

Effect of low temperature tensile properties on crack driving force for Arctic applications

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Abstract

Many petroleum companies expand their activities further north towards the Arctic region, resulting in design temperatures down to -60°C , which is much lower than what is usual for most current petroleum installations. As properties of steels are temperature dependent, it is of great interest to evaluate the effects of low temperature on the crack driving force in steels. The present work investigates these effects numerically using a finite element model of a single-edge-notched-tension (SENT) specimen with crack depth $a/W = 0.5$. The effects of Lüders strain and yield strength are studied for gross stress levels $\sigma_G/\sigma_y \leq 0.5$, and it is shown that an increase in yield strength and Lüders strain, as a result of Arctic temperature, intensifies the crack driving force. An approximate model that can be used to estimate the crack driving force based on yield strength, Lüders strain and loading is proposed.

Keywords: Arctic materials, crack driving force, Lüders plateau, low temperature, tensile properties

1. Introduction

The exploitation of hydrocarbons is continuously moving into new areas and harsher environments. Many petroleum companies are expanding their

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activities further north, where a considerable part of the undiscovered oil and
5 gas resources is expected to exist [1]. Consequently the structures built must
be able to withstand the low temperatures present in the Arctic climate. Most
structural materials have different behavior in such low temperatures, and this
must be accounted for when designing and constructing structures to avoid
accidents related to structural failure.

10 Much research has been carried out to study the behavior of steels in chang-
ing temperatures. The most obvious temperature dependent parameter is the
yield strength, which for most steels increase with decreasing temperature [2–
14]. Another temperature dependent property is the ductile-to-brittle transition
(DBT) in steels. Due to the DBT, many steels become brittle when the tem-
15 perature is sufficiently decreased, but the DBT is however not in the scope of
this study.

Many steels, and also other materials, experience so-called Lüders and Lüders-
like instabilities. These instabilities are associated with unpinning of dislocations
from nitrogen and carbon atmospheres and dislocation multiplication, and they
20 result in macroscopic inhomogeneous deformation [8, 15–20]. The Lüders insta-
bility is in uniaxial tensile tests observed as nearly horizontal stress plateaus,
called Lüders plateaus, in the stress-strain curves after reaching the elastic limit
of the material. This instability can be physically observed as localized de-
formation bands, called Lüders bands, propagating on the surface of uniaxial
25 tensile tests. Structural steels often show this behavior. The amount of plastic
straining occurring due to the Lüders instability is often called Lüders strain.
Studies have shown that the Lüders strain is both rate and temperature depen-
dent, and decreasing temperature is often associated with larger Lüders strain
[7–9, 18, 21].

30 The fracture toughness of a material is often measured by using fracture
mechanics tests, and is described by a single parameter, such as a critical stress
intensity factor (K), crack tip opening displacement (CTOD, δ) or J -integral,
depending on if it is a linear elastic or elastoplastic dominated fracture. The
fracture toughness of steels is usually reduced when decreasing the temperature

35 [5, 10, 12–14, 22].

The fracture toughness can be interpreted as a measure of the ability of a material to resist fracture, while the crack driving force, on the other hand, can be defined as the force which opens the crack. The fracture toughness can be regarded as the critical level of crack driving force, and the same way
40 as a critical CTOD can be a measure of the fracture toughness, the CTOD is often used as a measure of the crack driving force which changes with loading. Due to temperature dependent material parameters, decreasing temperature is assumed to have an effect on the crack driving force [23]. The goal of this work is hence to study the effect of low temperature material properties of steels,
45 as expected in Arctic applications, on the crack driving force by performing finite element analyses. This effect is studied by simulating fracture tests of a single-edge-notched-tension (SENT) specimen with a material model where the temperature dependent material parameters can be changed. The CTOD is used as a measure of the crack driving force. A SENT specimen is studied
50 because it is used as a fracture specimen to estimate fracture toughness of steels used for pipeline applications where other specimen types give unnecessarily conservative results, such as for girth welds in pipes [24, 25].

The results will be utilized to propose approximate CTOD models that can be used to estimate the crack driving force in a SENT specimen at low temper-
55 atures by using only tensile properties of the material. This can for instance also be useful for estimating the CTOD or maximum stress allowed in a cracked pipeline in Arctic climate.

