



**NTNU – Trondheim**  
Norwegian University of  
Science and Technology

# Enhanced Measurements of Large Deformations of Thermoplastics

**Olve Winjum**

Civil and Environmental Engineering

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Supervisor: Arild Holm Clausen, KT

Co-supervisor: Marius Andersen, KT

Norwegian University of Science and Technology  
Department of Structural Engineering





## MASTER THESIS 2014

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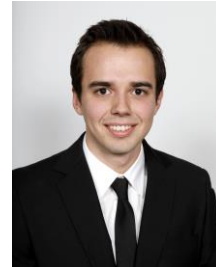
TITLE:

### **Enhanced measurements of large deformations of thermoplastics**

Forbedret måling av store deformasjoner av plastmaterialer

BY:

Olve Winjum



SUMMARY:

The purpose of this study is to evaluate a numerical material model for thermoplastics developed at SIMLab, NTNU. Several experimental tests, using both HDPE and PVC, were conducted in order to have a basis for calibrating the material model. The focus of this thesis has been on optimizing the methods for retrieving the results of the experimental tests and numerical simulations.

3D digital image correlation (DIC) was used to obtain the strains from the experimental tests. This proved very successful for the tension tests, but did not work well for longitudinal strains of the compression tests, which had to be calculated from the displacement. The 3D DIC analysis also allows for test specimens with circular cross sections to be used. These specimens proved to get better results than the quadratic specimens used in previous studies.

Obtaining the strains from the numerical simulations was done by two different methods. One method was getting the strains directly from all the elements in one cross section; the other was calculating the strains from the displacement of the nodes on the surface of the specimen. This last method is equivalent to the DIC analysis, and resulted in a better match between the experimental and simulation results of the tension tests.

The numerical model was largely able to reproduce the results of the experimental tests. The biggest problem seems to stem from the simulations having a higher strain rate than the experimental tests.

RESPONSIBLE TEACHER: Professor Arild Holm Clausen

SUPERVISOR(S): Arild Holm Clausen, Marius Endre Andersen

CARRIED OUT AT: Simlab, NTNU



# MASTER THESIS 2013

Olve Winjum

## Pressure sensitivity of thermoplastics

(Trykkavhengighet av plastmaterialer)

As a part of the development of the finite element method, significant effort has been devoted to propose new material models which are able to represent the material behaviour at different conditions. Relevant parameters involve strain level, strain rate, temperature, and the material at hand may also exhibit anisotropy, viscoelasticity etc. Unlike metals, a particular feature with most polymer materials is that they exhibit pressure sensitivity, i.e. the yield stress is larger in compression than in tension. In a material model, the yield stress is represented with a yield criterion. Moreover, the subsequent plastic deformation after onset of yielding is also dependent on the pressure level in polymers. This is mathematically described with a flow potential. The pressure sensitivity is also linked to possible change of volume in the material during plastic deformation.

The intention with this master thesis is to explore different aspects related to pressure sensitivity from both an experimental and a modeling point of view. Applying a material model developed at SIMLab, a function proposed by Raghava and co-workers is employed for both the yield criterion and plastic potential. Moreover, the entropy-elastic part of the total deformation is also significant for polymers. The candidate shall evaluate how the contributions from elasticity, yield function and plastic potential in the model are able to represent observed physical behaviour. Special attention will be paid to tests in compression. Careful experimental tests are required for the addressed investigation, calling for precision measurements of the strains at large deformations.

Possible keywords for activities in this master thesis research work may include:

- Literature: Polymers in general, material models, pressure sensitivity
- Experimental tests: Material tests. Presentation and interpretation of test results
- Numerical modelling: Simulation of experimental tests. Evaluation of the model

The candidate may agree with the supervisors to pay particular attention to specific parts of the investigation, or include other aspects than those already mentioned.

The thesis is to be organized as a research report, recognising the guidelines provided by Department of Structural Engineering.

Supervisors: Arild Holm Clausen and Marius Andersen

The report is to be handed in not later than 15 January 2014.

NTNU, 21 August 2013

Arild Holm Clausen



## **Abstract**

The purpose of this study is to evaluate a numerical material model for thermoplastics developed at SIMLab, NTNU. Several experimental tests, using both HDPE and PVC, were conducted in order to have a basis for calibrating the material model. The focus of this thesis has been on optimizing the methods for retrieving the results of the experimental tests and numerical simulations.

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Obtaining the strains from the numerical simulations was done by two different methods. One method was getting the strains directly from all the elements in one cross section; the other was calculating the strains from the displacement of the nodes on the surface of the specimen. This last method is equivalent to the DIC analysis, and resulted in a better match between the experimental and simulation results of the tension tests.

The numerical model was largely able to reproduce the results of the experimental tests. The biggest problem seems to stem from the simulations having a higher strain rate than the experimental tests.





## Sammendrag

Hensikten med denne studien er å evaluere en numerisk materialmodell for plastmaterialer utviklet ved SIMLab, NTNU. Flere eksperimentelle tester, med både HDPE og PVC, ble utført som en basis for kalibrering av materialmodellen. Fokus for denne oppgaven har vært på optimaliseringen av metoder for å hente ut resultatene fra eksperimentelle tester og numeriske simuleringer.

3D digital bilde korrelasjon (DIC) ble anvendt for å hente ut tøyningene fra de eksperimentelle testene. Dette viste seg å være svært vellykket for strekktestene, men fungerte ikke så bra for lengdetøyningene i kompresjonstestene, som måtte beregnes ut fra forskyving. 3D DIC analyse gjør det også mulig å benytte prøvestykker med sirkulært tverrsnitt. Disse prøvestykkene viste seg å gi bedre resultater enn de kvadratiske prøvestykkene brukt i tidligere studier.

Uthenting av tøyninger fra de numeriske simuleringene ble gjort med to forskjellige metoder. En metode var å få tøyningene direkte fra alle elementene i et tverrsnitt; den andre var å beregne tøyningene fra forskyvningen av nodene på overflaten av prøven. Denne siste metoden er ekvivalent med DIC analyse, og ga bedre samsvar mellom resultatene fra de eksperimentelle og simulerte strekktestene.

Den numeriske modellen var i stor grad i stand til å reprodusere resultatene fra de eksperimentelle testene. Det største problemet synes å stamme fra at simuleringene har en høyere tøyningshastighet enn de eksperimentelle testene.



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## Acknowledgements

This master thesis was written at Structural Impact Laboratory at Norwegian University of Science and Technology, NTNU, as part of a larger study on a numerical material model for polymers.

I would like to thank my supervisor Professor Arild Holm Clausen for his guidance and support in the process of writing this thesis. Also, Ph.D. candidate Marius Andersen deserves thanks, his tutoring throughout the work has been vital.

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Trondheim, 13th January, 2014

Olve Winjum



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# Chapter 1

## Introduction

Due to their relatively low strength, polymers have historically been used mostly for packaging, and not as a structural material. More recently, however, polymers have also come into use for structural purposes. The low weight of polymers have made them attractive materials for many industries. Using additives, the material properties of polymers can also be changed in order to meet specific needs.

In order to study the material behavior of polymers, NTNU's Structural Impact Laboratory (SIMLab) has developed a numerical material model for polymers in the finite element program LS-DYNA. This thesis will use experimental results to calibrate the parameters in the material model, and try to reproduce the experimental tests using numerical simulations. Experimental tests using two different materials, high-density polyethylene (HDPE) and polyvinyl chloride (PVC), have been carried out. The study will focus on determining the most accurate ways to evaluate the results of both experiments and simulations.

The report will start with theory on polymers in general, the material model used in this study and the method of determining the strains of the experimental tests. Then, the testing procedure and the results from the tests are presented. A description of how the material model was calibrated from the experimental results is then given. Next, the numerical simulations are presented. And lastly, a conclusion and suggestions to further work is given.





# Chapter 2

## Theory

This chapter will present the theory behind the experiments and analyses performed in this study. First is a description of polymers, especially focusing on the two materials tested in this study. Then, an explanation is given of the material model used for the numerical simulations in Chapter 6. Lastly, a presentation of digital image correlation will be given; this is a method used for obtaining strains from the experimental tests.

### 2.1 Polymers

This section will give an introduction to polymers in general, with extra details about high-density polyethylene (HDPE) and polyvinyl chloride (PVC), the two materials used in this study. The information here is largely based on two books, where Ram[1] explains the polymerization process, and Rösler et al.[2] describes the material behavior.

Polymers are large macromolecules that consist of long chains of identical parts called mers. Mers are made from monomers, which are molecules that are able to go through the process of polymerization. To do this, the molecule must have either a covalent double bond or two functional groups.

Monomers with two functional groups, e.g. one hydroxyl (OH) group and one carboxyl (COOH) group, go through a process called stepwise polymerization. This process is characterized by condensation reactions between the molecules. The functional groups react and are bound together, also creating  $H_2O$  as a byproduct. At the start of the stepwise polymerization process, many small chains of two to four mers are created. Since there are always functional groups at both ends of every chain, these smaller chains can connect to make longer chains.

The monomers with covalent double bonds are created by a different process, called chain polymerization, characterized by addition reactions. These reactions are initiated by adding a chemical with a free radical to the monomers. This chemical can react with a monomer by breaking the double bond, and at the same time create a free radical on the monomer. This can in turn attach itself to another monomer by breaking its double bond. Thus, the monomers are added to the chain one by one. The addition reactions do not create any byproducts.

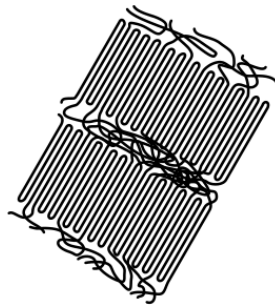
## 2.1. POLYMERS

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Ethylene is the simplest form of a monomer with a covalent double bond. It consists of two carbon atoms with a double bond between them, and two hydrogen atoms bound to each carbon atom. Ethylene is the basis of a whole group of monomers, called vinyls. All vinyls have the same molecular structure as ethylene, except that one of the hydrogen atoms is substituted by either another atom or a whole group, e.g.  $\text{CH}_3$  which results in propylene.

Polymer chains can consist up to several thousand mers. The average chain length is a measure of the degree of polymerization. Polymers can be divided into three main groups, thermoplastics, elastomers and thermosets. Elastomers and thermosets also have covalent bonds between the chains, which inhibits almost all relative movement of the chains. This gives these polymers a rubbery effect, and no plastic deformation is possible. The two materials tested in this study are both thermoplastics, and have therefore no cross-bonds between the chains.

A property that is unique to thermoplastics, due to the lack of cross-bonds, is crystallinity. This means that the polymer chains in some areas of the material fold up neatly and get more tightly packed here than in other parts. It is impossible to achieve full crystallinity, and there will always be some areas with an amorphous structure. Figure 2.1 illustrates this, with two crystalline areas and an amorphous part in between. A high degree of crystallinity increases both the stiffness and the yield strength of the material.



*Figure 2.1: Crystalline polymer[2]*

Even though thermoplastics do not form cross-bonds between the chains, they can have shorter branches going off the main stem of the molecule. More branches means less crystallinity, as the chains are not able to form the regular structure of crystalline materials. This results in a more amorphous structure, which gives the material lower stiffness and strength, but higher ductility.

There are two sources of elastic resistance in polymers. At small deformations, the van der Waals or hydrogen bonds between the chains accounts for most of the resistance.

At larger deformations, straightening of the molecule chains causes an increased resistance. During elastic deformation the points of entanglement between the chains remains the same, as illustrated in Figure 2.2. Since the chains have not moved in relation to each other, this deformation is completely reversible.

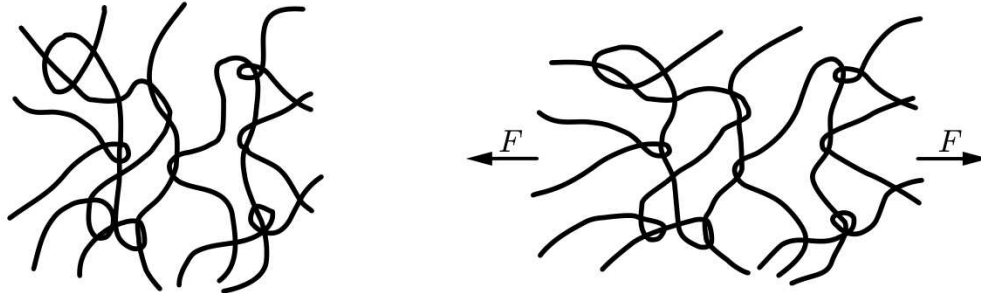


Figure 2.2: Elastic deformation of a polymer[2]

The plastic deformation starts when the forces are so large that the polymer chains start sliding relative to each other. Figure 2.3 shows a polymer chain inside a larger polymer structure. Due to the dense structure around the chain, the angles of the atoms in the molecule have to go through a reconfiguration in order to move in relation to the other chains. As seen in Figure 2.4, a rotation of the polymer chains demands an energy potential to be passed in order to reach a new stable configuration. This type of deformation is plastic, and will not be reverted when the material is unloaded.

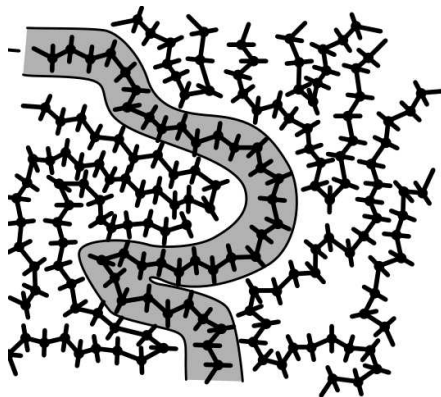


Figure 2.3: A polymer chain[2]

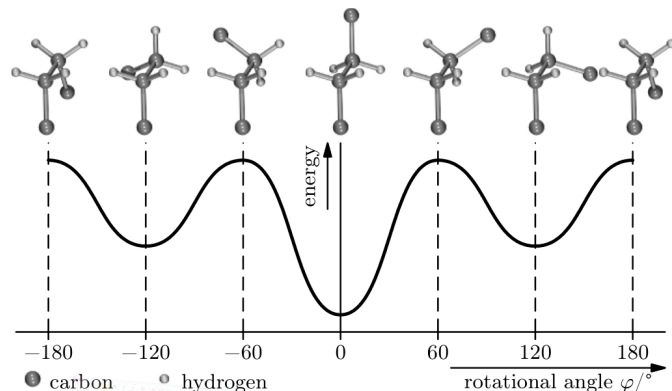


Figure 2.4: Potential energy of different chain configurations[2]

If a polymer is subjected to tensile stress, as seen in Figure 2.5, a region with an initial weakness will reach yielding first. The polymer chains in this region will start to straighten out and glide past each other. The material will then start necking, concentrating the stress in this region. Further yielding is also helped by a rise in temperature due to friction between the chains.

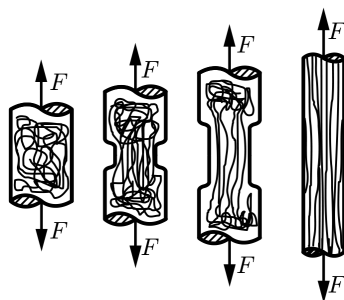


Figure 2.5: Propagation of neck[2]

When the chains at the neck are straightened out in the tensile direction, the stiffness in this region increases. The capacity of the covalent bonds in the chains is much higher than the intermolecular resistance. Further straightening the chains at both ends of the neck therefore requires less energy than breaking the already straight parts of the chains. This causes the neck to propagate along the material until all the polymer chains are stretched in the tensile direction.

