The effect of crack surface interaction on the stress intensity factor in Mode III crack growth in round shafts

A. Vaziri 1, H. Nayeb-Hashemi *

Department of Mechanical, Industrial and Manufacturing Engineering, Northeastern University, Boston, MA 02115, USA

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Abstract

Turbine-generator shafts are often subjected to a complex transient torsional loading. Such transient torques may initiate and propagate a circumferential crack in the shafts. Mode III crack growth in turbo-generator shafts often results in a fracture surface morphology resembling a factory roof. The interaction of the mutual fracture surfaces results in a pressure and a frictional stress field between fracture surfaces when the shaft is subjected to torsion. This interaction reduces the effective Mode III stress intensity factor.

The effective stress intensity factor in circumferentially cracked round shafts is evaluated for a wide range of applied torsional loading by considering a pressure distribution between mating fracture surfaces. The pressure between fracture surfaces results from climbing of asperities respect to each other. The pressure profile not only depends on the fracture surface roughness (height and width (wavelength) of the peak and valleys), but also depends on the magnitude of the applied Mode III stress intensity factor. The results show that asperity interactions significantly reduce the effective Mode III stress intensity factor. However, the interactions diminish beyond a critical applied Mode III stress intensity factor. The critical stress intensity factor depends on the asperities height and wavelength. The results of these analyses are used to find the effective stress intensity factor in various Mode III fatigue crack growth experiments. The results show that Mode III crack growth rate is related to the effective stress intensity factor in a form of the Paris law.

Keywords: Turbo-generator shafts; Transient torsional loading; Circumferential crack; Crack growth; Crack surfaces interaction; Effective stress intensity factor

1. Introduction

Circumferential cracks may initiate and propagate in turbine-generator shafts as they are often subjected to a complex transient torsional loading (Mode III) [1]. The experimental investigations have shown that the Mode III crack growth in a shaft could be very tortures, resulting in a crack front segmentation, often

*Corresponding author. Tel.: +1-617-373-5515; fax: +1-617-373-2921.
E-mail address: hamid@coe.neu.edu (H. Nayeb-Hashemi).
1 Current address: Division of Engineering and Applied Sciences, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA 02138, USA.
called a factory roof fracture surface. The fracture surface roughness depends on the material micro-
structure, the material yield strength, and the applied cyclic torque amplitude [1–12]. For a shaft subjected
to high cyclic torque amplitude, the fracture surface is macroscopically flat. However, at low cyclic torque
amplitude, the fracture surface consists of peaks and valleys resembling a factory roof. In contrast to Mode
I crack growth, where there is little crack surface interaction, Mode III crack surfaces interact in a com-
plicated manner. Crack surface interaction occurs when macroscopically rough crack surfaces are displaced
relative to one another in shear. The contacting peaks and valleys of opposing crack surfaces interact
through some combination of sliding, climbing, sticking, slipping and deforming [2]. Nayeb-Hashemi et al.
[3,4] showed that Mode III crack growth rate could decrease substantially under a constant cyclic torque, in
contrast to Mode I crack growth, which accelerates under a constant cyclic opening load. This was
attributed to the change in the crack growth morphology, from a macroscopically flat fracture surface to a
rough fracture surface, which causes the interaction of mating fracture surfaces. In later papers [5,6], it was
shown that superimposing a static axial load on the cyclic Mode III component decreased the crack surface
interactions and increased the crack growth rate.

