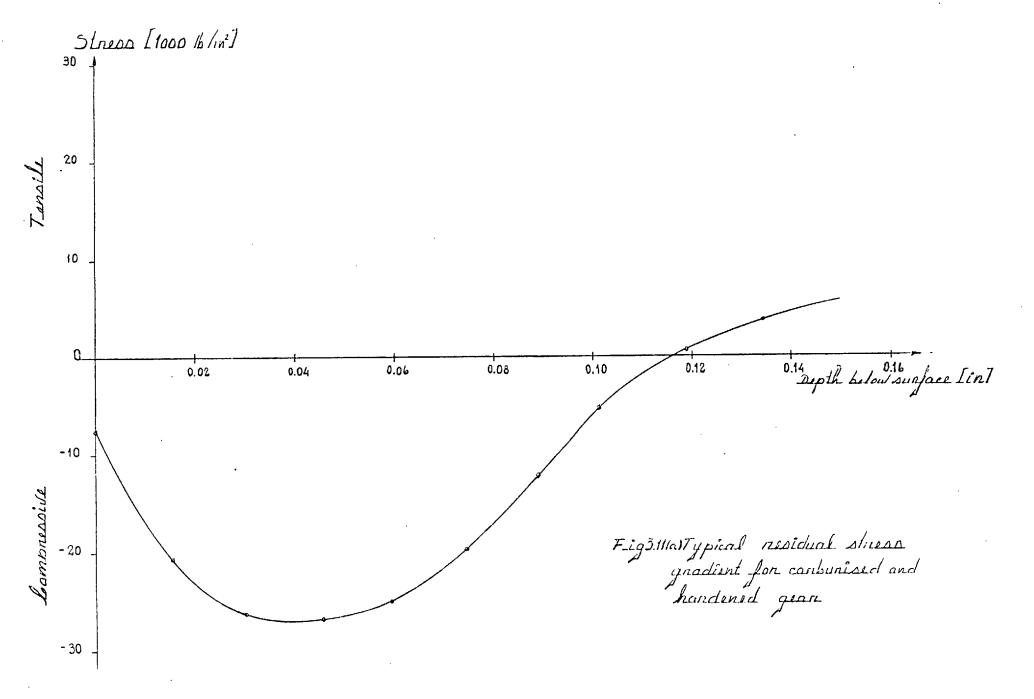
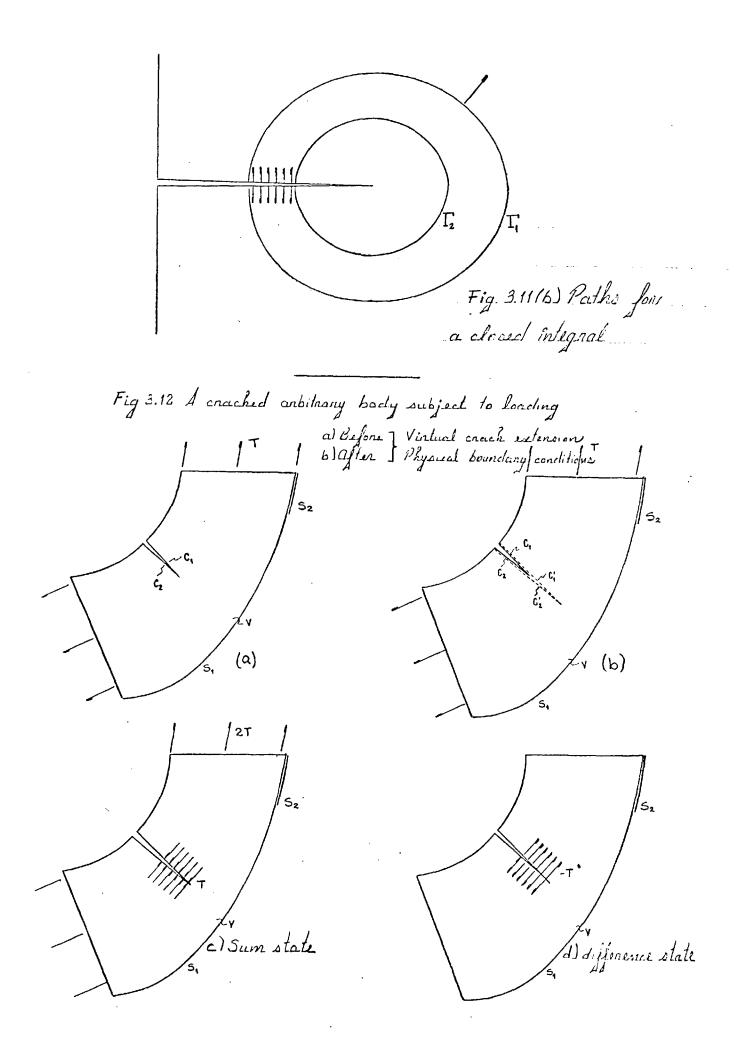
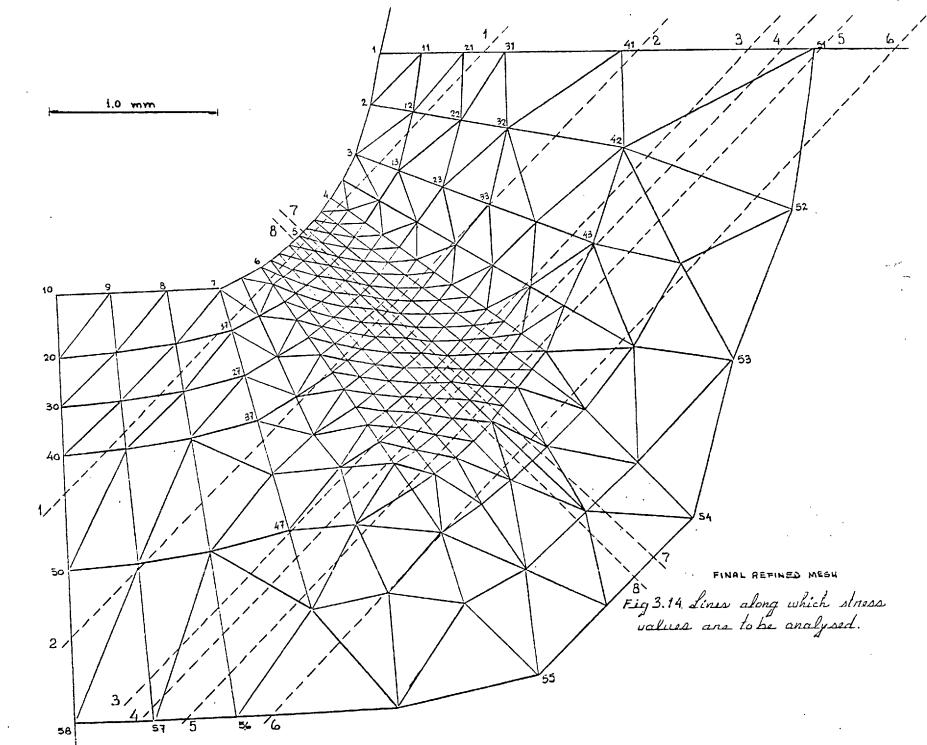


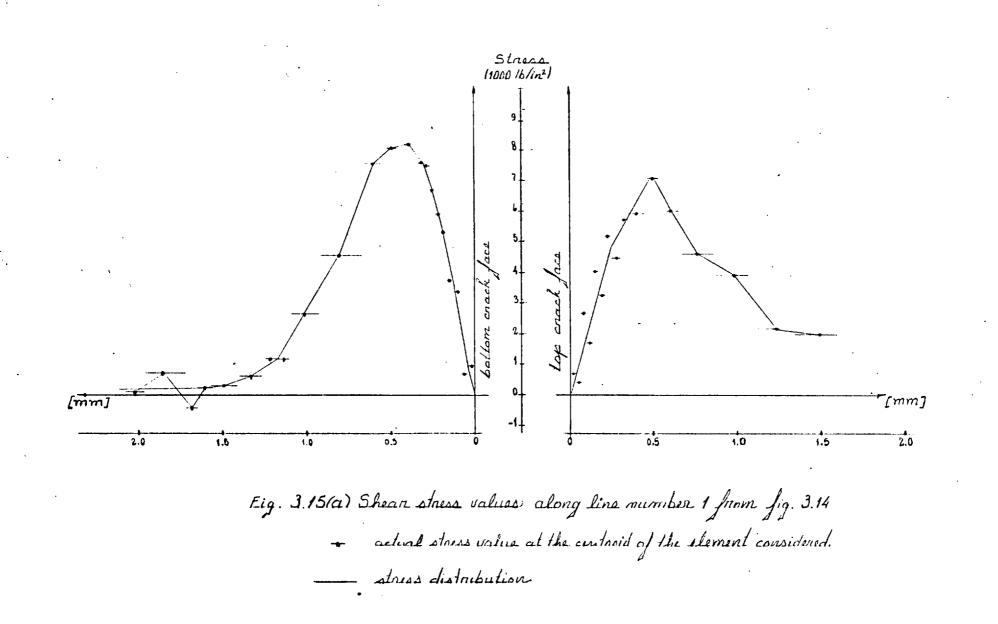
Fig 3.10(a) K values for cracked tooth form.

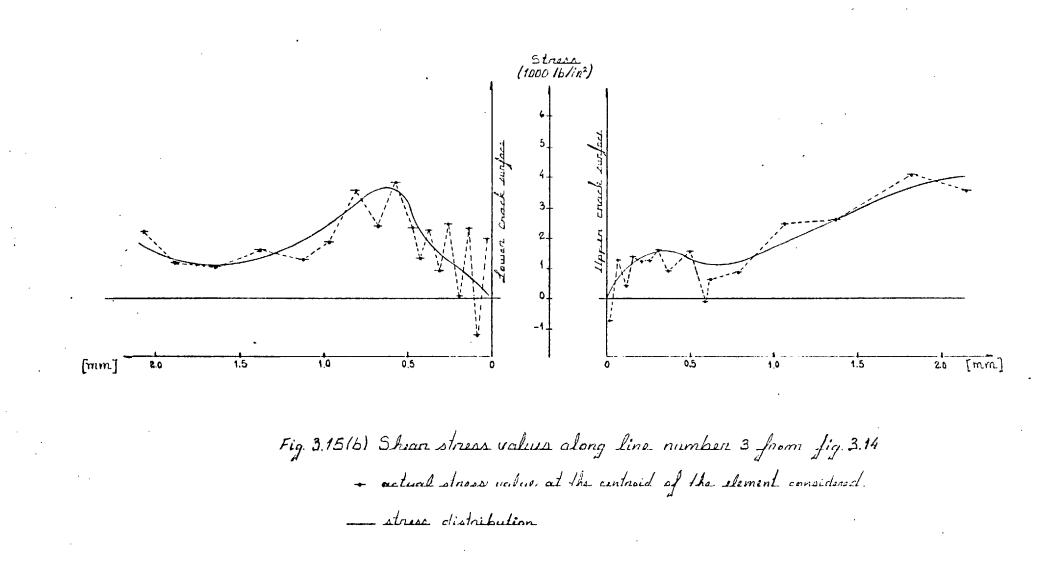


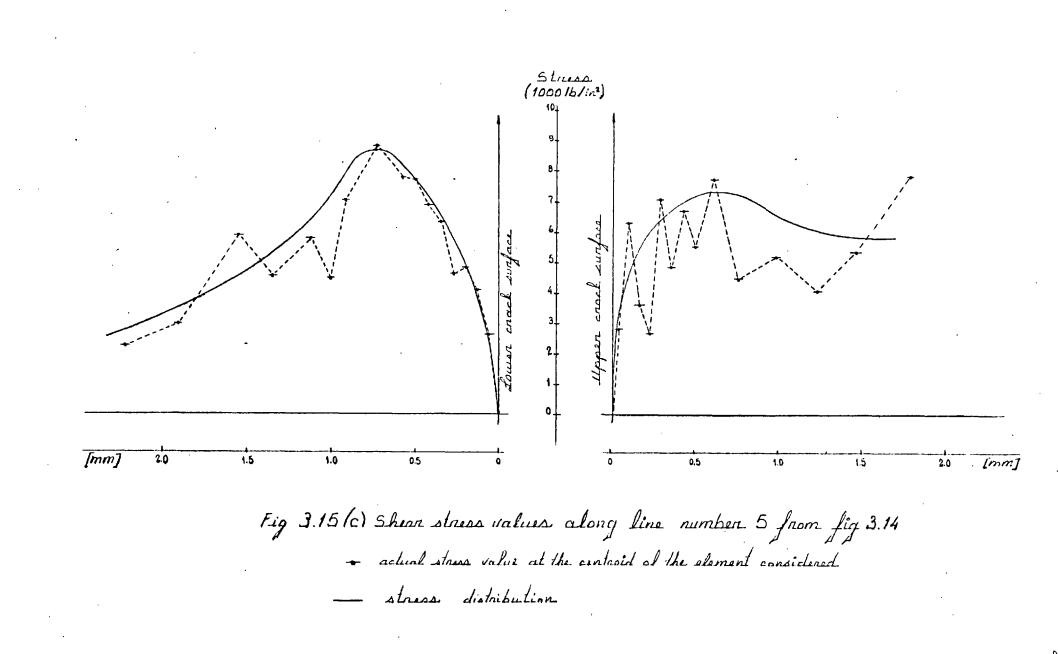


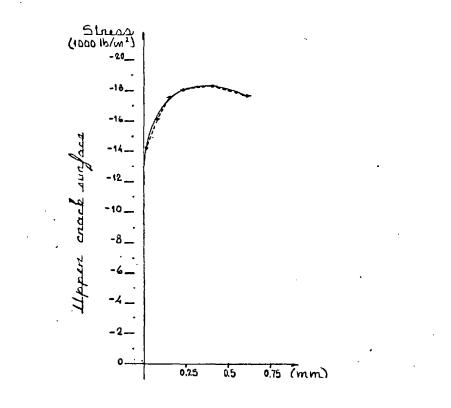
Bollom creach sunface Top cnack surface. Fig. 3.131a) Element distribution on canche surface The stresses considered are those from the elements which centroid is the meanest to the crack simplace Stress Residual stress distribution from fig. 11(a) (1000 1h/im) ----- Noumal stress distribution from elements on top crack surface 30 - Normal stress distribution from elements on bottom crack surface snack tip 20 10 ۵ 0.03 0.04 0.01 0.02 0.05 006 0.09 0.1 -10 [in] -20 -30 Fig3.1316) Stress distribution obtained from the finite element method



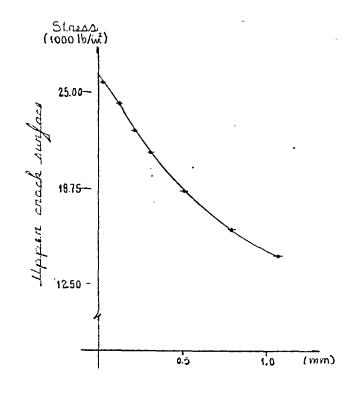


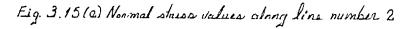


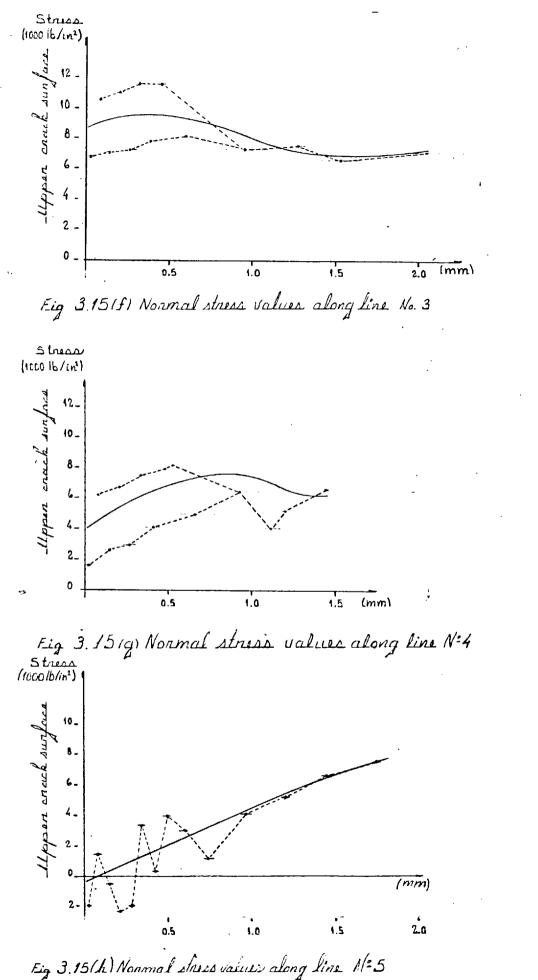




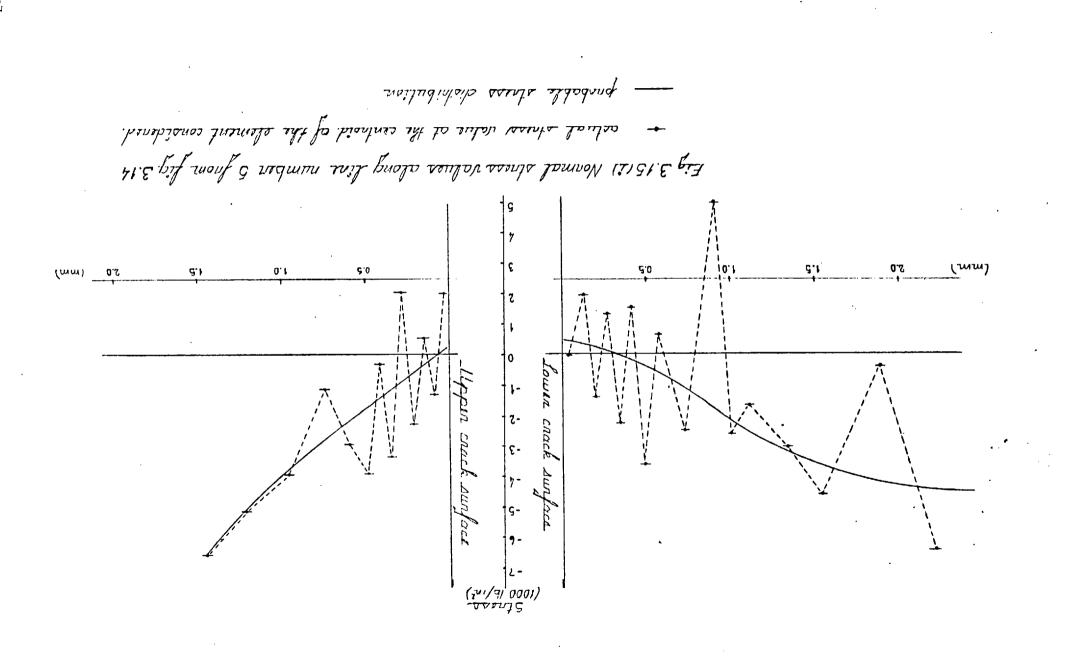
Eig 3.15/d) Normal stress values along line number 1 - actual stress value at the centroid of the element - stress distribution The tendency of the stress curves is towards the expected values

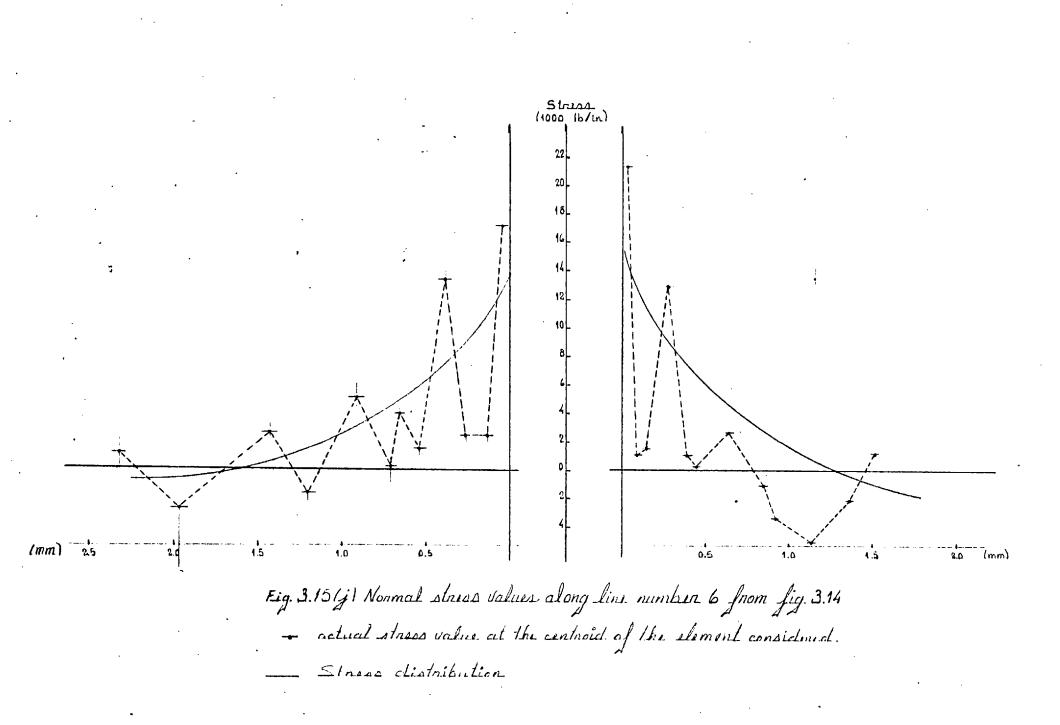






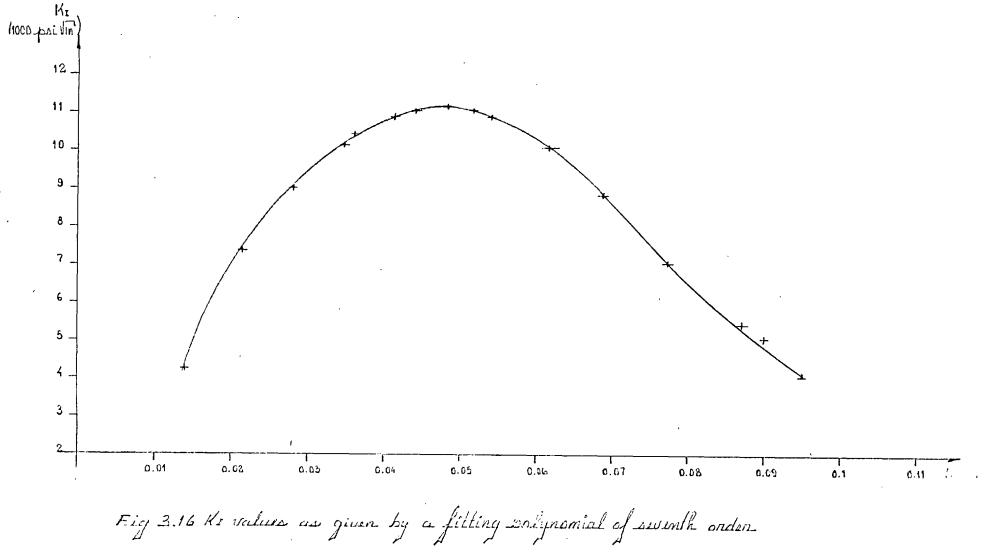
- actual stress value at the centroid of the element