2. Experimental work on low temperature tensile properties

The recent work by Ren et al. [9] and Østby et al. [23] has presented ten-
60 sile properties of a 420 MPa steel at different temperatures ranging from 0 °C down to –90 °C. They tested both base material, weld metal and weld thermal simulated microstructure of steel. Smooth round specimens with gauge diameters between 10 mm and 12 mm were used for testing the base material, and

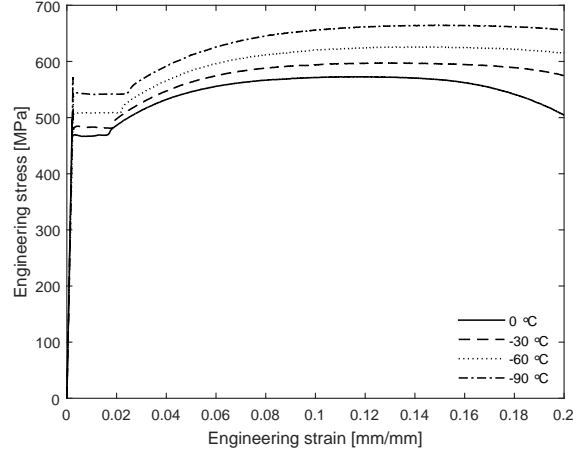


Figure 1: Engineering stress-strain curves of a 420 MPa steel at different temperatures. Taken from [9].

they were loaded with a strain rate of $8 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$. An example of engineering
65 stress-strain results is shown in Fig. 1.

The results in Fig. 1 show that both the yield strength and the Lüders strain increase with decreasing temperature. The yield strength and Lüders strain from $0 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ to $-90 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ are ranging from approximate 470 MPa and 1.4% to 540 MPa and 2.2% respectively.

70 Tensile properties at low temperatures cannot always be obtained due to cost or practical reasons, and several corrections for calculating tensile properties at temperatures lower than room temperature are thus proposed in literature [9, 23, 26].

Ren et al. [9] introduced a modified version of the correction proposed by Østby et al. [26] based on their results from tensile tests on a 420 MPa steel:

$$\sigma_{y,T} = 420 + 0.73 \left(\frac{10^5}{491 + 1.8T} - 137 \right) \quad (1)$$

where $\sigma_{y,T}$ is the yield strength in MPa at temperature T in $^\circ\text{C}$. They proposed in addition a relation between Lüders strain and temperature:

$$\varepsilon_L = 0.0142 \exp(-0.005T) \quad (2)$$

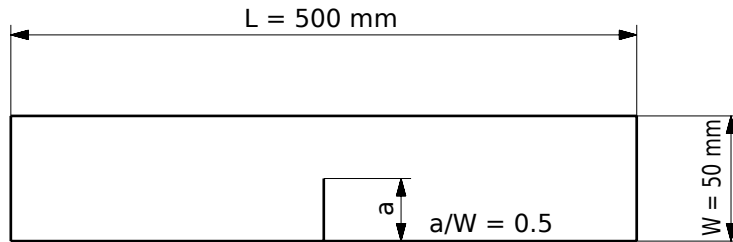


Figure 2: Illustration of a SENT specimen with dimensions.

where T is the temperature in $^{\circ}\text{C}$ and ε_L is the Lüders strain. Eqs. 1 and 2
75 are expected to be valid for the tested temperature range from -90°C to 0°C .
The effect of the low temperature tensile properties on the crack driving force
will be numerically studied in the following, where Eqs. 1 and 2 will be used to
estimate the yield strength and Lüders strain present at different temperatures.

3. Material model and numerical procedure

80 The numerical simulations were performed using the commercial finite el-
ement program Abaqus 6.14 [27]. The finite element (FE) model studied is
a two-dimensional plane strain SENT specimen. The symmetry is utilized by
modelling only half of the specimen. The width of the specimen is 50 mm,
and the other dimensions are determined using a recommended practice [25]:
85 $L/W = 10$ and $a/W = 0.5$, where W is the specimen width, L is the specimen
length, and a is the crack length as illustrated in Fig. 2.

Large plastic deformations are expected at the crack tip, and the crack is
modelled as an initially blunted crack with a tip radius of $10\ \mu\text{m}$. The large-
displacement formulation that accounts for nonlinear geometric effects (NL-
90 GEOM) is used in the analyses. The finite element mesh consists of 1355 8-node
plane strain CPE8 elements. The mesh is refined around the crack tip where
large strain gradients are expected, which is the primary area of interest in this
study. There are 10 elements along the edge of the crack tip. The mesh and
crack tip radius were determined based on a convergence study with varying
95 mesh densities, element types and crack tip radii. The final finite element mesh