### 2.1.1 High-density polyethylene

High-density polyethylene (HDPE) is made through polymerization of ethylene. Figure 2.6 shows the molecular structure of these compounds.

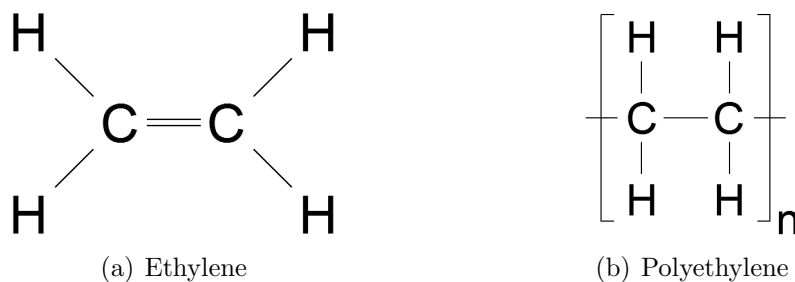


Figure 2.6: Molecular structures of ethylene and polyethylene

HDPE consists of long chains with very few branches. This allows for a very high degree of crystallinity, up to 80-90%. The chains are packed very tightly, hence the high density. The high degree of crystallinity makes HDPE stiffer and stronger than other types of polyethylene with more branches on the chains, but the ductility is somewhat reduced.

### 2.1.2 Polyvinyl chloride

Polyvinyl chloride (PVC) is made through polymerization of vinyl chloride. This is a vinyl where one hydrogen atom of ethylene is substituted by a chloride atom, as seen

in Figure 2.7.

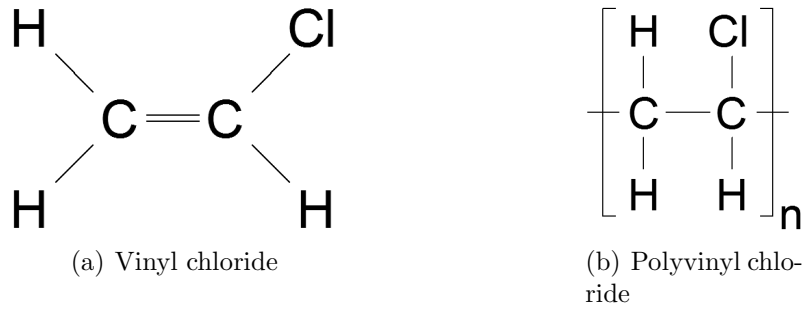


Figure 2.7: Molecular structures of vinyl chloride and polyvinyl chloride

The substitution of hydrogen for chloride causes the polymer chains to have a much higher polarity. This means that the forces between the chains become stronger and give the material a higher stiffness and yield strength.

## 2.2 Material model

The material model used for the numerical simulations in Chapter 6 was developed by Polanco-Loria et al.[3] at SIMLab. It is described by the rheological model in Figure 2.8. This section will describe the equations and principles behind the model; it is based on the description of the model by Polanco-Loria et al. and previous work done by Hovden[4].

The resistance is split into two parts; part A describes the intermolecular resistance, while part B describes the resistance due to orientation of the polymer network. Part A of the rheological model consists of an elastic spring describing the initial stiffness, a friction element describing yielding and plastic flow, and a dashpot describing the rate dependence. Part B consists of a spring that has an evolving resistance due to molecular orientation.

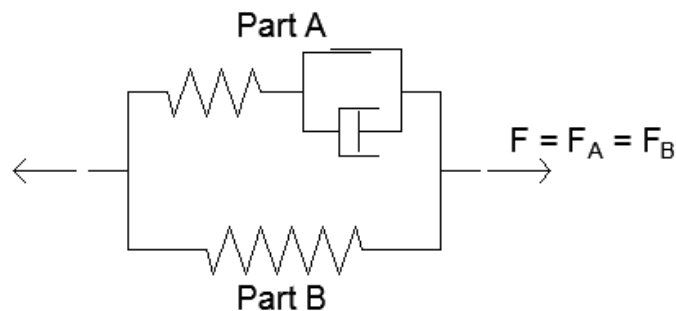


Figure 2.8: Rheological model

## 2.2. MATERIAL MODEL

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From the rheological model, it can be seen that the deformation gradient is the same for both parts:

$$\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{F}_A = \mathbf{F}_B \quad (2.1)$$

This means that the volume change, given as the determinant of the deformation gradient, is also the same for both parts:

$$J_A = J_B = J = \det \mathbf{F} \quad (2.2)$$

The Cauchy stress tensor is obtained by summing the contributions from the two parts:

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \boldsymbol{\sigma}_A + \boldsymbol{\sigma}_B \quad (2.3)$$

The stress-strain curve for each part, and the combined curve is shown in Figure 2.9. The dashed lines illustrate an extra effect of hardening or softening in the material that can occur after yielding.

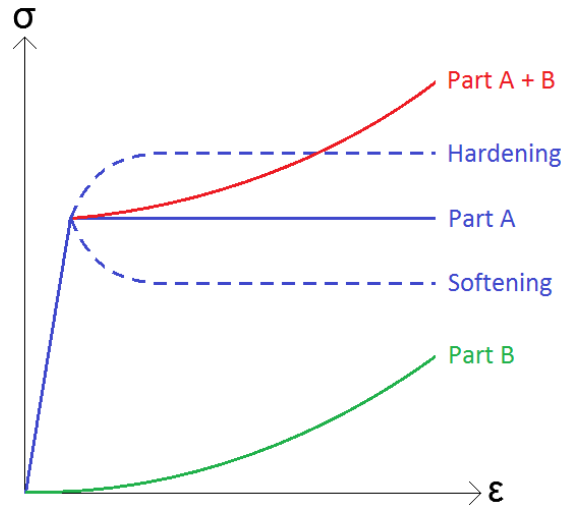


Figure 2.9: Stress-strain curve of each part

### 2.2.1 Part A: Intermolecular resistance

The spring in part A, is defined by two elastic parameters  $\lambda_0$  and  $\mu_0$ . These can be determined starting with the elastic constitutive law in terms of the Kirchhoff stress  $\boldsymbol{\tau}_A$ , defined by

$$\boldsymbol{\tau}_A = \lambda_0 \ln J_A^e \mathbf{I} + \mu_0 (\mathbf{B}_A^e - \mathbf{I}) \quad (2.4)$$

which relates to the Cauchy stress according to Equation (2.5)

$$\boldsymbol{\tau}_A = J_A^e \boldsymbol{\sigma}_A \quad (2.5)$$

Combining Equations (2.4) and (2.5) yields

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma}_A = \frac{\lambda_0}{J_A^e} \ln J_A^e \mathbf{I} + \frac{\mu_0}{J_A^e} (\mathbf{B}_A^e - \mathbf{I}) \quad (2.6)$$

where  $\mathbf{I}$  is the second-order unit tensor, and  $\mathbf{B}_A^e = \mathbf{F}_A^e (\mathbf{F}_A^e)^T$  is the left Cauchy-Green deformation tensor.  $\lambda_0$  and  $\mu_0$  are the Lamé constants, and can be substituted by Young's modulus  $E$  and Poisson's ratio  $\nu$  through Equations (2.7) and (2.8) [5]

$$\lambda_0 = \frac{\nu E}{(1 + \nu)(1 - 2\nu)} \quad (2.7)$$

$$\mu_0 = \frac{E}{2(1 + \nu)} \quad (2.8)$$

The friction element in part A, which controls yielding in the material, is governed by Equation (2.9)

$$f_A = \bar{\sigma}_A - \sigma_T - R(\varepsilon_A^p) = 0 \quad (2.9)$$

Each term in this expression will be explained in the following text. The yield criterion used is one proposed by Raghava[6]; this criterion has been shown to be accurate for polymers in uniaxial and biaxial tension, and in bending[4][7]. The Raghava yield function is given as

$$(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2 + 2(|\sigma_C| - |\sigma_T|)(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2 + \sigma_3) = 2|\sigma_C \sigma_T| \quad (2.10)$$

where  $\sigma_1$ ,  $\sigma_2$  and  $\sigma_3$  are the three principal stresses, and  $\sigma_C$  and  $\sigma_T$  are the yield stresses in compression and tension respectively.

The first principal invariant of the total stress  $I_1$ , and the second principal invariant of the deviatoric stress  $J_2$  are defined by Equations (2.11) and (2.12) [5]

$$I_1 = \sigma_1 + \sigma_2 + \sigma_3 \quad (2.11)$$

$$J_2 = \frac{1}{6} [(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2] \quad (2.12)$$

Introducing these into Equation (2.10), it can be rewritten as

$$3J_2 + (|\sigma_C| - |\sigma_T|) I_1 = |\sigma_C \sigma_T| \quad (2.13)$$

A parameter  $\alpha$  is defined as the ratio between the yield stresses in compression and tension

$$\alpha = \left| \frac{\sigma_C}{\sigma_T} \right| \geq 1 \quad (2.14)$$

Equation (2.13) can now be further simplified to

$$\alpha \sigma_T^2 - (\alpha - 1) I_1 \sigma_T - 3J_2 = 0 \quad (2.15)$$

## 2.2. MATERIAL MODEL

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The yield criterion can then be written on the form

$$f_A(I_1, J_2) = \alpha\sigma_T^2 - (\alpha - 1)I_1\sigma_T - 3J_2 = \bar{\sigma}_A - \sigma_T = 0 \quad (2.16)$$

where  $\bar{\sigma}_A$  is the equivalent stress defined by

$$\bar{\sigma}_A = \frac{(\alpha - 1)I_{1A} + \sqrt{(\alpha - 1)^2 I_{1A}^2 + 12\alpha J_{2A}}}{2\alpha} \quad (2.17)$$

The yielding follows a non-associated flow rule with a plastic potential  $g_A$  which has an expression similar to the equivalent stress in Equation (2.17). It is given as

$$g_A = \frac{(\beta - 1)I_{1A} + \sqrt{(\beta - 1)^2 I_{1A}^2 + 12\beta J_{2A}}}{2\beta} \quad (2.18)$$

where the parameter  $\beta \geq 1$  controls the volumetric plastic strain.

An alteration to the Raghava yield criterion is introduced by adding an option of hardening or softening after yielding[4]. This behavior is governed by two parameters, the saturation stress  $\sigma_S$  and a ramping parameter  $H$  which controls the material behavior between  $\sigma_T$  and  $\sigma_S$ . These parameters are implemented into the model by the expression

$$R(\varepsilon_A^p) = (\sigma_S - \sigma_T) [1 - \exp(-H\varepsilon_A^p)] \quad (2.19)$$

where  $\varepsilon_A^p$  is the plastic strain in part A. It can be seen from Equations (2.9) and (2.19) that a higher  $\sigma_S$  than  $\sigma_T$  means there is hardening in the material after yielding, while a  $\sigma_S$  lower than  $\sigma_T$  means the material softens after yielding. This is illustrated in Figure 2.10. The parameter  $H$  is here shown determining the radius of the curve between  $\sigma_T$  and  $\sigma_S$ .



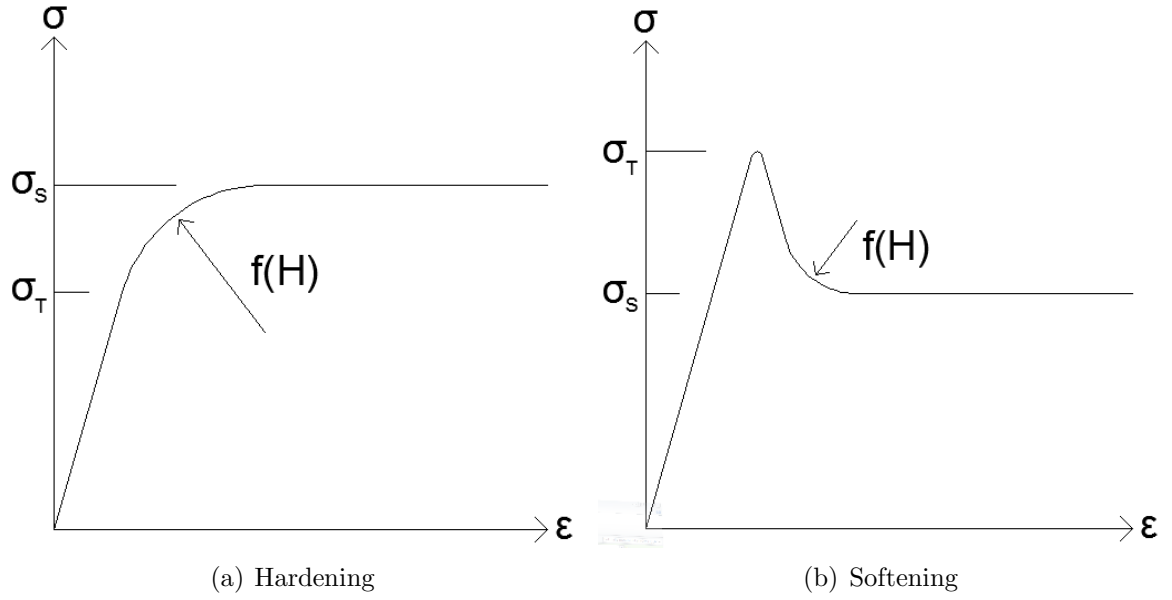


Figure 2.10: Illustration of the hardening/softening parameters  $\sigma_S$  and  $H$

The dashpot in part A controls the strain rate dependence of the material. The plastic strain rate is found from Equation (2.20)

$$\dot{\epsilon}_A^p = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } f_A \leq 0 \\ \dot{\epsilon}_{0A} \left\{ \exp \left[ \frac{1}{C} \left( \frac{\bar{\sigma}_A}{\sigma_T} - 1 \right) \right] - 1 \right\} & \text{if } f_A > 0 \end{cases} \quad (2.20)$$

where  $f_A$  is the yield criterion from Equation (2.9). The two parameters that has to be determined are a reference strain rate  $\dot{\epsilon}_{0A}$  and a temperature-dependent strain rate sensitivity parameter  $C$ . These can easily be obtained from experimental tests with varying strain rates.

## 2.2.2 Part B: Network resistance

The spring in part B represents the resistance of the molecular network as the molecule chains are stretched out in the tensile direction. The elastic constitutive law in terms of the Kirchhoff stress  $\boldsymbol{\tau}_B$  is defined as

$$\boldsymbol{\tau}_B = \frac{C_R \bar{\lambda}_L}{3 \bar{\lambda}} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left( \frac{\bar{\lambda}}{\bar{\lambda}_L} \right) (\mathbf{B}_B^* - \bar{\lambda}^2 \mathbf{I}) + \kappa (\ln J_B) \mathbf{I} \quad (2.21)$$

The parameter  $\kappa$  is a bulk modulus mostly used when simulating materials like rubber, it will therefore be set equal to zero and not used any further in this thesis. Since the relation between Kirchhoff and Cauchy stress given in Equation (2.5) also can be

used for part B, the Cauchy stress is given as

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma}_B = \frac{C_R}{3J_B} \frac{\bar{\lambda}_L}{\bar{\lambda}} \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left( \frac{\bar{\lambda}}{\bar{\lambda}_L} \right) (\mathbf{B}_B^* - \bar{\lambda}^2 \mathbf{I}) \quad (2.22)$$

$\mathbf{B}_B^* = \mathbf{F}_B^* (\mathbf{F}_B^*)^T$  is here the distortional left Cauchy-Green deformation tensor, and  $\mathbf{F}_B^* = J_B^{-1/3} \mathbf{F}_B$  is the distortional part of  $\mathbf{F}_B$ .  $J_B$  is the Jacobian from Equation (2.2), and  $\mathcal{L}^{-1}$  is the inverse function of the Langevin function defined as

$$\mathcal{L}(x) = \coth x - \frac{1}{x} \quad (2.23)$$

$\bar{\lambda}$  is the distortional stretch and can be determined by

$$\bar{\lambda} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{3} \text{tr} (\mathbf{B}_B^*)} \quad (2.24)$$

The two remaining parameters that need to be determined through experimental tests are the initial stiffness of spring B, denoted  $C_R$ , and the locking stretch  $\bar{\lambda}_L$ .