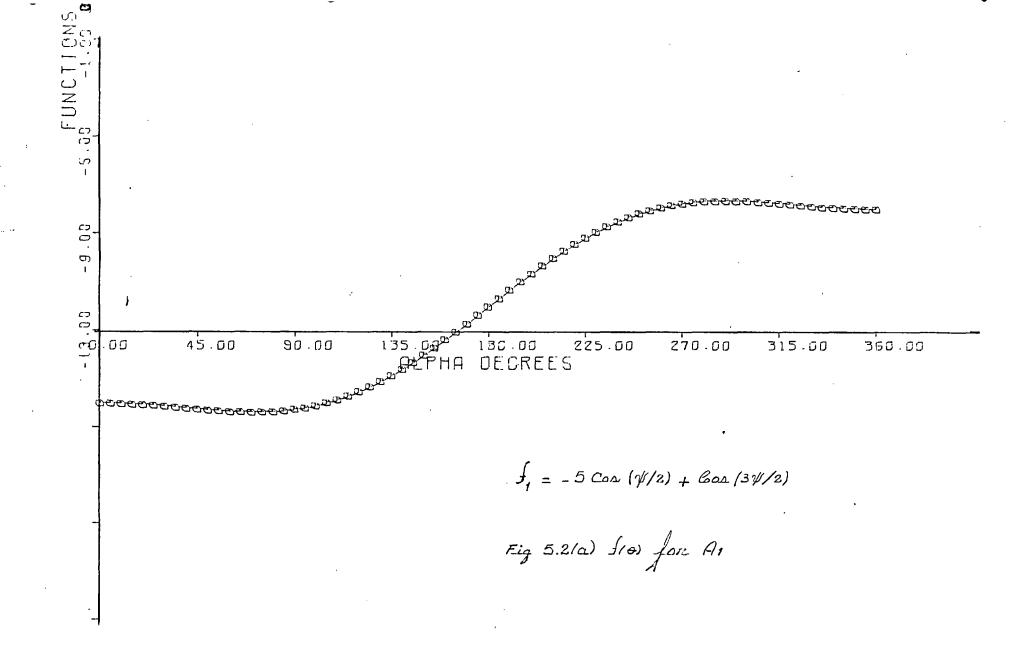


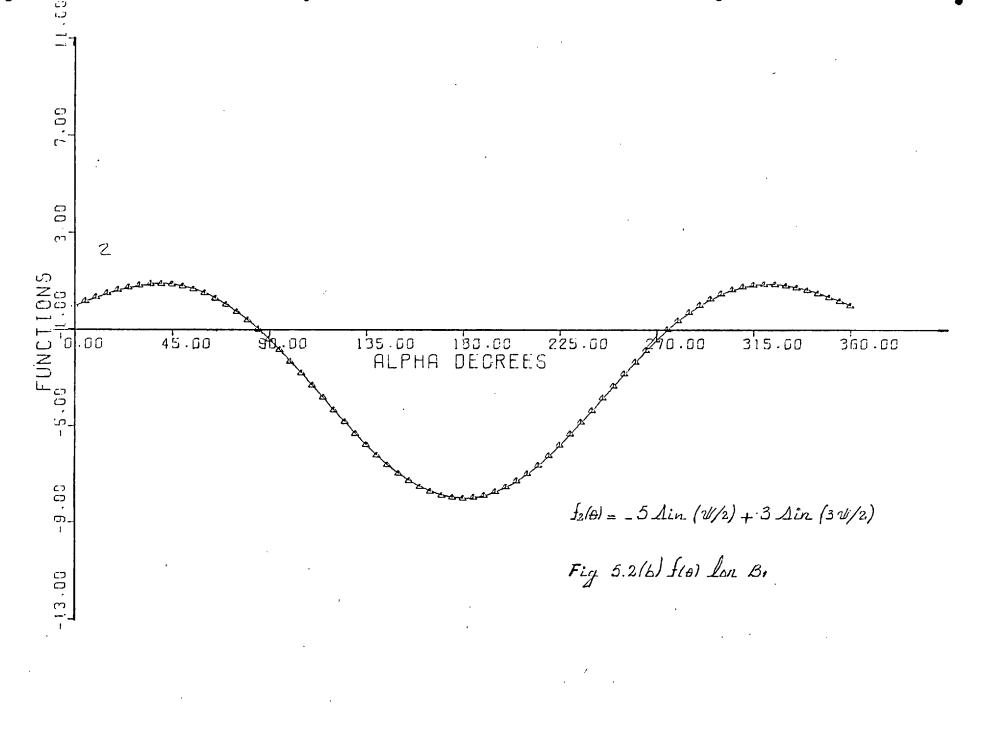


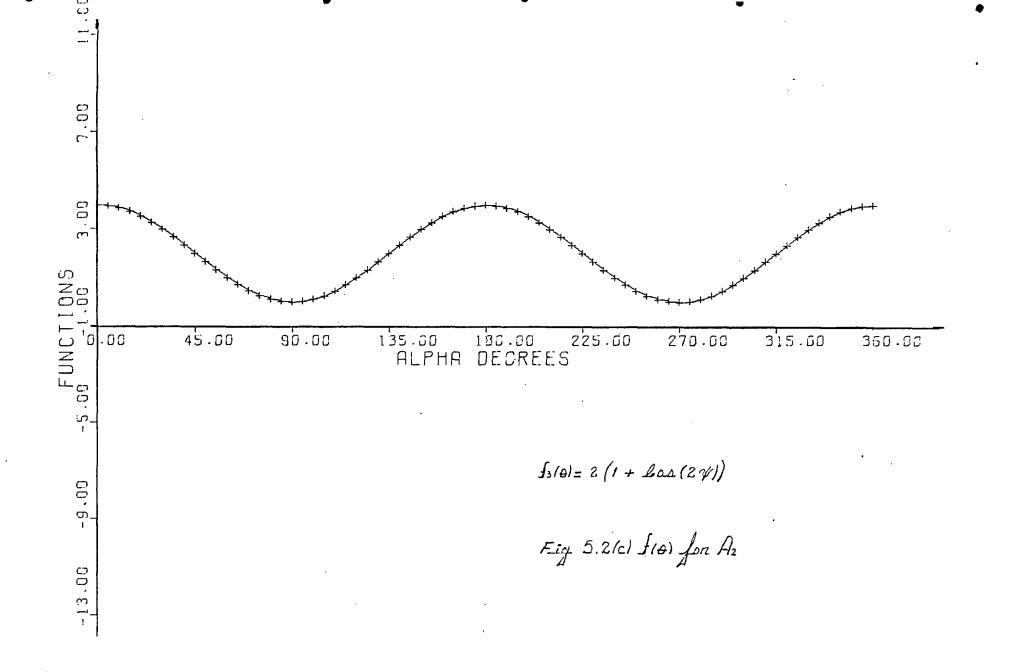
dø dØ blass I fracture

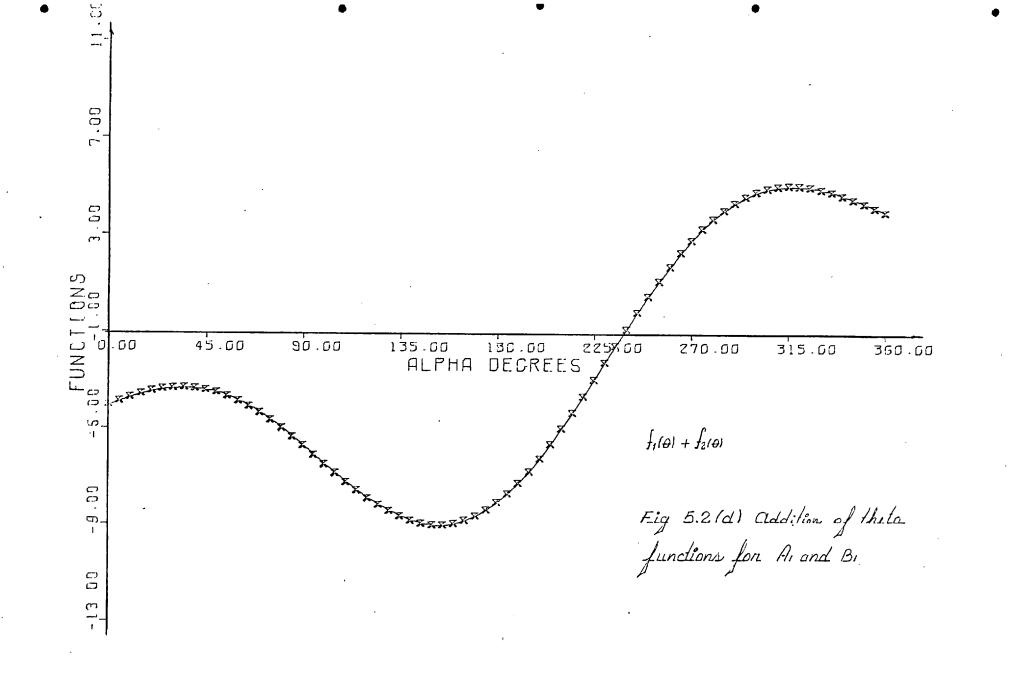
T_____ldeal path de blass II fracture.

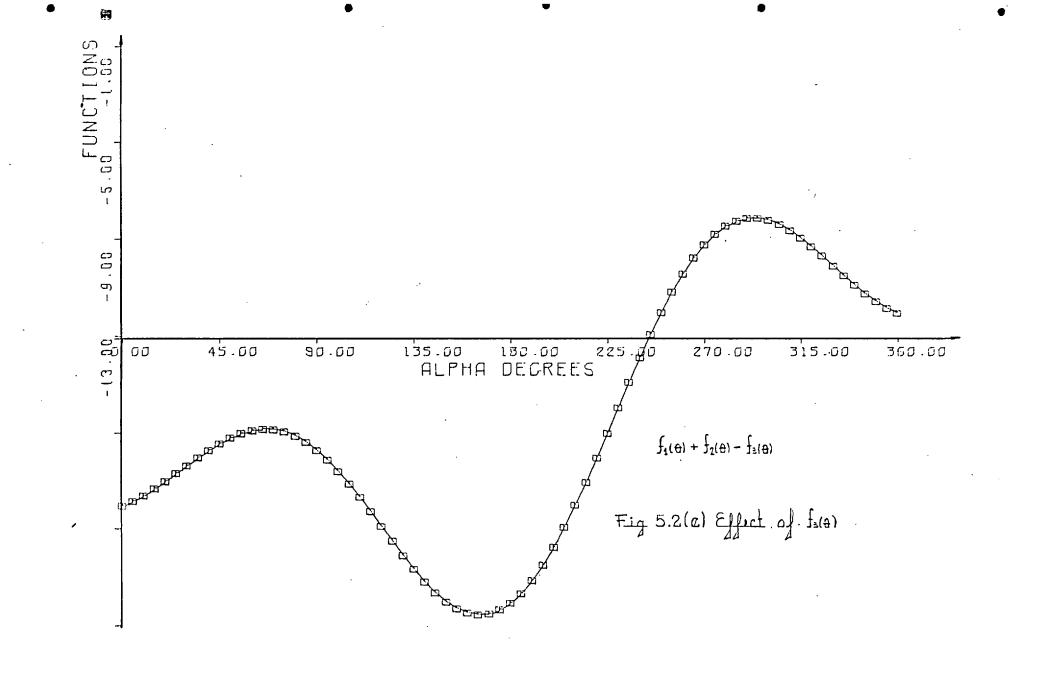
Fig 5.1 Enaclure path

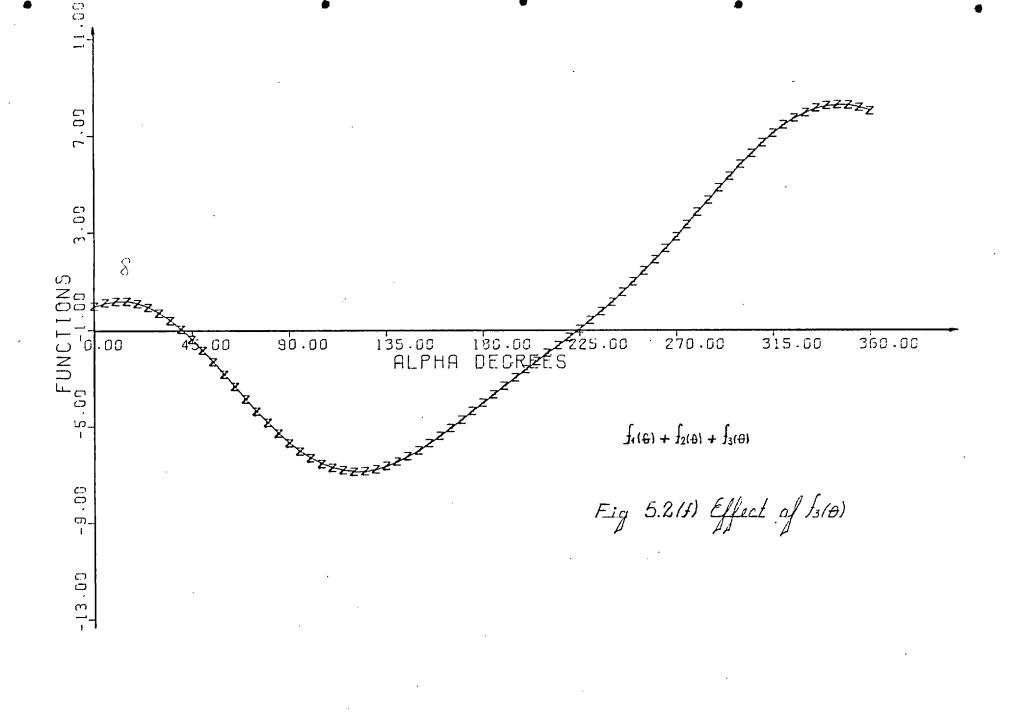


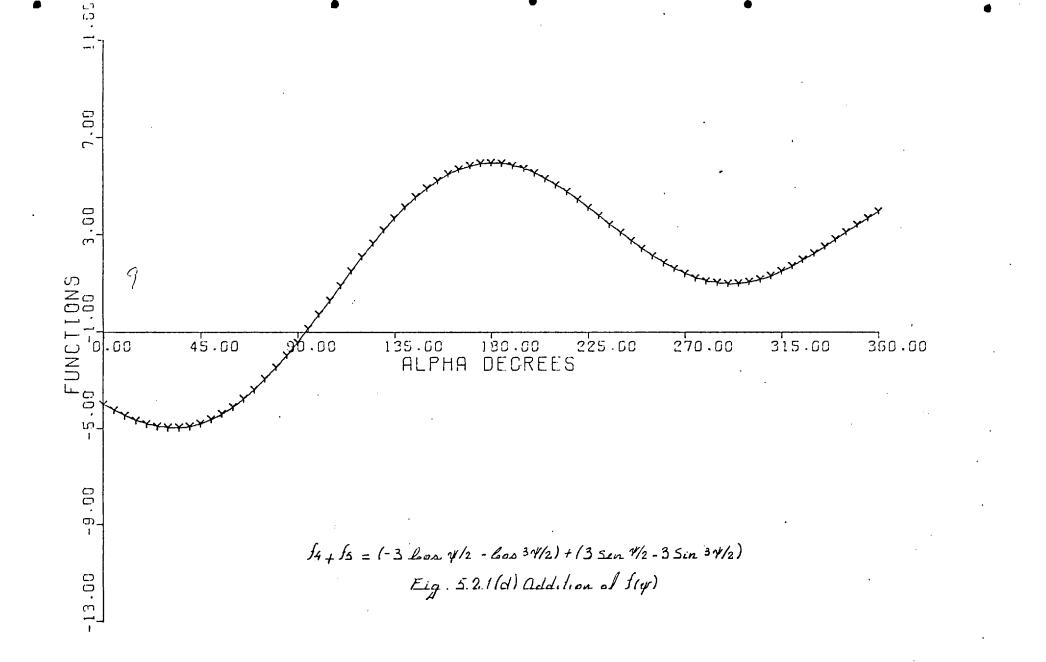


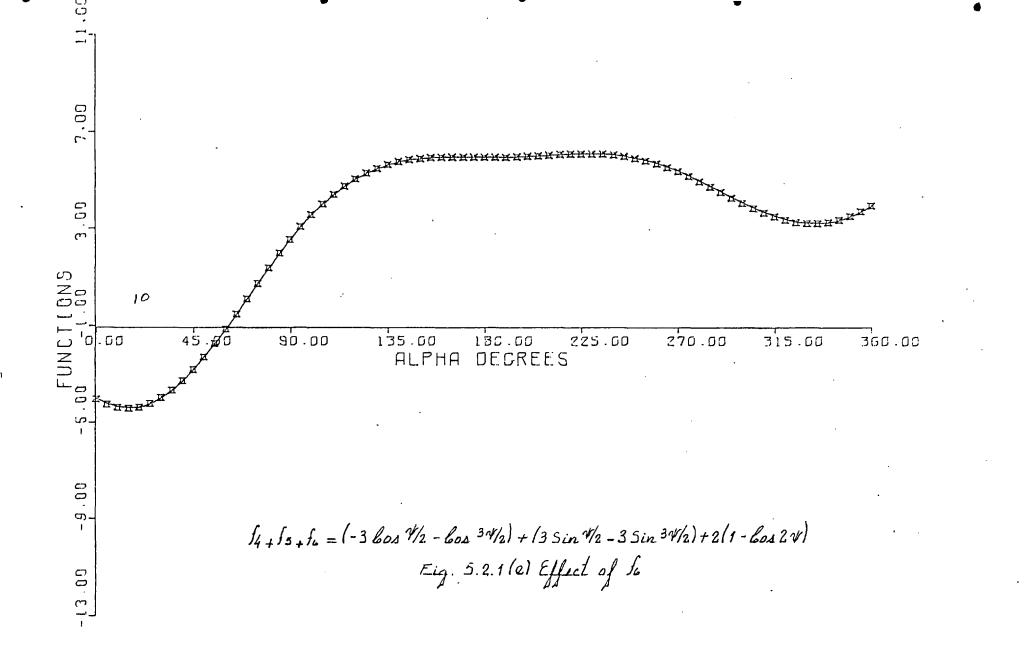












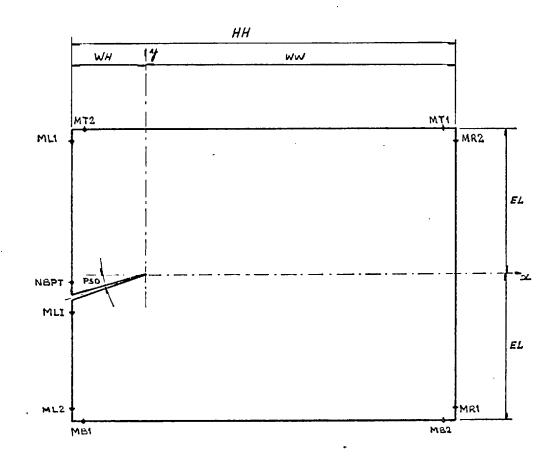
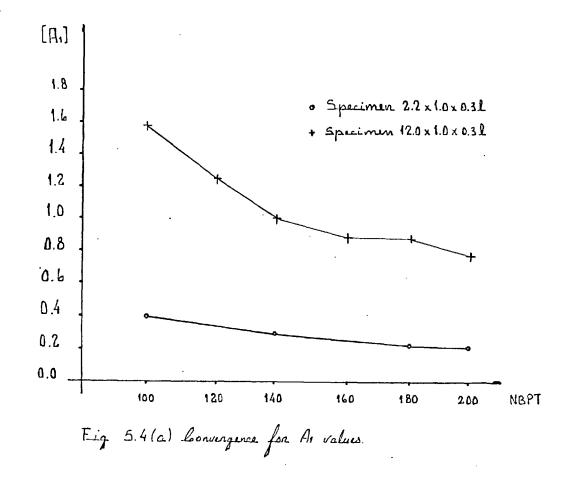
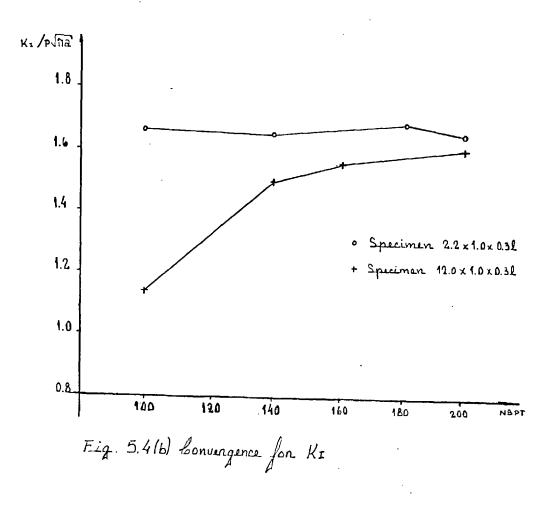


Fig 5.3 Specimen dimensions and position of some of the boundary stations as defined in programme ANGCRK





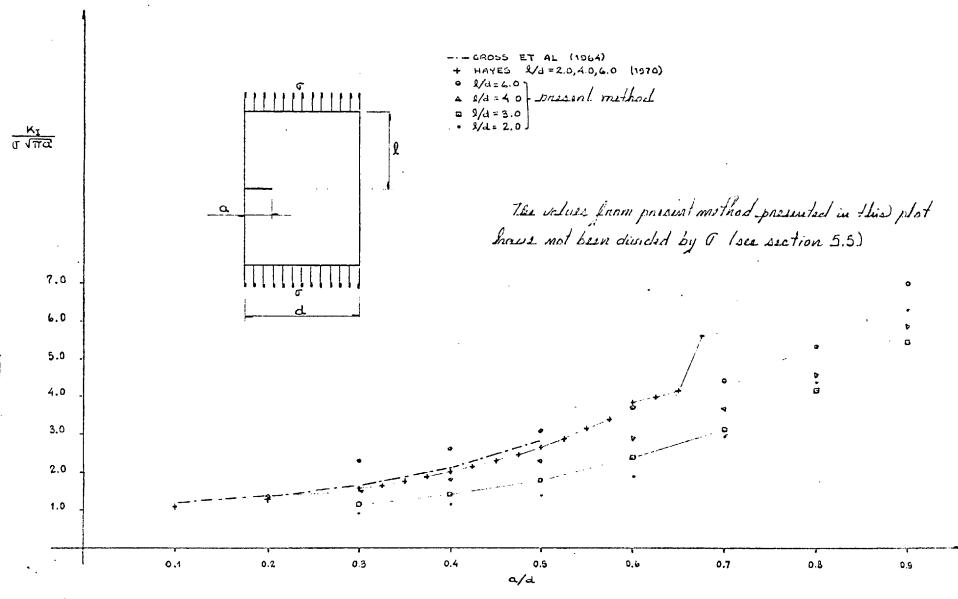
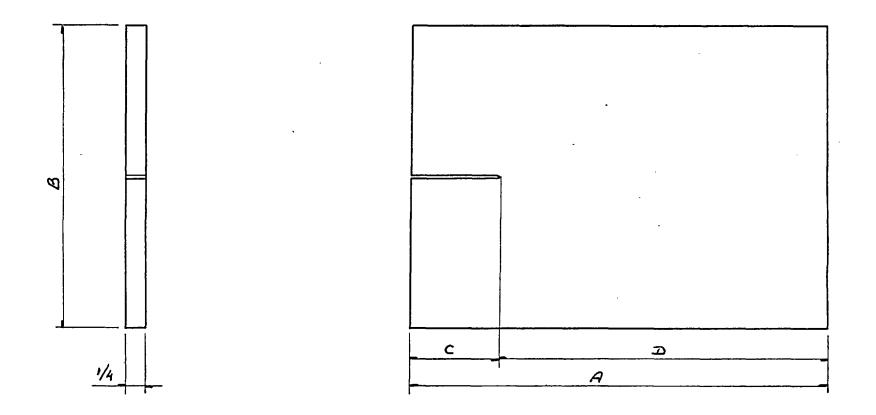


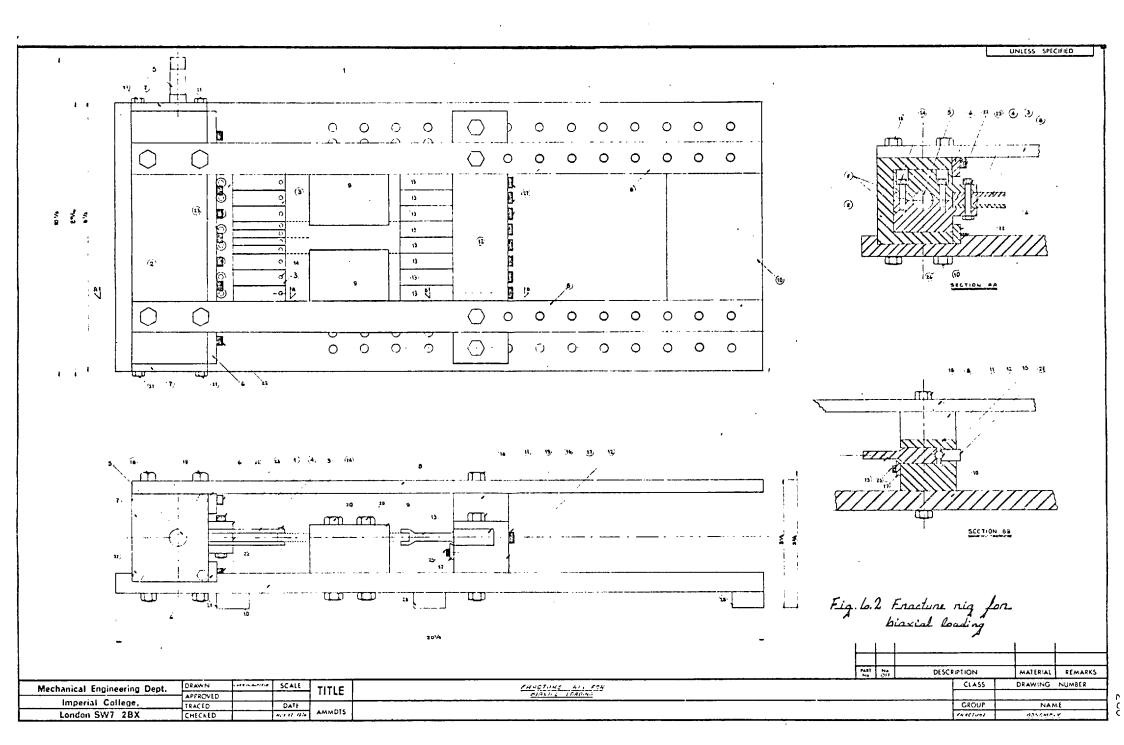
FIG 5.5 STRESS INTENSITY FACTORS FOR UNIFORMLY LOADED SINGLE EDGE CRAKED PLATE.

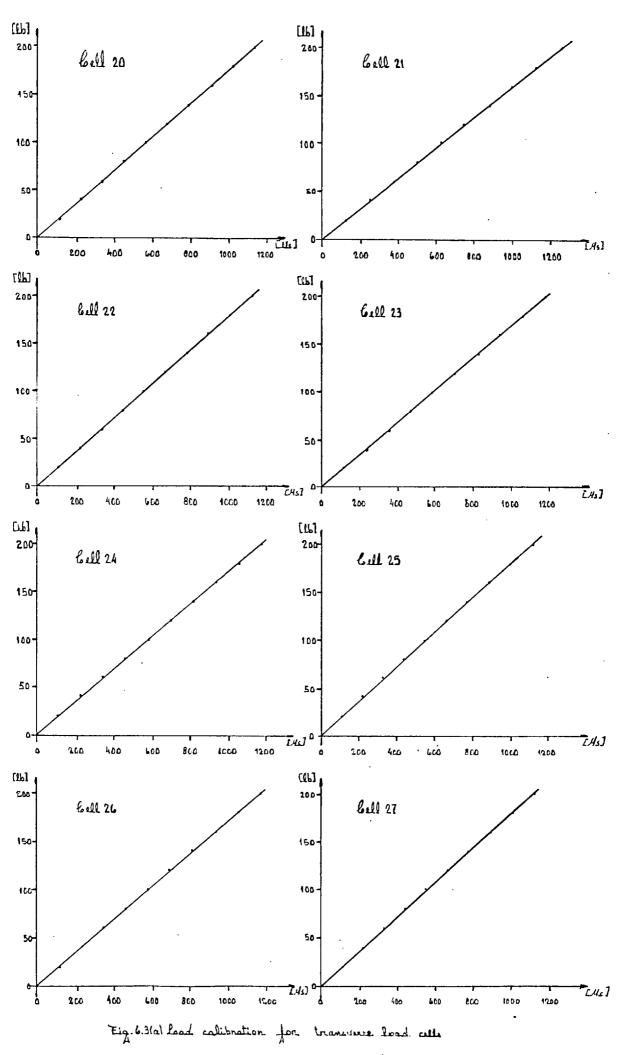


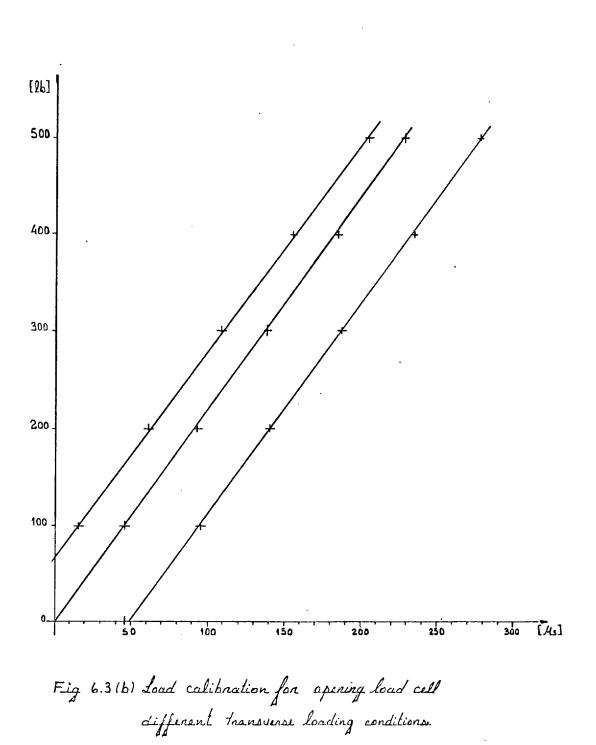
 $A = 12 \ to \ 4 \ [in]$ $B = 4 \ to \ 1 \ [in]$ $C = 0.3 \ A \ [in]$

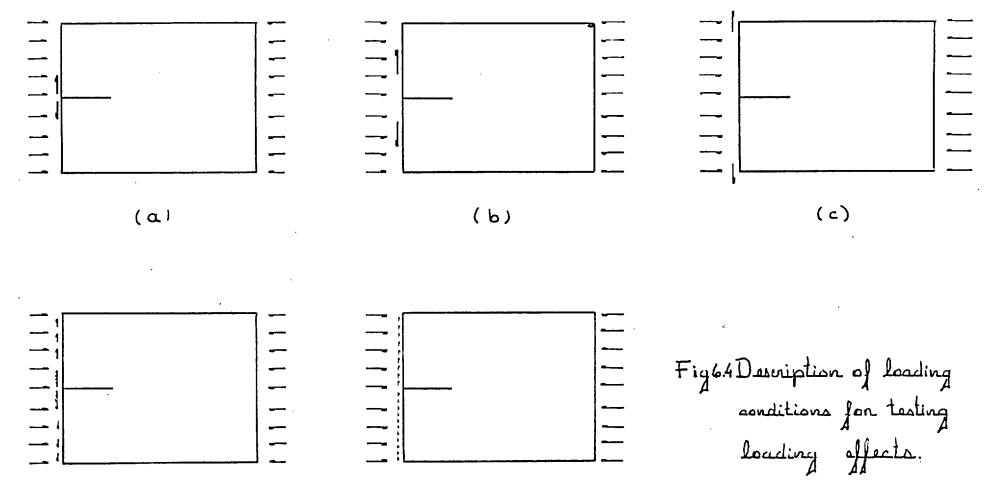
FIG. Nº 6.1 Spacimen dimunions.