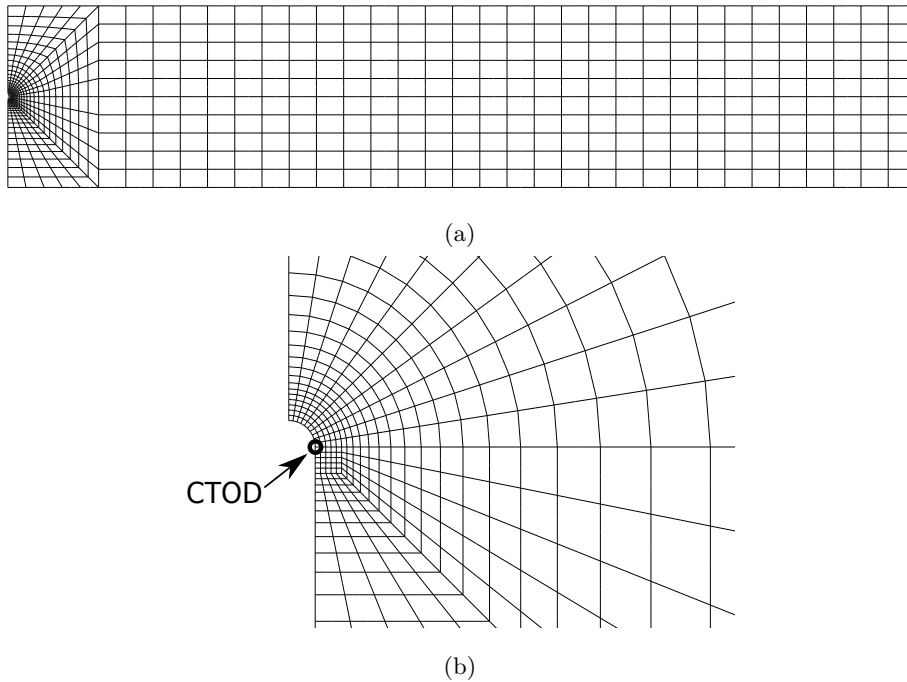


Figure 3: (a) Global and (b) local finite element mesh. The node where CTOD is measured is marked by the circle in (b).

is shown in Fig. 3.

A uniform displacement is applied on the end of the half specimen to simulate the tension of a clamped SENT specimen. The displacement is set as high as needed to make the ligament net section stress exceed the yield stress of the material.

An elastoplastic material model based on uniaxial tensile tests of the steel in [9] is used in the analyses. The material displays isotropic linear elasticity and J_2 -plasticity with isotropic hardening, while an amount of Lüders straining is added in the transition between the elastic and plastic behavior. The Lüders behavior is modelled as a simplified horizontal Lüders plateau in the plastic stress-strain curve. There are many proposals for more realistic modelling of the Lüders instability in literature, which for instance include strain drops or strain softening [8, 17, 19, 20, 28–31]. In previous works done by O’Dowd [32],

Table 1: Constant material parameters.

E	ν	K	n
210 GPa	0.3	685 MPa	0.576

Nourpanah and Taheri [33], a Ramberg-Osgood fitting of material stress-strain
110 curves was applied and showed that conservative estimation of fracture response
can be obtained using this approach. In this paper, the simplified flat Lüders
plateau is assumed, which is expected to give a better approximation to the
material behavior in the present analysis.

This is verified by doing analyses using a material model similar to the model
in [20]. The modelled stress-strain curve is fitted to true stress-strain data from
the uniaxial tensile tests in [9], and it is then modified to create several similar
materials with varying parameters such as yield stress and Lüders strain. The
material can be described by

$$\sigma = \begin{cases} E\varepsilon & \text{if } 0 \leq \varepsilon < \frac{\sigma_y}{E} \\ \sigma_y & \text{if } \frac{\sigma_y}{E} \leq \varepsilon < \frac{\sigma_y}{E} + \varepsilon_L \\ \sigma_y + K \left(\varepsilon - \left(\frac{\sigma_y}{E} + \varepsilon_L \right) \right)^n & \text{if } \varepsilon \geq \frac{\sigma_y}{E} + \varepsilon_L \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

in uniaxial tension, where σ is the uniaxial stress, E is the Young's modulus,
115 ε is the uniaxial strain, σ_y is the yield stress, ε_L is the Lüders strain, K is
a strength coefficient and n is the strain hardening exponent. For loads and
deformations in the two-dimensional plane, the Poisson's ratio ν is also needed.
The yield stress and Lüders strain are the temperature dependent parameters
to be studied. The constant material parameters are summarized in Table 1,
120 where K and n are determined by fitting Eq. 3 to the true stress-strain data
from the uniaxial tensile testing in [9]. Eq. 3 divides the stress-strain curve
into three parts: the linear elastic part, Lüders plateau and plastic hardening,
as illustrated in Fig. 4. As only quasi-static simulations are performed, there
are no rate dependencies in the material model.