### 2.2.3 Summary

All the parameters that have to be determined for the numerical material model are given in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Material parameters

<b>Part A parameters</b>	
<i>Spring</i>	
$E$	Young's modulus
$\nu$	Poisson's ratio
<i>Friction element</i>	
$\sigma_T$	Yield stress in tension
$\alpha$	Ratio of yield stress in compression and tension
$\beta$	Parameter controlling plastic volumetric strain
$\sigma_S$	Saturation stress
$H$	Ramping parameter between $\sigma_T$ and $\sigma_S$
<i>Dashpot</i>	
$\dot{\epsilon}_{0A}$	Reference strain rate
$C$	Strain rate sensitivity parameter
<b>Part B parameters</b>	
<i>Spring</i>	
$C_R$	Initial stiffness
$\lambda_L$	Locking stretch

In addition, LS-DYNA requires the shear modulus  $G$  and the bulk modulus  $K$  to be input into this material model. These values can be calculated directly from Young's modulus and Poisson's ratio using these equations:

$$G = \frac{E}{2(1 + \nu)} \quad (2.25)$$

$$K = \frac{E}{3(1 - 2\nu)} \quad (2.26)$$

## 2.3 Digital image correlation

This section will provide a description of digital image correlation (DIC), and how this can be used for obtaining the strains from the experimental tests. The DIC program used in this study is called eCorr and was developed by Egil Fagerholt[8] at SIMLab. Digital image correlation is in essence the tracking of random patterns over a series of digital images. Spray-painting the test specimens with a black and white spotted pattern, and then taking a series of pictures during the tests, allows DIC to be used to obtain the strains of the specimens.

Using DIC, each pixel of the images is given a grayscale value between 0 and 255. The program then uses a correlation function to minimize the difference in grayscale values between the current and reference images. The DIC program used in this study, eCorr, uses a "finite element" type of mesh. Every element of the mesh has four nodes with two degrees of freedom each, as illustrated in Figure 2.11. The deformation of an element is governed by eight parameters, one for each degree of freedom, that have to be optimized in the correlation function. Using this type of element ensures a continuity of the displacement across element boundaries.[8]

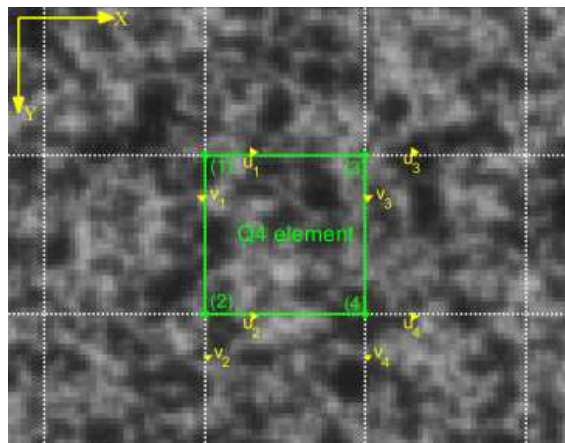


Figure 2.11: A  $Q_4$  element using the "finite element" DIC method[8]

### 2.3. DIGITAL IMAGE CORRELATION

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A new feature of eCorr is 3D DIC. This method uses two cameras directed at the specimen, and the parts of the surface that are picked up by both cameras can be analyzed using 3D DIC. Given a camera calibration with information about the distances and angles between the specimen and the cameras, the program can combine the images from the two cameras into a 3D representation of the specimen. This is very useful for specimens with curved surfaces, or for materials that show a significant necking.

After the DIC analysis is completed for the whole image series, the strain history of selected elements can be written to a text file by eCorr.

# Chapter 3

## Experimental testing

Experimental tests were performed in order to determine the parameters describing the material behavior. These parameters were later used to accurately recreate the experiments in a finite element method simulation program. This chapter will describe the testing procedure and present the results obtained from the tests.

### 3.1 Materials and geometry

For this thesis, two different materials were tested, high-density polyethylene (HDPE) and polyvinyl chloride (PVC). For each material, three different specimen geometries were used, two for uniaxial tension and one for uniaxial compression. The first tension geometry is shown in Figure 3.1(a). This specimen has a gauge length of 4 mm and a quadratic cross section with sides of 6 mm, and will be called TQ (tension quadratic) in this thesis.

From previous tests performed with the TQ geometry, it has been observed that the corners of the cross section show a stiffer behavior than the middle. A new cylindrical geometry, shown in Figure 3.1(b), was therefore tested in order to eliminate this behavior and get a more uniform strain state. It has a 4 mm gauge length and a circular cross section with a diameter of 6 mm, and is called TC (tension circular).

The specimen used for compression is shown in Figure 3.1(c), it is a cylinder of height 10 mm and diameter 8 mm. It will be called CC (compression circular) for short.

### 3.2. TEST SETUP

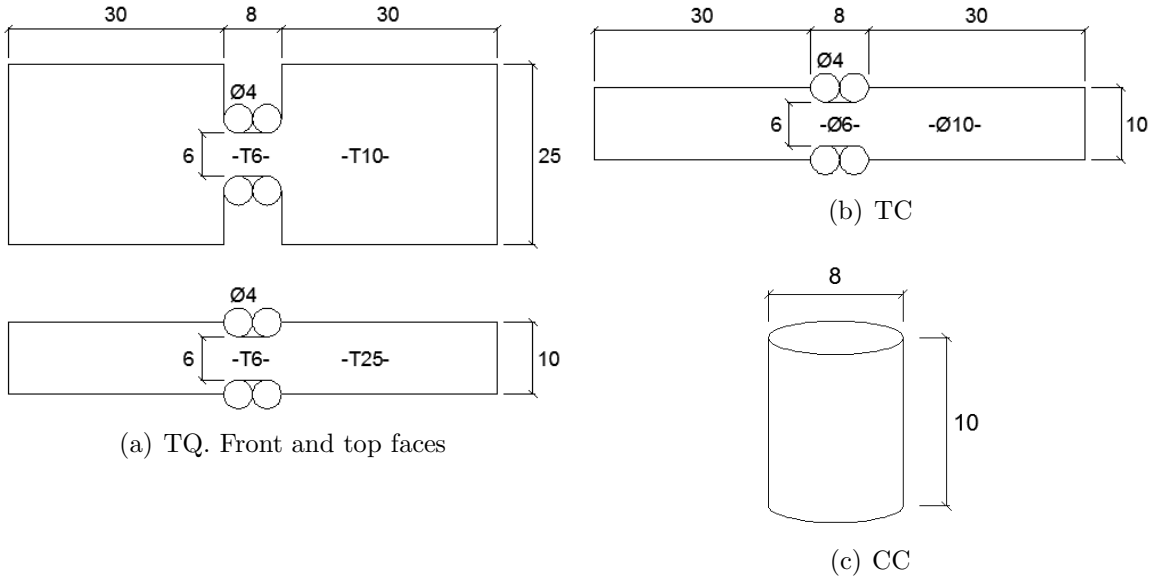


Figure 3.1: Geometries of test specimens

## 3.2 Test setup

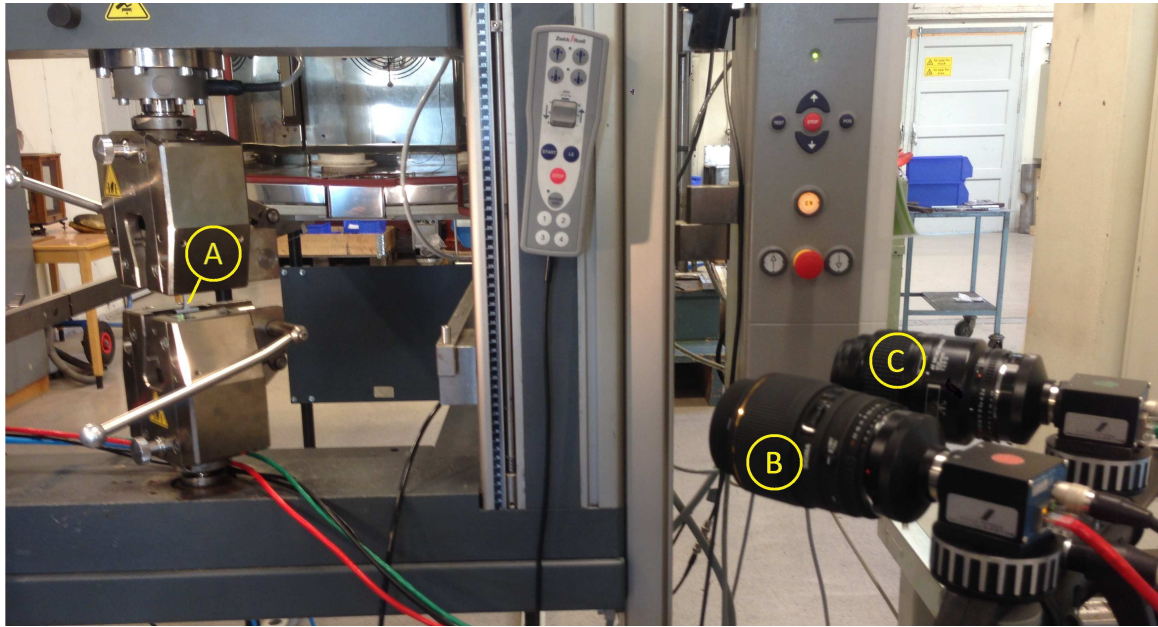
All tests were carried out on a ZWICK/ROELL Z030 test machine. Determining the rate of displacement the machine should be set to, an initial strain rate of  $\dot{\epsilon}_0 = 10^{-2.5} s^{-1}$  was chosen. Using Equation (3.1), the velocity of the machine could be determined.

$$V = L_0 \times \dot{\epsilon}_0 \quad (3.1)$$

where  $V$  is the velocity of the machine and  $L_0$  is the initial gauge length of the specimen. A gauge length of 4 mm for the tension tests yielded a displacement velocity of 0.013 mm/s, while the 10 mm gauge length of the compression tests gave a velocity of 0.032 mm/s.

Some of the tension test specimens were subjected to cyclic loading. When the machine reached a given displacement, the direction of the displacement was reverted, using the same speed as before. When the force was equal to zero, the direction would be reverted again, continuing to pull in the tensile direction. This thesis will primarily focus on the monotonically loaded tests, and not that much on the cyclic tests.

Before each test, the specimen was spray-painted with a black and white spotted pattern so that the strains could later be retrieved using digital image correlation (DIC), as explained in Section 2.3. Figure 3.2 shows the test specimen in the machine and the placement of the cameras used for 3D DIC.



*Figure 3.2: Camera setup for 3D DIC.*

*A: Test specimen*

*B: Camera 1*

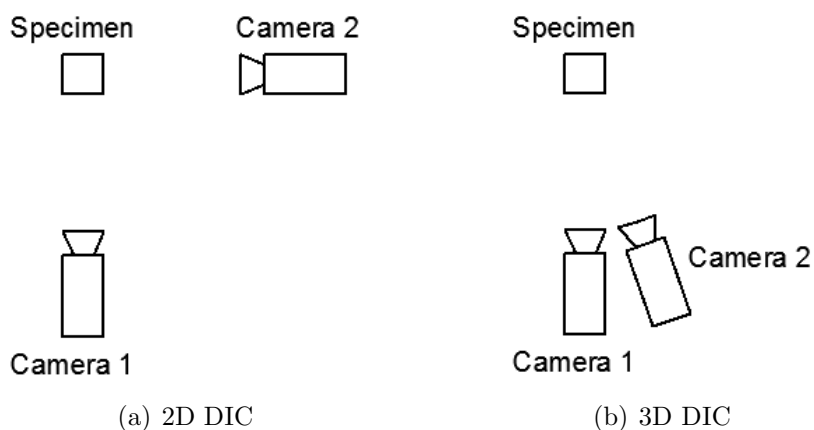
*C: Camera 2*

### 3.2.1 TQ

For HDPE, a total of six tests with geometry TQ were performed, with two different camera setups. The first four tests of the TQ specimens were performed with the two cameras directed at two perpendicular sides of the specimen. This would only allow for 2D DIC analysis to be performed on each side, but it would show if the non-quadratic handles of the specimens would affect the behavior of the sides of the gauge area. The last two tests were performed with two cameras directed at the same face of the specimens, this would allow for 3D DIC to be used for retrieving the strains of the specimens. Three of the tests were subjected to cyclic loading. The two camera setups are illustrated in Figure 3.3. Table 3.1 and Figure 3.4(a) shows which, and when loading was reverted.

### 3.2. TEST SETUP

---



*Figure 3.3: Camera setups*

*Table 3.1: HDPE TQ tests*

Test	DIC	Displacements where the loading was reverted
TQ-1	2D	Monotonic
TQ-2	2D	Monotonic
TQ-3	2D	36 mm
TQ-4	2D	5 mm, 15 mm, 25 mm, 35 mm
TQ-5	3D	Monotonic
TQ-6	3D	2.60 mm, 4.00 mm, 5.75 mm, 8.55 mm, 32.95 mm

Only the four first HDPE TQ tests were performed with cameras directed at two perpendicular sides. All other tests in this study had a camera setup for 3D DIC.

Five PVC tests with geometry TQ were performed. The first test did not have a satisfactory camera setup for DIC analysis and was therefore discarded. Of the four remaining tests, two were subjected to monotonic loading until failure and two were subjected to cyclic loading. Table 3.2 and Figure 3.4(b) shows the displacements where the loading was reverted for these tests. Based on the displacement at which the two monotonic tests reached failure, the last cycle was planned for around 9 mm. However, the cyclic tests failed long before the monotonic tests, and the last cycle could not be performed. The last cycle of test 5 was initiated after the force started dropping due to failure in the specimen.