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(e)

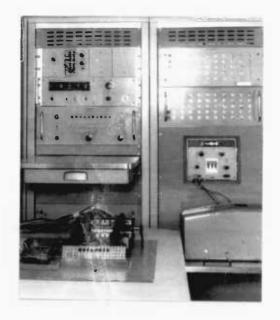


Fig 6.5 Data log and experimental rig

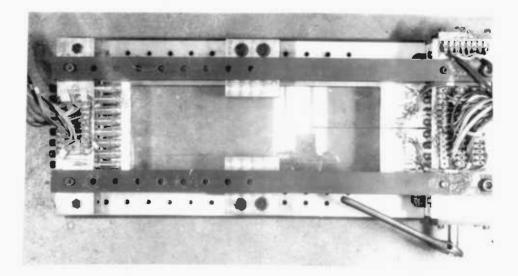




Fig 65(a) balipration of strain gauges for transverse load

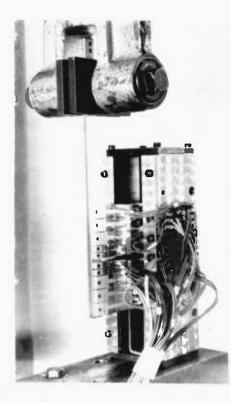


Fig 6.516) Detail

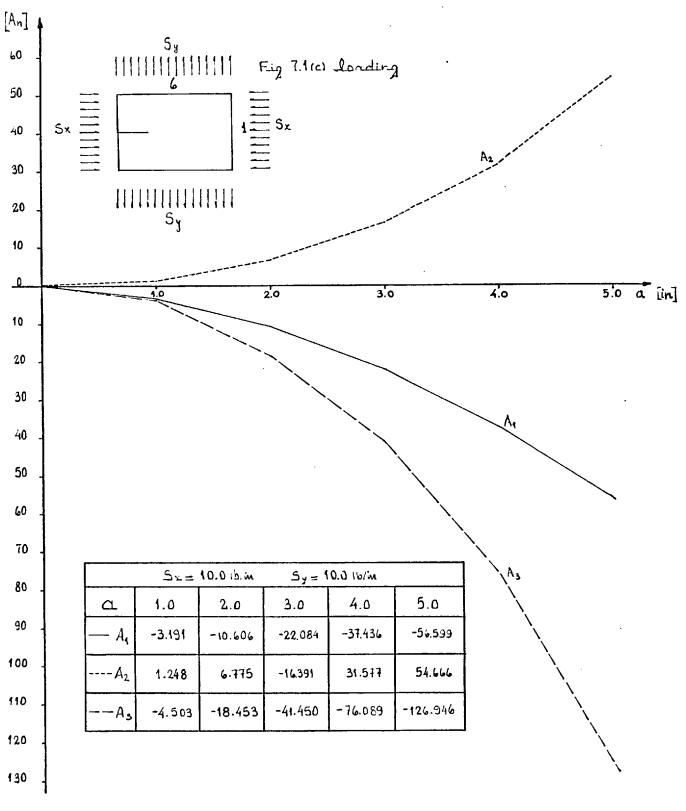
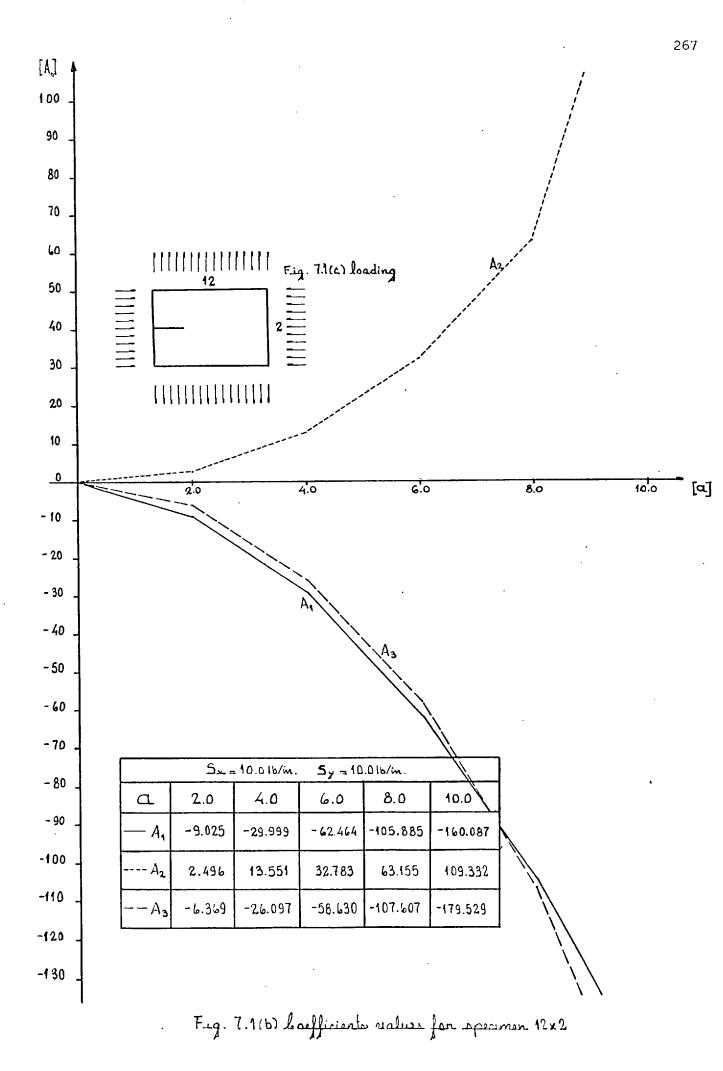
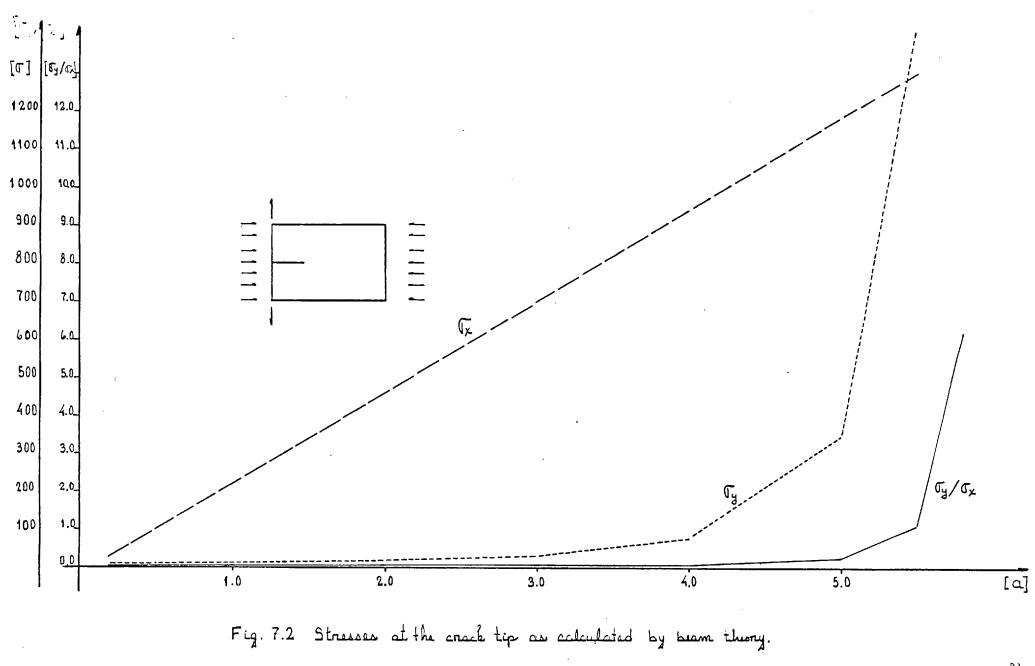
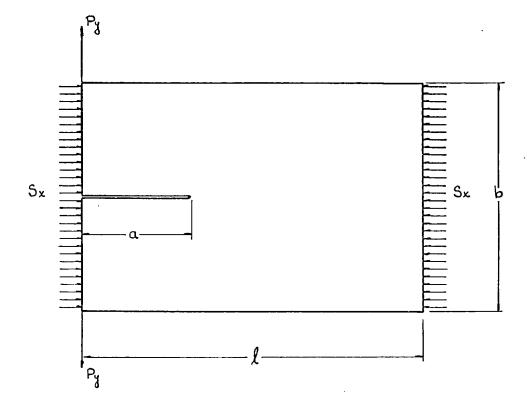


Fig. 7.1(a) bofficients values for specimen 6x1







Fia 7.3 loading and dimensions as factors that affect the coefficients values

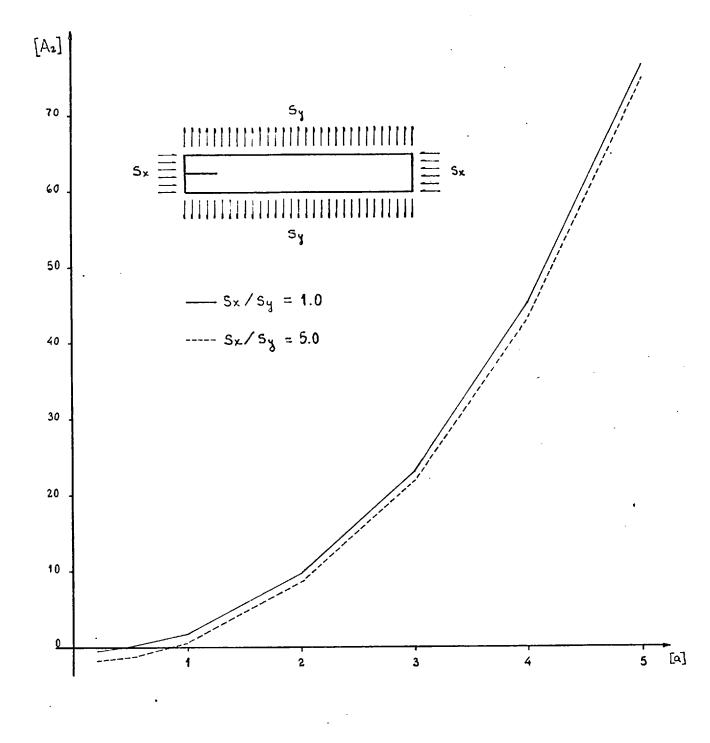


Fig. 7.4(a) Az boefficient values for different crack lengths Specimen_ 6×1

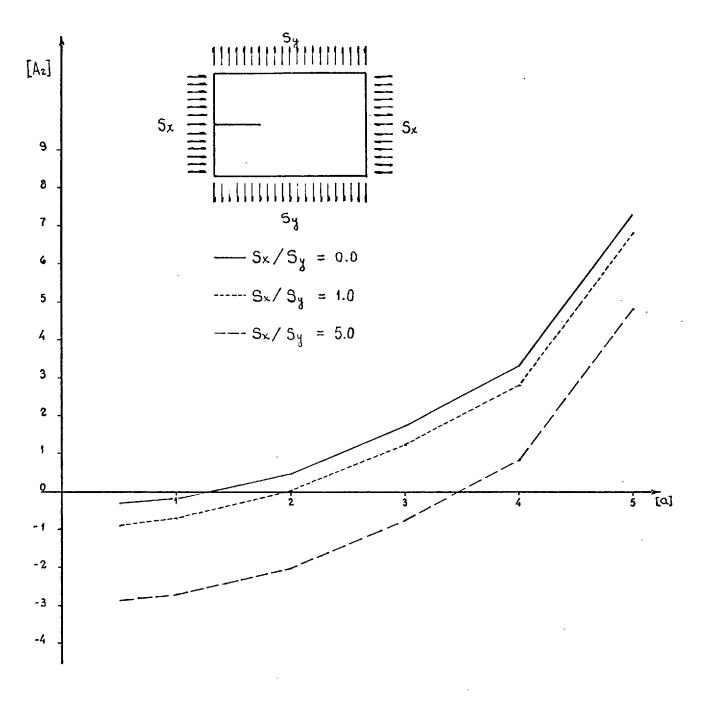


Fig 7.4(b) Az boefficiente values for different crack lengths Specimen 6×4

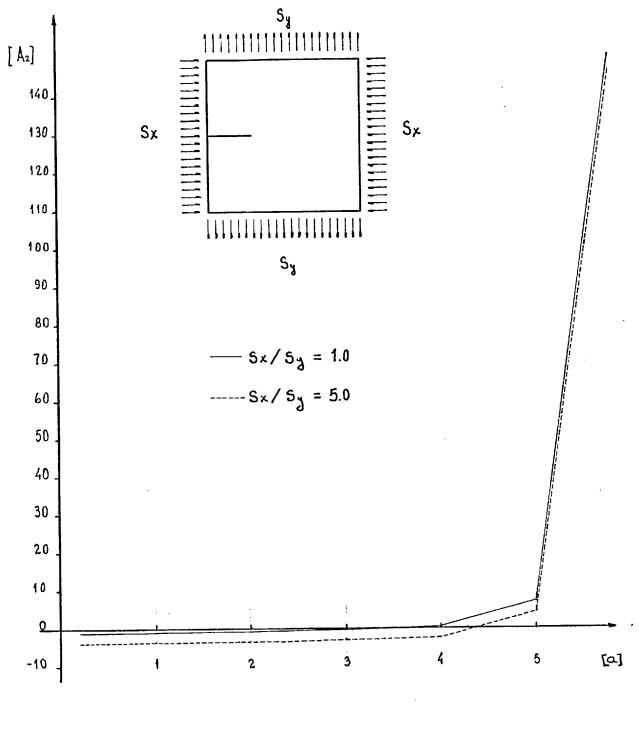


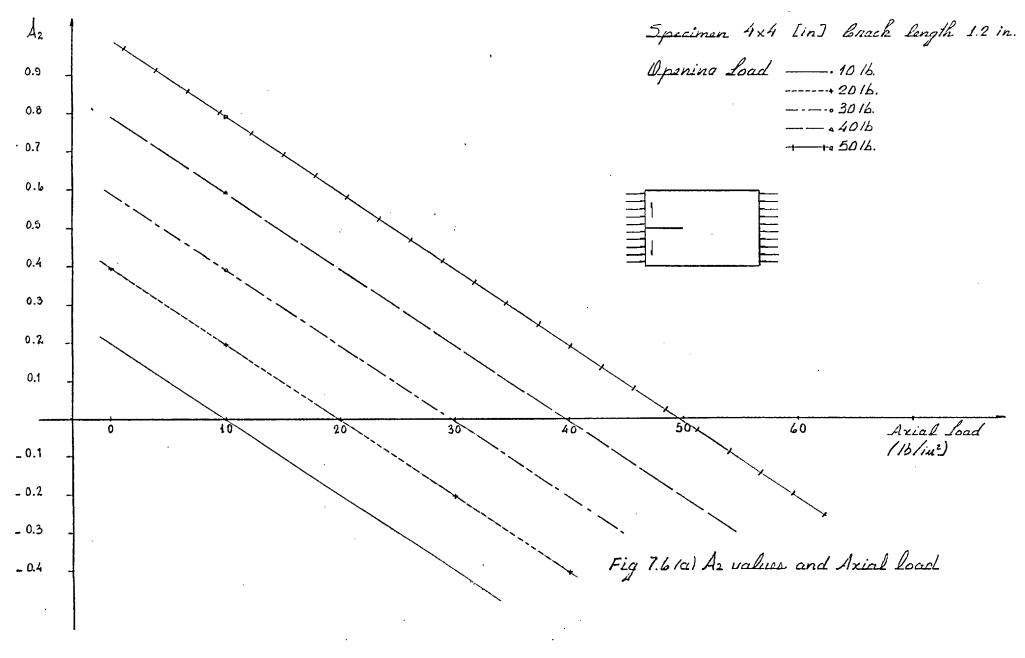
Fig 7.4 (c) Az boefficiente values for different crack lengthe Specimen 6×6

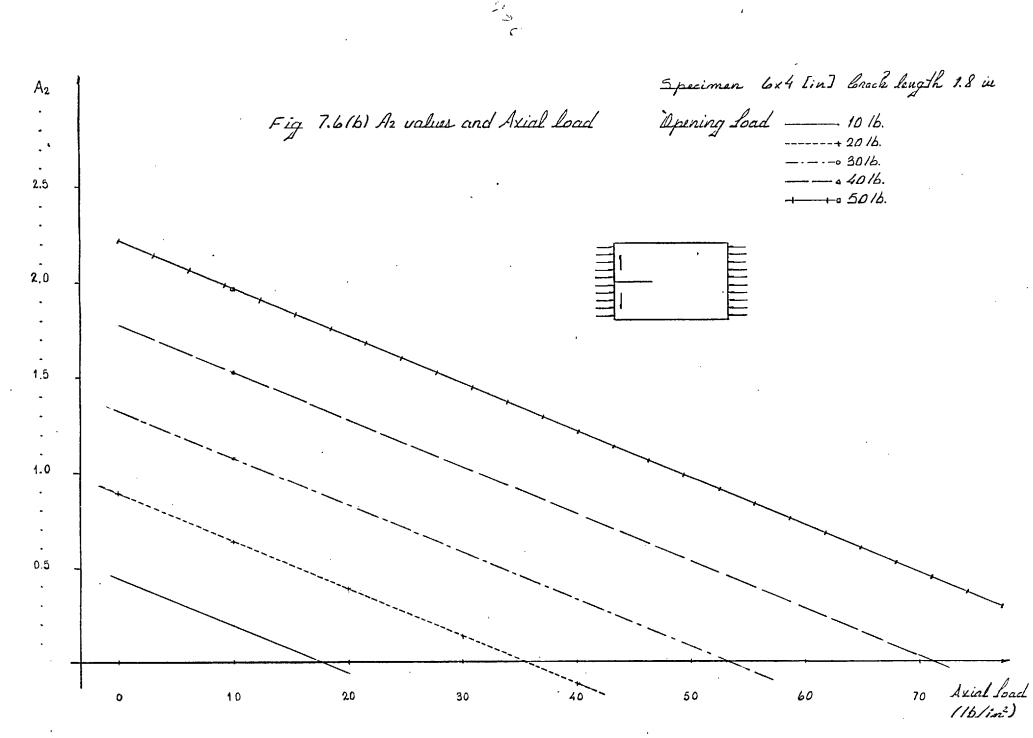
A values Specimen 4×4 [in] ð 6 4 2 ٥ (a/l) - 2 -4 - 6 0.1 0.3 0.5 0.7 0,9 0.2 0.4 0.6 - 8 -10 Caefficient - Ar -12 J ----+ A2 -14 а _____A3 -16 10 lb. Apening Load applied as a -18 uniform stress along the Eig 7.5(a) baefficienta values -20. specimen edge

Avaluss Specimen 6x4 Lin] 8 6 2 ٥ 0.91 0.5 0.6 0.7 0.3 0.4 0.8 0.9 1.0 (a/1) - 2 -4 -6 ~ 8 -10 Caefficient ____ A1. -12 ----+ A2 - 14 W ----- A3 -16 а Apenina Load 10 1b. -18 applied as a uniform stress -20 along the specimen edge Fig 7.516) baefficiente values

A values Specimen 8x4/in] 8 6 4 2 Δ 0.4 0.5 0.6 0.7 0.8 0.9... 0.2 0.3 · 🏊 1.0 (2/L). - 2 - 4 -8 -10 Coefficient - A. -12 ----+ A2 -14 w --- · A3 -16 a Opening Load 10 16. P -18 applied as a uniform stress Fig 7.510 basfficients values -20. along the specimen edge

A values Speciman 12×4(in.) 8 4 2 0 D.9 0.7 0.8 1.0 0.3 0.4 0.5 0.6 0.2 0.1 (a/1) -2 -4. -6 - 8 -10 Coefficient ----- A1 -12 W ---- A3 -14 9 Openina Load 10 16. -16 applied as a uniform stress -18 Fig 7.5(d) baefficients values along the specimen edge. -20 -22

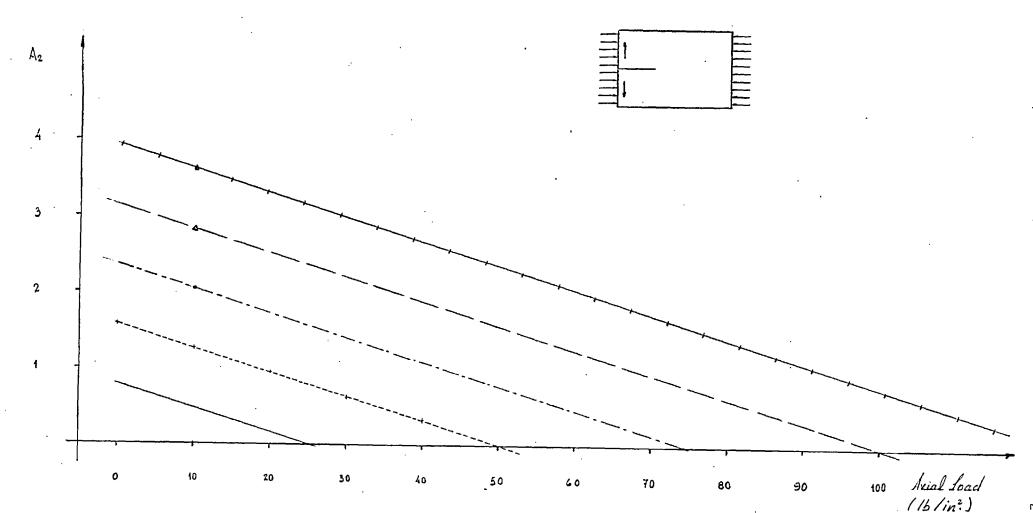


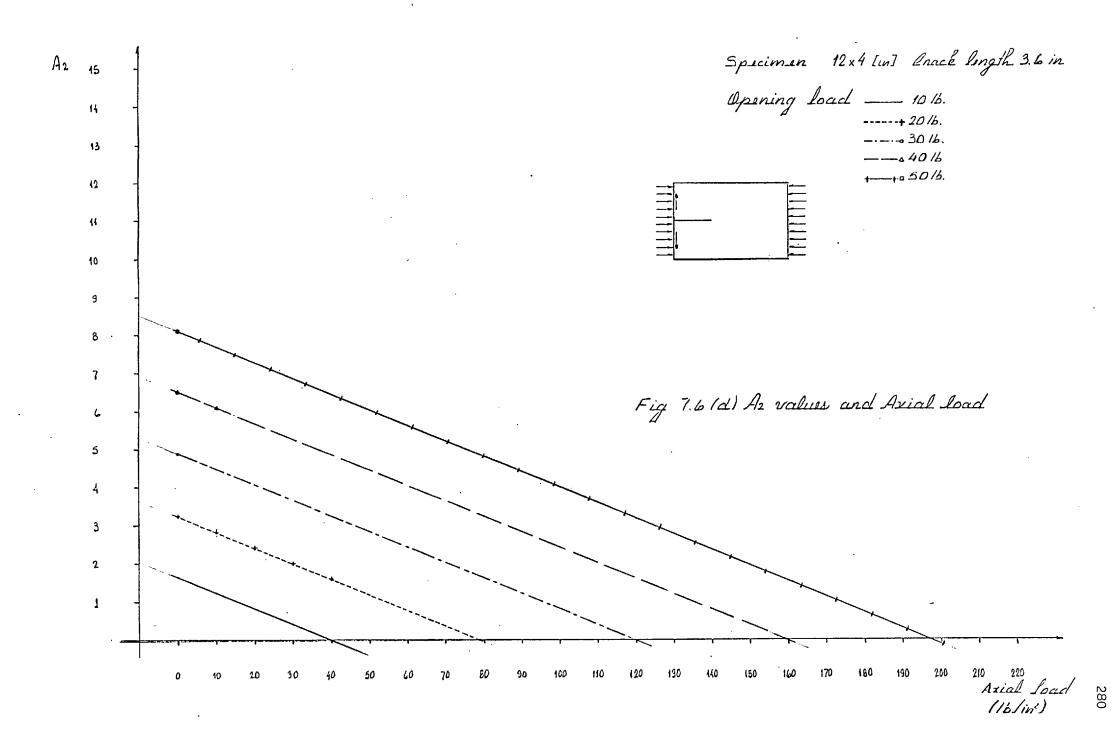


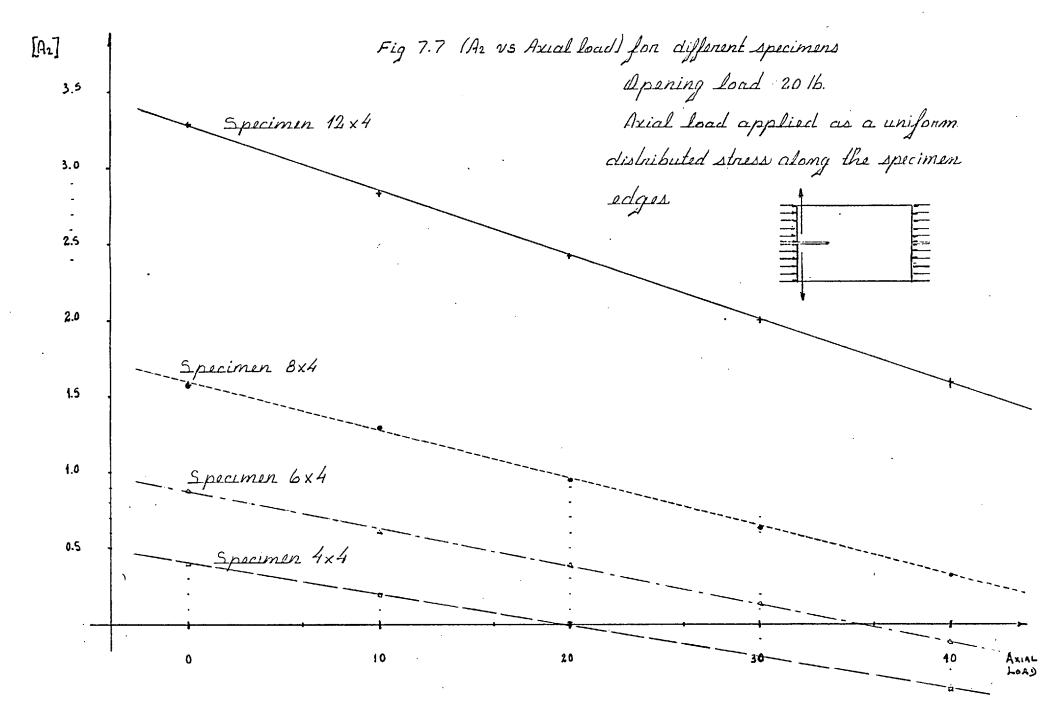
Specimen 8x4 Iin) brack length 2.4 In

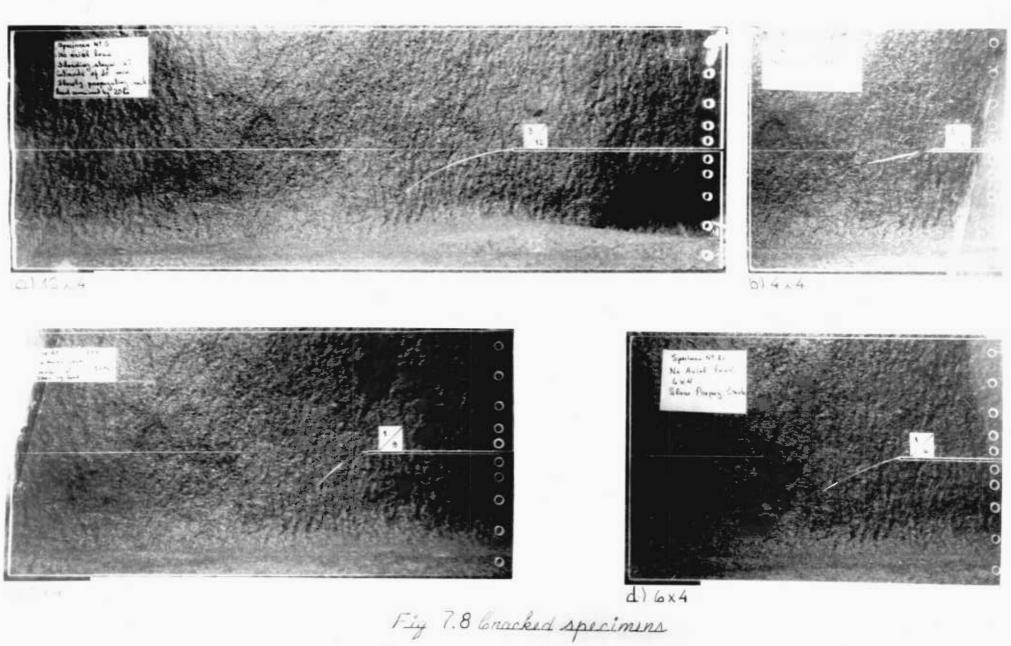
Depening Load ____ 10 16. ---. 30 16. --- 40 15. +-+- 50 16.