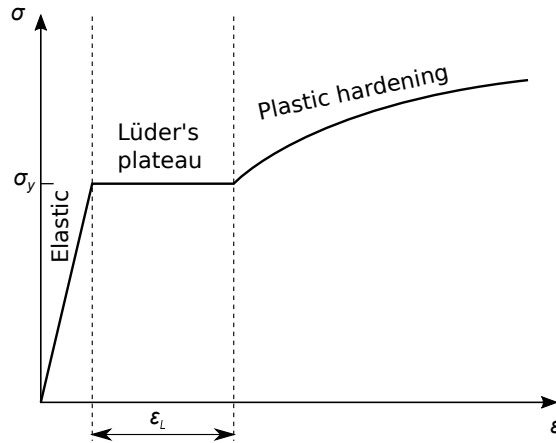


Figure 4: Illustration of a material model showing the three different parts of the stress-strain curve.

125 4. Results and discussion

To study how temperature dependent material properties affect the crack driving force, different analyses were performed where the parameters of interest were studied individually, and thereafter their combined effect was investigated. This study focuses on the effects of varying yield strength and Lüders strain on the CTOD. The CTOD is measured as twice the opening displacement of the fixed node in the transition point between the semicircular crack tip edge and the straight crack surface, as shown by the circle in Fig. 3b, which is equivalent to the initially 90 degree intercept method. The same procedure using a fixed node to calculate CTOD has been utilized in [34–38]. The results will be used to propose approximate CTOD models that can be utilized to estimate the CTOD based on given loadings and temperatures.

4.1. Effect of yield stress

The effect of yield stress was studied by keeping the other parameters constant. Analyses with different yield stresses were performed with different levels of Lüders strain. A total of 36 analyses were performed to produce the following results, where 6 different yield stress levels, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700 and 800 MPa,

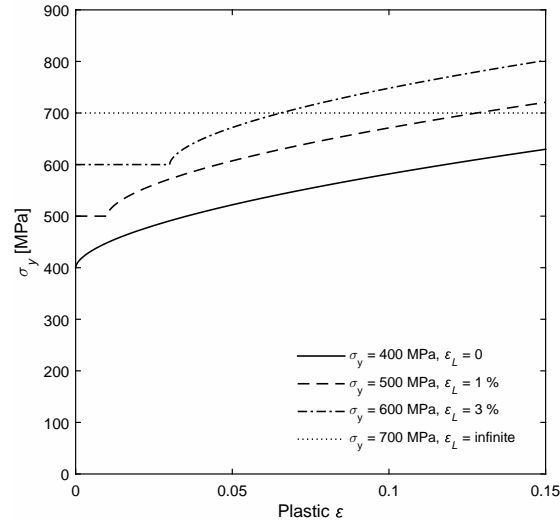


Figure 5: Examples of some of the model materials studied.

were tested with 6 different levels of Lüders strain ranging from 0 to infinite. Examples of plastic uniaxial material responses are shown in Fig. 5, where four materials with 400, 500, 600 and 700 MPa yield strength and 0, 1%, 3% and
 145 infinite Lüders strain respectively are displayed.

The CTOD results are plotted versus the gross stress level in each case in Fig. 6. The gross stress level is defined as σ_G/σ_y , where σ_G is the gross stress defined as $\sigma_G = F_{||}/(Wt)$, where $F_{||}$ is the longitudinal reaction forces at the specimen end, W is the specimen width and t is the specimen thickness. These
 150 results show that increasing yield stress results in increased CTOD at the same σ_G/σ_y . This can be expected as the same relative stress level corresponds to higher stresses and thus higher elastic strains in materials with higher strengths. This leads to a larger elastic deformation and hence a larger CTOD at the same relative stress level for a material with higher yield stress.

155 4.2. Effect of Lüders strain

The effect of the temperature dependent Lüders strain was studied by changing the amount of Lüders strain in the material model, while keeping the other parameters constant. This is the same as changing the length of the Lüders