Table 3.2: PVC TQ tests

Test	Displacements where the loading was reverted
TQ-2	Monotonic
TQ-3	Monotonic
TQ-4	1.2 mm, 1.8 mm, 2.5 mm, 4.0 mm
TQ-5	1.2 mm, 1.8 mm, 2.5 mm, 4.0 mm, 6.6 mm

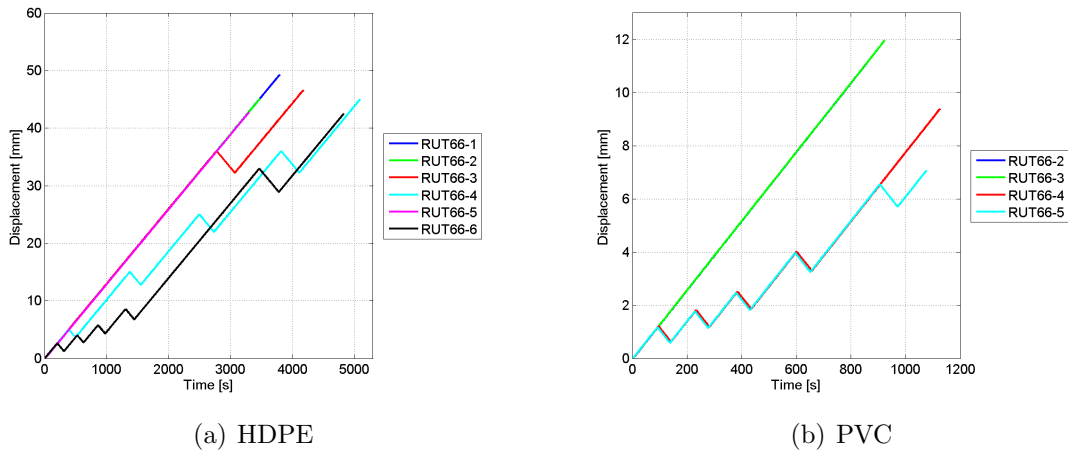


Figure 3.4: Displacement history of TQ tests

### 3.2.2 TC

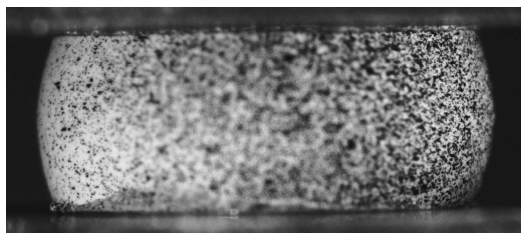
As this was a completely new specimen geometry, and there were only two specimens of each material, all tests were monotonically loaded until failure. It was preferable to have a backup monotonic test instead of running any cyclic tests with this geometry, in case the camera setup or lighting would disturb the DIC analysis.

### 3.2.3 CC

A problem with compression tests is the barreling effect. This happens because of the friction between the test machine and the specimen. The top and bottom of the specimen is held back from expanding in the transverse direction by this friction. The middle part of the specimen expands and gives it a barrel shape as seen in Figure 3.5. Several methods of reducing the friction by lubricating the specimen and machine have been tried, as is explained later in this section.

## 3.2. TEST SETUP

---



*Figure 3.5: Barreling*

Four PVC compression tests were performed. A displacement of about 7.35 mm were applied to all four specimens. The methods of reducing friction between the test machine and specimen is given in Table 3.3. Observing the two first tests, the edges of the specimens seemed to dig into the tape stuck to the machine. This could actually hold back the top and bottom faces from expanding, therefore one test with rounded edges was performed. As this did not make any noticeable difference, the last test was performed with the tape stuck directly onto the specimen.

*Table 3.3: PVC CC tests*

Test	Method of reducing friction
CC-1	Teflon tape on machine, oil on specimen
CC-2	Teflon tape on machine, oil on specimen
CC-3	Teflon tape on machine, oil on specimen, rounded edges
CC-4	Teflon tape on specimen

Three HDPE compression tests were performed. The method of reducing friction from the last PVC test of using teflon tape directly on the specimen worked quite well. All the HDPE tests have therefore been performed in this manner, in addition to lubricating the surfaces of the test machine with oil. All tests were loaded monotonically to a given displacement, at which point they were unloaded. Table 3.4 shows the maximum displacement of the different tests.

*Table 3.4: HDPE CC tests*

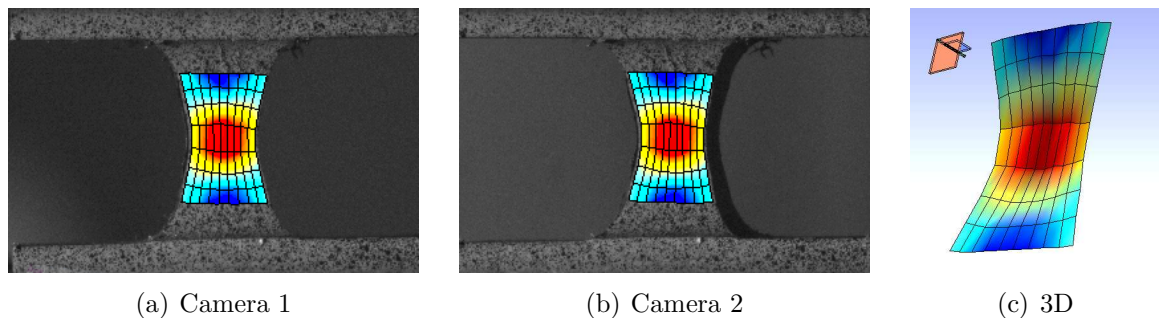
Test	Maximum displacement
CC-1	6.58 mm
CC-2	7.02 mm
CC-3	8.49 mm

### 3.3 Post-processing

For all the experimental tests, the procedure of obtaining the time histories of the displacement, force, strain and stress were done in a similar manner. The force and displacement were logged and written to a file by the test machine. The longitudinal and transverse strains were obtained using the DIC program eCorr. Later, the transverse strains from the DIC analysis were used to find the cross section area, and from this the stress was determined.

#### 3.3.1 DIC

This was the first time 3D DIC had been used with eCorr, but it worked very well. In addition to the usual 2D image results seen in Figures 3.6(a) and (b), these images were combined into a 3D representation of the specimen surface seen in Figure 3.6(c).



*Figure 3.6: Images from test HDPE TQ-5 and the resulting 3D strain field map*

As can be seen in Figure 3.6(c), 3D DIC captures the curvature away from the camera at necking, which cannot be picked up by a single camera. Especially for HDPE, where there is a significant contraction at necking, this difference can have a significant effect on the results.

For the tension tests, only the strains of the elements at the neck were used for further calculations. For the compression tests, some elements from the middle of the specimens were used, see Figure 3.7.

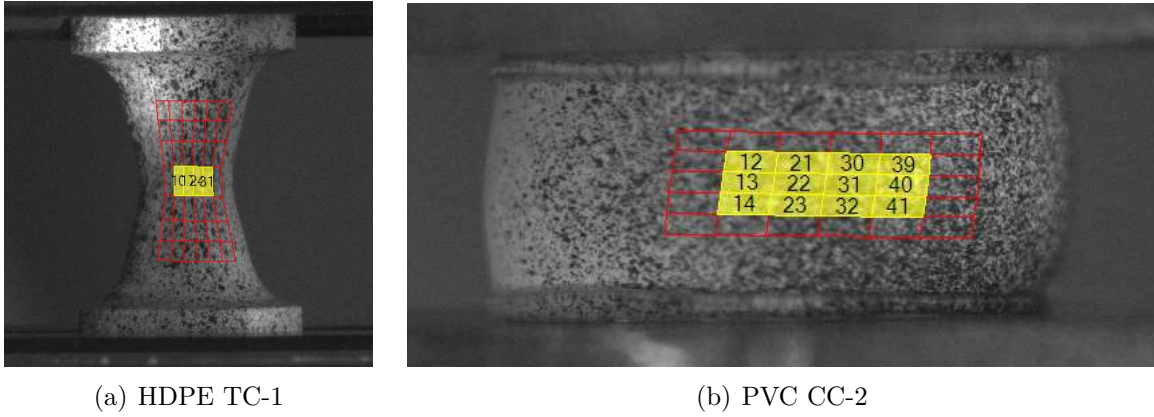


Figure 3.7: Elements from which strains were obtained

As far as it was possible, all 12 elements from Figure 3.7(b) were used. Towards the end of some of the tests, a few of these elements were extremely deformed because the program was not able to correctly track the pattern on the specimens. In these cases, only the elements that remained close to rectangular were selected.

The longitudinal strains  $\varepsilon_l$  and transverse strains  $\varepsilon_t$  from the selected elements were written directly to a text file by eCorr.

### 3.3.2 Further processing

After writing the longitudinal and transverse strains from eCorr to a file, Matlab was used to further process the results. The transverse strains were used to calculate a time history of the cross section area at necking. For the quadratic TQ geometry, Equation (3.2) was used.

$$A = d_0^2 \times e^{\varepsilon_t} \times e^{\varepsilon_t} \quad (3.2)$$

where  $d_0 = 6mm$  is the initial side length.

Deriving an equation for the area of the cylindrical specimens TC and CC started with the relation between the radius  $r$ , angle  $\theta$  and arc length  $S$ , given as:

$$r\theta = S \quad (3.3)$$

Assuming that the sector covered by the elements has a constant angle throughout the tests we get

$$\theta = \frac{S_0}{r_0} = \frac{S}{r} \quad (3.4)$$

where  $r_0$  and  $S_0$  are the initial radius and arc length respectively, see Figure 3.8

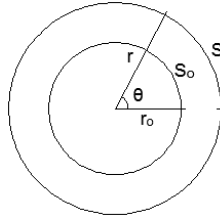


Figure 3.8: Variables in Equation (3.4)

The arc length  $S$  can be defined by the initial length multiplied by the transverse strain:

$$S = S_0 \times e^{\varepsilon_t} \quad (3.5)$$

Equation (3.4) can then be rewritten as:

$$\frac{S_0}{r_0} = \frac{S_0 \times e^{\varepsilon_t}}{r}$$

$$r = r_0 \times e^{\varepsilon_t} \quad (3.6)$$

From Equation (3.6), an equation for the cross section area is obtained:

$$A = \pi \times r_0^2 \times e^{\varepsilon_t} \times e^{\varepsilon_t} \quad (3.7)$$

where  $r_0 = 3mm$  and  $r_0 = 4mm$  are the initial radii of TC and CC respectively.

Using the force history taken directly from the test machine and the cross section area calculated from Equation (3.7), the true stress can be found using Equation (3.8)

$$\sigma = \frac{F}{A} \quad (3.8)$$

In order to determine the volumetric strain of the test, the area strain is first found using Equation (3.9)

$$\varepsilon_A = \ln \frac{A}{A_0} \quad (3.9)$$

Summing the longitudinal and area strains then gives the volumetric strain:

$$\varepsilon_V = \varepsilon_l + \varepsilon_A \quad (3.10)$$



# Chapter 4

## Results from experimental tests

In this chapter, the results of all the experimental tests will be presented, accompanied by short discussions. These results will provide the basis of the calibration of the numerical model, which will be explained in detail in Chapter 5.

### 4.1 HDPE

#### 4.1.1 Tension tests

The test setup for 2D DIC had two cameras directed at two perpendicular sides of the specimen. The most relevant result from these tests is whether the two perpendicular sides have the same behavior. Figure 4.1 shows curves of the transverse strain plotted against the longitudinal strain for two of the tests.

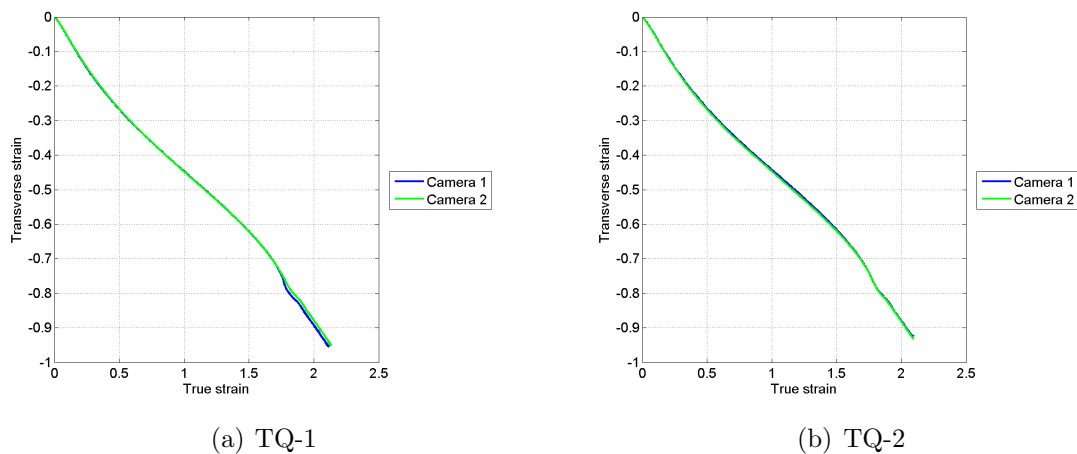


Figure 4.1: Transverse vs. longitudinal strains for perpendicular sides of two TQ specimens

The curves show that two perpendicular sides of the specimen deform identically, and that the gauge section's behavior is not affected by the shape of the handles of the specimen. This can therefore also be assumed for the 3D tests, where the cameras were directed at only one side.

The resulting force-displacement curves of all HDPE TQ tests are shown in Figure 4.2. For better visibility of the curves, they have been split into two plots, one

with the 2D tests and one with the 3D tests. There is practically no spread in the results of the monotonic tests.

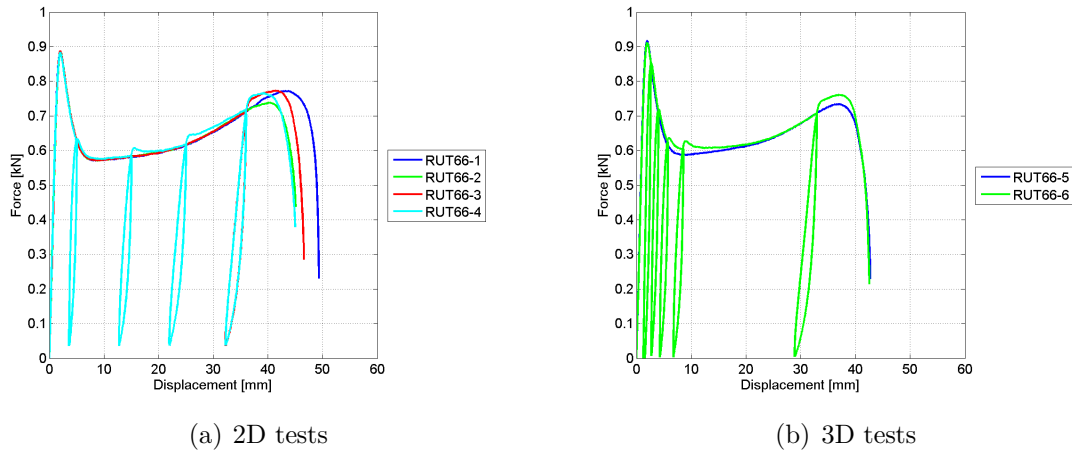


Figure 4.2: Force-displacement curves from HDPE TQ tests

For the cyclically loaded tests, the force is greater than that of the monotonic tests right after each cycle. After being stretched a bit further, the cyclic tests again stabilize exactly at the monotonic curve. All the tests also fracture at about the same displacement, so the unloading does not seem to affect the capacity of the material.

The stress-strain curves of the HDPE TQ tests are given in Figure 4.3. Comparing Figure 4.2(a) and 4.3(a), it can be seen that use of regular intervals of displacement for the unloading cycles yields a stress-strain curve where almost all cycles are pushed towards the end of the curve. Figure 4.4 was then used to determine which displacements would give a stress-strain curve where the cycles are evenly spread out. The 3D cyclic test TQ-6 was performed using these displacement values.