Fig 7.612) Az values and Axial load

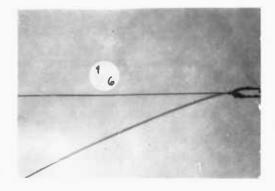




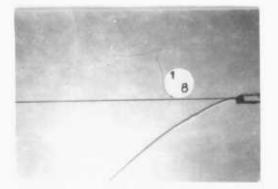


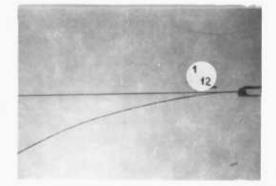






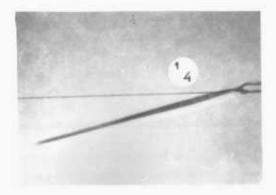
a) No axial load Specimen 4x4 b) No usial load Specimen 6x4





c) No axial load Spacimen 8x4 d) No axial load Specimen 12 × 4

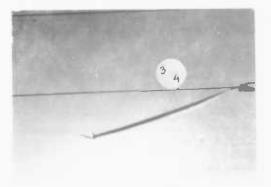
Fig. 7.8 brack puth and Specimen dimensions



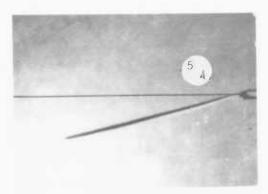
a) No axial load

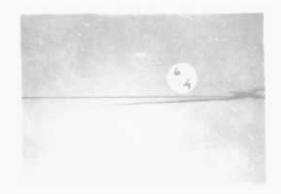


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c) Axial loud 30 lb d) Axial load 100 lb.



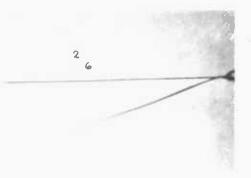


a) Axial load 100 lb. f) Axial load 160 lb.

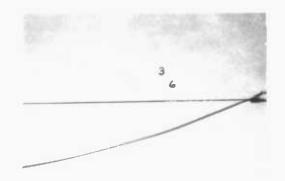
Fig 1.9 Cnack path for Specimens 4x4

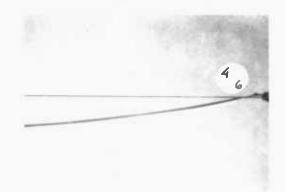


a) No axial load

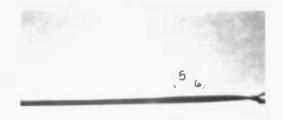


b) Axial load 160 lb.



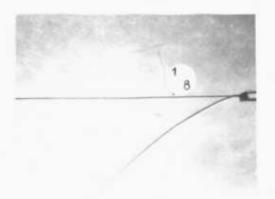


c) Axial load 160 lb. d) Axial load 160 lb.



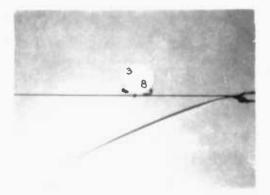
a) Axial loud 360 16

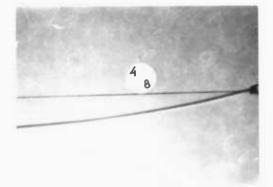
Fig 7.10 brack for Specimens 6×6



a) No axial load

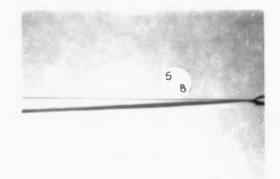
b) No axial load





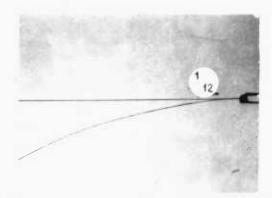
c) No axial load

d) Arial load 240 lb.

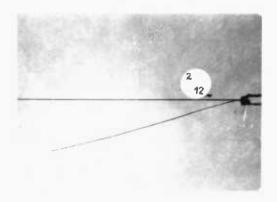


a) Axial load 850 H.

Fig. 7.11 Cruck pull for Spermens 3x4

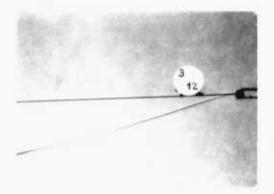


a) No axial load

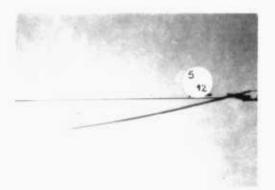


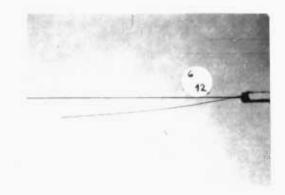
12

) Axial load 360 16.



c) Arial loud 360 lb. 1) Arial loud 360 lb.





a) I will load 500 lb. f) Arial load 700 lb.

Fig Ila onuk jer specimena lax4





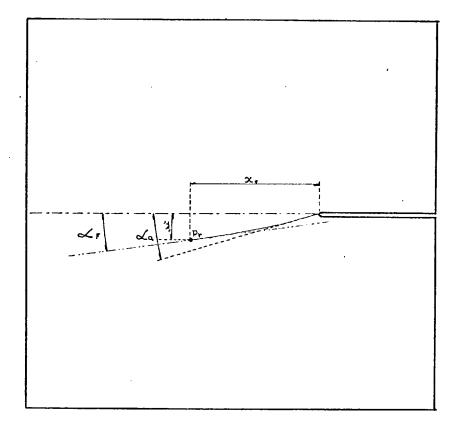
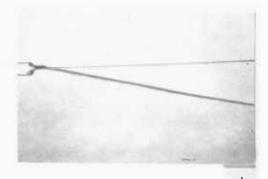


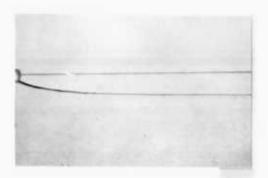
FIG. 7.13 INITIAL AND FINAL ANGLES OF CRACK PROPAGATION (EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS)

Phase I Phase II Phase III

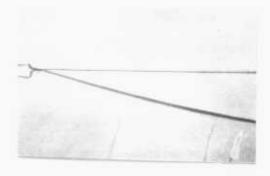
Fig 7.14 Fracture Surfaces



Transverse Load 240 lb/in (b)



Transverse Load 320 lb/in (d)



Transverse Load 160 lb/in (a)



Transverse Load 280 lb/in (C)



Transverse Load 320 lb/in (})



Transverse Load 320 lb/in(2)



Transverse Load 400 lb/in(g) Transverse Load 440 lb/in (h)



Fig 715 Gruk pin lon spainer . 2x+ (no more II)

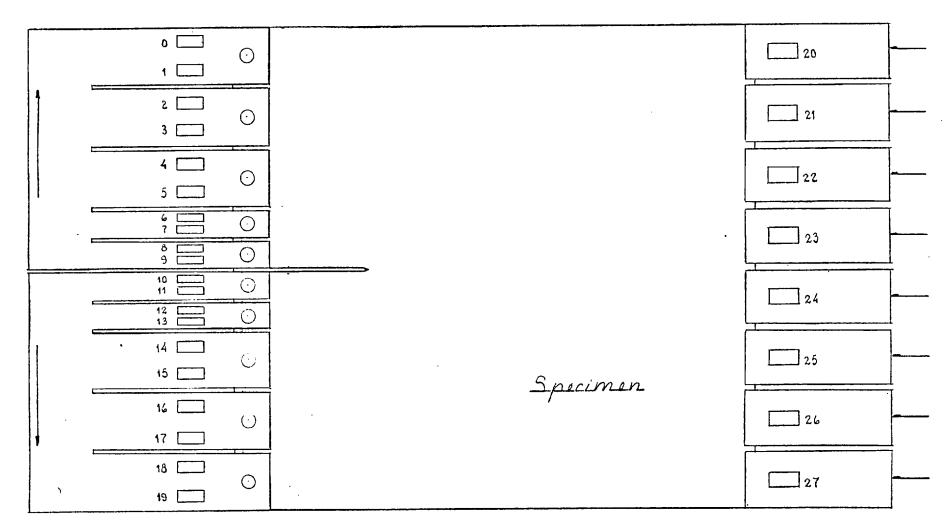
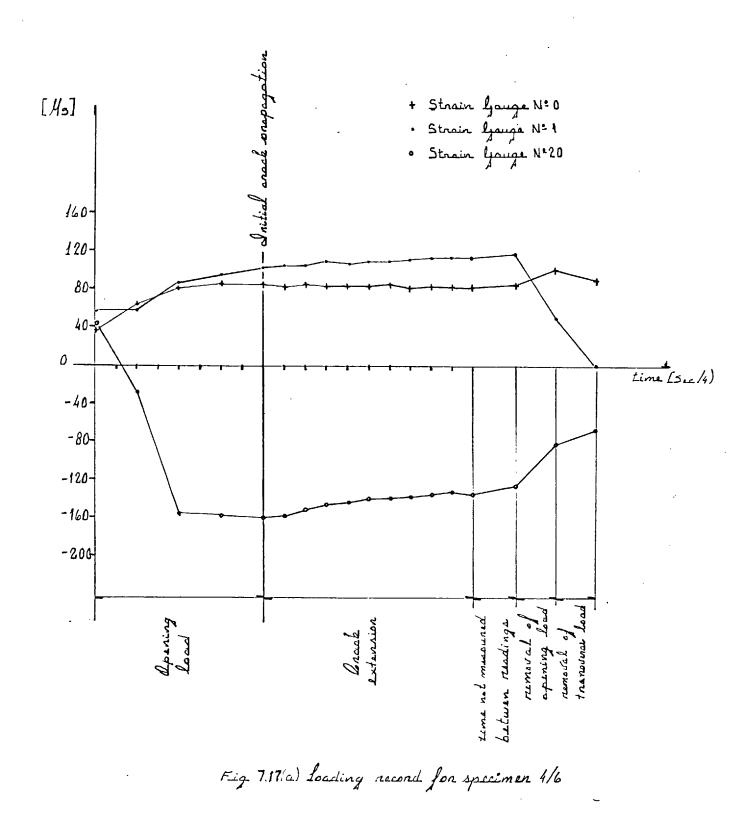
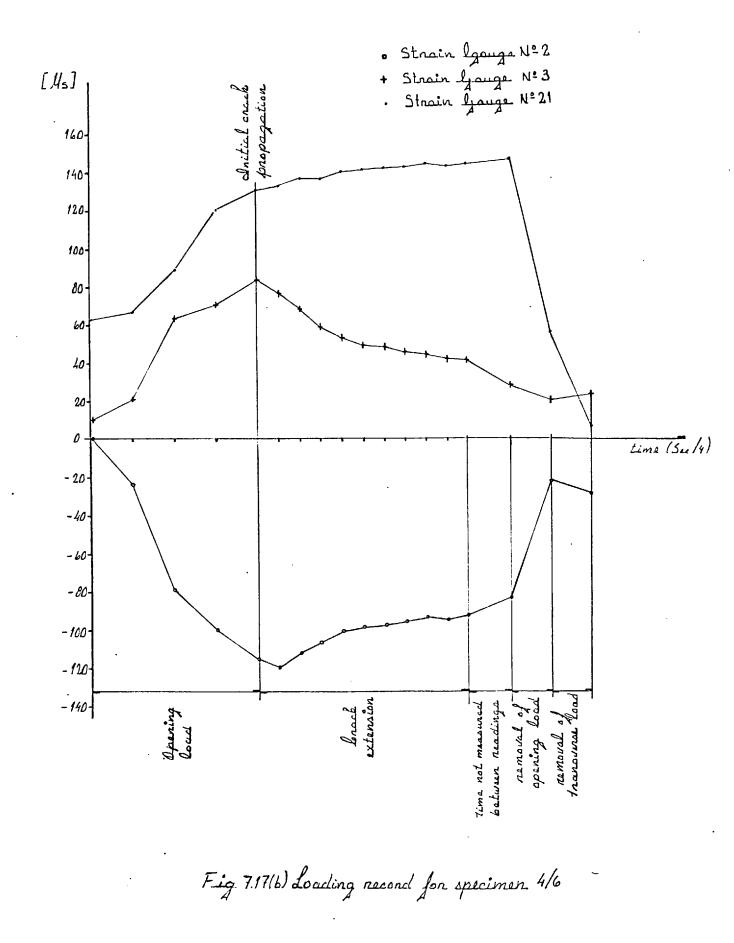
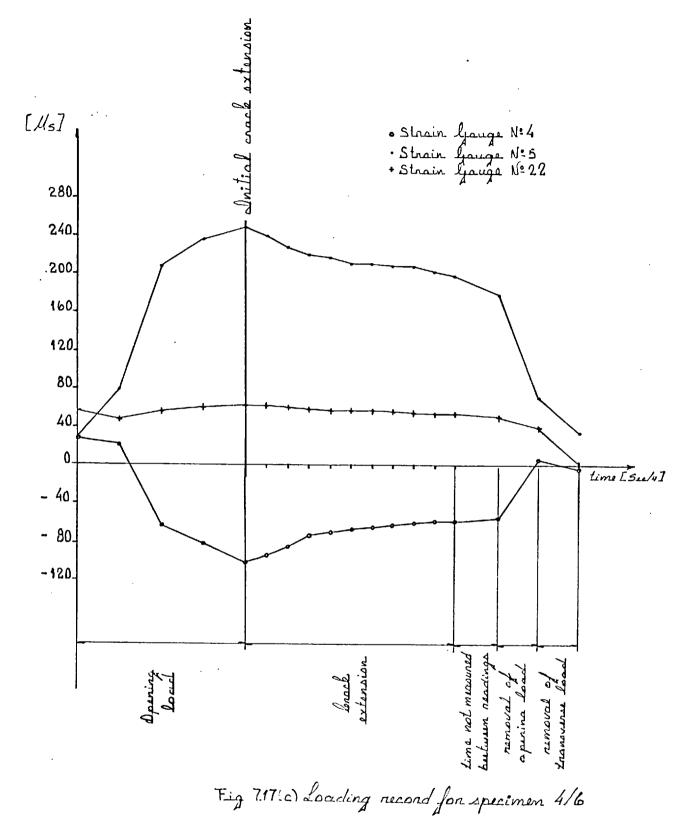


Fig 7.16 Gauges distribution and loading.







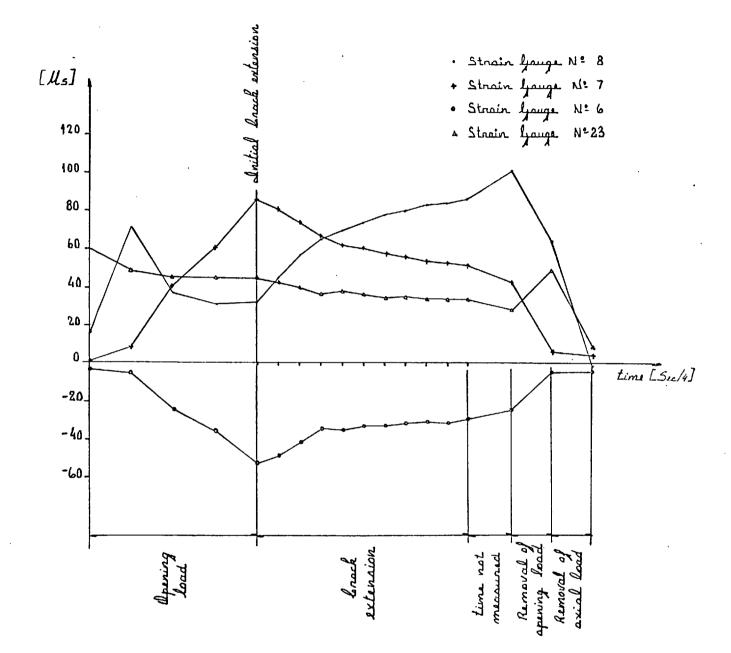
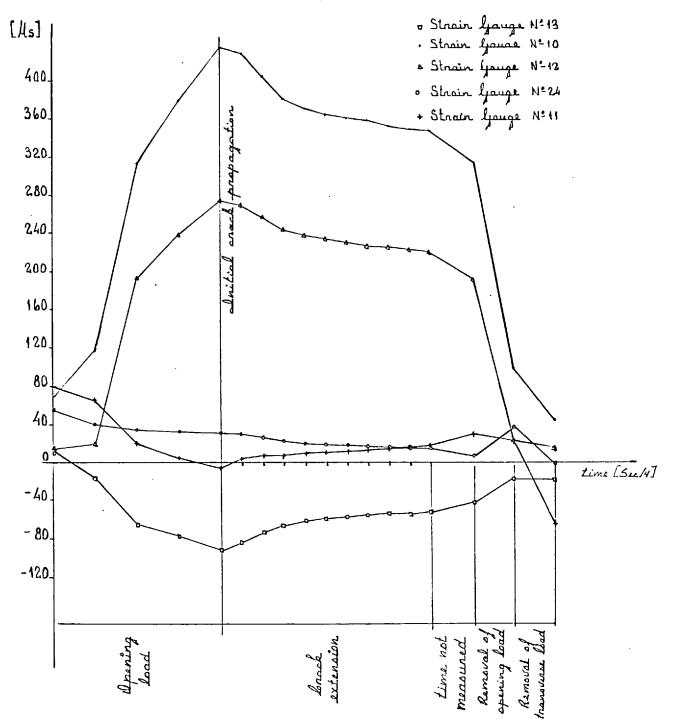
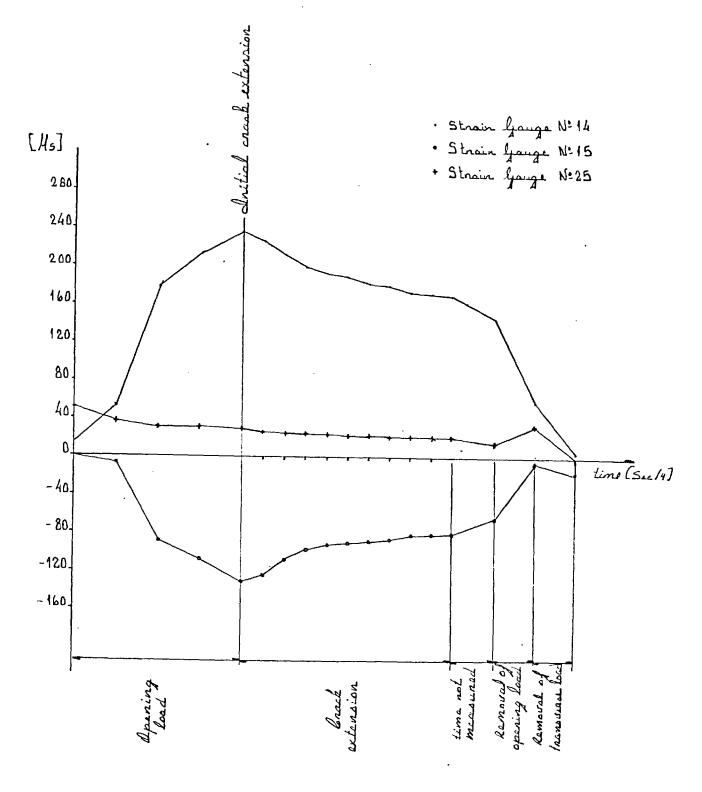


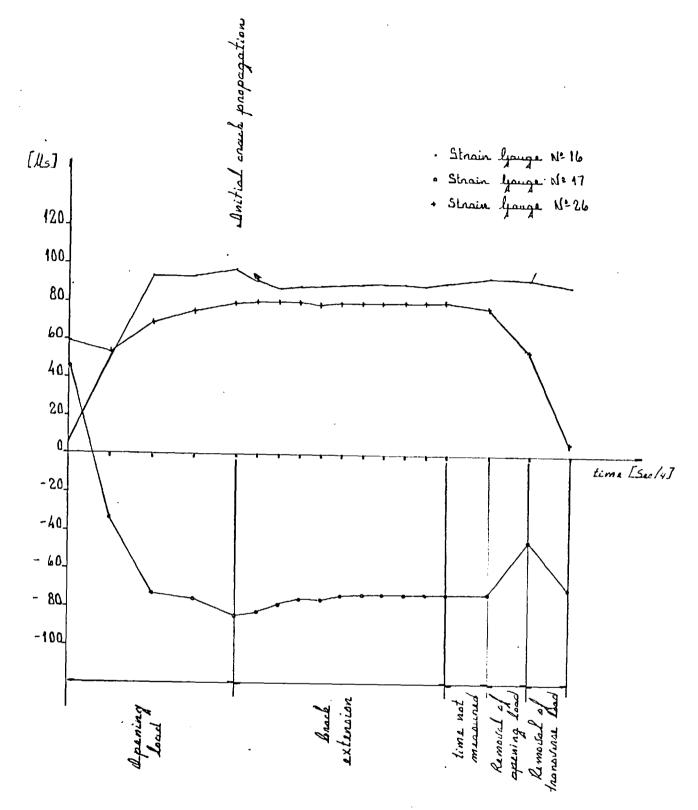
Fig. 7.17 (d) Loading record for a precimen 4/6



Eig 7.17 (e) Loading record for specimen 4/6



Eig 7.17(13) Loading record for specimen 6/4



Eig. 7.1719) Loading record for specimen 6/4

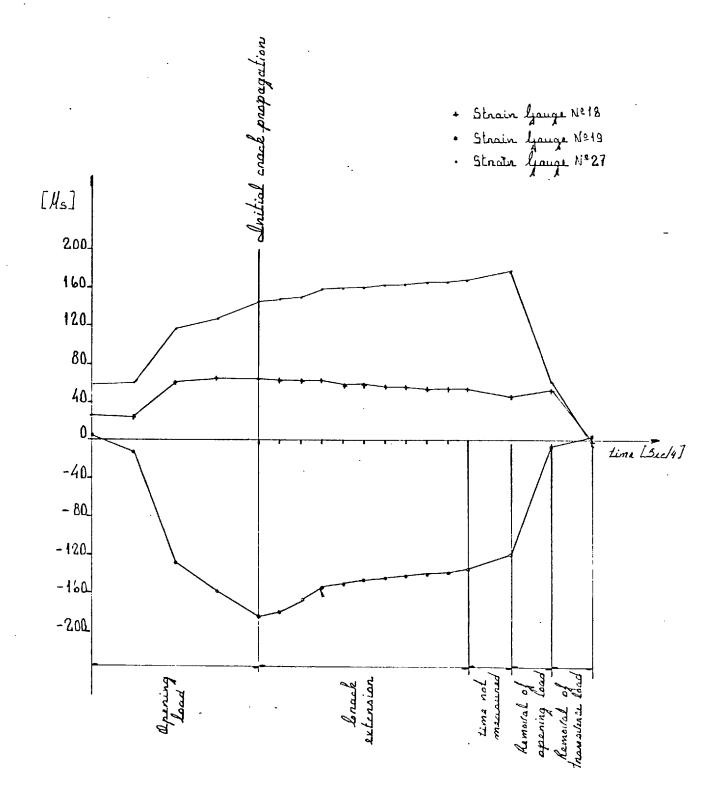


Fig 7.171h) Loading record for specimen 614

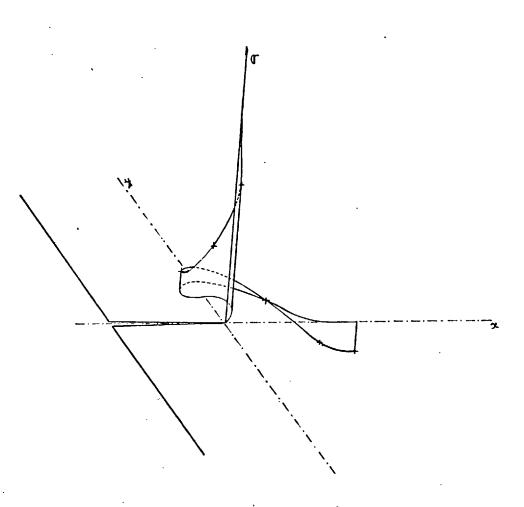


Fig. 7.18 Maximum values of stress (Gy) as defined from the Williams series at r (core radius) and y