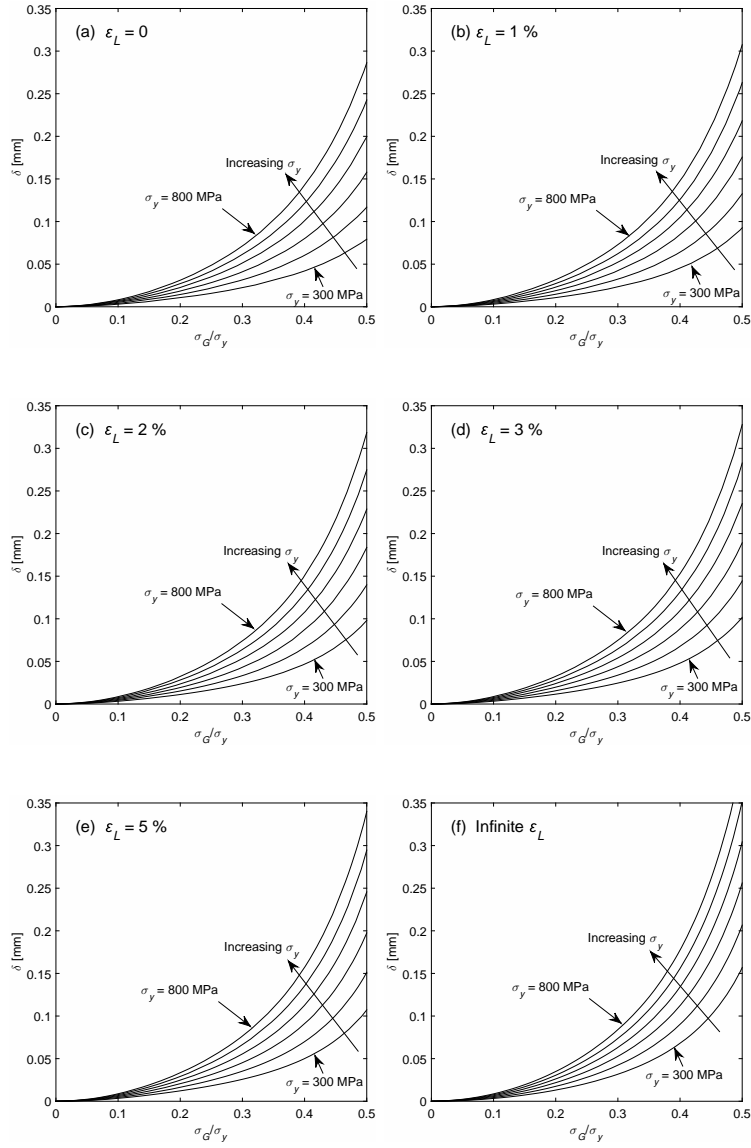


Figure 6: CTOD versus gross stress level with 300 MPa to 800 MPa yield strengths and Lüders strains ranging from 0 to infinite in (a) to (f) respectively.

plateau in the uniaxial stress-strain curve. A total of 36 analyses were per-
 160 formed to produce the following results, where 6 different Lüders strains, 0, 1,
 2, 3, 5% and infinite, were tested with 6 different levels of yield stress ranging
 from 300 to 800 MPa.

The results from the simulations are shown in Fig. 7, where the CTOD is
 plotted against the gross stress level. These are the same results as in Fig. 6, but
 165 rearranged so that the effect of Lüders strain can be more easily studied. The
 results indicate that increasing Lüders strain, for instance caused by decreasing
 temperature, yields a larger CTOD, and hence a larger crack driving force, for
 a given loading. This can be explained due to the larger plastic deformation
 allowed by a material with larger Lüders strain. Fig. 7 also indicates that the
 170 effect of Lüders strain on the CTOD is more evident at larger stress levels due
 to the difference in allowed plastic deformation. It should also be noted that
 the effect approaches a maximum for very large Lüders strains, as the curves
 approach the one for the material with infinite Lüders strain. The material with
 infinite Lüders strain corresponds to a material which displays perfect plasticity.

175 4.3. Approximate CTOD model

The results from the previous sections clearly show that the tensile properties
 have an effect on the crack driving force. These results will be utilized to create
 an approximate model that can be used for estimating the crack driving force
 in terms of CTOD based on yield strength and Lüders strain. This model will
 180 later in this section be coupled to the effect of temperature on the yield strength
 and Lüders strain according to Eqs. 1 and 2. The model can thus be used to
 estimate the CTOD in a SENT specimen based on loading and temperature
 when the effect of temperature on the tensile properties are known.

Based on the results in the previous sections the following relation between
 CTOD and gross stress level is proposed:

$$\frac{\delta}{\delta_0} = b \left[\exp \left(d \frac{\sigma_G}{\sigma_y} \right) - 1 \right] \quad (4)$$