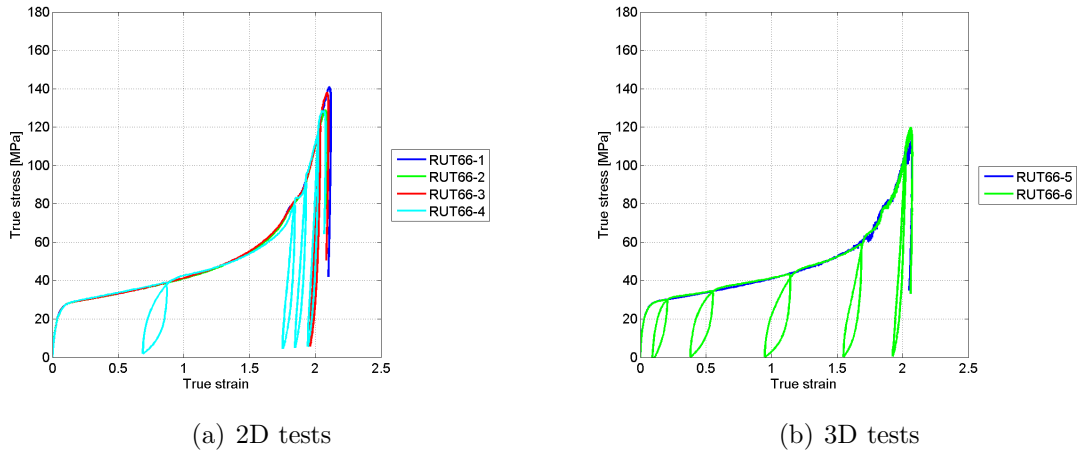


Figure 4.3: Stress-strain curves from HDPE TQ tests

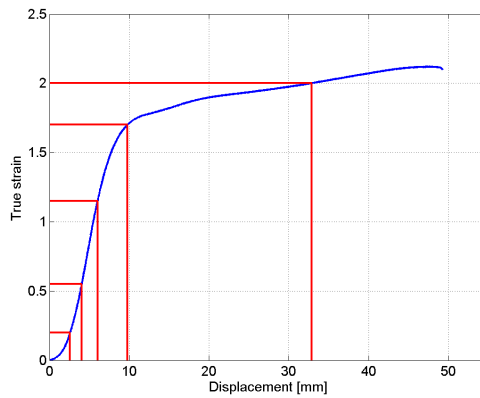


Figure 4.4: True strain plotted against displacement for TQ-1

The results of the HDPE TC tests are shown in Figure 4.5. The two tests have yielded exactly the same results, this indicates that the 3D DIC camera calibration is accurate and works very well for these cylindrical specimens. Since the initial cross section area of the TC geometry is smaller than that of TQ, these tests reach yielding at a lower force. But they also appear to reach a higher stress before failure than TQ did.

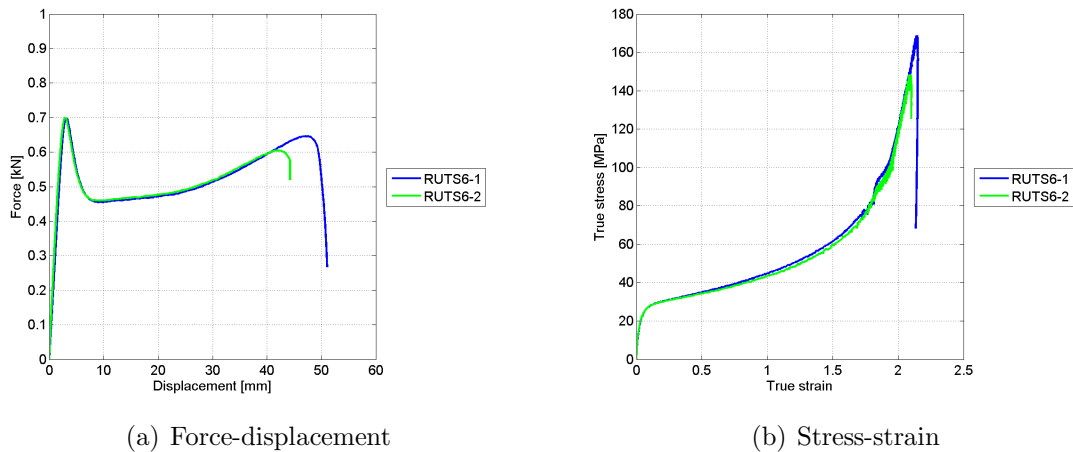


Figure 4.5: Force-displacement and stress-strain curves from HDPE TC tests

#### 4.1.2 Compression tests

The resulting force-displacement and stress-strain curves from the HDPE compression tests are shown in Figure 4.6.

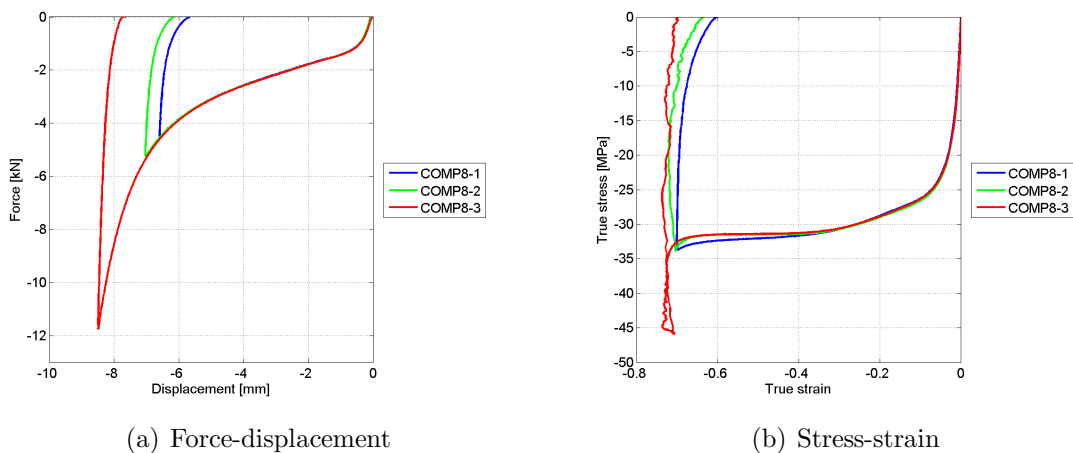


Figure 4.6: Force-displacement and stress-strain curves from HDPE compression tests

The first two tests were compressed from the initial 10 mm to about 3 mm in height, the last test was compressed to less than 2 mm in height. This difference doubled the maximum applied force. From the stress-strain curve, it can be seen that the strain does not increase at all due to the extra displacement in the last test; this can clearly not be true. A maximum strain of -0.7, which all three tests show, is also very small for a compression from 10 to 3 mm. Basing the strain on the displacement instead of

the DIC results, the maximum strain should in this case be:

$$\varepsilon = \ln \frac{L}{L_0} = \ln \frac{3}{10} = -1.2 \quad (4.1)$$

which is significantly larger than the strain of -0.7 obtained from the DIC analysis. Figure 4.7(a) shows the difference in the strain time history of the compression tests when the strains are based on the displacement compared to DIC analysis. Calculating the strain from the displacements, the maximum strain of the tests becomes larger, and they differ from each other based on how much the specimens were compressed. This makes a lot more sense than the strains all flattening out at -0.7, and a longitudinal strain measure based on the displacement will be used on the compression tests from here on. The area of the specimens will still be determined from the transverse strains obtained through DIC analysis.

New stress-strain curves, where the strain is determined using the displacement, are shown in Figure 4.7(b), also comparing them to the old curves based on DIC.

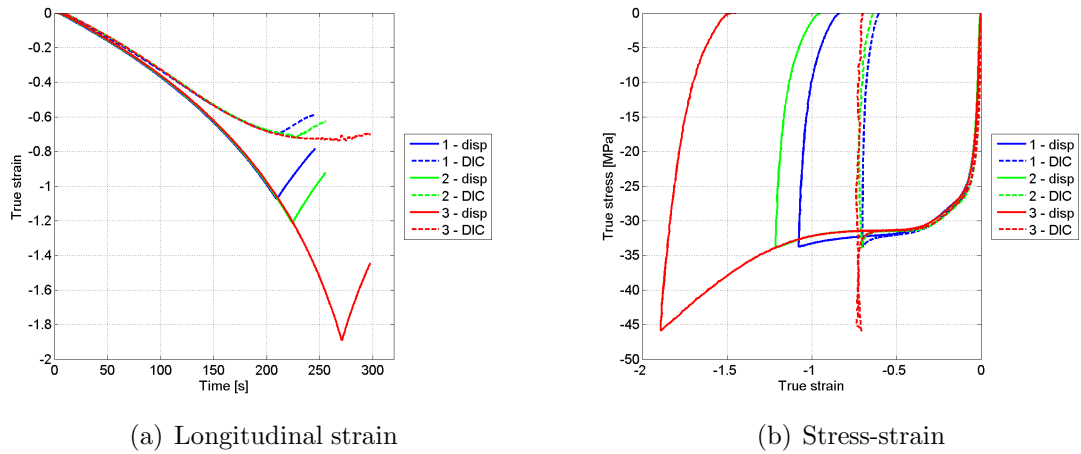
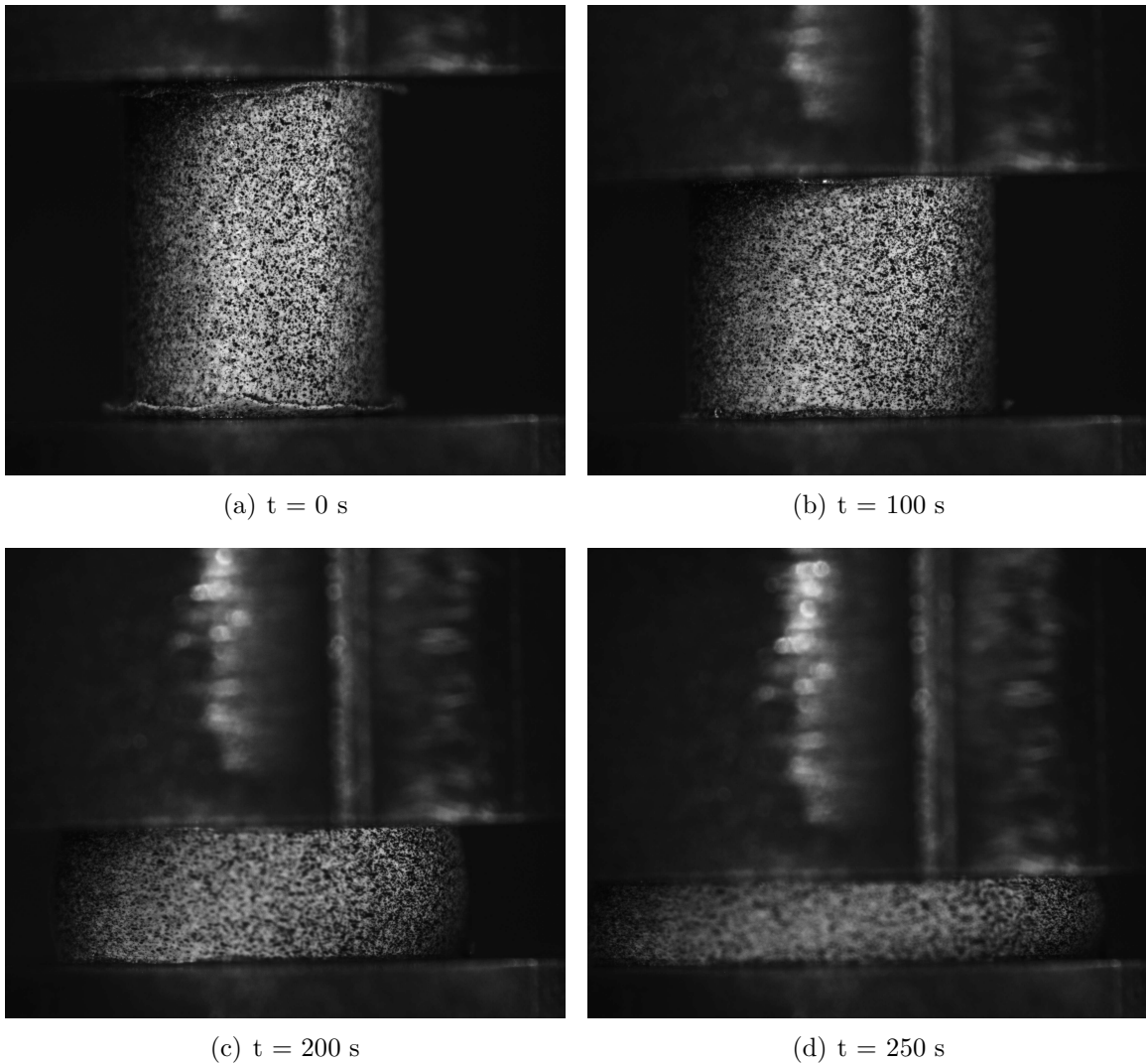


Figure 4.7: Comparison of the strain history and stress-strain curves, with strains based on both displacement and DIC

The reason for the large error in the strains from DIC analysis is likely due to barreling. When the middle section of the specimens bend outwards, the surface here is no longer directly under the applied force. The surface is therefore less compressed than the internal parts of the specimen. The barreling effect is so large towards the end of the tests that the upper and lower parts of the specimens' sides become horizontal and is directly pushed on by the test machine. While the parts of the sides that can still be seen are only pushed outward and is not further compressed in the longitudinal direction, the internal parts of the specimens are subjected to very large strains. Only observing the surface of the compression specimens therefore does not give an

accurate picture of what happens inside. The barreling effect is illustrated in Figure 4.8.



*Figure 4.8: HDPE compression test 3 at different times*

### 4.1.3 Comparison of geometries

In order to give a better comparison of the results from the different geometries, Figure 4.9 shows TQ-5, TC-1 and CC-3 in the same plots. Since the other tests for each geometry yield very similar results, these three tests will represent each geometry for the rest of the thesis.

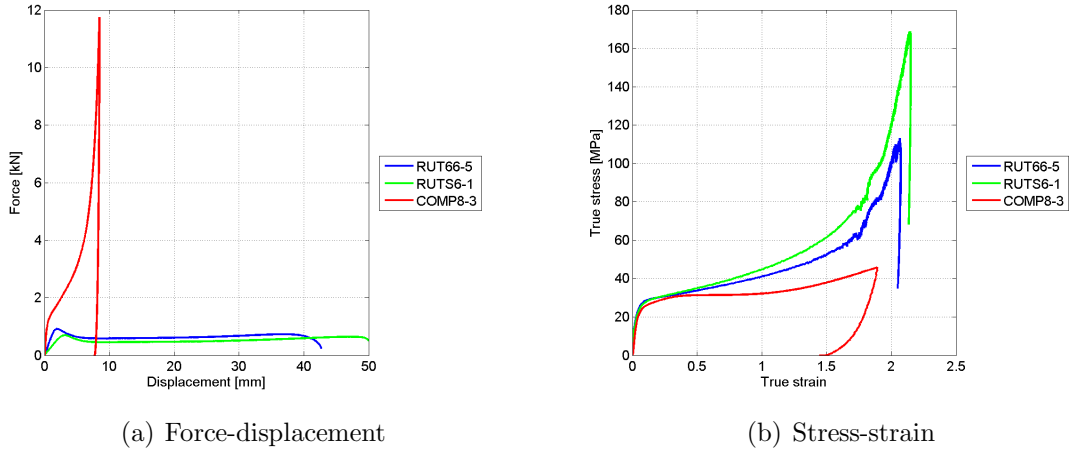


Figure 4.9: Comparison of force-displacement and stress-strain curves for the different geometries of HDPE

The difference in the stress-strain curves in tension and compression can be explained from the molecular structure of the material. Since the long polymer chains are not stretched out in compression, these tests will not reach a locking stretch where the strain ceases. Note that the stress-strain relationship in tension seems to be affected by which geometry is used; this will be discussed further in Chapter 6.