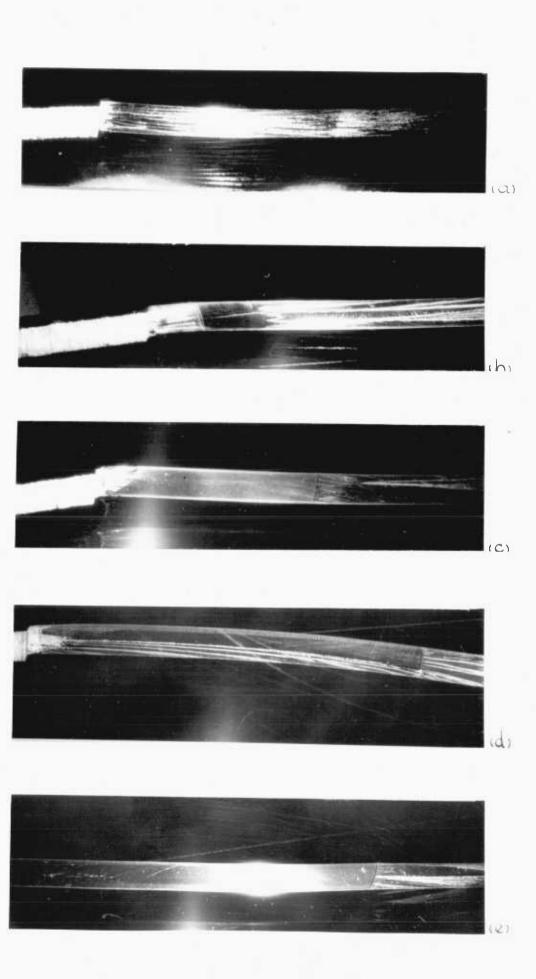
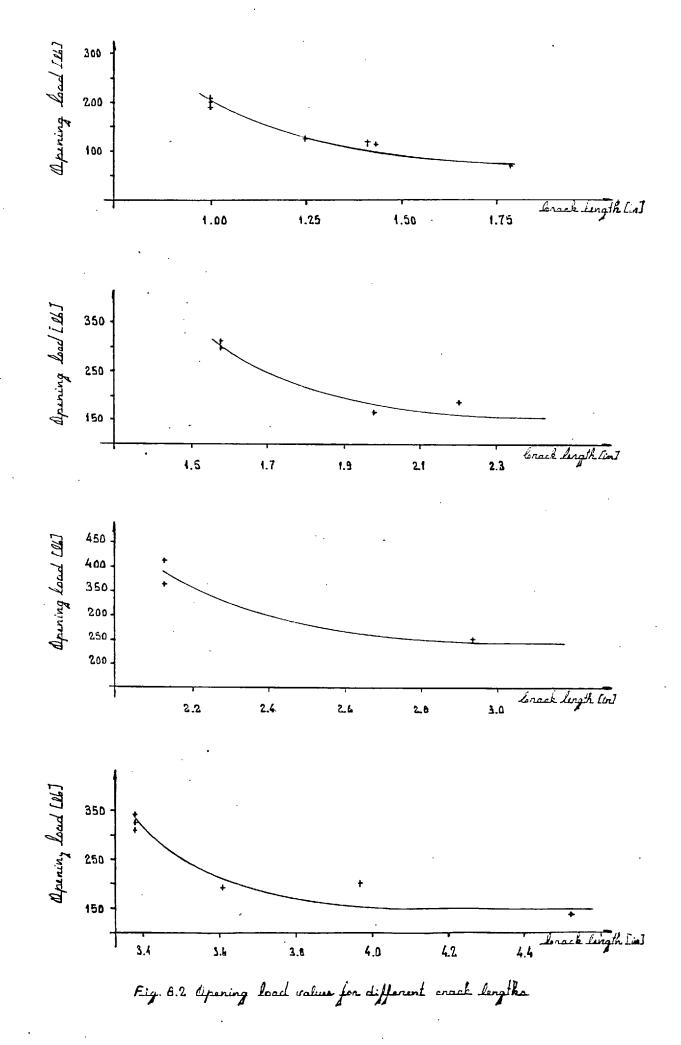
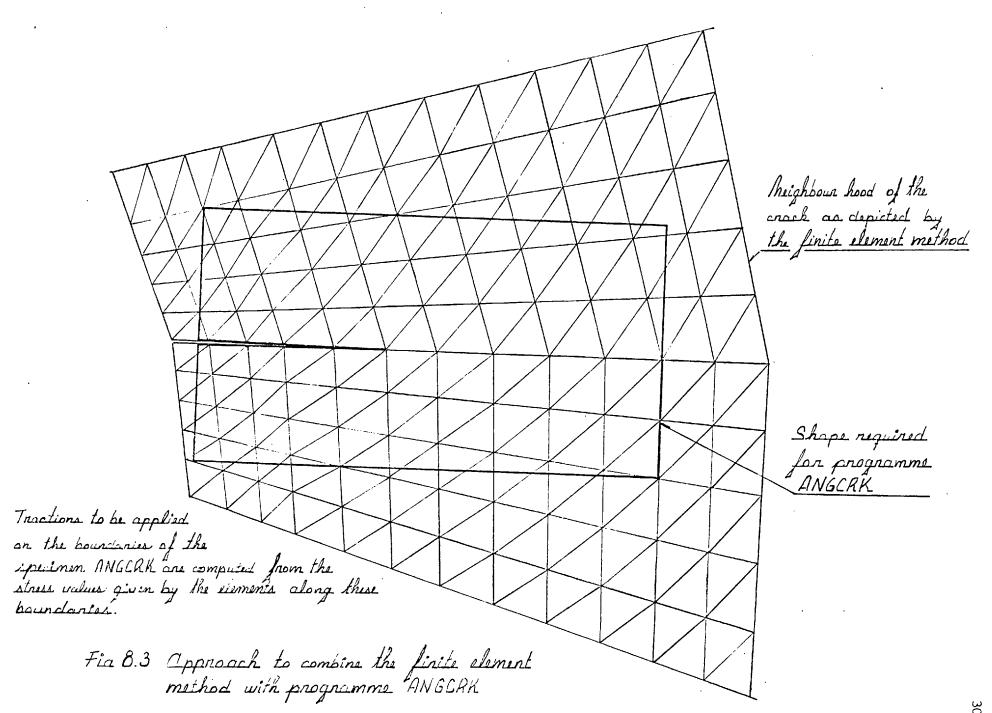


Fig. 8.1 Length of ruck econstra for approx



C



APPENDIX'3

(a) Study on determination of direction of crack propagation.				
(b) Determination of stress intensity factors.				
This study involves: finite elements, computation, programming,				
automatic mesh generation for the gear.				
The program developed works as follows.				
Data: Diametral pitch, pitch diameter, number of teeth, helic				
angle, pressure angle, boundary conditions, loading.				

Ιt

- (a) computes the tooth profile, isolates a gear section;
- (b) generates a mesh suitable to be used in conjunction with program FLAP3, and applies the load;
- (c) cracks the tooth;
- (d) 1. by using Rice's contour integral, computes Kor

2. by using Bueckner's method, computes K. Additionally, the data supplied by FLAP 3 can be used to trace isostatics, isoentatics, isopaclines, isochromatics, etc. These were done manually when required and is a length process but it is very useful for the analyst to know deeply what is going on in the material and these fields show clearly critical zones.

APPENDIX 3a

Pitch circle diameter	=	33.54"
Normal pitch	=	0.8"
Base circle diameter	=	31.074"
Addendum circle diameter	=	34.05"
Dedendum circle diameter	=	32.78"
Number of teeth	=	118
Face width	=	8.5"
Axial pitch	=	1.8"
Normal p.a.	=	20 ⁰
Helix angle	=	26 ⁰ 23"
Thickness of rim below dedendum circle	=	2.14"
Grinding allowance	=	0.015"

Carburised to D.G.S. 6017E to give 0.085 effective case depth and hardened to a surface level of 650 to 775 D.P.N. The gears are designed for a Lloyd's 'K' value of 424 i.e. a tangential tooth load of 2727 lb/in face width.

APPENDIX 3b

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Circumferential component of 100 lb load	= 92.6 lb
Radial component of 100 lb load	= 37.2 lb
For point A: moment arm to pitch circle	= 0.353 in
root width	= 0.702 in
eccentricity of radial load	= 0.128 in
Simple bending stress	= My/I
	$= \frac{92.6 \times 0.353 \times 3}{0.351 \times 0.351 \times 2}$
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
	= + 398 lb/in ³
Direct stress	= W/A
	= -37.2/0.702 = -53 lb/in ²
Eccentric bending stress	= (We)y/I
	= 37.2 x 0.128 x 3/2
	(.351) ²
	= -58 lb/in ²
Simple bending stress	= +398 lb/in ²
Simple combined stresses	= 287 lb/in ²

11/9/9/128

Suppose at some point (1,4) appendie 5a Expressions for displacements "u" and "r" as obtained by Prof. J. L. Swedlow (1974) $\begin{cases} \nabla_r \\ \nabla_4 \\ C_{r4} \end{cases} = \begin{cases} \nabla (r, 4) \\ C_{r4} \end{cases}$ We have, however, The relation $\{2(1,4)\} = \{(1,4)\} \{3\}$ The strand energy density at (1,4) i W (1,4) given by $JW(r,4) = {T(r,4)} [F]{T(r,4)}$ $\begin{bmatrix} F \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} F \\ F \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -U \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0$ where hence JW(1,4) = {ababs [C(1,4)][F][((1,4)]59] Define $[B] = \int_{a}^{a} \int_{c}^{c(4)} \left[c^{T}(r, u) \right] [F] \left[c^{T}(r, u) \right] r dr d\psi$ $I_{LII} = \{a \mid a \mid b \mid J \in B \}$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{c} u\left(r,4\right) \\ v\left(r,4\right) \end{array} \right\} = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} u\left(r,4\right) \\ \end{array} = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} u\left(r,4\right) \\ \end{array} \right\} = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} u\left(r,4\right) \\ \end{array} = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} u\left(r,4\right) \\ \end{array} \right\} = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} u\left(r,4\right) \\ \end{array} = \left\{ \left\{ \begin{array}{c} u\left(r,4\right) \\ \end{array} \right\} = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} u\left(r,4\right) \\ \end{array} = \left\{ \left\{ \begin{array}{c} u\left(r,4\right) \\ \end{array} \right\} = \left\{ \left\{ \begin{array}{c} u\left(r,4\right) \\ \end{array} \right\} = \left\{ \left\{ \left\{ \left\{ u\left(r,4\right) \right\} \right\} = \left\{ \left\{ \left\{ u\left(r,4\right) \right\} \right\} = \left\{ \left\{ \left\{ u\left(r,4\right) \right\} \right\} = \left\{ \left\{ \left\{ u\left(r,4\right) \right\} = \left\{ u\left(r,4\right) \right\} = \left\{ u\left(r,4\right) \right\} = \left\{ \left\{ u\left(r,4\right) \right\} = \left\{ u\left(r,4\right) = \left\{ u$$

ourd if

$$P = \int_{s_1}^{s_2} \{t^T \{ \{ \underline{u} (s, 4) \} \} ds$$

Itim T

$$P = \int_{S_1}^{S_2} \{t^{T} \int [D(t, 4)] ds \cdot \begin{cases} q \\ q \\ q \end{cases} = I A J \begin{cases} q \\ q \\ q \end{cases}$$

 $[A] = \int_{S_1}^{S_2} \{t^T\} [D(r, 4)] ds = \{D^T\}$

$$\overline{\Pi} = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ a b a b 3 \right\} \left\{ \overline{B} \right\} \left\{ \overline{B} \right\} = \left[A \right] \left\{ \overline{B} \right\}$$

we require
$$[B]_{3}^{2} = fD_{3}^{2}$$

we need ID(r,4)]

$$\int show for d = R \left[\overline{z} + (z) + \chi(z) \right]^{n-1} T \overline{z} \cdot G^{3} \cdot \mathcal{P}^{1/2}$$

$$\int \mu(c_{1}, \overline{v}) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4(z) - \overline{z} \cdot 4^{1}(z) - \overline{\chi} + \overline{\chi}(z)$$

$$\int \mu(c_{1}, \overline{v}) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4(z) - \overline{z} \cdot 4^{1}(z) - \overline{\chi} + \overline{\chi}(z)$$

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$$\int \mu(c_{1}, \overline{v}) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4(z) - \overline{z} \cdot 4^{1}(z) - \overline{\chi}(z)$$

$$\int \mu(c_{1}, \overline{v}) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4(z) - \overline{z} \cdot 4(z) - \overline{z} \cdot 4(z)$$

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$$\int \mu(c_{1}, \overline{v}) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4(z) - \overline{z} \cdot 4(z) - \overline{z} \cdot 4(z) - \overline{z} \cdot 4(z)$$

$$\int \mu(c_{1}, \overline{v}) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4(z) - \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4(z) - \overline{z} \cdot 4(z) -$$

$$\begin{split} \varphi^{I} &= -\left[(\cdot)^{n-1} a_{2n-1} (n-k_{1}) \overline{z}^{n-k_{1}} + (\cdot)^{n} a_{2n} (n) \overline{z}^{n-1} \right] \\ &- \overline{\varphi}^{I} &= \int (\cdot)^{n-1} a_{2n-1} (n-k_{1}) \overline{z}^{n-k_{1}} + (\cdot)^{n} a_{2n} (n) \overline{z}^{n-1} \right] \\ \varphi^{I}_{n} &= \int (\cdot)^{n-1} a_{2n-1} (n+k_{1}) \frac{n-k_{1}}{n+k_{1}} \overline{z}^{n-k_{1}} + (\cdot)^{n} a_{2n} (n+k) \overline{z}^{n} \right] \\ &- \overline{\varphi}^{I} &= -\int (\cdot)^{n-1} a_{2n-1} (n-k_{1}) \overline{z}^{n-k_{1}} + (\cdot)^{n} a_{2n} (n+k) \overline{z}^{n} \right] \\ &- \overline{\varphi}^{I} &= -\int (\cdot)^{n-1} a_{2n-1} (n-k_{1}) \overline{z}^{n-k_{1}} + (\cdot)^{n} a_{2n} (n+k) \overline{z}^{n} \right] \\ &- \overline{\varphi}^{I} &= -\int (\cdot)^{n-1} a_{2n-1} (n-k_{1}) \overline{z}^{n-k_{1}} + (\cdot)^{n} a_{2n} (n+k) \overline{z}^{n-1} \right] \\ &+ \int (\cdot)^{n-1} a_{2n-1} (n-k_{1}) \overline{z}^{n-k_{1}} + (\cdot)^{n} a_{2n} (n+k) \overline{z}^{n-1} \right] \\ &- \int (\cdot)^{n-1} a_{2n-1} (n-k_{1}) \overline{z}^{n-k_{1}} + (n-k_{1}) \overline{z}^{n-k_{1}} - (n-k_{1}) \overline{z}^{n-k_{1}} \right] \\ &+ \int (-)^{n} a_{2n-1} \left[- 1(\overline{z}^{n} + n \overline{z} \overline{z}^{n-1} - (n+k) \overline{z}^{n} \right] \right\} \\ &+ \int (-)^{n} a_{2n} \left[- 1(\overline{z}^{n} + n \overline{z} \overline{z}^{n-1} - (n+k) \overline{z}^{n} \right] \right\} \\ &+ \int (-)^{n} a_{2n} \left[- 1(\overline{z}^{n} + n \overline{z} \overline{z}^{n-1} - (n+k) \overline{z}^{n} \right] \right\} \\ &+ \int (-)^{n} a_{2n} \left[- 1(\overline{z}^{n} + n \overline{z} \overline{z}^{n-1} - (n+k) \overline{z}^{n} \right] \right\} \\ &+ \int (-)^{n} a_{2n} \left[- 1(\overline{z}^{n} + n \overline{z} \overline{z}^{n-1} - (n+k) \overline{z}^{n} \right] \right] \\ &+ \int (-)^{n} a_{2n} \left[- 1(\overline{z}^{n} + n \overline{z} \overline{z}^{n-1} - (n+k) \overline{z}^{n} \right] \right] \\ &+ \int (-)^{n} a_{2n} \left[- 1(\overline{z}^{n} + n \overline{z} \overline{z}^{n-1} - (n+k) \overline{z}^{n} \right] \right] \\ &+ \int (-)^{n} a_{2n} \left[- 1(\overline{z}^{n} + n \overline{z} \overline{z}^{n-1} - (n+k) \overline{z}^{n} \right] \right]$$

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$$= \sum_{n=1}^{7} \left\{ (z_{n-1}^{n-1} a_{2n+1} \int -\kappa r^{n+1} e^{i(n-\frac{1}{2})4} + (n-\frac{1}{2})r^{n-1} e^{-i(n-\frac{2}{2})4} + \frac{311}{4} e^{i(n-\frac{1}{2})4} + \frac{1}{4} (z_{n-\frac{1}{2}}^{n-1} a_{2n+1}^{n-1} f^{n-\frac{1}{2}} e^{i(n-\frac{1}{2})4} + \frac{1}{4} (z_{n-\frac{1}{2}}^{n-1} f^{n-\frac{1}{2}} e^{i(n-\frac{1}{2})4} + \frac{1}{4} (z_{n-\frac{1}{2}}^{n-1} e^{i(n-\frac{1}{2})$$

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$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} & 312 \\ J\mu \mathbf{L} = & \mathbf{Q}_{1} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{3}_{2} \begin{bmatrix} -(\kappa - \frac{1}{2}) \cos \frac{4}{3} + \frac{1}{2} \cos \frac{34}{3} \end{bmatrix} \\ & + \mathbf{Q}_{3} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \mathbf{Q}_{3} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \mathbf{Q}_{3} \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix} \\ & + \mathbf{Q}_{3} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & + \mathbf{Q}_{3} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & + \mathbf{Q}_{3} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & + \mathbf{Q}_{3} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & + \mathbf{Q}_{3} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & + \mathbf{Q}_{3} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & + \mathbf{Q}_{3} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{34}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ & - \mathbf{Q}_{4} \begin{bmatrix} (\kappa + 1) \cos 4 \\ +$$

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from the

$$J\mu U_r = Q_1 r'' \left[-(k - \frac{1}{2}) \cos \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \cos \frac{2}{3} \right]$$

$$J\mu U_q = Q_1 r'' \left[(k + \frac{1}{2}) \sin \frac{4}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{2}{3} \right]$$

$$U = U_r \cos 4 - V_q \sin 4$$

$$V = U_r \sin 4 + V_q \cosh 4$$

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$$-(x-\frac{1}{3})\cos\frac{4}{3}\cos + \frac{1}{3}\cos \frac{4}{3}\cos 4$$

$$-(x+\frac{1}{3})\cos\frac{4}{3}\sin 4 + \frac{1}{3}\sin \frac{4}{3}\sin 4$$

$$-(x+\frac{1}{3})\cos\frac{4}{3} + \frac{1}{3}\cos\frac{4}{3} + \frac{1}{3}\cos\frac{4}{3} + \frac{1}{3}\cos\frac{4}{3}$$

$$\frac{(x+\frac{1}{3})\cos\frac{4}{3}\sin\frac{4}{3} + \frac{1}{3}\cos\frac{4}{3}\sin\frac{4}{3}}{\sin\frac{4}{3}\cos\frac{4}{3}$$

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$$\int V \ \underline{OU} \ port \qquad 314$$

$$\int_{A=1}^{N} \sum_{n=1}^{2} \left\{ (.)^{n-1} b_{2n-1} r^{n+2} \left\{ \overline{Sun(n-5)} + -\overline{Sun(n+5)} + 1 \right\} \right\}$$

$$+ (.)^{N} b_{2n-1} r^{n+1} \left[-\overline{Sun(n-5)} + -\overline{Sun(n+1)} + 1 \right]^{2}$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{2} \left\{ (.)^{n-1} b_{2n-1} \left[Q \left((.i\overline{z} z^{n-1/2}) + Q \left(iz^{n+1/2} \right) \right] \right] \right\}$$

$$+ (.)^{N} b_{2n} \left[Q \left((i\overline{z} z^{n-1/2}) - \frac{n-1}{n+1} Q \left(iz^{n+1} \right) \right]^{2} \right]$$

$$So \quad \text{aport from Summative}$$

$$\int_{A} (z) = -\int (.)^{n-1} b_{2n-1} \left[\overline{z}^{n+1/2} - (..)^{N} b_{2n} \left[\overline{z}^{n+1} \right] \right]$$

$$\hat{b}_{n} (z) = \int (.)^{n-1} b_{2n-1} \left[\overline{z}^{n+1/2} - \frac{n-1}{n+1} b_{2n} \left[\overline{z}^{n+1} \right] \right]$$

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi_{n}^{\prime} &= -i \left[(\cdot)^{n-1} b_{3n-1} (n \cdot \frac{1}{2}) z^{n \cdot \frac{1}{2}} - (-)^{n} b_{3n} (n) z^{n-1} \right] \\ - \overline{\varphi}_{n}^{1} &= -i \left[(\cdot)^{n-1} b_{3n-1} (n \cdot \frac{1}{2}) \overline{z}^{n \cdot \frac{1}{2}} - (-)^{n} b_{3n} (n) \overline{z}^{n-1} \right] \\ \varphi_{n}^{\prime} &= i \left[(\cdot)^{n-1} b_{3n-1} (n \cdot \frac{1}{2}) z^{n \cdot \frac{1}{2}} - (-)^{n} b_{3n} (n-1) \overline{z}^{n} \right] \\ - \overline{\varphi}_{n}^{\prime} &= i \left[(\cdot)^{n-1} b_{3n-1} (n \cdot \frac{1}{2}) \overline{z}^{n \cdot \frac{1}{2}} - (-)^{n} b_{3n} (n-1) \overline{z}^{n} \right] \\ - \overline{\varphi}_{n}^{\prime} &= i \left[(\cdot)^{n-1} b_{3n-1} (n \cdot \frac{1}{2}) \overline{z}^{n \cdot \frac{1}{2}} - (-)^{n} b_{3n} (n-1) \overline{z}^{n} \right] \\ 2 \mu (u + i v) = 1 \times Q - \overline{z} \overline{q}^{\prime} - \overline{\Theta}^{\prime} \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{7} \int - Ki \left[(\cdot)^{n-1} b_{3n-1} \overline{z}^{n \cdot \frac{1}{2}} - (-)^{n} b_{3n} (n) \overline{z}^{n-1} \right] \\ + i \left[(\cdot)^{n-1} b_{3n-1} \overline{z}^{n-\frac{1}{2}} - (-)^{n} b_{3n} (n) \overline{z}^{n-1} \right] \\ &= \overline{Z}_{n}^{\prime} i \left[(\cdot)^{n-1} b_{3n-1} \left[\overline{z}^{n-\frac{1}{2}} - (-)^{n} b_{3n} (n) \overline{z}^{n-1} \right] \right] \\ &= \overline{Z}_{n-1}^{\prime} i \left[(\cdot)^{n-1} b_{3n-1} \left[- K \overline{z}^{n-\frac{1}{2}} - (-)^{n} b_{3n} (n-1) \overline{z}^{n} \right] \right] \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{7} i \left\{ (\cdot)^{n-1} b_{3n-1} \left[- K \overline{z}^{n-\frac{1}{2}} - (n-\frac{1}{2}) \overline{z}^{n-\frac{1}{2}} + (n+\frac{1}{2}) \overline{z}^{n-\frac{1}{2}} \right] \right\} \\ &= (-)^{n} b_{3n} \left[K \overline{z}^{n} + N \overline{z} \overline{z}^{n-1} - (n-1) \overline{z}^{n} \right] \right\} \end{aligned}$$

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 $J_{\mu} u = Z \int_{-1}^{n-1} Q_{j_{n-1}} \Gamma^{n-\frac{1}{3}} \left[-(K+n-\frac{3}{3}) \cos(n-\frac{1}{3}) + +(n-\frac{1}{3}) \cos(n-\frac{5}{3}) + \right]^{318}$ + (-)ⁿ⁻¹ $\bigcup_{n=1}^{n-2} \left[(1(+n+\frac{1}{2}) \operatorname{su}(n-\frac{1}{2}) + -(n-\frac{1}{2}) \operatorname{su}(n-\frac{1}{2})^{-4} \right]$ $+(-)^{N} a_{2n} \Gamma^{n} \int -(k+n+1) \cos n4 + n \cos(n-2) 4 \int$ + (-)" bon F" [- (K+n-1) sound + n su(n-2) ~]] $J_{\mu\nu} = \sum_{n=1}^{51} \begin{cases} S_{n+1} \\ S_{n-1} \\$ $+(-)^{N-1} d_{2n-1} \Gamma^{n-1/2} \int -(1(-n-\frac{1}{3}) \cos(n-\frac{1}{3}) f -(n-\frac{1}{3}) \cos(n-\frac{1}{3}) f T$ + (-)" an [" [- (K-1-n) smint - N smi(n-2) +] + (-)" byn (" [(k-n+1) wint + n (vs (n-2) +] } N-3-K- 11-2v (V=-1/2+1)

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APPENDIX 5b

Expressions for the stress field in the crack neighbourhood.

$$e_{x} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} \frac{\partial r}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial \psi} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}$$

$$r = \sqrt{x^{2} + y^{2}}$$

$$\psi = \operatorname{Tan}^{-1} (y/x)$$

$$\frac{\partial r}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial (x^{2} + y^{2})^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\partial x} = \frac{(x^{2} + y^{2})^{-\frac{1}{2}}}{2} \frac{d(x^{3} + y^{3})}{dx}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2(x^{2} + y^{2})^{\frac{1}{2}}} \frac{dx^{2}}{dx} = \frac{2x}{2(x^{2} + y^{2})^{\frac{1}{2}}} \frac{dx}{dx} = \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^{2} + y^{2}}}$$

$$= \frac{x}{r} \doteq \operatorname{Cos} \psi$$

$$\therefore \frac{\partial r}{\partial x} = \operatorname{Cos} \psi$$

in the same way

and

$$\gamma_{xy} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$$

that becomes

$$\gamma_{xy} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} \sin \psi + \frac{\partial u}{\partial \psi} \frac{\cos \psi}{r} + \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} \cos \psi - \frac{\partial v}{\partial \psi} \frac{\sin \psi}{r}$$

u and v are given as shown in Chapter 5 and in order to simplify calculations, constants within the series were represented as follows.