where δ_0 is a reference CTOD equal to 0.25 mm, which is a minimum required

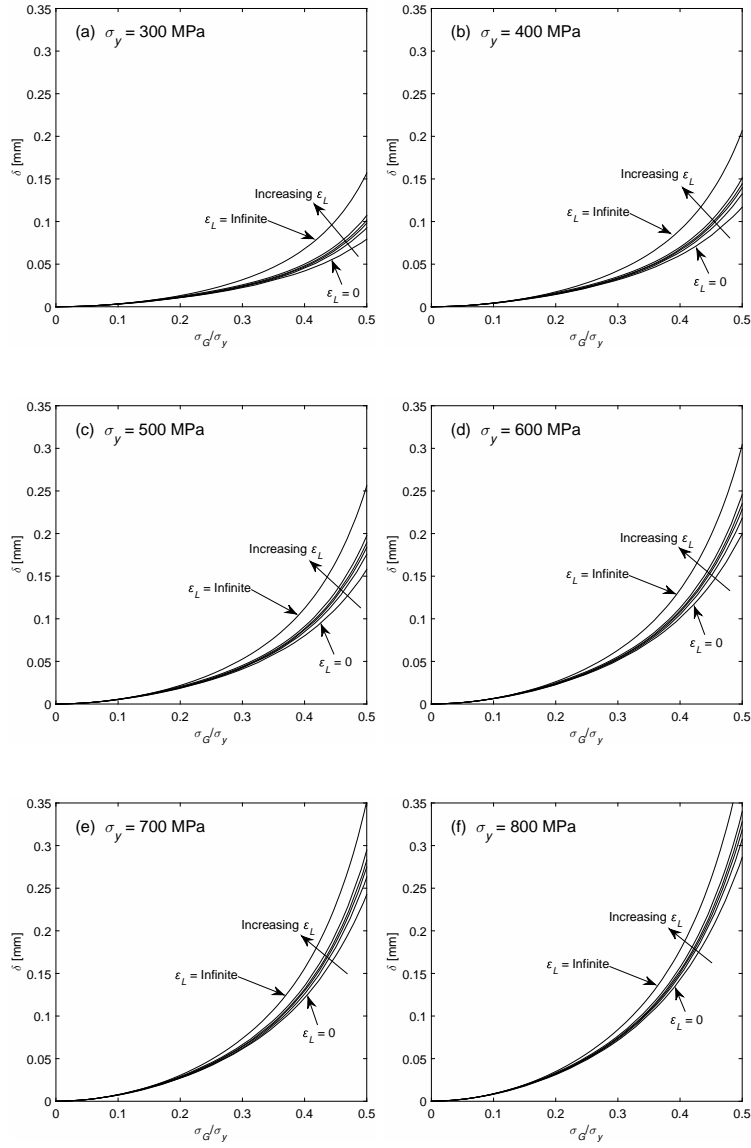


Figure 7: CTOD versus gross stress level with 0, 1%, 2%, 3%, 5% and infinite Luders strains and yield strengths ranging from 300 MPa to 800 MPa in (a) to (f) respectively.

CTOD when applicable according to [39]. b and d are functions of yield stress and Lüders strain. Values for b and d in Eq. 4 were found by fitting the proposed relation to the numerical results shown in Figs. 6 and 7, and based on these results the following relation for b is proposed:

$$b = \begin{cases} \left(23.4 \frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_0} + 2.7\right) \times 10^{-3} & \text{if } \varepsilon_L = 0 \\ \left(23.2 \frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_0} - 1.1\right) \times 10^{-3} & \text{if } 0 < \varepsilon_L \leq 1\% \\ \left(21.6 \frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_0} - 0.6\right) \times 10^{-3} & \text{if } 1\% < \varepsilon_L \leq 5\% \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

where b is a function of the yield stress normalized by a reference stress (σ_0) equal to 420 MPa, which is the specified minimum yield strength (SMYS) for many construction steels. As Fig. 7 suggests, the effect of Lüders strain is evident, and it is thus accounted for in Eq. 5 by dividing the equation into three separate parts, where the first part is valid for materials showing no Lüders behavior, the second part is valid for Lüders strains below 1%, and the third part is valid for larger Lüders strains up to 5%. This partitioning of Eq. 5 helps estimating the CTOD more precisely for various levels of Lüders strain. The proposed relation for b as a function of σ_y/σ_0 is shown in Fig. 8 together with the values for b according to the fitting of Eq. 4 to the numerical results.

Based on the values for d found by fitting Eq. 4 to the numerical results, the following relation is proposed:

$$d = \begin{cases} -0.51 \left(\frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_0}\right)^2 + 1.97 \frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_0} + 4.52 & \text{if } 0 \leq \varepsilon_L < 1\% \\ -0.33 \left(\frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_0}\right)^2 + 1.17 \frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_0} + A & \text{if } 1\% \leq \varepsilon_L \leq 5\% \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

where d is a function of yield strength normalized by the reference stress of 420 MPa. d is dependent on the amount of Lüders strain, and A is a function of Lüders strain. Similar to Eq. 5, the partitioning of Eq. 6 into two Lüders strain ranges helps estimating the CTOD more precisely for various levels of Lüders strain. Based on the fitting of Eq. 6 to the values for d found by fitting Eq. 4