There are a number of papers on the criteria for the crack front segmentations for a cracked structure
subjected to Mode I, II, and III loadings [13–16]. The simplest theory is that the crack front tends to rotate
in the direction of maximum principal stress [13,14], Mode I direction. Lazarus et al. [15,16] in a series of
papers developed criteria for crack front rotation and segmentation in brittle materials under mixed Mode
I + III or I + II + III conditions. A qualitative explanation of segmentation in Mode I + III, based on the
energetic theory of fracture was presented. It was shown that a suitable energy release rate criteria was able
to predict the crack front rotation. However, they have apparently ignored the crack surfaces interactions
in deriving the crack front rotation criteria. The crack front rotation could be obtained by considering the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nomenclature</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$a$ radius of uncracked region</td>
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<tr>
<td>$b$ crack length</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$F$ uniformly distributed dummy normal force at $x_1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$E'$ material elastic constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$G$ material shear modulus</td>
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<tr>
<td>$h$ asperity height</td>
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<tr>
<td>$K_{eff}$ effective stress intensity factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$K_{III}$ applied stress intensity factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$K_{fric}$ frictional stress intensity factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R$ shaft radius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T$ applied torque</td>
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<tr>
<td>$x_1$ extent of the crack surface interaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$u_1$ axial crack opening displacement at the point $x_1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$u_3(x)$ Mode III crack displacement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\alpha$ asperity angle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\mu$ friction coefficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\lambda$ asperity wavelength</td>
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<tr>
<td>$\sigma_0$ normal stress at the crack tip, Case A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\sigma_y$ material yield stress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Gamma$ effective frictional coefficient</td>
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<tr>
<td>$\mathcal{L}$ energy release rate</td>
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superposition of applied Mode I and Mode I resulting from the crack surfaces interaction. Since the contribution of Mode I stress intensity factor stemming from the crack surface interactions changes during cyclic torsion, it is a difficult task to predict crack angle rotation using this theory.

Gross and Mendelsohn [17–19] developed an elastic plastic model to understand the crack surface interactions in Mode III crack growth. The normal contact pressure, which arises when the macroscopically rough fracture surfaces displace respect to each other, was obtained by modeling the crack surface interactions as edge dislocations. The pressure distribution along the crack surface was obtained by considering the crack opening in Mode I and the crack sliding in Mode III. The shear displacement of the crack surfaces along with the normal pressure result in a frictional torque, thus reducing the Mode III stress intensity factor at the crack tip. However, the proposed pressure distribution functions apparently result in a singular function and in some cases could not be utilized to find the normal pressure distribution on the crack surfaces.

The purpose of the work described in this paper is to obtain the effective Mode III stress intensity factor in circumferentially cracked shafts with a factory roof fracture surface subjected to a torsional loading. The model is based on a fracture surface covered with asperities with small height and wavelength. The analysis incorporates asperity-interlocking mechanism in determining the frictional Mode III stress intensity factor. Furthermore, the results of this investigation have been used in modeling the dynamic response of the cracked shafts subjected to cyclic torsion [20].

2. Theoretical investigation

Schematic diagram of a cylindrical bar with a circumferential crack subjected to a torque, \( T \), is shown in Fig. 1. The shaft material is considered linear elastic–perfectly plastic. Fig. 2 shows a typical fracture surface pattern in a shaft with a circumferential crack when subjected to low and high cyclic torque amplitudes. At low cyclic Mode III stress intensity factor amplitude, the crack growth generates a factory

![Fig. 1. Schematic model of a cylinder bar with a circumferential crack under torsion.](image)
rooffracturesurface. The height and wavelength of these asperities depend on the applied stress intensity factor, specimen geometry and material properties. This crack pattern results in interaction between crack surfaces, which decreases the effective stress intensity factor when the shaft is subjected to a torsional loading, Fig. 3. The effective stress intensity factor, \( K_{\text{eff}} \) can be stated as,

\[
K_{\text{eff}} = K_{\text{III}} - K_{\text{fric}}
\]

where \( K_{\text{III}} \) is the applied stress intensity factor by ignoring the crack surfaces interaction. \( K_{\text{fric}} \) is the frictional stress intensity factor, which is generated by the interaction of mating fracture surfaces. For a circumferentially cracked cylinder, \( K_{\text{III}} \) is given as [21],

\[
K_{\text{III}} = \frac{2T\sqrt{1 - \gamma}}{\sqrt{\pi R^{2.5}a^{2.5}}} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{2} \gamma + \frac{3}{8} \gamma^2 + \frac{5}{16} \gamma^3 + \frac{35}{128} \gamma^4 + 0.208 \gamma^5 \right]
\]

where

\[
\gamma = \frac{a}{R}
\]