In order to facilitate the handling of the whole expressions
COE1, COE2, etc, are defined as:
COE1 =
$$[-(k + n - 3/2) \cos (n - \frac{1}{2})\psi + (n - \frac{1}{2})\cos(n - 5/2)\psi]$$

 $\frac{\partial \text{COE1}}{\partial \psi} = [(k + n - 3/2)\sin(n - \frac{1}{2})\psi - (n - \frac{1}{2})(n - 5/2)\sin(n - 5/2)\psi]$
COE5 = $[-(k + 3/2 - n)\sin(n - \frac{1}{2})\psi - (n - \frac{1}{2})\sin(n - 5/2)\psi]$
 $\frac{\partial \text{COE5}}{\partial \psi} = [-(k + 3/2 - n)(n - \frac{1}{2})\cos(n - \frac{1}{2})\psi - (n - \frac{1}{2})(n - 5/2)\psi]$
 $\frac{\partial \text{COE5}}{\partial \psi} = [-(k + 3/2 - n)(n - \frac{1}{2})\cos(n - \frac{1}{2})\psi - (n - \frac{1}{2})(n - 5/2)\psi]$

So

$$u = \Sigma \{ (-1)^{n-1} r^{n-\frac{1}{2}} [a_{2n-1}^{COE1} + b_{2n-1}^{COE3}] + (-1)^{n} r^{n} [a_{2n}^{COE2} + b_{2n}^{COE4}] \}$$
$$v = \Sigma \{ (-1)^{n-1} r^{n-\frac{1}{2}} [a_{2n-1}^{COE5} + b_{n-1}^{COE7}] + (-1)^{n} r^{n} [a_{2n}^{COE6} + b_{2n}^{COE8}] \}$$

Considering here only those parts of the equations concerning a_{2n-1} $\frac{\partial u}{\partial r} = (-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) r^{n-3/2} C_{2n-1}^{COE1}$ $\frac{\partial u}{\partial \psi} = (-1)^{n-1} r^{n-\frac{1}{2}} C_{2n-1} \frac{\partial COE1}{\partial \psi}$ $\frac{\partial u}{\partial r} \cos \psi = \{ (-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) r^{n-3/2} C_{2n-1}^{-1} COE1 \cos \psi \}$ $\frac{\partial u}{\partial \psi} \frac{\sin \psi}{r} = \{ (-1)^{n-1} r^{n-3/2} C_{2n-1} \frac{\partial COE1}{\partial \psi} \sin \psi \}$ $\frac{\partial v}{\partial r} = \{ (-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) r^{n-3/2} C_{2n-1} COE5 \}$ $\frac{\partial v}{\partial r} = \{ (-1)^{n-1} r^{n-3/2} C_{2n-1} \frac{\partial COE5}{\partial \psi} \}$ $\frac{\partial v}{\partial r} \sin \psi = \{ (-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) r^{n-3/2} C_{2n-1} COE5 \sin \psi \}$ $\frac{\partial v}{\partial r} \sin \psi = \{ (-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) r^{n-3/2} C_{2n-1} COE5 \sin \psi \}$

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} \sin \psi &= \left\{ (-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) r^{n-3/2} c_{2n-1} \operatorname{COE1} \sin \psi \right\} \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} \frac{\cos \psi}{r} &= \left\{ (-1)^{n-1} r^{n-3/2} c_{2n-1} \frac{\partial \operatorname{COE1}}{\partial \psi} \cos \psi \right\} \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} \cos \psi &= \left\{ (-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) r^{n-3/2} c_{2n-1} \operatorname{COE5} \cos \psi \right\} \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} \frac{\sin \psi}{r} &= \left\{ (-1)^{n-1} r^{n-3/2} c_{2n-1} \frac{\partial \operatorname{COE5}}{\partial \psi} \sin \psi \right\} \\ \sigma_r &= \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} + \frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \operatorname{Cos} 2\psi + \sigma_{xy} \sin 2\psi \\ \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} &= \frac{E}{2(1 - v)} (e_x + e_y) \\ \frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} &= \frac{E}{2(1 + v)} (e_x - e_y) \\ \sigma_{xy} &= \frac{2u}{2(1 + v)} (x_y - e_y) \\ \sigma_{xy} &= \frac{2u}{\partial r} \frac{\partial r}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial \psi} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} \\ e_x &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} \cos \psi - \frac{\partial u}{\partial \psi} \frac{\sin \psi}{r} \\ e_x &= \left\{ \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) r^{n-3/2} c_{2n-1} \operatorname{COE1} \cos \psi \right] - \left[(-1)^{n-1} r^{n-3/2} c_{2n-1} \frac{\partial \operatorname{COE1}}{\partial \psi} \sin \psi \right] \\ e_y &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} \frac{\partial r}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial \psi} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial r} \sin \psi + \frac{\partial v}{\partial \psi} \frac{\cos \psi}{r} \\ e_y &= \left[\left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) r^{n-3/2} c_{2n-1} \operatorname{COE5} \sin \psi \right] \\ + \left[(-1)^{n-1} r^{n-3/2} c_{2n-1} \frac{\partial \operatorname{COE5}}{\partial \psi} \cos \psi \right] \\ \gamma_{xy} &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} \sin \psi + \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} \frac{\cos \psi}{r} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial r} \cos \psi - \frac{\partial v}{\partial \psi} \frac{\sin \psi}{r} \end{split}$$

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$$\begin{split} \mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}} &= \left[\left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \frac{2\mathrm{COE1}}{\partial \psi} \operatorname{Cos} \psi \right] \\ &+ \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \left[\operatorname{COE5} \operatorname{Cos} \psi \right] \\ &+ \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \left[\operatorname{COE5} \operatorname{Cos} \psi \right] \right] \\ &= \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \left[\operatorname{COE5} \operatorname{Cos} \psi \right] \right] \\ &= \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \left[\operatorname{COE5} \operatorname{Sin} \psi \right] \right] \\ &+ \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \left[\operatorname{COE5} \operatorname{Sin} \psi \right] \right] \\ &+ \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \left[\operatorname{COE5} \operatorname{Sin} \psi \right] \right] \\ &= \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \left[\operatorname{COE5} \operatorname{Sin} \psi \right] \right] \\ &= \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \left[\operatorname{COE5} \operatorname{Sin} \psi \right] \right] \\ &= \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \left[\operatorname{COE5} \operatorname{Sin} \psi \right] \\ &= \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \right] \\ &= \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \left[\operatorname{COE5} \operatorname{Sin} \psi \right] \\ &= \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \right] \\ &= \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \right] \\ &= \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \right] \\ &= \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \right] \\ &= \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \right] \\ &= \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \right] \\ &= \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \right] \\ &= \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \right] \\ &= \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \right] \\ &= \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \right] \\ &= \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \right] \\ &= \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \right] \\ &= \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \right] \\ &= \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \right] \\ &= \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \right] \\ &= \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \right] \\ &= \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \right] \\ &= \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-3/2} \mathbf{C}_{2n-1} \right] \\ &= \left[(-1)^{n-1} (n - \frac{1}{2}) \varepsilon^{n-$$

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 γ_{xy} 2Sin ψ Cos ψ = ζ { 2(n- $\frac{1}{2}$)COE1Sin² ψ + 2 $\frac{\partial$ COE1}{\partial\psi} Cos² ψ Sin ψ + $2(n - \frac{1}{2})COE5 \cos^2 \psi Sin\psi - 2 \frac{\partial COE5}{\partial \psi} Sin^2 \psi Cos\psi \}$ $(\epsilon_{x} - \epsilon_{y})(1 - 2\sin^{2}\psi) + \gamma_{xy}2\sin\psi\cos\psi = \zeta \left\{ (n - \frac{1}{2})COE1Cos\psi \right\}$ $-\frac{\partial COE1}{\partial \psi} Sin\psi - (n - \frac{1}{2})COE5Sin\psi - \frac{\partial COE5}{\partial \psi} Cos\psi$ + 2 $\frac{\partial COE1}{\partial \psi} \cos^2 \psi \sin \psi$ + 2 $\frac{\partial COE1}{\partial \psi} \sin^3 \psi$ + 2(n - $\frac{1}{2}$)COE5Cos² ψ Sin ψ + 2 $\left(n - \frac{1}{2}\right)$ COE5Sin³ ψ = ζ { $\left(n - \frac{1}{2}\right)$ COE1Cos ψ - $\frac{\partial$ COE1}{\partial \psi} Sin ψ $[1 - 2(\cos^2 \psi + \sin^2 \psi)] - (n - \frac{1}{2})COE5Sin\psi [1 - 2(\cos^2 \psi + \sin^2 \psi)]$ $-\frac{\partial COE5}{\partial \psi} \cos \psi \}$ = $\zeta \left[(n - \frac{1}{2})COE1Cos\psi + \frac{\partial COE1}{\partial \psi} Sin\psi + (n - \frac{1}{2})COE5Sin\psi - \frac{\partial COE5}{\partial \psi} Cos\psi \right]$ $= \zeta (n - \frac{1}{2}) \left[-(k + n - 3/2) \cos(n - \frac{1}{2}) \psi + (n - \frac{1}{2}) \cos(n - 5/2) \psi \right] \cos \psi$ + $[(k + n - 3/2)Sin(n - \frac{1}{2})\psi - (n - 5/2)Sin(n - 5/2)\psi]Sin\psi$ + $\left[-(k + 3/2 - n)\sin(n - \frac{1}{2})\psi - (n - \frac{1}{2})\sin(n - 5/2)\psi\right]\sin\psi$ $- \left[- \left(k + \frac{3}{2} - n \right) \cos\left(n - \frac{1}{2} \right) \psi - \left(n - \frac{5}{2} \right) \cos\left(n - \frac{5}{2} \psi \right) \cos\left(n - \frac{5}{2} \right) \psi \right]$ $= \zeta(n - \frac{1}{2}) \left[- 2(n - 3/2) \cos \psi \cos(n - \frac{1}{2}) \psi + 2(n - 3/2) \cos \psi \cos(n - 5/2) \psi \right]$ + $2(n - 3/2)\sin\psi \sin(n - \frac{1}{2})\psi - 2(n - 3/2)\sin\psi \sin(n - 5/2)\psi$ $\alpha_1 = (n - \frac{1}{2})\psi; = \psi \alpha_1 - \alpha_2 = (n - 3/2)\psi \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = (n + \frac{1}{2})\psi$ $\alpha_3 = (n - 5/2) \psi \alpha_4 = \psi \alpha_3 - \alpha_4 = (n - 7/2) \alpha_3 + \alpha_4 = (n - 3/2)$ $= \zeta(n - \frac{1}{2})2(n - 3/2) \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \cos(n - 3/2) \psi - \frac{1}{2} \cos(n + \frac{1}{2}) \psi \right\}$ $+\frac{1}{2}\cos(n-7/2)\psi + \frac{1}{2}\cos(n-3/2)\psi$ $+ \frac{1}{2} \cos(n - 3/2)\psi - \frac{1}{2} \cos(n + \frac{1}{2})\psi - \frac{1}{2} \cos(n - 7/2)\psi + \frac{1}{2} \cos(n - 3/2)\psi$ $= ((n - \frac{1}{2})2(n - 3/2) [-\cos(n + \frac{1}{2})\psi + \cos(n - 3/2)\psi]$ $(\epsilon_x - \epsilon_y) \cos 2\psi + \gamma_{xy} \sin 2\psi = (-1)^{n-1} \frac{n-3/2}{2n-1} C_{2n-1}(n - \frac{1}{2}) 2(n - 3/2)$ $\left[\cos(n-3/2)\psi - \cos(n+\frac{1}{2})\psi\right]$ This is being multiplied by $\frac{E}{2(1 + v)}$ $\frac{e^{2} + e^{2}}{2} = \zeta \left[(n - \frac{1}{2})COE1Cos\psi - \frac{\partial COE1}{\partial \psi} Sin\psi + (n - \frac{1}{2})COE5 Sin\psi + \frac{\partial COE5}{\partial \psi} Cos\psi \right]$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \zeta(n - \frac{1}{2}) \left\{ \left[-(k + n - 3/2)\cos(n - \frac{1}{2})\psi + (n - \frac{1}{2})\cos(n - 5/2)\psi \right] \cos\psi \right. \\ &- \left[(k + n - 3/2)\sin(n - \frac{1}{2})\psi - (n - 5/2)\sin(n - 5/2)\psi \right] \sin\psi \\ &+ \left[-(k + 3/2 - n)\sin(n - \frac{1}{2})\psi - (n - 5/2)\cos(n - 5/2)\psi \right] \cos\psi \right] \\ &+ \left[-(k + 3/2 - n)\cos(n - \frac{1}{2})\psi - (n - 5/2)\cos(n - 5/2)\psi \right] \cos\psi \right] \\ &= \zeta(n - \frac{1}{2}) \left\{ -2k \cos\psi\cos(n - \frac{1}{2})\psi + 2\cos\psi\cos(n - 5/2)\psi - 2k \sin\psi\sin(n - \frac{1}{2})\psi - 2k \sin\psi\sin(n - \frac{1}{2})\psi - 2k \sin\psi\sin(n - 5/2)\psi - 2k \sin\psi\sin(n - 5/2)\psi - 2k \sin\psi\sin(n - \frac{1}{2})\psi - 2k \sin\psi\sin(n - 5/2)\psi - 2k \sin\psi\sin(n - \frac{1}{2})\psi + 2\cos(n - 3/2)\psi - 2k \sin(n - 3/2)\psi - 2\cos(n - 7/2)\psi + \cos(n - 3/2)\psi \right] \\ &= -\zeta(n - \frac{1}{2}) \left[\frac{k}{(\cos(n - 3/2))\psi + \cos(n - 3/2)\psi} - \cos(n - 7/2)\psi + \cos(n - 3/2)\psi \right] \\ &= \zeta(n - \frac{1}{2}) \left[-2k \cos(n - 3/2)\psi + 2\cos(n - 3/2)\psi \right] \\ &= \zeta(n - \frac{1}{2}) \left[-2k \cos(n - 3/2)\psi + 2\cos(n - 3/2)\psi \right] \\ &= \zeta(n - \frac{1}{2}) \left[-2(k - 1) \cos(n - 3/2)\psi \right] \\ &= \zeta(n - \frac{1}{2}) \left[-2(k - 1) \cos(n - 3/2)\psi \right] \\ &= \frac{-4 + 4y}{1 + y} = \frac{-6 + 2y + 2 + 2y}{1 + y} \\ &= \frac{-4 + 4y}{1 + y} = \frac{-4(1 - y)}{1 + y} \\ e_x + e_y = \zeta(n - \frac{1}{2}) \left[\frac{-4(1 - y)}{1 + y} \cos(n - 3/2)\psi \right] \\ \\ &= \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} = \frac{E}{2(1 - y)} \left(e_x + e_y \right) = \frac{E}{2(1 + y)} \zeta(n - \frac{1}{2}) \left(-4\cos(n - 3/2)\psi \right) \\ &= \frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \cos 2\psi + \sigma_{xy} \sin 2\psi = \zeta(n - \frac{1}{2}) 2(n - 3/2) \left[\cos(n - 3/2)\psi \right] \\ &= \frac{E}{2(1 + y)} \zeta(n - \frac{1}{2}) \left[(2(n - 3/2) - 4)\cos(n - 3/2)\psi - -2(n - 3/2)\psi \right] \\ &= \frac{E}{2(1 + y)} \zeta(n - \frac{1}{2}) \left[(2(n - 3/2) - 4)\cos(n - 3/2)\psi - -2(n - 3/2)(\cos(n + \frac{1}{2})\psi \right] \\ \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{E}{2(1+v)} \zeta(n-\frac{1}{2}) [(2n-6/2-4) \cos(n-3/2)\psi - 2(n-3/2)]$$

Cos $(n+\frac{1}{2})\psi]$

$$= \frac{E}{2(1 + v)} \zeta(n - \frac{1}{2}) [2(n - 7/2)Cos(n - 3/2)\psi - 2(n - 3/2)Cos(n + \frac{1}{2})\psi]$$

if n = 1

$$\sigma_{r} = \frac{E}{(1 + v)} \frac{\zeta}{4} (-5 \cos(-\frac{\psi}{2}) + \cos\frac{3\psi}{2})$$

As given by Williams

Proceeding in the same way it was done, but for those terms with A_{2n}

 $COE2 = [-(k + n + 1)Cos n \psi + n Cos(n - 2)\psi]$

 $\frac{\partial \text{COE2}}{\partial \psi} = \left[(k + n + 1)n \sin n\psi - n(n - 2)\sin(n - 2)\psi \right]$ $\text{COE6} = \left[-(k - 1 - n)\sin n\psi - n \sin (n - 2)\psi \right]$ $\frac{\partial \text{COE6}}{\partial \psi} = \left[-(k - 1 - n)n \cos n\psi - n(n - 2)\cos(n - 2)\psi \right]$ $\frac{\partial \text{U}}{\partial r} = (-1)^{n} \ln r^{n-1} A_{2n} \text{ COE2}$ $\frac{\partial \text{U}}{\partial \psi} = (-1)^{n} r^{n-1} A_{2n} \frac{\partial \text{COE2}}{\partial \psi}$ $\frac{\partial \text{U}}{\partial \psi} \cos \psi = \left[(-1)^{n} n r^{n-1} A_{2n} \frac{\partial \text{COE2}}{\partial \psi} \sin \psi \right]$ $\frac{\partial \text{U}}{\partial \psi} \frac{\sin \psi}{r} = \left[(-1)^{n} n r^{n-1} A_{2n} \frac{\partial \text{COE2}}{\partial \psi} \sin \psi \right]$ $\frac{\partial \text{U}}{\partial r} \sin \psi = \left[(-1)^{n} n r^{n-1} A_{2n} \frac{\partial \text{COE2}}{\partial \psi} \cos \psi \right]$ $\frac{\partial \text{U}}{\partial r} \sin \psi = \left[(-1)^{n} n r^{n-1} A_{2n} \cos \psi \right]$ $\frac{\partial \text{U}}{\partial r} \sin \psi = \left[(-1)^{n} n r^{n-1} A_{2n} \frac{\partial \text{COE6}}{\partial \psi} \cos \psi \right]$ $\frac{\partial \text{U}}{\partial r} \sin \psi = \left[(-1)^{n} n r^{n-1} A_{2n} \frac{\partial \text{COE6}}{\partial \psi} \cos \psi \right]$ $\frac{\partial \text{U}}{\partial r} \cos \psi = \left[(-1)^{n} n r^{n-1} A_{2n} \frac{\partial \text{COE2}}{\partial \psi} \cos \psi \right]$ $\frac{\partial \text{U}}{\partial \psi} \frac{\cos \psi}{r} = \left[(-1)^{n} n r^{n-1} A_{2n} \frac{\partial \text{COE2}}{\partial \psi} \cos \psi \right]$ $\frac{\partial \text{U}}{\partial \psi} \frac{\cos \psi}{r} = \left[(-1)^{n} n r^{n-1} A_{2n} \frac{\partial \text{COE6}}{\partial \psi} \cos \psi \right]$

 $\frac{\sigma_x^2 - \sigma_y}{2} \cos 2\psi + \sigma_{xy} \sin 2\psi =$

 $\zeta_{2n} \left[n \operatorname{COE2} \operatorname{Cos} \psi - \frac{\partial \operatorname{COE2}}{\partial \psi} \operatorname{Sin} \psi - n \operatorname{COE6} \operatorname{Sin} \psi - \frac{\partial \operatorname{COE6}}{\partial \psi} \operatorname{Cos} \psi \right]$ + $\left[+ 2 \frac{\partial \operatorname{COE2}}{\partial \psi} \operatorname{Sin}^{3} \psi + 2 \frac{\partial \operatorname{COE2}}{\partial \psi} \operatorname{Sin} \psi \operatorname{Cos}^{2} \psi + 2n \operatorname{COE6} \operatorname{Sin}^{3} \psi \right]$ + $2n \operatorname{COE6} \operatorname{Cos}^{2} \psi \operatorname{Sin} \psi \right]$

 $= \zeta_{2n} \left[n \operatorname{COE2} \operatorname{Cos} \psi - \frac{\partial \operatorname{COE2}}{\partial \psi} \operatorname{Sin} \psi \left[1 - 2(\operatorname{Sin}^{2} \psi + \operatorname{Cos}^{2} \psi) - n \operatorname{COE6} \operatorname{Sin} \psi \right] \right]$

 $[1-2(\sin^2\psi + \cos^2\psi)] - \frac{\partial \text{COE6}}{\partial \psi} \cos\psi]$

$$= \zeta_{2n} \left\{ nCOE2 Cos\psi + \frac{\partial COE2}{\partial \psi} Sin\psi + nCOE6 Sin\psi - \frac{\partial COE6}{\partial \psi} Cos\psi \right\}$$

$$= \zeta_{2n} n \left[-(k + n + 1) \cos n \psi + n \cos(n - 2) \psi \right] \cos \psi$$

•

and when it is multiplied by $\frac{E}{2(1 - v)}$

1

•

· .

$$\begin{split} &-\frac{E}{2(1+v)} \zeta_{2n} 2n[2 \cos(n-1)\psi] \\ &\text{and} \\ &\sigma_{r} = \frac{\sigma_{x} + \sigma_{y}}{2} + \frac{\sigma_{x} - \sigma_{y}}{2} \cos\psi + \sigma_{xy} \sin 2\psi \\ &\sigma_{r} = \left\{ (-1)^{n} r^{n-1} A_{2n} 2n[-(n+1)\cos(n+1)\psi + (n-1)\cos(n-1)\psi] \right\} \\ &- (-1)^{n} r^{n-1} A_{2n} 2n[2 \cos(n-1)\psi] \right\} \frac{1}{2(1+v)} \\ &\sigma_{r} = \frac{E}{2(1+v)} (-1)^{n} r^{n-1} A_{2n} 2n[-(n+1)\cos(n+1)\psi + [(n-1)-2] \\ &\cos(n-1)\psi] \\ &\sigma_{r} = \frac{E}{2(1+v)} (-1)^{n} r^{n-1} A_{2n} 2n[-(n+1)\cos(n+1)\psi + (n-3)\cos(n-1)\psi] \\ &\sigma_{r} = \frac{E}{1+v} (-1)^{n} r^{n-1} A_{2n} n[-(n+1)\cos(n+1)\psi + (n-3)\cos(n-1)\psi] \\ &\text{for } n = 1 \\ &\sigma_{r} = \frac{E}{1+v} (-1) r^{o} A_{2} [-2 \cos 2\psi - 2 \cos 0] \\ &\sigma_{r} = \frac{E}{1+v} (-1) A_{2} [-2(1+\cos 2\psi)] \\ &= -\frac{E}{1+v} A_{2} (-2 [1+2 \cos 2\psi - 1]] \\ &= + \frac{E}{1+v} A_{2} (-2 \cos^{2} \psi) \\ &= \sigma_{r} = \frac{E}{1+v} 4 A_{2} \cos^{2} \psi \end{split}$$

The same procedure is applied to those terms containing B_{2n-1} , and B_{2n} in order to obtain the full equation defining the radial stress. Stresses σ_{ψ} , and $\sigma_{r\psi}$ are obtained similarly by applying the corresponding relationships, this was done and the equations given in Section 5 were arrived at.