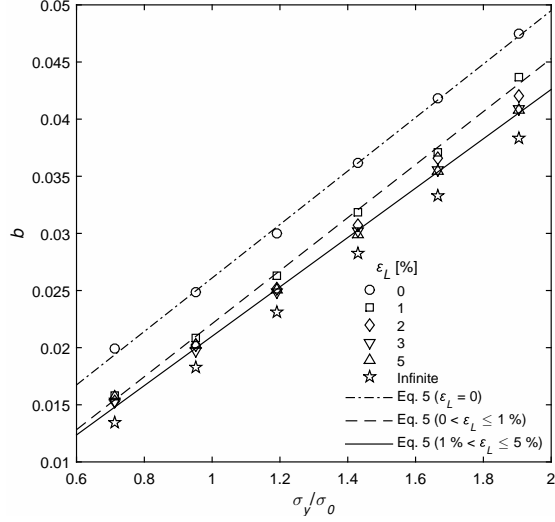


Figure 8: Proposed relations according to Eq. 5 as a function of yield strength normalized by a reference stress of 420 MPa together with the values for the b -parameter obtained by fitting the proposed relation in Eq. 4 to the numerical results shown in Figs. 6 and 7.

to the numerical results, the following relation between A and ε_L is proposed:

$$A = \frac{6.025}{1 + 0.106 \exp(-58\varepsilon_L)} \quad (7)$$

The proposed relation between A and ε_L is shown in Fig. 9 together with
 195 the values for A , which were found by fitting the relation from Eq. 7 to the numerical results. The proposed relation for d in Eq. 6 using the calculated values for A according to Eq. 7 is shown in Fig. 10 as a function of yield stress normalized by the reference stress together with the values for d according to the fitting of Eq. 4 to the numerical results.

200 The model described by the proposed relations in Eqs. 4, 5, 6 and 7 are compared to numerical results by coupling the model to the effect of temperature on the tensile properties. This is done by varying the yield strength and Lüders strain in the model material according to Eqs. 1 and 2 respectively at four different temperatures. The temperatures used are the same as during the
 205 experimental tensile tests in [9]. The comparison between the estimated and the numerical results is shown in Fig. 11, where the normalized CTOD is plotted

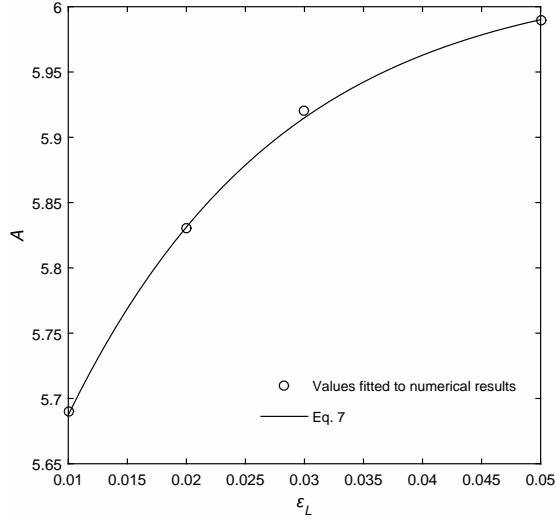


Figure 9: Comparison between Eq. 7 and the values for A from the fitting of Eq. 6 to the numerical results.

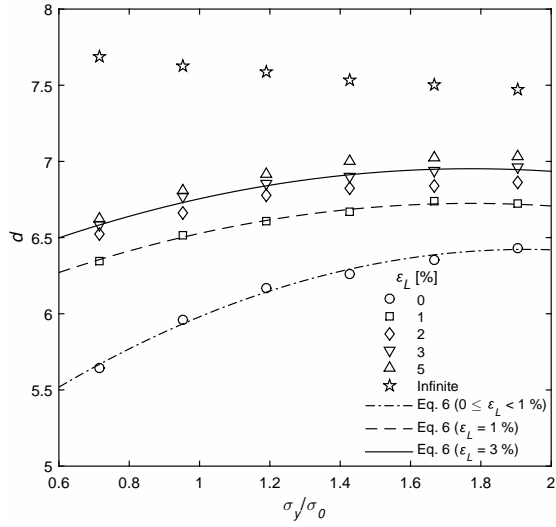


Figure 10: Proposed relations according to Eqs. 6 and 7 as a function of yield strength normalized by a reference stress of 420 MPa together with the values for the d -parameter obtained by fitting the proposed relation in Eq. 4 to the numerical results shown in Figs. 6 and 7.