In order to find the frictional stress intensity factor, the extent of the crack surface interaction, \( x_1 \) and resulted interaction pressure between mating fracture surfaces must be known, Fig. 4. The extent of the crack surface interaction depends on the applied torque amplitude and the asperity height and wavelength. For very small cyclic torque amplitude, the entire crack surfaces may interact. However, for larger torque amplitude only a segment of the crack may interact. The pressure distribution resulting from this interaction also depends on the asperities height and wavelength. Possible pressure profiles along the crack.
surfaces are presented in Fig. 4. In Fig. 4A, it is assumed that the pressure varies linearly from the maximum at the crack tip to zero at \( x = x_1 \) and the maximum pressure is less than the material yield stress, \( \sigma_y \). This assumption is based on the previous investigations [19], which it was shown that the largest normal pressure developed very close to the crack tip. In this case, for the sake of simplicity, it is assumed pressure to vary linearly along the crack. For some asperities roughness and wavelength, the maximum pressure may become equal to the material yield stress. For this case the pressure distribution is assumed to be that of Fig. 4B. In this case, the pressure is equal to the material yield stress from the crack tip to a point, \( x_2 \), then it decreases linearly to zero at the point \( x_1 \). Fig. 4C indicates a uniform pressure distribution equal to the material yield stress. A particular pressure distribution depends on the applied torque and the fracture surface roughness. For small applied torques, the pressure distribution shown in Fig. 4A is expected to develop between the fracture surfaces. However, for high applied torques, the asperities are expected to slide over each other and may deform permanently, the pressure distribution shown in Fig. 4C is expected to develop between the fracture surfaces. For a moderate torque, the pressure distribution shown in Fig. 4B is expected to be present between the fracture surfaces. The extent of the crack surface interaction and the possible pressure profile could be evaluated by considering the crack opening and sliding displacements in Modes I and III. These could be obtained by considering that the Mode III crack displacement at the point...
is equal to half wavelength, $\lambda/2$ ($\lambda$ is the average wavelength, Fig. 3) and the crack opening displacement at this point is equal to the asperity height $h$. The Mode III crack displacement can be presented as [17],

$$u_3(x) = \frac{2K_{\text{eff}}}{G\sqrt{\pi b}} (b^2 - x^2)^{0.5}$$

(4)

The extent of the crack surface interaction, $x_1$, can be obtained from Eq. (4),

$$x_1 = b\sqrt{1 - \frac{\pi G^2 \lambda^2}{16K_{\text{eff}}^2}}$$

(5)

It is assumed that there is no interaction between the crack surfaces for $x < x_1$. This assumption can be justified by considering that the Mode I displacement is greater than the asperity height for $x < x_1$. The frictional stress intensity factor can be evaluated from [18],

$$K_{\text{fric}} = -\left(\frac{b}{\pi}\right)^{0.5} \int_0^b \frac{I \sigma(x)}{(b^2 - x^2)^{0.5}} dx$$

(6)

where $\sigma(x)$ is the pressure distribution between the fracture surfaces and $I$ is the effective friction coefficient given as [18],

$$I = \frac{\tan \alpha + \mu}{1 - \mu \tan \alpha}$$

(7)

where $\mu$ is the friction coefficient between the sliding asperities and $\alpha$ is the asperity angle, defined in Fig. 3.

For a distributed pressure between the crack surfaces the crack opening displacement at the point $x_1$ is evaluated utilizing the Catligliano’s theorem by applying a dummy uniform circumferential normal load at this point, Fig. 5. The energy release rate $\mathcal{L}$, can be presented as

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{E'} (K_{\text{IP}} + K_{\text{IF}})^2$$

(8)

where $K_{\text{IP}}$ is the stress intensity factor for the normal pressure distribution between the fracture surfaces and $K_{\text{IF}}$ is the stress intensity factor for the circumferential distributed normal force $F$ at $x_1$. $E'$ is the elastic constant depending on the state of stress in the structure (plane stress or plane strain). The axial crack opening displacement at the point $x_1$ can be presented as,
\[ u_1 = - \frac{2}{(R-x_1)E} \left[ \int_{x_1}^{b} dx \int_{x}^{b} K_{IP}(R-b) \left( \frac{\partial K_{IF}}{\partial F} \right) db \right] \]  