PROGRAM ANGCRK (INPUT, OUTPUT, TAPE 5 = INPUT, TAPE 6 = OUTPUT) PROGRAM ANGCRK (INPUT, OUTPUT, TAPE 7, TAPE 5 = INPUT, C TAPE 6 = OUTPUT) C-1 CRACK AT AN ANGE PSO IN A SINGLE EDGE NOTCH SPECIMEN READ (5,100) KASE DO 20 K = 1, KASE KG0 = 1 C READS IN DATA, LOCATES BOUNDARY POINTS, SETS LOAD VECTOR (BVEC) CALL: SET UP (KGO) GO TO (10, 20), KGO C OBTAINS MATRIX OF COEFFICIENTS (A) 10 CALL MATRIX C SOLVES EQUATION FOR COEFFICIENTS IN SERIES (XVEC) CALL SOLVER C PREPARES AND PRINTS OUTPUT CALL OUTPUT 20 WRITE (6,200) Ky KASE: END FILE 7 C. STOP C. 100 FORMAT (15) 200 FORMAT (//27X11HEND OF CASE 13, 3H OF: 13) END . .

appendix 5.c

```
SUBROUTINE SET UP (KGO)
                COR(5,201),MSID(201), BDYLD(2,201), DUM(2000),D(100,20)
      COMMON
      COMMON / PROBLM /A(20,20),XVEC(20),BVEC(20),NBPT,NTRM,KND
      COMMON / CONSTS / EL, HH, WW, PSO, PI, CRK
      COMMON / MATDAT / GMOD, YMOD, PRAT, CAY, F(3,3)
      COMMON/LOADS/ ML1, ML2, MB1, MB2, NR1, MR2, MT1, MT2
      DIMENSION S1(5), S2(5), L1(5), L2(5)
      DOUBLE PRECISION A, BVEC
            (5,500) EL, HH, WW, PSO, NBPT, NTRM, KND, IPRNT, LPAR, PAR
      READ
             (5,555) PRAT, YMOD
      READ
      READ (5,510) QLOAD, QWEDGE
  510 FORMAT(2F10.5)
      WRITE (6,600) EL, HH, WW, PSO, NBPT, NTRM, KND, IPRNT, LPAR, PAR
      WRITE (6,605) PRAT, YMOD
      WRITE (7,500) EL, HH, WW, PSO, NBPT, NTRM, KND, IPRNT
WRITE (7,505) PRAT, YMOD
C.
C
C CHECKS DATA TO ENSURE CONFORMABILITY TO PROGRAM LIMITS
      NT = (NTRM / 2) * 2
      IF (NT .GT. 40) NT = 40
IF (NT .EQ, NTRM) GO TO 02
      WRITE (6,610) NTRM, NT
      NTRM = NT
   02 NB = (NBPT / 2) # 2
      IF (NB .GT. 200) NB = 200
      IF (NB .EQ. NBPT) GO TO 04
      WRITE (6,615) NBPT, NB
      NBPT = N3
   04 IF (PSO .GE. 0.0 .AND. PSO .LT. 90.0) GO TO 06
      WRITE (6,620) PSO
      KG0 =: 2
      RETURN
   06 IF (NTRM .LT. NBPT) GO TO 07
      KG0 =: 2
      RETURN
C SETS PARAMETERS
   07 PI = 3.14159265358979
       FA = 180.0 / PI
       ST = 2.0 + (HH + 2.0 + EL)
       DS = ST / NBPT
                              است و بیان است. است است است است. از میتود و به استوبو رو با میتود و بیانو به مربوبه مربوبه رو از این ا
   WH H WW H HH.
       PS1 = PS0 / FA
       SPS=SIN(PS1)
       CPS=COS(PS1)
       CRK = -WH / COS(PS1)
C LOCATES BOUNDARY POINTS
       I = 1
       MT1 =: I -
       COR(i \cdot I) = WW
       COR(2.1) = EL
       MSID(I) =: 1
   CB IF (COR(1.1) - DS .LT. WH) GO TO 10
       I = I + 1
       COR(1,I) = COR(1,I-I) = DS
       COR(2 \cdot I) = EL
```

```
• — · · · .
      MSID(I) = 1
      GO TO 08
   10 \text{ MT2} = 1
      SH = WW = 5.5 * (HH + COR(1,MT1) + COR(1,MT2))^{-1}
      30 12 M = MT1, MT2
   12 COR(1,M) = COR(1,M) + SH
      \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{\tilde{I}}
                                                                   .
      ML1 = 1
      COR( \bullet I) = WH

COR(2 \bullet I) = EL = DS / 100 \bullet 0
      MSID(I) ≡ 2
   14 IF (COR(2,I) - DS .LT. -EL) GO TO 16
      I = I + 1
      COR(1,I) =: WH
      COR(2,1) = COR(2,1-1) = DS
      MSID(I) ≍ ź
      GO TO 14
   16 MLS = I
      NOL = ML2 = ML1 + 1
      IF ((NOL/2)#2 .EQ. NOL) GO TO 17
      I = I - 1
      ML2 = ML2 = 1
   17 SH = -0.5 * (COR(2,ML1) + COR(2,ML2))
      D0 18 M = ML1, ML2
   13 \text{ COR}(2, M) = \text{COR}(2, M) + SH
      MB1 =: I + 1
      MB2 = MTR - MT1 + MB1
      DO 20 M = MB1.MB2
      I ≕ M
      K = MTI + MB2 - M
      COR(1,M) = COR(1,K)
      COR(2,M) = -EL
   20 MSID(I) = 3
      MR1 =: 1 + 1
      MR2 = ML2 + ML1 + MR1.
      DO 22 M = MR1_{\bullet}MR2.
       I = M
      K = ML1 + MR2 - M
      COR(1,M) = WW
      COR(2,M) = COR(2,K)
   22 MSID(I) = 4
IF (I .EQ. NBPT) GO TO 24
       WRITE (6+617) N PT; 1
      NBPT = I
       IF (NBPT .LE. 200) GO TO 24
      WRITE (6+619)
      KGO = 2
      RETURN
   24 DO 26 I = 1,NBPT
      X = COR(1, 1)
       A = COS(5^{I})
      R = SQRT(X+X + Y+Y)
       T = ATAN2(Y_{2}X)
       P = T - PS1
       COR(3,1) =: R
                        6. 2 2 4
```

```
- . - . -
      COR(4.I) =: T
   26 COR(5+I) =: P
      IF (P \bulletLT \bullet PI) P = P + 2.0 * PI
C PRINTS COORDINATES OF BOUNDARY POINTS (IF IPRNT .NE. 0)
      IF (IPRNT .EQ. 0) GO TO 30
      WRITE (6,630)
      N_2 = NBPT / 2
      10028 I = 1.12
      J = I + N \dot{2}
      T1 = COR(4 \cdot I) \# FA
      T2 = COR(4,J) \neq FA
      P2 = COR(5,J) * FA
      P1 = COR(5,I) + FA
      IF (I .EQ. 51) WRITE (6,680)
      WRITE (6,640) I, (COR(L,I), L = 1,3), T1, P1,
                      J, (COR(L_{y}J)), L = 1,3), T2, P2
     1
   28 CONTINUE
C INVERSE HOOKEAN MATRIX
   30 GMOD = YMOD / 2.0 / (1.0 + PRAT)
      GMD2 = GMOD + 2.0
      CAY = (3_{0} - PRAT) / (1_{0} + PRAT)

F(1_{1}) = (CAY + 1_{0}) / (8_{0} - GMOD)
      F(2,1) = (CAY - 3.0) / (8.0 + GMOD)
      F(3+1) = 0.0
      F(1+2) = F(2+1)
      F(2,2) = F(1,1)
      F(3,2) = 0.0
      F(1+3) = F(3+1)
      F(2,3) = F(3,2)
       F(3,3) = 1.0 / GMOD
C SETS LOAD VECTOR - VERTICAL LOADING ONLY
C.
       DO 32
               J = 1 \cdot NSPT
       DO 32 I = 1.2
   32 BDYLD(I+J) # 0.0
       MLJ = 0
       IF (LPAR. EQ. 1) GO TO 56
       GO TO (34, 40, 46), KND
C SIMPLE TENSION
   34 \ D0 \ 36 \ I = MT1, MT2
   36 BDYLD(2,1) = -1.0 / GMD2:
       DO 38 I = MB1, MB2
   38 BDYLD(2,I) = -1.0 / GMD2
       WRITE (6,650)
       GO TO 56
 PURE BENDING
C
   40 \ 00 \ 42 \ I = MT1 MT2
   42 BDYLD(2 \cdot I) = (1 \cdot 0 + 2 \cdot 0 + (COR(1 \cdot I) - WW) / HH) / GMD2.
       DO 44 I = MB1, MB2
   44 BDYLD(2,1) = (1,0 + 2,0 * (COR(1,1) - WW) / HH) / GMD2
       WRITE (6,660)
       GO TO 56
C SHEAR AS IN CKS GEOMETRY
   46 TH = -CRK + SIN(PS1)
       DO 48 I = ML1, ML2
```

```
MLI = I
      IF (COR(2,1) .LT. TH) GO TO 50
   48 CONTINUE
   50 J = ML1 + ML2 - I
     MLJ = J
     R = HH / (EL - COR(2,J)) / GMDŽ
DO 52 M = ML1,MLJ
DO 54 M = MLI, ML2
  54 BDYLD(2,4) = R
     WRITE (6,670)
   56 CONTINUE
     IF (LPAR.NE.1) GO TO 57
   57 IF (IPRINT, EQ.0) GO TO 58
      ₩RITE (6,680)
C SHIFTS ORDER OF STORING COORDINATES TO BEGIN AT LOWER CRACK FLANK
58 NBP1 = NBPT + 1
      DO 69 I=MT2+NBPT
      IF (COR(5,I)+LT+0+0)GO TO 691
      ISHFT=I
   59 CONTINUE
  591 DO 70 I=1.ISHFT
      DO 60 J = 1.5
   60 \quad COR(J, NBP1) = COR(J, 1)
      DO 62 J = 1.2
   52 BDYLD(J, NBP1) = BDYLD(J, 1)
      MSID(NBP1) = MSID(1)
      DO 68 K = 1+NBPT
      00.64 J = 1.5
   64 \quad COR(J,K) = COR(J,K+1)
      DO 66 J = 1.2
   66 BDYLD(J,K) = BDYLD(J,K+1)
   68 MSID(K) = MSID(K+1)
      L' ≕ I
   70 CONTINUE
   72 NBPL = NBPT - LI
MT1 = MT1 + NBPL
      MT2 = MT2 + NBPL
      ML1 = ML1 + NBPL
      MLJ = MLJ + NBPL.
      MLI =: 1
      ML2 = ML2 - L:
      MR1=MR1-LI
      MR2=MR2-LI
      MB1 = MB1 - L:
      MB2 = MB2 = L
      DO 74 J = 1,NTRM
      BVEC(J) =: 0,000
      DO 74 I = 1,NTRM
                          Ci. inte
   74 \ A(I,J) = 0.000
      CALL LOADING
     ***********************************
```

```
PAR=(2,0#QLOAD)/FLOAT(ML2)
Ċ
      DO 561 I=1,ML2
C-
      CYM= -COR(2,1)-EL/2.0
      TSMOM=(2.j#QWEDGE#WH#CYM)/((EL##2)#FLOAT(ML2))
C.
      BDYLD(2,1)= (4.0+QWEDGE/FLOAT(ML2))/GMD2
CC
                        QWEDGE/FLOAT (HL2) )/SMD2
      BDYLD(2+I)=: (
C.
  561
      CONTINUE
      PAR=(2.0*QLOAD)/FLOAT(NBPT=ML1+1)
C.
      DO 562 I=ML1.N3PT
C
      CYM=COR(2,I)=EL/2.0
      TSMOM=(2.0*QWEDGE*WH*CYM)/((EL**2)*FLOAT(ML2))
C
C'
      BDYLD(2,I)==(4.0*QWEDGE/FLOAT(ML2))/GMD2
                        QWEDGE/FLOAT (ML2) )/GMD2
C
      8DYLD(2,I)==(
  552 CONTINUE
C
      PAR=(4.0*QLOAD)/FLOAT("IR2=MR1+1)
      00 563 I=MR1,MR2.
  553 CONTINUE
      QCLAMP=(QVEDGE#WH#EL)/((EL##2)#FLOAT(ML2))
¢
      WRITE (6,746) QLOAD, QWEDGE, QCLAMP
C
  746 FORMAT(1X, B6H THE PRÉSENT CASE IS A SIMULATION OF THE BENBOW PLATE:
     1 WITH LATERAL COMPRESSION LOAD OF//1X,30X,3H Q=,F7.3,3HLB.//1X,30H
     2IT ALSO HAS AN OPENING LOAD OF//1X,30X,8H LWEDGE=,F7.3,3HLB.//5X,3
     34HAND A CLAMPING MOMENT LOAD MLCLAM=,F9.3,3HLB.)
      WRITE(6,63ñ)
      N2= N9PT / 2
          98 I = 1, V2
      DO
      J =: I + Nž
      T1 = COR(4,I) + FA
      T_2 = COR(4, J) + FA
      P1 =: COR(5,1) * FA
      P2 = COR(5,J) \Rightarrow FA
      IF (I .EQ. 51) WRITE (6.680)
                         (COR(L,I), L = 1,3), T1, P1,
      WRITE (6,640) I,
                     J, (coR(L,J), L = 1,3), T2, P2
     1
   98 CONTINUE
      WRITE(6,693)MT1,MT2,ML1,MLJ,MLI,ML2,MB1,MB2,NBPT,MR1,MR2
  690 FORMAT(/,1117,/)
      WRITE(6,700)
  700 FORMAT(142X,514 BOUNDARY LOADS FOR USE IN COMPUTATION ARE
     1 // 40X,4HNODE,2(4X,1HX,5X),4X,2HFX,8X,2HFY//)
      DO 748 I=1.NBPT
      IF (BDYLD(1,I).EQ.0.0.AND.BDYLD(2,I).EQ.0.0)G0 TO 748
      XLOAD=BDYLD(1,I) #GMD2
      YLOAD=BDYLD(2,I) *GMD2
      WRITE(6,71)I,(COR(L,I),L=1,2),XLOAD,YLOAD
  74B CONTINUE
  710 FORMAT(1X, 39X, 14, 4F10.3)
0---
C SETS RVEC
      N4 = NTRM /
                   2
      GO TO (76 , 76 , 78 , 79 ) + KND
   76 LS = 1
      S1(1) = WW
      52(1) = ₩H
```

S1(2) = WHS2(2) = WWL1(1) = MT1L2(1) = MT2L1(2) = MB1L2(2) =: MB2 LESP = 2GO TO 80 78 LS = 2 TH= - CRK # SIN (PS1) 51(1) = EL: S2(1) = TH'S1(2) = THS2(2) ==EL: L1(1) = ML1 L2(1) = NBPTL1(2) = MLIL2(2) =: ML2. LESP =: 2 GO TO 80 79 CONTINUE TH==CRK#SIN(PS1) $S1(1) = EL \in L1(1) = ML1$ S2(1)=TH & L2(1)=NBPT S1(2)=TH & L1(2)=1 $SS(5) = -ET \in TS(5) = WT5$ $S1(3) = WH \in L1(3) = MB1$ $S_2(3) = WW \in L_2(3) = MB2$ $S1(4) = -EL \in L1(4) = MR1$ S2(4) = EL - E - L2(4) = MR2S1(5)=WW & L1(5)=MT1 52(5)=WH £ L2(5)=MT2 IF (KND, EQ. 4) LESP=5 80 DO 94 I=1,LESP NI = LI(I) $N_2 = L_2(I)$ 00 82 N = N1, N2R = COR(3,N)P = COR(5,N)RT = SQRT(R)DO 82 M = 1.N4 M4 = M # 2 S = M S52 ≖ S = 2,5 S21 = S = 2.0S32 =: S - 1.5 - CAY S11 = S = 1.0 = CAYS12 = S = 0.5P12 = 5 + 0.5 - CAY P11 = S + 1.0 - CAY RI = R ## 4 RR = RI / RTR32=5=1.5+CAY A12=5+0.5+CAY A11=S+1.0+CAY

```
R11=S=1+0+CAY
   SE = -1 \cdot 0
   IF ((M/2) #2 .EQ. M) SE = 1.0
   SM = + SE
   SS52 = SIN(S52 * P)
   SS21 = SIN(S21 + P)
   SS12 = SIN(S12 + P)
        = SIN(S
   SS
                    * P)
   CS52 = COS(S52 # P)
   CS21 = COS(S21 + P)
   CS12 = COS(S12 + P)
                    # P)
   CS
        = COS(S)
   D(N \cdot M4 - 1) = SM + RR +
                          ( ($32*5512 - $12*5552) * CPS
                            -(R32*C512 - S12*CS52) * SPS )* BDYLD(2+N)
  1
                           ( (P11*SS = S*SS21) * CPS
   D(N.M4
            ) =: SE # RI #
                             - (A11*CS - S*CS21) * SPS ) * BDYLD(2:N)
  1
82 CONTINUE
   DO 94 N = N1, N2
   LS = 2
   IF ( (N1.EQ. MB1. AND. N2.EQ. MB2) .OR. (N1.EQ. MT1. AND. N2.EQ. MT2) ) LS=1
   DO 92 J = 1,NTRM
   IF (N1 - N) 84, 86, 94
84 IF (N - N2) 90, 88, 94
86 X_{C} = S1(I)
   X1 = COR(LS,N1)
   X_2 = COR(LS,N1+1)
   C1 = -X0 + (5_{0} + X1 + 3_{0} + X2)/8_{0} + 0_{0} + (X1 + X0) + (X1 + X0)/(X2 + X1)
   C2 = 0.125*(X2-X1)-0.5*(X1-X0)*(X1-X0)/(X2-X1)
   DB = C1 + D(N,J) + C2 + D(N+1,J)
   GO TO 92
88 \times N = S2(I)
   XM = COR(LS+N2)
   XL = COR(LS)N2=1)
   CM = XN = (5 \cdot 0 + XM + 3 \cdot 0 + XL) / 8 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 5 + (XN + XM) + (XN + XM) / (XM + XL)
   CL = 0.125*(XM-XL) = 0.5*(XN-XM)*(XN-XM)/(XM-XL)
   DB = CM + D(N,J) + CL + D(N-1,J)
   GO TO 92
90 DR = COR(LS+N+1) - COR(LS+N
                                   )
                                          ·...
   DL = COR(LS, N) - COR(LS, N-1)
   CI = DL + 5.0 + DR + (1.0 - DR / DL)
   CJ = 18.0 * (DR. + DL) + 5.0 * (DR * DR / DL + DL * DL / DR)
   CK = DR + 5.0 + DL + (1.0 - 0L / DR)
   DB = (CI * D(N=1,J) + CJ * D(N,J) + CK * D(N+1,J)) / 48.0
92 BVEC(J) = BVEC(J) + DB
                                      \sigma = 1
                                           .. ·
94 CONTINUE
   IF (LPAR.EQ.1) GO TO 95
   RETURN
95 LS = 2
   TH==CRK # SIN(PS1)
   IF (KND, EQ, 4) GO TO 89
   S_1(1) = EL;
   S_{2}(1) = TH
   S_1(2) = TH
   $2(2) ==EL
   L1(1) = ML1
```

```
L2(1) = NBPT
   L1(2) = 1
   L2(2) = ML\tilde{2}
   S1(3) == ELI
   S2(3) =EL
   L_1(3) = MR_1
   L2(3)=MR2
   LESP =: 3
   GO TO 87
89 CONTINUE
   TH==CRK#SIN(PS1)
   S1(1)=EL £ L1(1)=ML1
   S2(1) = TH \in L2(1) = NBPT
   S1(2)=TH £ L1(2)=1
   S2(2) = -EL + E + L2(2) = ML2
   S1(3)=WH & L1(3)=MB1
   S_2(3) = WW \in L_2(3) = MB2
   S1(4) = -ELi \in L1(4) = MR1
   S_{2}(4) = EL \in L_{2}(4) = MR2
   S1(5)=WW E L1(5)=MT1
   S2(5) = WH & L2(5) = MT2
   LESP = 5
87 DO 106 I=1.LESP
   N_1 = \lfloor 1 (I) \rfloor
   N_2 = L_2(I)
   DO 96 N=N1.N2
   R = COR(3, N)
   P = COR(5, N)
   RT = SQRT(R)
   DO 96 M=1,N4
   M4 = M * 2
   S = M
   S52 = S = 2,5
   S21 = S = 2.0
   S32 = S = 1.5 = CAY
   S11 = 5 = 1.0 = CAY
   R_{32} = S - 1.5 + CAY
   A12 = S + \bar{0} - 5 + CAY
   A11 = 5 + 1.0 + CAY
   R11 = S - 1.0 + CAY
   S12 =: S ⊷ 0.5
   P12 = S + 0.5 - CAY
   P11 = S + 1.0 - CAY
   RI = R ## M
   RR = RI / RT
   SE = -1.0
   IF ((M/2) * 2 \cdot E 2 \cdot M) SE = 1.0
   SM = - SE:
   SS52 = SIN(S52 * P)
   SS21 = SIN(S21 + P)
   SS12 = SIN(S12 * P)
   SS = SIN(S \neq P)
   CS52 = COS(S52 + P)
   CS21 = COS(S21 \neq P)
   CS12 = COS(S12 * P)
```

```
بصرور سستتنابة الاستيابين بالتنابات وسروان
           = COS(S # P)
      CS
      D(N:M4=1) = SM * RR * ( =(S32*SS12 = S12*SS52) * SPS
                               =(R32*c512 = S12*C552) * CPS) * BDYLD(1,N)
     1
             ) =: SE * RI * ( =(P11*SS - S*SS21) * SPS
      D(N+M4
                               - (A11*CS - S*CS21) * CPS ) * BDYLD(1,N)
     1
   96 CONTINUE
      DO 106 N=N1,N2
      LS≈2
      IF ( (N1 . EQ . MB1 . AND . N2 . EQ . MB2) . OR . (N1 . EQ . MT1 . AND . N2 . EQ . MT2) ) LS=1
      DO 105 J=1,NTR4
      IF(N1-N)97,99,106
   97 IF(N=N2)103,101,106
   99 Xo=S1(I)
      X1 = COR(LS+N1)
      X_2 = COR(LS;N1+1)
      C1 = -x0 + (5_0*x1 + 3_0*x2)/8_0 + 0_5*(x1-x0)*(x1-x0)/(x2-x1)
      C2 = 0.125*(X2+X1)=0.5*(X1+X0)*(X1+X0)/(X2+X1)
      DB = C1 + D(N,J) + C2 + D(N+1,J)
      GO TO 105.
  101 XN=S2(I)
      XM = COR(LS+NZ)
      XL = COR(Ls, N2-1)
      CM = XN - (5.0*XM+3.0*XL)/8.0 . 0.5*(XN+XM)*(XN+XM)/(XM+XL)
      CL = 0.125^{\circ}(XM + XL) = 0.5^{\circ}(XN - XM)^{\circ}(XN - XM)/(XM - XL)
      DB = CM + D(N,J) + CL + D(N-1,J)
      GO TO 105
  1_03 \text{ OR} = \text{COR}(LS, N+1) - \text{COR}(LS, N)
      DL = cor(LS,N) - cor(LS,N-1)
      CI = DL + 5.0 * DR * (1.0 * DR / DL)
      CJ = 18.0 * (DR + DL) + 5.0 * (DR * DR / DL + DL * DL / DR)
      CK = DR + 5.0 * DL * (1.0 - DL / DR)
      DB = (CI * D(N-1,J) + CJ * D(N,J) + CK * D(N+1,J)) / 48.0
  1_{0.5} BVEC(J) = BVEC(J) + DB
  105 CONTINUE
      RETURN
C 500 FORMAT (4F10.2, 515, 1F10.2)
  500 FORMAT (4F10.3, 515,1F10.3)
  505 FORMAT (2220.8)
  500 FORMAT (1H1, /2X39HTHE INPUT DATA WERE READ AS FOLLOWS
                                                                      18X -
     1 4F10.2. 515, 1F10.2)
  605 FORMAT (59× 2E20.8, /)
  510 FORMAT (/2X34HTHE PARAMETER NTRM IS CHANGED FROM 14, 3H TO 14,
     1 30H TO CONFORM TO PROGRAM LIMITS. /)
  615 FORMAT (/2X34HTHE PARAMETER NBPT IS CHANGED FROM I4, 3H TO I4,
     1 30H TO CONFORM TO PROGRAM LIMITS. /)
  517 FORMAT (/2X34HTHE PARAMETER NBPT IS CHANGED FROM 14, 3H TO 14,
     1 28H TO ADAPT TO BOUNDARY SHAPE. /)
  619 FORMAT (/2X39HTHE PARAMETER NBPT IS NOW UNACCEPTABLE. /)
  520 FORMAT (12X34HTHE PARAMETER PSO IS UNACCEPTABLE. /)
  530 FORMAT (137X47HBOUNDARY COORDINATES FOR USE IN COMPUTATION ARE
     1 // 2(2X2HNO 7X1HX 9X1HY 9X1HR 7X5HTHETA 6X3HPSI 12X) /)
  640 FORMAT (2(14, 3F10.3, 2F10.2, 11X))
  650 FORMAT (/1X 8(15H TENSILE LOAD ) /)
  560 FORMAT (/1X 8(15H PURE BENDING
                                       ) /)
  570 FORMAT (/1X 8(15H COMPACT, CKS
                                         > />
  680 FORMAT (1H1)
      END
```

C.

```
SUBROUTINE MATRIX
          COR(5,201), MSID(201), BDYLD(2,201), RA(20,20,10)
  COMMON
   COMMON / CONSTS / EL, HH, WW, PSO, PI, CRK
   COMMON / MATDAT / GMOD, YHOD, PRAT, CAY, F(3,3)
   COMMON / PROBLM /A(20,20),XVEC(50), BVEC(20),NBPT,NTRM,KND
   DIMENSION C(3,20) , D(3,20) , XR(10) , RX(10) , WX(10)
   DOUBLE PRECISION A, BVEC
   RX(1) = 0.013046735741414
   R_{X}(2) = 0.067468316655507
   RX(3) = 0.160295215850488
RX(4) = 0.283302302935376
   RX(5) = 0.425562830509184
   WX(1) = 0.066671344308688
   \forall x(2) = 0.149451349150581
   WX(3) = 0.219086362515982
   WX(4) = 0.269266719309996
   WX(5) = 0.295524224714753
   DO 05 I = 1+5
   J = 11 . ♥ 1
   RX(J) = 1_{0} = RX(I)
05 \ \text{AX}(J) = \ \text{AX}(I)
   N4 = NTRM / 2
   DO 85 N = 1,NBPT
   REG = COR(3,N)
   PSI = COR(5,N)
   P = PSI
   Do 35 K = 1,10
   R = REG + RX(K)
   RT = SQRT(R)
   DO 10 M = 1 + N4
   M4 =: M # 2
   S = M
   S72 = S = 3.5
   S31 =: S = 3.0
   S32 = S - 1.5
   S11 = S = 1.0
   S12 = S → 0.5
   P12 = 5 + 0.5
   P_{11} = S + 1.0
   RI = R^{AA} (M=1)
   IF (M .EQ. 1) RI = 1.0
   SE = -1.0
   RR = RI / RT
   IF((M/2)*2 .EQ. M) SE = 1.0
   SM = - SE-
   SS32 = SIN(S32 * P)
   SS11 = SIN(S11 \# P)
   SP12 = SIN(P12 + P)
   SS12 = SIN(S12 + P)
```

```
CS12 = COS(S12 * P)
      CS11 = COS(S11 \stackrel{\text{d}}{=} P)
      CS32 = COS(S32 # P)
      CP12 = COS(P12 + P)
      SP11 = SIN(P11 # P)
      CP11 = COS(P11 + P)
C FINDS CONTRIBUTION TO STRESSES FOR EACH TERM IN SERIES, IN ORDER
C: A(2N=1), B(2N=1), A(2N), B(2N), FOR N = 1, 2, , , NTRM/4 (= N4)
Cr
C SIGMA R
      C(1 + M4 = 1) = SM + RR + S12 + (S72 + CS32 = S32 + CP12)
              ) =: SE * RI * S * (S3) * CS11 • P11 * CP11)
      C(1+M4
CESIGMA PSI
      C(2+M4-1) = =SM * RR * S12 * (P12 * CS32 = S32 * CP12)
      C(2+M4 ) =-SE * RI * S
                                * (P11 * CS11 * P11 * CP11)
C' TAJ' RHPSI
      C(3,M4-1) ==SM * RR * S12 * (S32 * SS32 = S32 * SP12)
      C(3, 44 ) ==SE * RI * S
                                  * (S11 * SS11 = P11 * SP11)
   10 CONTINUE
  710 FORMAT(1X, 7HSIGMA R//5X, 6(2F12, 5, 5X)///)
  720 FORMAT(1X, 9HSIGMA PS1//5X, 6(2F12, 5, 5X)///)
_ 730_FORMAT(1X,9HTAJ_R=PSI//5X,6(2F12,5,5X)///)-------
      DO 20 J = 1,NTRM
             I #: 1+3.
      DO 20
      SUM =: 0.0
      DO 15 L = 1,3
   15 SUM = SUM + F(I_{PL}) + C(L_{PJ})
   20 D(I,J) = SUM
      DO 30
              J = 1,NTRM
             I = 1+NTRM
      DO 30
      SUM = 0.0
             L = 1.3
      DO 25
   25 SUM = SUM + C(L \neq I) \neq D(L \neq J)
   30 RA(I,J,K) =: SUM \neq R
   35 CONTINUE
      DO 80
             J = 1, NTRM
      DO 80 I = 1.NTRM
C RADIAL INTEGRATION (GAUSSIAN, 10 POINTS)
      DO 40 K = 1,10
   40 \ XR(K) = RA(I \cdot J \cdot K)
      SUM = 0.0
      DO 45 L = 1+10
   45 SUM = SUM + XR(L) # WX(L)
C CIRCUMFERENTIAL INTEGRATION (EQUIVALENT TO TRAPEZOIDAL)
       IF ( 2 - N ) 50, 60, 55
   50 IF (N-NBPT+1) 65, 70, 75
C FIRST POINT
   55 DLN = COR(5,1) + PI
       DRN =: COR(5,2) - COR(5,1)
       DLP =: DRN
```

```
DRP = COR(5,3) = COR(5,2)
      DP = DLN + 0.375 * DRN + DLN**2 / (2.0*DRN)
         + (DLP + 5.0 * DRP * (1.0-DRP/DLP)) / 48.0
     1
      GO TO 80
C SECOND POINT
   60 DLM = COR(5,1) + PI
      DRM = COR(5,2) = COR(5,1)
      DLN = DRM
      DRN = COR(5,3) - COR(5,2)
      D_{LP} = DRN
      DRP = COR(5,4) - COR(5,3)
      DP = DRM / B \cdot 0 = DLM^{**}2 / (2 \cdot 0 * DRM)
          + (18+0 # (DRN+DLN) + 5+0 * (DRN**3 + DLN**3) / (DRN*DLN)
     1
          + DLP + 5.0 * DRP * (1.0-DRP/DLP)) / 48.0
     2
      GO TO BO
C SENERAL (NTH) POINT
   65 DLM = COR(5, N=1) = COR(5, N=2)
      DRM = COR(5,N) = COR(5,N-1)
      DLN = DRM
      DRN = COR(5_{9}N+1) = COR(5_{9}N)
      DLP = DRN
      DRP = COR(5, N+2) - COR(5, N+1)
      DP = (DRM + 5.0 * DLM * (1.0+DLM/DRM)
+ 18.0 * (DRN+DLN) + 5.0 * (DRN**3 + DLN**3) / (DRN*DLN)
     1
          + DLP + 5.0 * DRP * (1.0-DRP/DLP)) / 48.0
     2
      GO TO 80
C PENULTIMATE POINT
   70 DLM = COR(5, N-1) - COR(5, N-2)
      DRM = COR(5,N) - COR(5,N-1)
      DLN = DRM
      DRN = COR(5*N+1) = COR(5*N)
      DLP = DRN
      DRP = PI = COR(5,N+1)
      DP =: (DRM + 5.0 * DLM * (1.0+DLM/DRM)
+ 18.0 * (DRN+DLN) + 5.0 * (DRN**3 + DLN**3) / (DRN*DLN)) / 48.
     1
          + DLP / 8.0 - DRP**2 / (2.0*DLP)
     2
      GO TO 80
C LAST POINT
   75 DLM = COR(5,N-1) - COR(5,N-2)
      DRM = COR(5;N) = COR(5;N=1)
                                                                       DLN = DRM
      ORN = PI - COR(5,N)
      DP = (DRM + 5.0 * DLM * (1.0+DLM/DRM)) / 48.0
          + DRN + 0.375 * DLN + DRN**2 / (2.0*DLN)
     1
   80 A(I,J) = A(I,J) + SUM * DP * REG / 2.0
   85 CONTINUE
      RETURN
      END
                                                   ----- ·-- · ···
                                    -----
```