The last plots that will be discussed here are the volumetric strains. In Figure 4.10(a), a time history of the volumetric strain is plotted for the three different geometries. The same three tests are shown in Figure 4.10(b), but here the volumetric strain is plotted against the longitudinal strain. For both tension geometries, there is a negative volumetric strain in the elastic part of the curve, which is a very counterintuitive result. Normally, the volume of a material subjected to tensile loading will either increase or stay roughly the same, but HDPE seems to decrease in volume in the beginning of the tensile tests. As with the stress-strain curve, the results from two tension geometries differ here.

## 4.2. PVC

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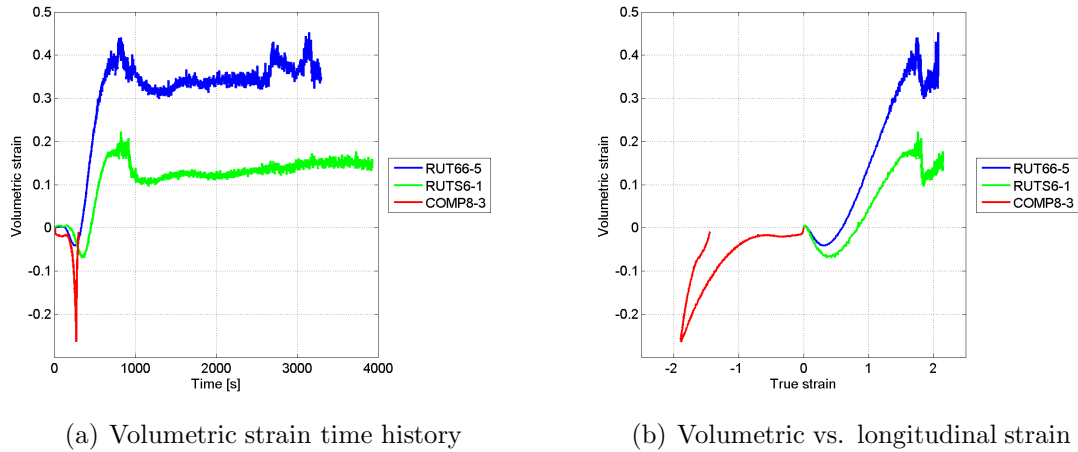


Figure 4.10: Volumetric strain of HDPE tests

## 4.2 PVC

Here, the results from the PVC experimental tests are presented. The calibration of PVC for the numerical model done in Section 5.4, will be based on these results.

### 4.2.1 Tension tests

In Figure 4.11, the force-displacement and stress-strain curves of the TQ tests are shown. As with HDPE, the cyclically loaded tests go back to the monotonically loaded curves after each cycle. With PVC, however, the cyclic tests reached failure before the monotonic tests, one at just half the displacement of the monotonic tests. Since only four tests were performed, two monotonic and two cyclic, this could just be random. More tests would have to be performed in order to determine whether the unloading affects the material's capacity.

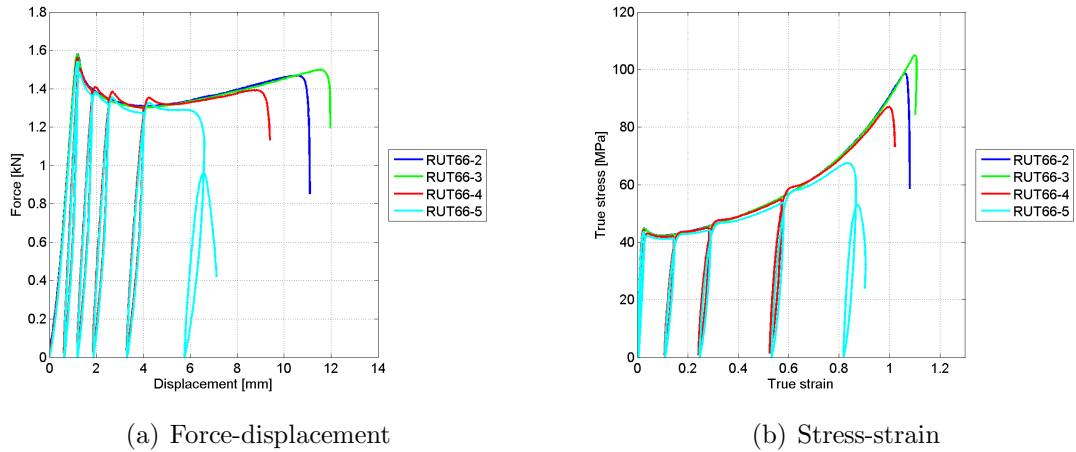


Figure 4.11: Force-displacement and stress-strain curves from PVC TQ tests

As with HDPE, the PVC TC specimens' behavior match exactly, see Figure 4.12. The maximum force of both tension geometries is larger for PVC than HDPE, but the PVC fractures at a much smaller displacements than HDPE. This shows that PVC has a higher strength, but lower ductility than HDPE. From Figures 4.11(b) and 4.12(b), it can be seen that PVC has a yield stress  $\sigma_T$  that is larger than the saturation stress  $\sigma_S$ , which means this material softens after yielding.

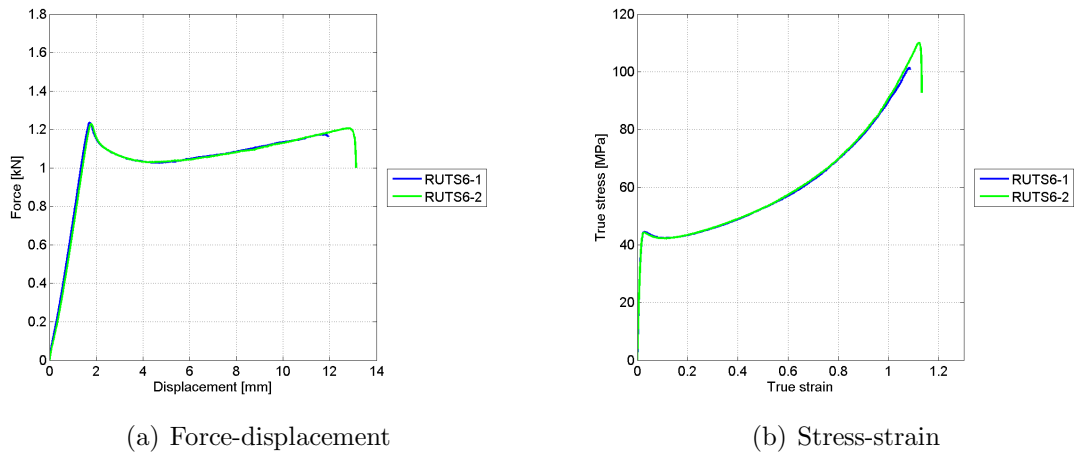


Figure 4.12: Force-displacement and stress-strain curves from PVC TC tests

## 4.2.2 Compression tests

The PVC compression tests suffered the same problem as HDPE with the longitudinal strains from DIC. Figure 4.13 shows a time history of strains calculated from

displacements and strains taken directly from DIC analysis. Figure 4.14 shows the force-displacement and stress-strain curves from the PVC compression tests.

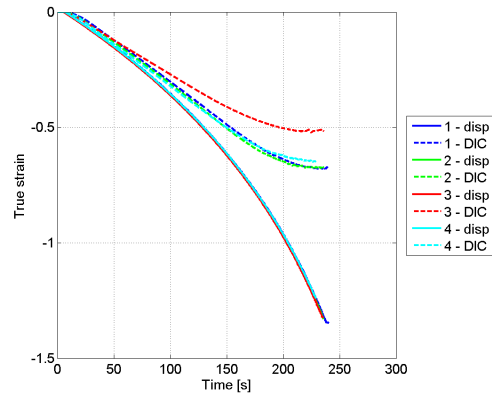


Figure 4.13: Comparison of the strain time history with strains based on both displacement and DIC

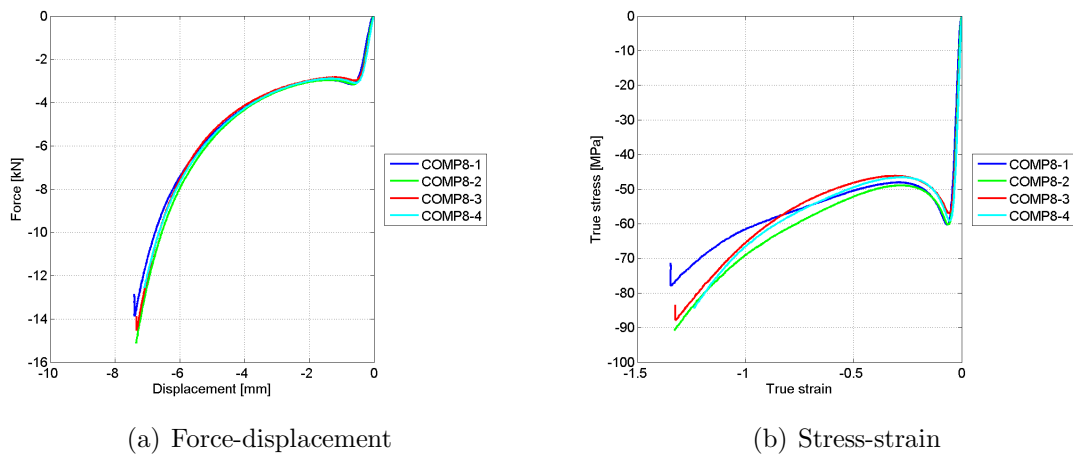


Figure 4.14: Force-displacement and stress-strain curves from PVC compression tests

### 4.2.3 Comparison of geometries

Comparing the different PVC geometries in Figure 4.15, it can be seen that, unlike HDPE, the two tension geometries here match up perfectly. The compression test also has a much larger yield stress than the tension geometries.



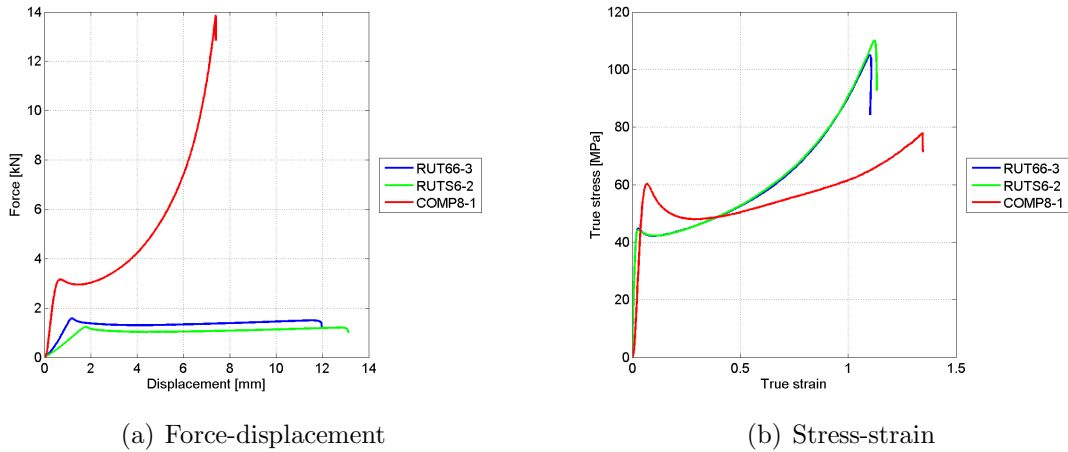


Figure 4.15: Comparison of force-displacement and stress-strain curves for the different geometries of PVC

The curves for the volumetric strain in Figure 4.16 shows that there is no negative volumetric strain in tension for PVC. The two tension geometries are also more consistent here than for HDPE.

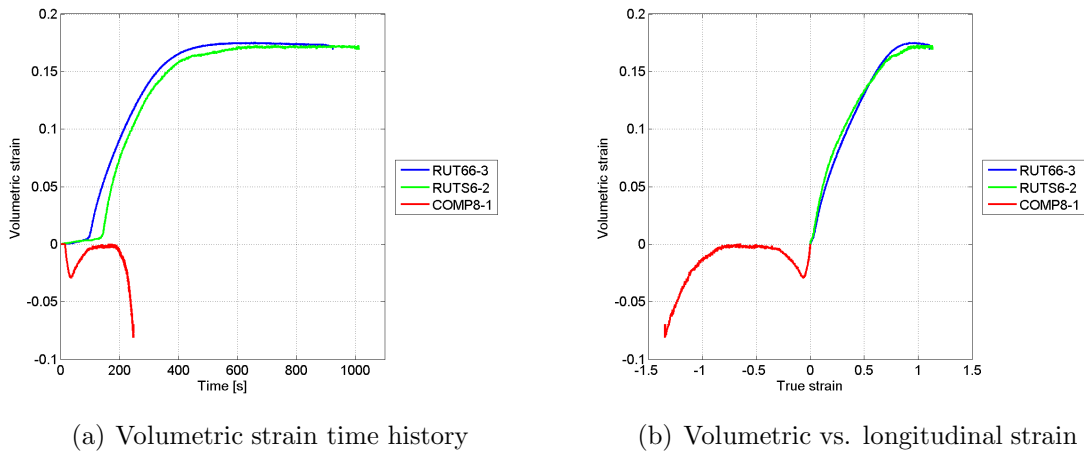


Figure 4.16: Volumetric strain of PVC tests



# Chapter 5

## Calibration of material model

Based on the experimental results, the material parameters from Table 2.1 had to be determined. The calibration is primarily done by observing the results of the tensile tests, except for  $\alpha$ , where the yield strength in compression is needed.

### 5.1 Part A parameters

#### 5.1.1 Spring

The initial stiffness given by Young's modulus is simply determined by finding the initial slope of the stress-strain curves from Chapter 4, using Equation (5.1)

$$E = \frac{d\sigma}{d\varepsilon} \quad (5.1)$$

Poisson's ratio  $\nu$  is defined by Equation (5.2) as the ratio of the transverse and longitudinal strain in the elastic domain, i.e. up to a longitudinal strain of about 0.2

$$\nu = -\frac{\varepsilon_l^e}{\varepsilon_t^e} \quad (5.2)$$

A plot of this ratio against the longitudinal strain will give the value of Poisson's ratio by observing the curve in the elastic domain.

#### 5.1.2 Friction element

The method for determining the yield stress in tension  $\sigma_T$ , is different depending on whether the material hardens or softens after yielding. As seen in Figure 2.10, a material that softens has a very clear yield stress that is easy to determine by reading the maximum value of the stress-strain curve. For materials that harden, the transition from elasticity to plasticity is more diffuse. Using the stress at 0.2 % plastic strain as the yield stress is common for materials that do not have a very clear yield stress. This has therefore been done for HDPE here, it is found by plotting a line parallel to the Young's modulus shifted 0.002 on the strain axis, and see where it intersects the stress-strain curve.

In order to obtain a value for  $\alpha$ , the yield stress in compression  $\sigma_C$  has to be determined. This is done in exactly the same way as  $\sigma_T$ , only using the stress-strain

## 5.1. PART A PARAMETERS

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curves from the compression tests. The values of  $\sigma_C$  and  $\sigma_T$  is then used in Equation (2.14) to calculate  $\alpha$ .