For a circumferentially cracked cylindrical bar, the stress intensity factors \( K_{IP} \) and \( K_{IF} \) are given as [21],

\[ K_{IP} = 2\pi \sigma(x)(R-x) \left( \frac{\pi(R-b)}{\pi(R-b)} \right)^{1.5} \left\{ \cos^{-1} \frac{R-b}{R-x} + \frac{R-b}{\sqrt{(R-x)^2 - (R-b)^2}} \right\} \]  

and

\[ K_{IF} = 2\pi F(R-x_1) \left( \frac{\pi(R-b)}{\pi(R-b)} \right)^{1.5} \left\{ \cos^{-1} \frac{R-b}{R-x_1} + \frac{R-b}{\sqrt{(R-x_1)^2 - (R-b)^2}} \right\} \]

Substituting for the pressure distribution from Fig. 4A into Eq. (9) results in,

\[ u_1 = - \frac{8\sigma_0}{\pi E} \chi_1(R,b,x_1) \]  

where \( \chi_1(R,b,x_1) \) is defined in Eq. (A.2). \( \sigma_0 \) and \( x_1 \) can be evaluated by considering that, \( u_1(x_1) = h \), and \( u_3(x_1) = \lambda/2 \).

\[ \sigma_0 = - \frac{h\pi E'}{8\chi_1(R,b,x_1)} \]

The frictional stress intensity for this case can be presented as,

\[ K_{fric} = \left( \frac{b}{\pi} \right)^{0.5} \frac{h\pi E' \Gamma}{8\chi_1(R,b,x_1)(b-x_1)} \int_{x_1}^{b} \frac{(x-x_1)}{(b^2-x^2)^{0.5}} dx \]

The crack opening displacement for the pressure distribution shown in Fig. 4B, can be presented as

\[ u_1 = - \frac{8\sigma_2}{\pi E' \chi_2(R,b,x_1,x_2)} \]

where \( x_1 \), and \( x_2 \) can be evaluated again by considering that \( u_1(x_1) = h \), and \( u_3(x_1) = \lambda/2 \). The resisting stress intensity factor for this case is,

\[ K_{fric} = - \left( \frac{b}{\pi} \right)^{0.5} \Gamma \sigma y \left[ \frac{1}{x_2-x_1} \int_{x_1}^{x_2} \frac{x-x_1}{(b^2-x^2)^{0.5}} dx + \int_{x_2}^{b} \frac{1}{(b^2-x^2)^{0.5}} dx \right] \]

For the pressure distribution shown in Fig. 4C, it is assumed that some of the asperities are deformed at relatively large Mode III displacement. For this case, the asperity height at point \( x_1 \) is unknown. However, the Mode III displacement is still equal to \( \lambda/2 \). The frictional stress intensity for this case can be presented as,

\[ K_{fric} = - \left( \frac{b}{\pi} \right)^{0.5} \Gamma \sigma y \int_{x_1}^{b} \frac{1}{(b^2-x^2)^{0.5}} dx = - \left( \frac{b}{\pi} \right)^{0.5} \Gamma \sigma y \left( \frac{\pi}{2} - \arctan \left( \frac{x_1}{\sqrt{b^2-x_1^2}} \right) \right) \]

The pressure distribution parameters are obtained by simultaneously satisfying the Mode I crack opening displacement and Mode III crack displacement at the point \( x_1 \). This requires solution of a set of nonlinear equations. An algorithm is developed to solve these equations, Fig. 6. The pressure distribution parameters may not be found from this algorithm, if the applied torque is small. This may suggest that the
Mode III crack mouth displacement is less than half of the asperity wavelength. In this case, an experimental data regarding Mode III crack mouth displacement is required in order to obtain the pressure profile parameters. Since the set of equations for the Mode I and Mode III crack displacements are nonlinear, it is possible that the solution results in two possible pressure profiles (Cases A and B), Fig. 4. A conservative approach for estimating the fatigue life of a shaft should be based on a pressure profile with a lower frictional stress intensity factor.