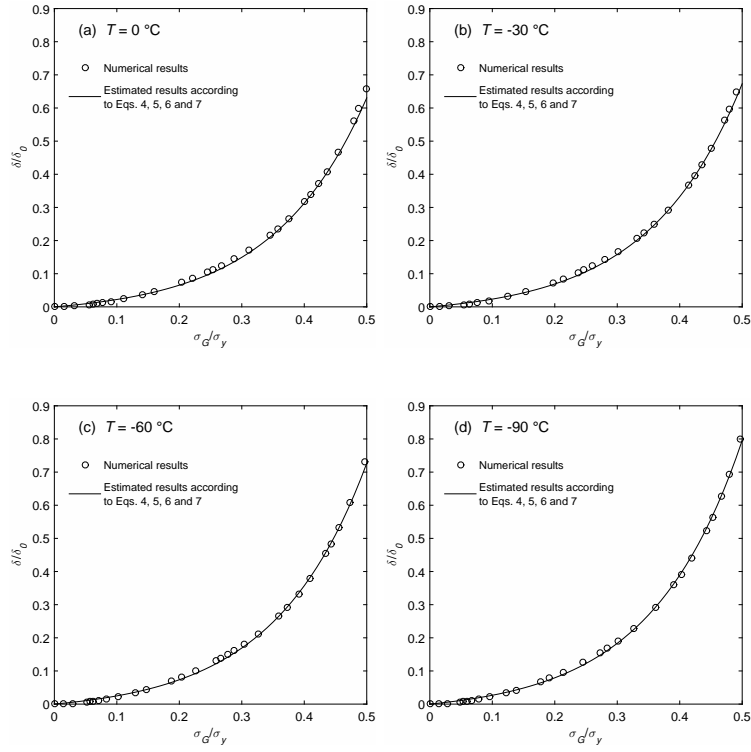


Figure 11: Proposed temperature dependent relation according to Eqs. 4, 5, 6 and 7 between CTOD and applied gross stress level in the SENT specimen compared to numerical results at (a) 0 °C, (b) -30 °C, (c) -60 °C and (d) -90 °C.

versus the applied gross stress level. The estimated results for the four different temperatures are compared in Fig. 12. The gross stress levels are calculated as the gross stress divided by the estimated yield stresses according to Eq. 1 at
 210 the respective temperatures.

Figs. 11 and 12 indicate that the proposed relations can be used to estimate the CTOD at different temperatures quite accurately for the material model used in this study. The proposed CTOD model utilizes known temperature dependent behavior of the yield strength and Lüders strain to estimate the
 215 CTOD in a SENT specimen at different temperatures and gross stress levels. The model may also be modified to estimate the CTOD for other geometries,

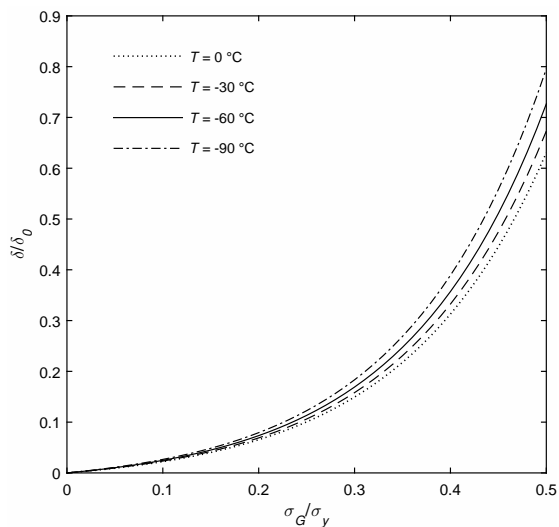


Figure 12: Comparison between CTOD curves estimated using the proposed CTOD model at four different temperatures.

such as for cracks in pipelines in Arctic conditions. The model should also be sufficient to use for other similar materials if their tensile behavior is comparable and the effect of temperature on the tensile behavior is known.

220 5. Conclusion

The effects of temperature dependent tensile properties on the crack driving force in a SENT specimen have been studied numerically, and an approximate model that predicts the CTOD based on tensile properties, temperature and loading is proposed. The SENT specimen studied has crack depth $a/W = 0.5$,
 225 and the material model is based on experimental results. The gross stress levels applied in this work are $\sigma_G/\sigma_y \leq 0.5$.

The yield strength and Lüders strain are both usually increasing with decreasing temperature. In this work it is shown that increasing yield strength results in increased crack driving force in terms of CTOD for given gross stress
 230 levels. It is also shown that increasing Lüders strain results in increased CTOD. The crack driving force is thus increasing with decreasing temperature at given

gross stress levels.

The proposed approximate CTOD model is based on the numerical results, and it is found to give quite accurate results when compared to numerical results using the same geometry, loading and material model as used in this work. The model may also be modified to predict the CTOD for other similar geometries and materials at different temperatures. This can for instance make it useful in estimating the CTOD based on temperature and loading for a crack in a pipeline in Arctic conditions.

The topics of this work can be further studied, where by other things the effect of geometry and crack tip constraint on the proposed model can be investigated, as only one geometry was studied in this work. This may result in a universal model that can be used to predict the crack driving force for many different geometries and applications. Also the effect of plastic hardening behavior can be studied in more detail, as this work only considers a single hardening curve for all material models.

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