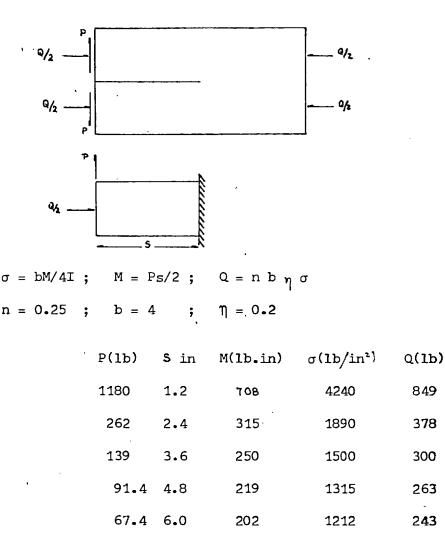
```
SUBROUTINE SOLVER
      COMMON / PROBLY /A(20+20),XVEC(20),BVEC(20),NBPT,NTRM,KND
      DIMENSION B(20) , NDX(20,2) , PIV(20) , IPV(20)
DOUBLE PRECISION A, AX, B, BVEC, PIV
C SOLVES FOR XVEC, USING DOUBLE PRECISION ARITHMETIC
      NS = NTRM
   05 \text{ DO } 10 \text{ I} = 1.85
      B(I) = BVEC(I)
   10 IPV(I) = 0
      D0 55 I = 1+NS'
      AX = 0.0D0
      DO 30 J = 1,NS
       IF(IPV(J) .EQ. 1) GO TO 30
       DO 25 K = 1.NS
       IF (IPV(K) = 1) \ge 0, \ge 25, 65
   20 IF (DABS(AX) .GE. DABS(A(J+K))) GO TO 25
       IROW =: J.
      ICOL: =: K
       AX = A(J,K)
   25 CONTINUE
   30 CONTINUE
       IPV(ICOL) = IPV(ICOL) + 1
      IF (IROW .EQ. ICOL) GO TO 40
Do 35 L = 1,NS:
       AX = A(IROW,L)
       A(IROW,L) = A(ICOL,L)
   35 A(ICOL,L) = AX
       AX = B(IROW)
       B(IROW) = B(ICOL)
B(ICOL) = \Delta X
   40 \text{ NDX}(I \cdot I) = IROW
       NDX(I_{2}) = ICOLi
       PIV(I) = A(ICOL, ICOL)
       A(ICOL, ICOL) = 1.000
       DO 45 L = 1,NS
   45 A(ICOL,L) = A(ICOL,L) / PIV(I)
       B(ICOL) = B(ICOL) / PIV(I)
       D0.55 N = 1.NS
       IF (N .EQ. ICOL) GO TO 55
       AX = A(N, ICOL)
       A(N_{ICOL}) = 0.0D0
       DO 50 L = 1.NS
   50 A(N+L) = A(N+L) - A(ICOL+L) + AX
       B(N) = B(N) - B(ICOL) + AX
   55 CONTINUE
       DO 60 I = 1+NS:
    50 XVEC(I) =: B(I)
       RETURN
    65 WRITE (6,100)
       RETURN
C,
   100 FORMAT (2X 3(21HBOMBED OUT OF SOLVER ))
       END
```

```
SUBROUTINE OUTPUT
      COMMON / PROBLM /A(20,20),XVEC(20),BVEC(20),NBPT,NTRM,KND
    COMMON / CONSTS / EL, HH, WW, PSO, PI, CRK
Double Precision A, BVec
C PREPARES OUTPUT PARAMETERS
      RF = HH + WW
      SP = EL + 2.0
      Y1 = +XVEC(1) + SQRT(2.0 + PI / CRK)
      Y_2 = XVEC(2) + SQRT(2.0 + PI / CRK)
      R_A = Y_2 / Y_1
      NTR2 = NTRy
C. PRINTS OUTPUT
      WRITE (6,600) NBPT
      GO TO (10, 20, 30), KND
   10 WRITE (6.610)
      GO TO 40
   20 WRITE (6,620)
      30 TO 40
   30 WRITE (6,630)
   40 WRITE (6,640) SP. CRK, HH, PSO, WW, RF, Y1, RA, Y2
      WRITE(6,66n)
  660 FORMAT( /2X14HSYMMETIRC CASE)
             I = 1.NTR2
      DO 50
   50 WRITE(6,550) I, XVEC(I)
  550 FORMAT(8×1HA 12+2H =F13,8)
      WRITE (7,700) (XVEC(I), I = 1,NTRM)
C٠
      RETURN
Ċ,
                   /2X70HTHE FOLLOWING PROBLEM HAS BEEN SOLVED FOR COEFF
  500 FORMAT (
     1ICIENTS IN THE WILLIAMS /2X70HEIGENVALUE SERIES, FOR A CRACK LYING
     2 AT AN ANGLE TO ITS USUAL POSITION /15X SHUSING I4, 35H BOUNDARY P
     30INTS IN THE COMPUTATION )
  610 FORMAT (/4X66HSPECIMEN AND LOAD CONFIGURATION -- SINGLE EDGE NOTCH
     1, PURE TENSION )
  520 FORMAT (/4X66HSPECIMEN AND LOAD CONFIGURATION -- SINGLE EDGE NOTCH
     1. PURE BENDING )
  530 FORMAT (/4×66HSPECIMEN AND LOAD CONFIGURATION -- COMPACT TENSION G
     1EOMETRY, IDEAL )
  540 FORMAT (/8X10HLENGTH
                             = F6.2, 4H INS 14X14HCRACK LENGTH = F6.2,
                             = F6_{*2}, 4H INS 14X14HINCLINATION = F6_{*2},
     1 4H INS /8X10H#IDTH
     2 4H DEG /8X10HLIGAMENT = F6.2, 4H INS 14X14H(K-I LENGTH) = F6.2,
     3 4H INS //BX5HY+I = F9,6, 6X10HK-II/K-I = F8.5, 5X6HY-II = F9.6,
4 ///22X30HT H E C O E F F I C I E N T S /)
C 700 FORMAT (4E20.10)
      END
```

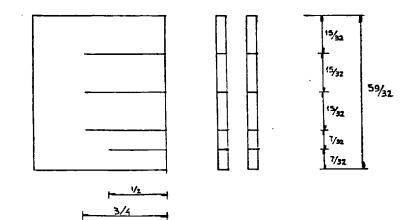
```
SUBROUTINE LOADING
                              SIG2=STRESS ALONG X
COMMENT C=SIG2/SIG1 + BEING
                              SIG1=STRESS ALONG Y
C'
      COMMON COR(5,201),MSID(201),BDYLD(2,201),DUM(2000),D(100,20)
      COMMON/CONSTS/ EL, HH, WW, PSO, PI, CRK
      COMMON/MATDAT/ GMOD, YMOD, PRAT, CAY, F(3,3)
      COMMON/LOADS/ ML1, ML2, MB1, MB2, MR1, MR2, MT1, MT2
      COMMON/PROBLM/ A(20,20), XVEC(20), BVEC(20), NBPT, NTRM, KND
      DOUBLE PRECISION A, BVEC
      REAL LOADX.LOADY
      READ (5,50) AA, BB, CB
                                         -
                                                         C = AA / BB
                           . .
      SIG2 = 10.0 * AA
      SIG1 = 10_{+}0 + BB
      SIGB = SIG2 + CB
      SIGMA11=SIG1#EL!
      WRITE(6,60)SIG2,SIG1,SIG8
      WRITE(6+63)SIGMA11
   50 FORMAT(1X,* THE LOADING ON THIS CASE IS */
                       8 ----
     1
                STRESS ALONG THE - X - DIRECTION * 1F8.3//
     1
                * STRESS ALONG THE - Y - DIRECTION * 1F8.3//
     2
                * MAXIMUM BENDING STRESS
                                                   * 1F8.3//)
     3
   63 FORMAT(1X, * THE TOTAL OPENING LOAD DJE TO THE SHEAR STRESS APPLIED
     1 ON THE EDGE OF THE PLATE (-Y- DIRECTION) IS*,1F8,3)
      GMD2 = GMOD + 2.0
      DELY = COR(2,MT1) = COR(2,MB1)
      DELX = COR(1,MR1) = COR(1,1)
      XTF = SIG2 # DELY
YTF = SIG1 # DELX
      LOADX = XTF: / FLOAT(MR2 = MR1 + 1 )
      LOADY = YTF / FLOAT(MT2 - MT1 + 1 )
      DO 1 N = 1 , ML2
    1 BDYLD(1+N) = BOYLD(1+N) = LOADX/GMD2
      DO 2 N = 1, ML2
    2 BDYLD(2.N) = BDYLD(2.N) = LOADY/GMD2
      DO 3 N = MR1 + MR2
    3 BDYLD(1+N) = BDYLD(1+N) - LOADX/GMD2
      DO 4 N = ML1 , NBPT
    4 BDYLD(2,N) = BDYLD(2,N) = LOADY/GMD2
      DO 5 N= ML1, N3PT
    5 BDYLD(1,N) = BDYLD(1,N) = LOADX/GMD2
   50 FORMAT(3F10.2)
      IF (CB.EQ.0.0) GO TO 10
      WRITE(6,51)BDYLD(1,ML1),BDYLD(1,NBPT),BDYLD(1,1),BDYLD(1,ML2)
   61 FORMAT(1X, # THE MAGNITUD OF LOADS ON POINTS ML1, NBPT, 1, ML2
                  BEFORE APPLICATION OF BENDING STRESS IS RESPECTIVELY*
     1
              12X,4F15.3)
     211
      F1= (SIG2 * CB *EL**2) / (1.5*(COR(2,ML1) + COR(2,NBPT)))
      BDYLD(1,ML1) = BDYLD(1,ML1) + F1/GMD2
      BDYL)(1,NBPT) = BDYLD(1,NBPT) + F1/GMD2
      BDYLD(1+1) = BDYLD(1+1) = F1/GHD2
      BDYLD(1,ML2) = BDYLD(1,ML2) + F1/GMD2
      WRITE(6,62) BDYLD(1,ML1),BDYLD(1,NBPT),BDYLD(1,1),BDYLD(1,ML2)
   62 FORMAT(1X, #ONCE: THE BENDING STRESS IS APPLIED, THOSE LOADS BECOME#
     14F15.3/)
   10 RETURN
      END
```

Stresses at measuring points in the rig.

(a) Opening fingers. Loads to be applied. From Benbow and Roesler (1957)



The piece for measuring the loads is depicted below



in which each finger is considered as a cantilever beam loaded as shown.

The maximum opening load for a specimen 12 x 4 with a crack 3.6in in length (0.3l) is 1180lb. This load will be applied throughout the eight sections, shown in figure above.

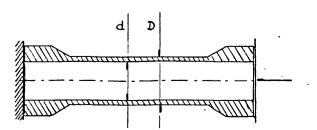
Maximum stress in the beam (opening load)

(i)
$$l = 0.625 \text{ in } (5/8)$$

 $y = 0.1093 \text{ in } (7/64)$
 $I = 2.05 \times 10^{-4} \text{ in}^{4}$
 $P = 751b$
 $\sigma = 75 \times 0.625 \times 0.1093/2.05 \times 10^{-4} = 25000 \text{ lb/in}^{2}$
O.L.
(ii) $l = 0.75 \text{ in } (3/4)$
 $y = 0.2343 \text{ in } (15/64)$
 $I = 1.068 \times 10^{-3} \text{ in}^{4}$
 $\sigma = 150 \times 0.75 \times 0.2343/1.068 \times 10^{-3} = 24700 \text{ lb/in}^{2}$
O.L.
Stress due to transverse load
 $\sigma = 849/1.8437 \times 0.25 = 1150 \text{ lb/in}^{2}$
T.L.
The strain (c) is
 $\varepsilon = \sigma/E$; $E = 10^{7}$.
 $\varepsilon = 26150/10^{7} = 2615 \times 10^{-6}$

ε = 2615 μs

(b) Compressive fingers. Load to be applied.
 Each individual finger is to stand a load of 849/8 = 1061b.
 The finger to apply transverse load are shown below.



If D = 0.35in and d = 5/16in A = 0.785 ($D^2 - d^2$) = 0.0222 in² P = 849/8 = 106lb (Eight fingers) σ = P/A = 106/0.0222 = 5240lb/in² E = 10⁷lb/in²

and

$$\varepsilon = \sigma/E = 5240/10^7 = 524 \times 10^{-6} = 524 \mu \text{ strain}$$

Buckling load [p.184 Warnock-Benham Mechs. of solids and strength

of materials]

$$P = \pi^{2} EI/4\lambda^{2}$$

$$I = \pi(D^{4} - d^{4})/64$$

$$P = 9.88 \times 10^{7} \times 54.8 \times 10^{-4} \times 3.14/64 \times 4 \times 2 \times 2 = 16651b$$

appendix 6.b

.

U 1	PROGRAM HUNTER (INPUT, DUTPUT, TAPE 5 = INFUT, TAPE 6 = DUTPUT) COMMON C(3,40), COEF(40), EL, HH, WW, DET, PI, ANGLE, GRK, A PAL US, GNOD, YMOU, PRAT, CAY, GUM(42), NEPI, NIRM,
0000	2 PI = 3.14452265350079 FA = 183.2 / PI FEA = (5,506) KASE D0 90 K = 1, KASE READ (5,516) PRAT, YMOD KEAD (5,516) PRAT, YMOD KEAD (5,516) PRAT, YMOD KEAD (5,520) EL, HH, WW, PSO, NUPT, NIRM, KNO WRITE (6,665) PRAT, YMOD WRITE (6,665) PRAT, YMOD WRITE (6,665) PRAT, YMOD WRITE (6,615) KAULUS WRITE (6,615) KAULUS WH = WW - HH $FS1 = PSO / FLCRK = -WH / LOS(PS1)ET = 90.2 - PSOGMOI = YMOD / 2.0 / (1.0 + PRAT)FOI FLAKE SETESS USE CAY = (3.0 - PRAT) / (1.0 + PRAT)FOI FLAKE SETESS USE CAY = 3.0 - 4.0 * PEATGAY = 3.0 - 4.0 * PEATGAY = 3.0 - 4.0 * PEATGO TO (10, 20, 30), KND10 WHILE (6,655)GO TO (43)$
С	30 WRITE (6,660) A U i I 0 N ICHOOZ = 3 OPTION NOT FULLY TESTED 40 DUSC 1CHUCZ = 1,2 GD TO (50, 60, 70), ICHOOZ 50 WRITE (6,600) 60 HAITE (6,600) 60 HAITE (6,600) 60 HAITE (6,600) 70 WRITE (6,600) 61 CALL SEARCH (UVAL) CALL SEARCH (UVAL) CALL SEARCH (UVAL) CALL SEARCH (UVAL) CALL SEARCH (UVAL) CALL SEARCH (UVAL) CALL SEARCH (UVAL) SF2 = UOFF(2) * SQLT(2.0 *PI) IRT = SF2 / SF1 PMGLE = FMGLE * F4 IF (ICHOOZ •NE• 2) UVAL = -UVAL WRITE (6,695) EET, SF1, SF2, RAT, RADIUS, ANGLE, UVAL STOP
	<pre>500 FORMAT (13) 505 FORMAT (4F10.2, 415) 515 FORMAT (4223.10) 520 FORMAT (4223.10) 520 FORMAT (4223.10) 520 FORMAT (4223.10) 605 FORMAT (2220.8) 615 FORMAT (2220.8) 615 FORMAT (2220.8) 615 FORMAT (2220.8) 615 FORMAT (4223.10) 615 FORMAT (73x 5(16H FUNELE LOAD)/) 657 FORMAT (73x 5(16H FUNELE LOAD)/) 667 FORMAT (73x 3(26H MAXIMUM HOOP STRESS CPIT)/) 630 FORMAT (73x 2(35H MINIMUM STRAIN ENERGY DENSITY, S CRIT)/) 645 FORMAT (73x 2(35H MINIMUM STRAIN ENERGY DENSITY CRIT)/) 645 FORMAT (73x 2(42H MAXMUM STRAIN ENERGY DENSITY CRIT)/) 645 FORMAT (4x 33hiHe rNGLE OF LAAUK INCLINATION IS F6.2, 37H DEG. F 10. UNIT LOADING, THE K VALUES VIAH ARE K-I = F7.3, 8H, K-II = 2 F7.3, 46H, OTH IN L. / IN2 - SQRT(IN). K-TI/K-I = F5.3, // 4X 3 14HAT A RAJICS OF F7.7, 43H IN, THE ANGLE OF SROWTH EFENSION 470 HE F7.2, 5H DEG. /4X 63HTHE VALUE OF THE CRITICAL PARAMETER, FO 5R UNIT LOADING, IS EQUAL E13.6, //) END</pre>

SULFOUTINE SEARCH (UVAL) COMMON SPA(164), PI, ANGLE, XTR(E), XP(21), UV(21), IDL(4) IF (SPA(164) .EQ. 90.0) RETURN Society 19 Sector (Coversion of the sector o HAEPPOG 676 20 JL = J + 1 JR = J + 2 GO T(60) 25 ANGLE = XP(12) CALL VALUES (LTMP) LV(12) = JTMP F (UTAF - UV(L) 40, 40, 30) 30 IF (IS) 50, 35, 40 35 JL = 10 JH = 11 JR = 12 GO TF 60 40 UO 45 I = 1,9 J = 12 + 1 ANGLE = XP(J) CALL VLUES (UT4P) UV(J) = UTMP F (UT4P - UV(J-1)) 45, 45 45 GON; INJEĴΜ)́+]+ = 1 45, 45, 50

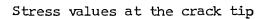
С

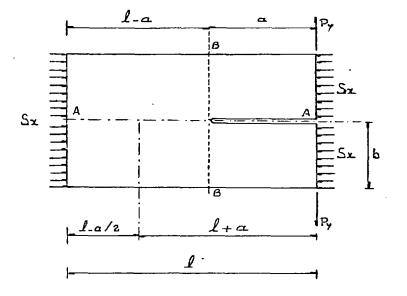
ANGLE = XP(11) WRITE (6,500) (XP(1), (XP(1), (XP(1), 1, 7), 8,14), 15,21), 7), (UV(1), (UV(1), (UV(1), 11 11 11 1, 7), 8,14), 15,21) 1 . I I Ĩ 1 2 ETUER 50 IS = JL = 1 - 2 - 1 Ĵ JL Ĵ. = Ĵ Ĵ. 11 J IF (IS) 70, 65, 70 P4 = (65 * XP(JR) + (1.0 - 65) * XP(JM) - XP(JL)) * 65 ANGLE = PM CALL VALUES (UM) 60 65 10 = (=) 60 PM 1-4 75 70 75 XP(J_) U√(JL) XP(J₹) ۲L Ξ = PR = UV(JR) WLITE(6,660)J2,0V(JL),JL,UV(JL),JR,UV(JR) FORMAG(1X,3(15,F15.5)) BO_9Q I = 1,40 660 [0]90 К = I _= Ķ $\begin{array}{c} K = I \\ F (PL + PR - F* + 2.0) \\ F (PL + PR - GS + (PR - PM) \\ ANGLE = PT \\ CALL VALUES (UI) \\ WATTE(6,666) A*GLE,UT \\ 666 FORMAT(1x, 2F15.5,8HLEVEL 77) \\ F (U1 - UH) & 80, 80, 81 \\ 78 PT = PM + GS + (PM - PL) \\ ANGLE = PT \\ CALL VALUES (UT) \\ WATTE(6,667) ANGLE,UT \\ 667 FORMAT(1x, 2F15.5,3HLEVEL 78) \\ F (UT - UH) & 3, c3, 64 \\ 80 PL = PM \end{array}$ 77, 77, 78 ΡĹ = PM 80 Ξ UM = P] ιi TC 85 GU 81 PR . U.K UΪ 10 35 = Fil 60 63 12 62 = UM ₽M. ⊭ PT $\begin{array}{c}
PH = \\
UM = \\
UI \\
GO \\
TO \\
BL = \\
PI \\
H
\end{array}$ 84 85 90 90 55 1 2 RETURN

С

SULROUTINE VALUES (UVAL) LOBALE C(3,40), COEF(45), EL, HH, WW, SET, PI, ANGLE, MADILE, GMOD, YMOD, PRAT, CAY, BUM(42), NEPI, KND, ICHOOZ P = ANGLE R = RADIUS LT = SQUI(3) PI, ANGLE, CRK, 1 2 R = RADIUSR = RADIUSR = SQLT(R)N = SQLT(R)N = 1,N4H = 1,0R = R = R + (M-1)H = 1.0R = R + (M-1)H = 1.0S = 1.0S = -1.0IF((M/2)*2,EQ, M) SE = 1.0S H = -5EH =5M = -5S32 == SE= SIN(S32 + P) SS11 = SIN(S11 SC12 = SIN(S12 SP12 = SIN(P12 SP11 = SIN(P11 CS32 = CCS(S32 CS11 = COS(S12 CS12 = COS(S12 CP12 = COS(F11 FINIS CONTRICTION A(2N-1), S(2N-1), ¥ P) P) ¥ ¥ p) ¥ ρj × ¥ PJ Þ 孝 Þĵ x * F; TO LINESSES FOR EACH TERM IN SERIES, 1 A(2N), B(2N), FOR N = 1, 2, , NTRM/+ 1 N ORDER (+ (= N4) 000 SIGMA R L(1, 14-3) L(1, 14-3) C(1, 14-2) C(1, 14-1)= St = -St = SE S12 512 S S (\$72 (\$72 (\$31 (\$31 CS32 5532 C511 SS11 ¥ ¥ -532 P12 P11 * CP12) SP12) CP11) ¥ ЪĘ. ¥ ¥ ¥ ¥ 4 RI RI RI * ж ¥ ¥ ¥ ¥ ¥ S11 ŠP11) 6(1, M4 + FS1 ì É C SIG $\begin{array}{c} F Si \\ C (2, H4-3) \\ C (2, H4-2) \\ C (2, H4-1) \\ C (2, H4-1) \\ C (2, H4-3) \\ C (3, H4-3) \\ C (3, H4-2) \\ C$ L 5912) 5912) 0911) 5911) (P12 (P12 (P11 (F11 6532 5532 6511 5511 532 P12 P11 S11 =-SM =-SM =-SE =-SE 512 512 5 5 5 RR RI RI - - -¥ 4 ¥ ¥ ŧ # 4 ¥ ¥ # ¥ # ¥ * ¥ ¥ * ¥ ¥ * K. C リアレ \$12 \$12 \$ SP12) CP12) SP11) CP11) =-5H =-5M =-SE * * * * * (\$32 (\$32 (\$11 SS32 LS32 SS11 532 P12 Ŧ ¥ -# ¥ ¥ ¥ ¥ ÷ P11 4 ¥ ¥ = SE ж. x S ¥ (511 * 6511 511 ¥ ħ 10 $C_{3K} = 0.0$ $S_{6F} = 0.0$ $T_{AU} = 0.0$ $D_{0} = 0.0$ $S_{6R} = S_{6F} + U(1,N) + C_{0} = C_{0}$ $S_{6F} = S_{6F} + U(2,N) + C_{0} = C_{0}$ $T_{AU} = T_{AU} + C_{0}(3,N) + C_{0} = C_{0}$ $C_{ALL} = C_{HOICE} (S_{6K}, S_{6F}, T_{AU}, UVAL)$ RETURN EUD 2Û Ello ----SULFOUTTRE CHEICE (4, 5, 0, 0) COMMON SPA(168), GMOD, YMOD, PRAI, CAY, DUM(42), IDL(3), ICHOOZ GU TO (16, 20, 20), ICHOOZ MAXIMUM HODP LIRESS 0 MAXIMUM HODP LIRESS 10 U = -0 RETURN STRAIN ENERGY DENSITY 20 S = ((CAY+1.0)/8.0*(A+=)*(A+E) + C*C - A*E) / (2.0*GMOD) GU TU (10, 30, 40) TUHJOZ MINIMUM STRAIN ENERGY DENSITY 30 U = S ELTURN HAXIMUM STRAIN ENERGY DENSITY U T I U N - - - ICHGOZ = 3 OPTION NOT FULLY TESTED 40 U = -S RETURN END С С С С i. END

APPENDIX 7





$$S_x = P_x/b$$

Section AA

$$\sigma_{yT} = \sigma_{Py} + \sigma_{Px}$$

$$\sigma_{Py} = \frac{3P_y(\ell + a)}{(\ell - a)^2}$$

$$P_x = S_x \cdot b$$

$$\sigma_{Px} = \frac{3P_x b}{(\ell - a)^2}$$

$$\sigma_{yT} = \frac{3}{(\ell - a)^2} \left[P_y(\ell + a) + P_x b \right]$$

Section BB

$$\sigma_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{T}} = \frac{6\mathbf{P}\mathbf{y}\mathbf{a}}{\mathbf{b}^2} - \mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{x}}$$

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