3. Results and discussions

Table 1 shows the mechanical properties of the steel specimen used in this theoretical investigation. The effects of various geometrical parameters on the effective Mode III stress intensity factor are investigated for the shaft subjected to a wide range of applied Mode III stress intensity factor.

Fig. 7 shows the effective Mode III stress intensity factor vs. the applied (theoretical) Mode III stress intensity factor for a shaft with the radius of 10 cm and fracture surface roughness of \( \lambda = 100 \, \mu m \) and \( h = 10 \, \mu m \). The results indicate that for the applied stress intensity factor of less than 50 MPa\(\sqrt{m}\), the pressure interaction of the form presented in Fig. 4A is expected between mating fracture surfaces. The results also

| Table 1 |
| Material properties of models |
| Material | 4140 steel, in annealed condition | Elastic modulus | 200 GPa |
| Poisson’s ratio | 0.3 | Yield stress | 420 MPa |
demonstrate a significant reduction in the applied stress intensity factor due to the crack surfaces interaction. This result is in agreement with the experimental data where it was observed that the crack growth rate progressively decreased despite of increasing the crack length, for a specimen subjected to constant cyclic torque amplitude [3,4]. For the applied stress intensity factor of 50–61.5 MPa√m, the pressure distribution shown in Fig. 4B governs the interaction pressure. The crack surfaces could be assumed interlocked as long as either \( x_1 \) or \( x_2 \) are less than the crack length (Fig. 4 (Cases A and B)) which results in a significant reduction in the effective stress intensity factor. For the applied stress intensity factor greater than 61.5 MPa√m, there is almost no interaction between fracture surfaces. It can be assumed that \( x_1 \) approaches the crack length. In this case, there is no locking mechanism preventing Mode III crack sliding. This results in a sudden burst in the Mode III crack sliding. Here again the experimental data shows a high crack growth rate for this range of applied stress intensity factor, indicating little crack surface interaction [4,5]. The critical stress intensity factor for no crack interaction depends on the asperities height and wavelength. Fig. 8 shows that the critical stress intensity factor decreases with reduction of the asperity height. The results also indicate that for an applied stress intensity factor of less than the critical stress intensity factor, the frictional stress intensity is moderately reduced with reduction of the asperity height.

![Diagram](image1.png)

**Fig. 7.** Effective Mode III stress intensity factor vs. the applied Mode III stress intensity.

![Diagram](image2.png)

**Fig. 8.** Effective Mode III stress intensity factor vs. the applied Mode III stress intensity factor for various asperities heights.
The effect of the crack length on the critical stress intensity factor is shown in Fig. 9. The results show that the critical stress intensity factor is little sensitive to the crack length. This result could be justified by considering that the crack surface interaction effectively prevents the Mode III crack sliding, thus providing an interlocking mechanism between fracture surfaces, as if there is no crack. Furthermore the results indicate that for small crack length, the only way to open the crack surfaces more than the asperities height is by deforming the asperities. However, for a longer crack length, it is possible to open the crack surfaces more than the asperities height without deforming them.

The above analytical results are utilized to evaluate the effective Mode III stress intensity factor in AISI 4140 round specimens subjected to various cyclic torque amplitudes (Fig. 10). The detail of the experiment can be obtained in Nayeb-Hashemi et al. [3,4]. The corresponding fatigue crack growth rate data versus the applied stress intensity factor shows a chaotic trend [3,4]. However, using the above analyses, the same crack growth rate data versus the effective stress intensity factor exhibit the general Paris fatigue crack growth rate behavior (Fig. 10). As we mentioned before, the asperities height and wavelength depend on the applied stress intensity factor. Here, we used $\lambda = 100 \mu m$ and $h = 10 \mu m$. These asperities dimensions are consistent with the observed asperities dimensions in the fatigue fracture surface of specimens subjected to
this range of applied stress intensity factor. The crack growth data is presented as a function of effective Mode III stress intensity factor rather than an effective crack driving force considering both Mode I and III stress intensity factors. This again could be justified considering that the experiments are conducted under cyclic torsion. Mode I is induced as a result of crack surface interactions. Since the material is elastic perfectly plastic, the normal stress in the plastic zone relaxes as the applied torque increases. This results in a damage mechanism at the crack tip which is mainly controlled by the cyclic torsion. For these reasons, we believed it is justified to consider effective Mode III stress intensity factor as the crack driving force.