The parameter  $\beta$  controls the volumetric strain in the plastic domain of deformation. It is related to a retraction ratio  $\rho$ , which is defined the same way as Poisson's ratio from Equation (5.2), only in the plastic domain:

$$\rho = -\frac{\varepsilon_2^p}{\varepsilon_1^p} \quad (5.3)$$

where  $\varepsilon_1^p$  and  $\varepsilon_2^p$  are the principal plastic strains. The relation between  $\beta$  and  $\rho$  can be derived from the principle of maximum plastic dissipation, which results in Equation (5.4) [5]

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^p = \dot{\lambda} \frac{\delta g}{\delta \boldsymbol{\sigma}} \quad (5.4)$$

The plastic strain rate matrix  $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^p$  for uniaxial tension is given as

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^p = \begin{bmatrix} \dot{\varepsilon}_1^p & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \dot{\varepsilon}_2^p & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \dot{\varepsilon}_3^p \end{bmatrix} = \dot{\varepsilon}_1^p \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -\rho & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\rho \end{bmatrix} \quad (5.5)$$

For the uniaxial case,  $\dot{\lambda} = \dot{\varepsilon}_1^p$  also applies. The last part of Equation (5.4) is the derivative of the plastic potential in Equation (2.18). This can be broken down into

$$\frac{\delta g}{\delta \boldsymbol{\sigma}} = \frac{\partial g}{\partial I_1} \frac{\partial I_1}{\partial \boldsymbol{\sigma}} + \frac{\partial g}{\partial J_2} \frac{\partial J_2}{\partial \boldsymbol{\sigma}} \quad (5.6)$$

and each part is then calculated:

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial I_1} = \frac{\beta - 1}{2\beta} + \frac{(\beta - 1)^2 I_1}{2\beta \sqrt{(\beta - 1)^2 I_1^2 + 12\beta J_2}} \quad (5.7)$$

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial J_2} = \frac{3}{\sqrt{(\beta - 1)^2 I_1^2 + 12\beta J_2}} \quad (5.8)$$

$I_1$  and  $J_2$  are the invariants from Equations (2.11) and (2.12); their derivatives are given as:

$$\frac{\partial I_1}{\partial \boldsymbol{\sigma}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (5.9)$$

$$\frac{\partial J_2}{\partial \boldsymbol{\sigma}} = \frac{\sigma}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (5.10)$$

In uniaxial tension, the invariants  $I_1$  and  $J_2$  takes on the values

$$I_1 = \sigma \quad (5.11)$$

$$J_2 = \frac{1}{3}\sigma^2 \quad (5.12)$$

Combining Equations (5.11) and (5.12) with Equations (5.7) and (5.8) yields:

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial I_1} = \frac{\beta - 1}{2\beta} + \frac{(\beta - 1)^2 \sigma}{2\beta \sqrt{(\beta - 1)^2 \sigma^2 + 4\beta \sigma^2}} = \frac{\beta - 1}{2\beta} + \frac{(\beta - 1)^2}{2\beta(\beta + 1)} = \frac{\beta - 1}{\beta + 1} \quad (5.13)$$

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial J_2} = \frac{3}{\sqrt{(\beta - 1)^2 \sigma^2 + 4\beta \sigma^2}} = \frac{3}{\sigma(\beta + 1)} \quad (5.14)$$

Inserting all the parts back into Equation (5.6) gives the expression:

$$\frac{\delta g}{\delta \bar{\sigma}} = \frac{\beta - 1}{\beta + 1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{\beta + 1} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (5.15)$$

Equation (5.4) can now be rewritten as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -\rho & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\rho \end{bmatrix} = \frac{\beta - 1}{\beta + 1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{\beta + 1} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (5.16)$$

Using the two bottom equations, the relation between  $\beta$  and  $\rho$  is obtained:

$$-\rho = \frac{\beta - 1}{\beta + 1} - \frac{1}{\beta + 1} = \frac{\beta - 2}{\beta + 1} \quad (5.17)$$

$$\beta = \frac{2 - \rho}{1 + \rho} \quad (5.18)$$

Just like the yield stress, the saturation stress  $\sigma_S$  is determined differently depending on whether the material hardens or softens after yielding. For the softening case, there is an easily obtainable local minimum on the stress-strain curve that can be used as  $\sigma_S$ . By this time in the test, part B stress will also affect the total stress of the material, thus  $\sigma_S$  will be overestimated using this method. Even though it is not an accurate value for the saturation stress, it an okay initial value which can be adjusted using inverse modeling and curve fitting. For the case of hardening materials, Considère's criterion is used to determine  $\sigma_S$ [4]. This criterion is used to find the point where necking starts for materials with diffuse necking. It is given as

$$f(\lambda, \sigma) = \lambda - \frac{\delta \lambda}{\delta \sigma} \sigma = 0 \quad (5.19)$$

where the stretch  $\lambda$  is defined as

$$\lambda = e^{\varepsilon^t} \quad (5.20)$$

This criterion locates the point where the tangent of the stretch-stress curve goes through the origin of the  $\sigma$ - $\lambda$  plane, as illustrated in Figure 5.1.

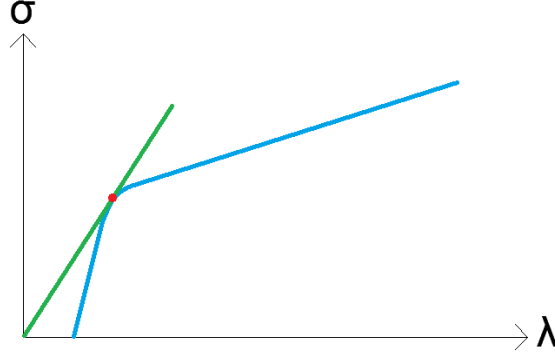


Figure 5.1: Considère's criterion

The ramping parameter  $H$  is determined using Equation (2.19) with a target plastic strain  $\varepsilon_{A,S}^p$  where the saturation stress  $\sigma_S$  is reached. Since the stress will go towards  $\sigma_S$ , but never actually reach it, Hovden[4] proposes that 95% of the transition from yield to saturation stress should be completed at the target strain. In other words, this means that Equation (2.19) can be written as:

$$R = (\sigma_S - \sigma_T) [1 - \exp(-H\varepsilon_{A,S}^p)] = 0.95(\sigma_S - \sigma_T) \quad (5.21)$$

which gives

$$\begin{aligned} [1 - \exp(-H\varepsilon_{A,S}^p)] &= 0.95 \\ \exp(-H\varepsilon_{A,S}^p) &= 0.05 \\ H &= -\frac{\ln 0.05}{\varepsilon_{A,S}^p} \end{aligned} \quad (5.22)$$

A value for the target plastic strain  $\varepsilon_{A,S}^p$  cannot be obtained directly from the experimental results. In this thesis, an estimate has been set by subtracting the strain at yielding from the strain at the saturation stress.

### 5.1.3 Dashpot

Since all the experimental tests in this study were performed at the same strain rate, the results are inadequate for directly determining the rate dependent parameters  $\dot{\varepsilon}_{0A}$  and  $C(\theta)$ . Hovden[4] performed experiments with different strain rates for both materials for his master thesis. His values for rate dependence has therefore been used also for this thesis.

## 5.2 Part B parameters

The part B parameters  $C_R$  and  $\bar{\lambda}_L$ , initial stiffness and locking stretch respectively, are best determined through inverse modeling. An estimate of the locking stretch can however be obtained. Calculating the distortional part of the deformation gradient from Section 2.2 yields

$$\mathbf{F}_B^* = J_B^{-1/3} \mathbf{F}_B = J_B^{-1/3} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (5.23)$$

The distortional left Cauchy-Green deformation tensor then becomes

$$\mathbf{B}_B^* = \mathbf{F}_B^* (\mathbf{F}_B^*)^T = J_B^{-2/3} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_2^2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (5.24)$$

where the Jacobian is given by Equation (2.2) as

$$J_B = \det(\mathbf{F}_B) = \lambda_1 \lambda_2^2 \quad (5.25)$$

Equation (2.24) can then be rewritten as

$$\bar{\lambda} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{3} \text{tr}(\mathbf{B}_B^*)} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{3} J_B^{-2/3} (\lambda_1^2 + 2\lambda_2^2)} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{3} (\lambda_1 \lambda_2^2)^{-2/3} (\lambda_1^2 + 2\lambda_2^2)} \quad (5.26)$$

Using the relation between stretch and strain from Equation (5.20) gives

$$\bar{\lambda} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{3} \left\{ \exp \left[ -\frac{2}{3} (\varepsilon_1 + 2\varepsilon_2) \right] [\exp(2\varepsilon_1) + 2 \exp(2\varepsilon_2)] \right\}} \quad (5.27)$$

$$\bar{\lambda} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{3} \left\{ \exp \left[ \frac{4}{3} (\varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2) \right] + 2 \exp \left[ -\frac{2}{3} (\varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2) \right] \right\}} \quad (5.28)$$

Introducing locking strain  $\varepsilon_L$ , and using the relation between transverse and longitudinal strain from Equation (5.3) gives an expression for the locking stretch  $\bar{\lambda}_L$ :

$$\bar{\lambda}_L = \sqrt{\frac{1}{3} \left\{ \exp \left[ \frac{4}{3} \varepsilon_{1,L} (1 + \rho) \right] + 2 \exp \left[ -\frac{2}{3} \varepsilon_{1,L} (1 + \rho) \right] \right\}} \quad (5.29)$$

Now, only the longitudinal locking strain has to be determined from the experimental results.

## 5.3 Calibration of HDPE

### 5.3.1 Part A

Starting with the Young's modulus  $E$ , it can be seen from Figure 5.2 that there is a difference between the 2D and 3D DIC results. The calibration of  $E$  is based on the 3D results, which has a steeper slope. A Young's modulus of 1400 MPa is shown to be a good fit in Figure 5.3.

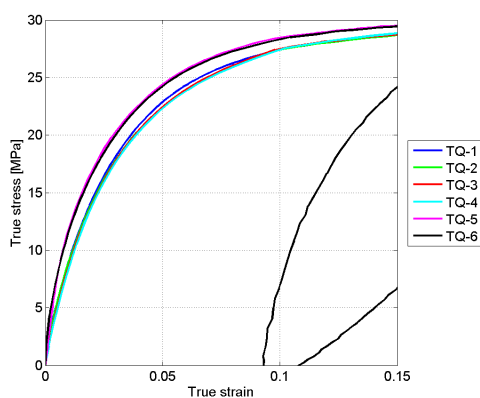


Figure 5.2: HDPE TQ tests

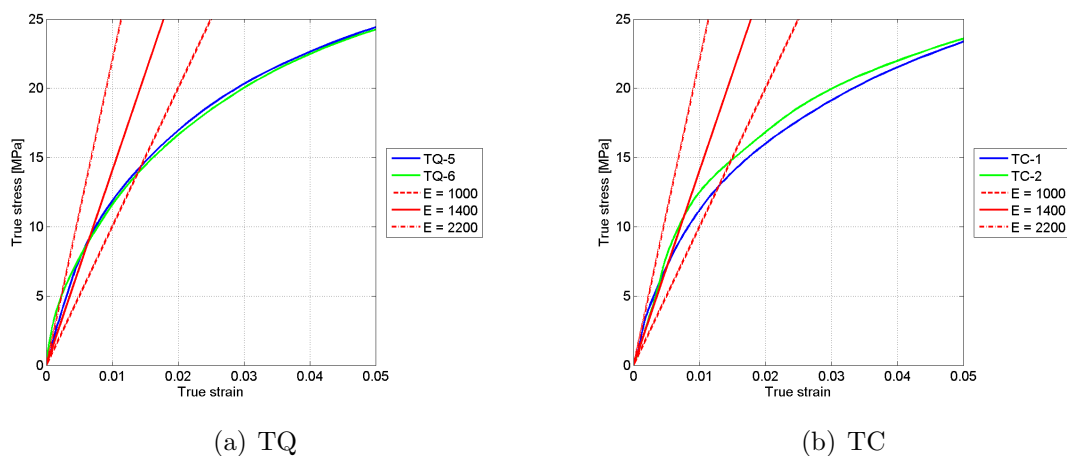


Figure 5.3: Young's modulus for HDPE

Figure 5.4 shows a plot of Poisson's ratio for the HDPE TQ tests. The circular tests suggest a lower Poisson's ratio than the quadratic tests, but neither geometry



gives a constant value in the elastic domain. A value of 0.43 has been chosen for the numerical simulations.

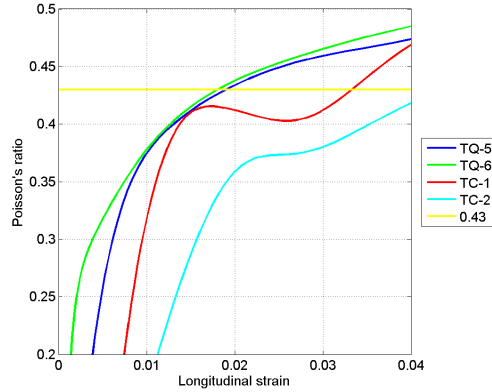


Figure 5.4: Poisson's ratio for HDPE

After determining the Young's modulus  $E$ , the tension yield stress  $\sigma_T$  can be determined. Assuming yielding at 0.2% plastic strain for materials with hardening, as described in Section 5.1, gives the plot in Figure 5.5(a). Observing where the line crosses the stress-strain curves, a yield stress of  $\sigma_T = 12.1$  MPa is chosen.

Performing the same procedure for the compression tests, the yield stress in compression is found to be equal to that in tension. This can be seen in Figure 5.5(b). Using Equation (2.14) with equal values of  $\sigma_C$  and  $\sigma_T$ , gives  $\alpha = 1$ .

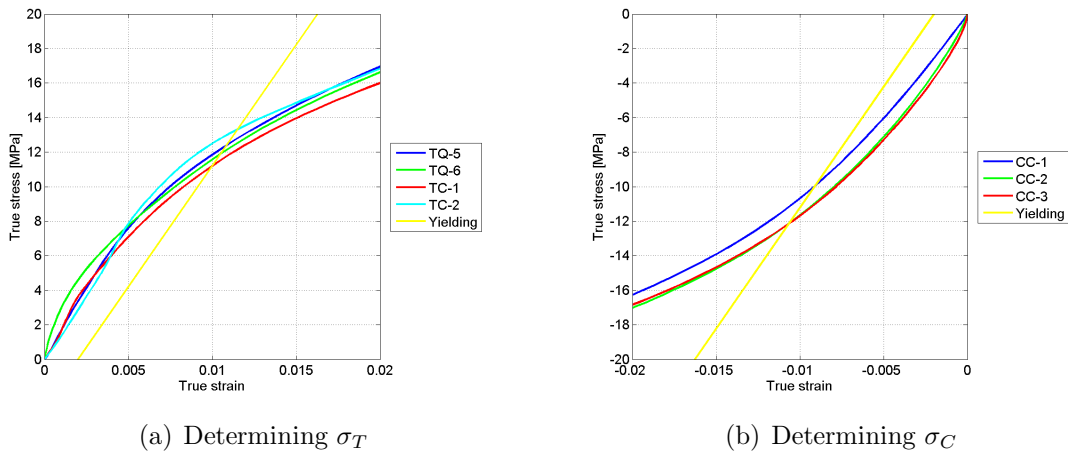


Figure 5.5: Yield stresses in tension and compression for HDPE

In order to determine  $\sigma_S$  for HDPE, Considère's criterion has been used. Figure 5.6(a)

### 5.3. CALIBRATION OF HDPE

shows the criterion from Equation (5.19) plotted against the stress for test TQ-5. The stress value where this line crosses the x-axis is used as the saturation stress. This corresponds to the stress value where the tangent of the stress-stretch curve intersects the origin, as shown in Figure 5.6(b). Based on all the tests, the saturation stress is determined to be  $\sigma_S = 28.6$ .