4. Conclusions

The effects of Mode III crack surface interactions in circular shafts subjected to torsion on the effective stress intensity are investigated. The fracture surface is considered in a form of a factory roof, with asperities height of $h$ and wavelength of $\lambda$. The mutual sliding interactions of these asperities results in a pressure and a frictional stress fields between fracture surfaces. Three cases of pressure distributions are taken into consideration. The pressure distribution parameters are obtained by considering both crack opening displacements in Mode I and III. Based on these analyses it was found:

1. Fracture surface interaction in circumferentially cracked shafts could result in a significant reduction in the effective Mode III stress intensity factor. The frictional stress intensity factor depends on the shaft radius, crack length, asperities height and wavelength and the shaft material properties.
2. The critical Mode III stress intensity factor is defined when asperities completely override each other. For applied Mode III stress intensity factors greater than this the critical value, there is a negligible crack surface interactions.
3. The critical stress intensity factor depends on the asperities height and wavelength. The critical stress intensity for complete sliding of the asperities over each other reduces with the reduction in the asperities height.
4. Mode III crack growth follows the Paris law when the effective stress intensity is considered in the crack driving force.

Appendix A

Case A. The normal stress is changing linearly from the maximum value of $\sigma_0 < \sigma_y$ at the crack tip to zero at $x_1$ (Fig. 4)

$$
\sigma(x) = \begin{cases} 
0, & 0 < x < x_1 \\
\sigma_0 \frac{x - x_1}{b - x_1}, & x_1 < x < b 
\end{cases}
$$

(A.1)

$\chi_1(R, b, x_1)$ in this case can be calculated from,

$$
\chi_1(R, b, x_1) = \left[ \int_{x_1}^{b} (R-x)(x-x_1)dx \int_{x}^{b} \frac{1}{(R-b)^2(b-x_1)} \left\{ \cos^{-1} \frac{R-b}{R-x_1} + \frac{R-b}{\sqrt{(R-x_1)^2 - (R-b)^2}} \right\} \right] db
$$

(A.2)
Case B. The normal stress is equal to the yield stress from the crack tip to a point at the distance \( x_2 \) from the crack tip from where it linearly decreases to zero at the point \( x_1 \).

\[
\sigma(x) = \begin{cases} 
0, & 0 < x < x_1 \\
\sigma_y \frac{x-x_1}{x_2-x_1}, & x_1 < x < x_2 \\
\sigma_y, & x_2 < x < b 
\end{cases}
\]  

(A.3)

\( \chi_2(R, b, x_1, x_2) \) in this case can be calculated from,

\[
\chi_2(R, b, x_1, x_2) = \left[ \int_{x_2}^{b} (R-x) \, dx \int_{x}^{b} \frac{1}{(R-b)^2} \left\{ \cos^{-1} \frac{R-b}{R-x_1} + \frac{R-b}{\sqrt{(R-x_1)^2-(R-b)^2}} \right\} \right. \\
\times \left\{ \cos^{-1} \frac{R-b}{R-x} + \frac{R-b}{\sqrt{(R-x)^2-(R-b)^2}} \right\} \, db + \int_{x_1}^{x_2} (R-x) (x-x_1) \, dx \int_{x}^{b} \frac{1}{(R-b)^2 (x_2-x_1)} \\
\left. \times \left\{ \cos^{-1} \frac{R-b}{R-x_1} + \frac{R-b}{\sqrt{(R-x_1)^2-(R-b)^2}} \right\} \, db \right] 
\]  

(A.4)

Case C. The normal stress is equal to the yield stress of the material along the interaction zone, \( x_1 \),

\[
\sigma(x) = \begin{cases} 
0, & 0 < x < x_1 \\
\sigma_y, & x_1 < x < b 
\end{cases}
\]  

(A.5)

References