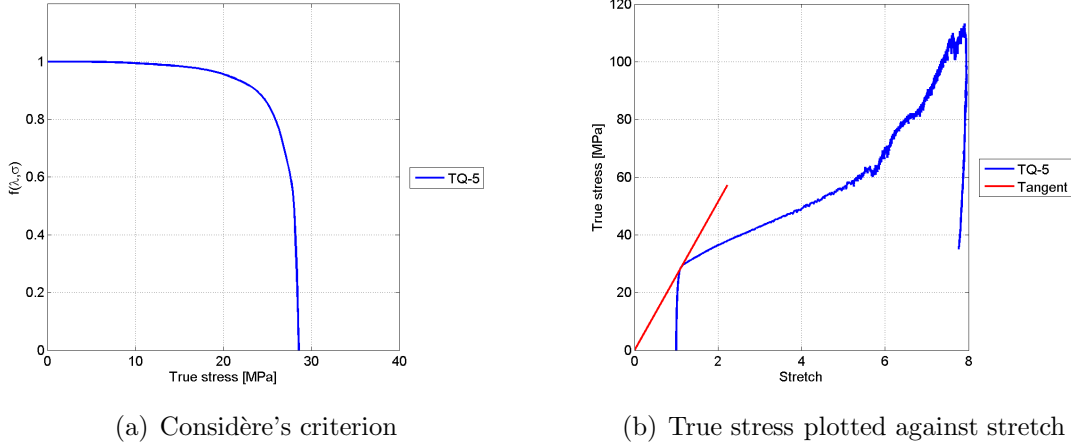


Figure 5.6: Determining  $\sigma_S$  using Considère's criterion

The ramping parameter  $H$  is calculated using Equation (5.22). For HDPE, a target plastic strain of  $\varepsilon_{A,S}^p = 0.053$  has been used, resulting in  $H = 56$ .

The plastic volumetric strain parameter  $\beta$  can be found by determining the contraction ratio  $\rho$  in the plastic domain, see Equation (5.3). This ratio is plotted in Figure 5.7 for the tension tests; the results differ for the two geometries, so an average of  $\rho = 0.44$  is chosen. Using Equation (5.18), this gives  $\beta = 1.08$ .

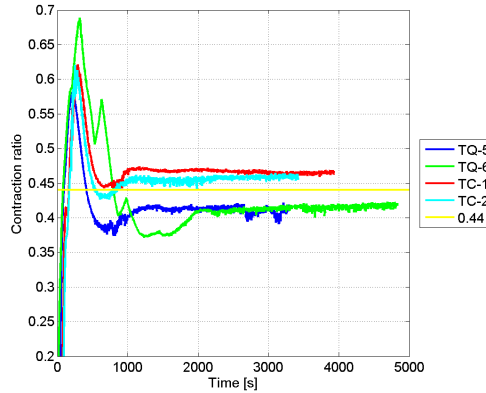


Figure 5.7: Contraction ratio of HDPE tests

### 5.3.2 Part B

The value for  $C_R$  was obtained from a previous specialization project about HDPE performed by Røstum and Winjum [9]. There, a value of  $C_R = 1.63$  had been found for the initial stiffness of the part B spring.

Using the experimental results, a rough estimate of the locking strain  $\varepsilon_L$  was chosen as 2.3 and used in Equation (5.29). Thus, the locking stretch was determined to be  $\bar{\lambda}_L = 5.26$ .

### 5.3.3 Summary

After performing numerical simulations with the parameter values obtained in this section, some parameters were adjusted to give a better fit between the results from the experiments and the simulations. For HDPE, only  $C_R$ ,  $\bar{\lambda}_L$ ,  $\sigma_S$  and  $H$  were adjusted slightly, and the final values used in the simulations are presented in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Parameters for HDPE

$E$	$\nu$	$\dot{\varepsilon}_{0A}$	$C(\theta)$	$\sigma_T$	$C_R$	$\lambda_L$	$\alpha$
1400	0.43	$10^{-2}$	0.12	12.1	1.5	5.6	1.00
$\beta$		$\sigma_S$	$H$			$K$	$G$
1.07		26.1	56			3333	490

## 5.4 Calibration of PVC

### 5.4.1 Part A

Also for PVC, the first parameter to be determined is Young's modulus  $E$ . Figure 5.8 shows the stress-strain curves for both the quadratic and cylindrical geometries, with examples of different values of  $E$ . A value of 2800 MPa is chosen, as this follows the curves very closely in the elastic domain.

## 5.4. CALIBRATION OF PVC

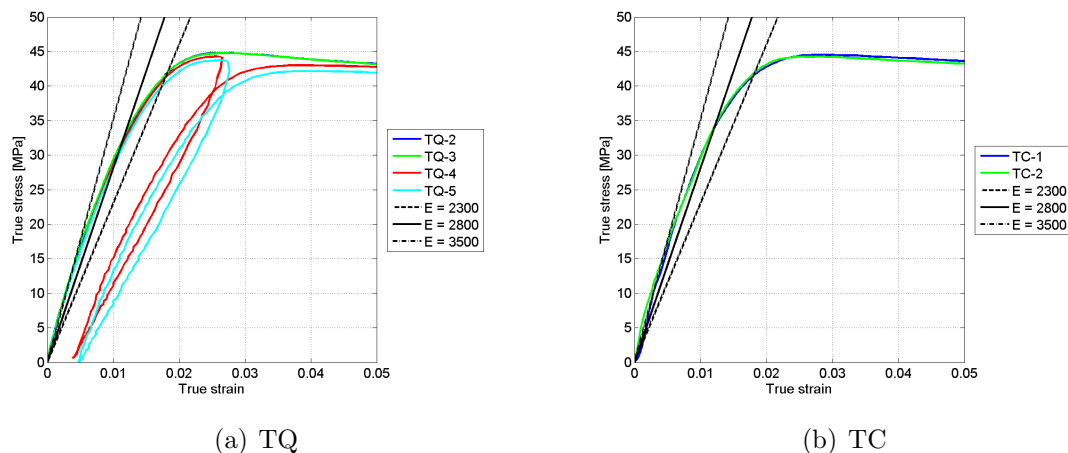


Figure 5.8: Young's modulus for PVC

As with HDPE, the TC tests show a slightly lower Poisson's ratio than the TQ tests in Figure 5.9. A value of  $\nu = 0.38$  seems to be a good fit and is chosen for the numerical simulations of PVC.

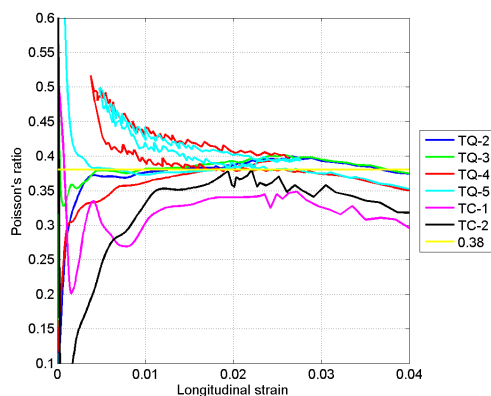


Figure 5.9: Poisson's ratio for PVC

As explained in Section 5.1, a different method for determining  $\sigma_T$ ,  $\sigma_S$  and  $\sigma_C$  is used for materials with softening after yielding. These values are found from the local maximums and minimums of the stress-strain curves. Figure 5.10(a) shows how  $\sigma_T$  and  $\sigma_S$  were determined for test TQ-3, while Figure 5.10(b) shows how  $\sigma_C$  was determined for test CC-1.

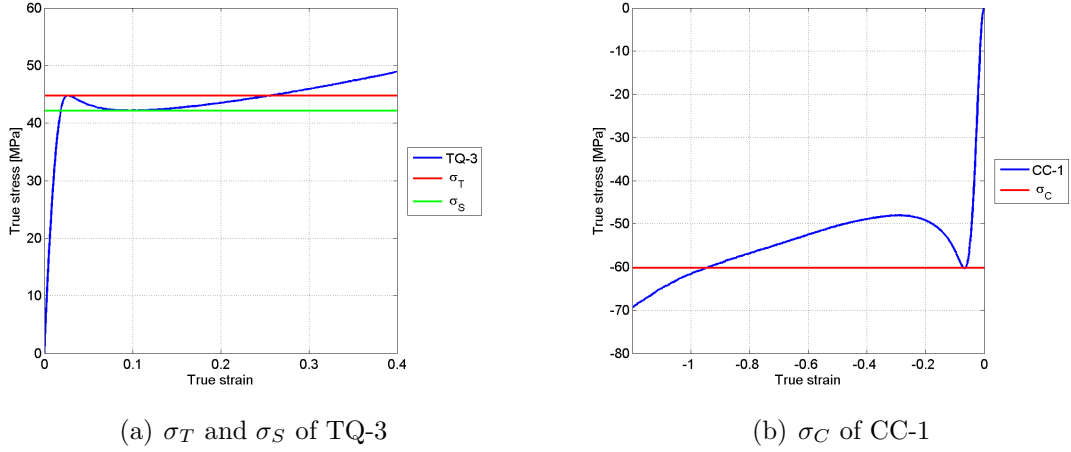


Figure 5.10: Determining  $\sigma_T$ ,  $\sigma_S$  and  $\sigma_C$  of PVC

After the results of all the PVC tests were processed, the following values were obtained: The tensile yield stress is  $\sigma_T = 44.4$  MPa, the yield stress in compression is  $\sigma_C = 59.0$  MPa, and the saturation stress was found to be  $\sigma_S = 42$  MPa. The parameter  $\alpha$  can then be calculated:

$$\alpha = \frac{\sigma_C}{\sigma_T} = \frac{59.0}{44.4} = 1.33 \quad (5.30)$$

For PVC, the target plastic strain  $\varepsilon_{A,S}^p$  was set to 0.13. Using Equation (5.22), this results in a ramping parameter of  $H = 23$ .

Figure 5.11 shows a highly nonlinear behavior of the contraction ratio  $\rho$  in the plastic domain for PVC. It is therefore hard to determine an accurate constant value of  $\rho$  for this material, but 0.39 has been chosen in this thesis. The parameter  $\beta$  in the plastic potential function is then determined to be equal to 1.16, using Equation (5.18).

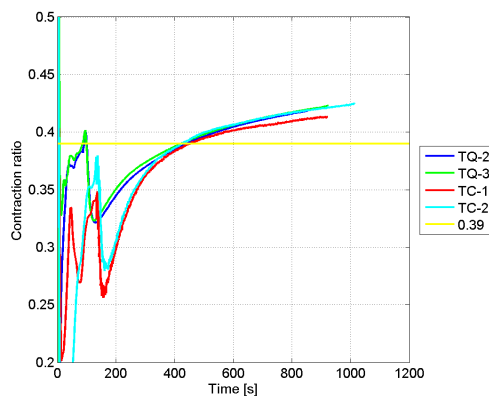


Figure 5.11: Caption for PVC-rho

### 5.4.2 Part B

Results from Hovden's work [4] was used to set a value for the initial stiffness  $C_R$  of the spring in part B, where this was determined to be equal to 6.07. From the experimental results, an estimated locking strain of 1.41 was chosen. Using Equation (5.29), the locking stretch was determined to be  $\bar{\lambda}_L = 2.27$ .

### 5.4.3 Summary

All the parameters used in the material model for PVC are listed in Table 5.2. After the initial calibration, the parameters  $\sigma_T$ ,  $C_R$ ,  $\sigma_S$  and  $H$  have been adjusted using inverse modeling.

Table 5.2: Parameters for PVC

$E$	$\nu$	$\dot{\epsilon}_{0A}$	$C(\theta)$	$\sigma_T$	$C_r$	$\lambda$	$\alpha$
2800	0.38	$1^{-3}$	0.07	46.5	8.0	2.27	1.33
$\beta$		$\sigma_S$	$H$			$K$	$G$
1.16		33.0	15			3889	1015

# Chapter 6

## Numerical simulations

This chapter will present the numerical simulations that were performed using the parameters obtained in Chapter 5. All the simulations were performed in the finite element method (FEM) program LS-DYNA. The first section gives a description of how the different geometries were modeled. Then, there is one section on the simulation of each material, detailing how the simulations compare to the experimental results.

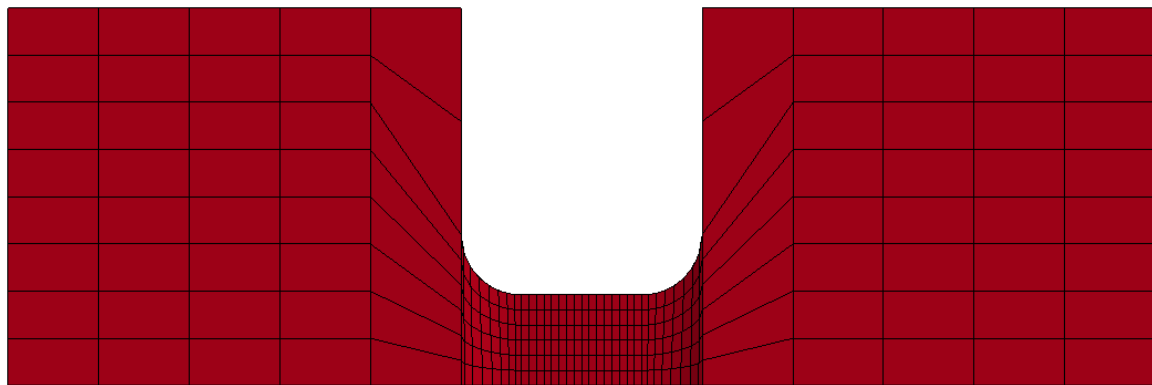
### 6.1 Model geometries

Because of the curved surfaces of the specimens, they are hard to draw and mesh in LS-DYNA. Another FEM program, Abaqus, was therefore used to draw and mesh the geometries of the specimens. Since the material model was only available for LS-DYNA, the mesh from the Abaqus input file had to be converted to an LS-DYNA k-file using Matlab.

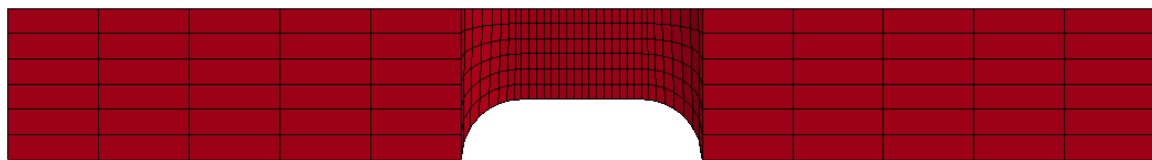
Since all the geometries have two symmetry planes along its center line, only one quarter of the specimens have been modeled. This reduces the number of elements in the model, and greatly decreases the computation time. Boundary conditions are then applied in order to make the specimen behave correctly.

#### 6.1.1 Tension geometries

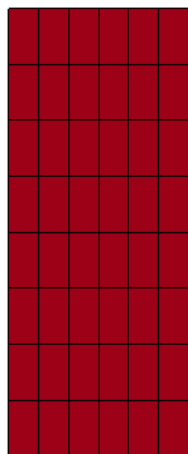
Figure 6.1 and 6.2 show the TQ and TC geometries respectively. During the experimental tests, about half the length of the specimens' handles were clamped in the test machine. Only 15 mm of the total 30 mm handles were therefore modeled. In the simulations, one end of the specimen has held in place by boundary conditions, while the other end was subjected to a prescribed displacement equal to that of the experiments.



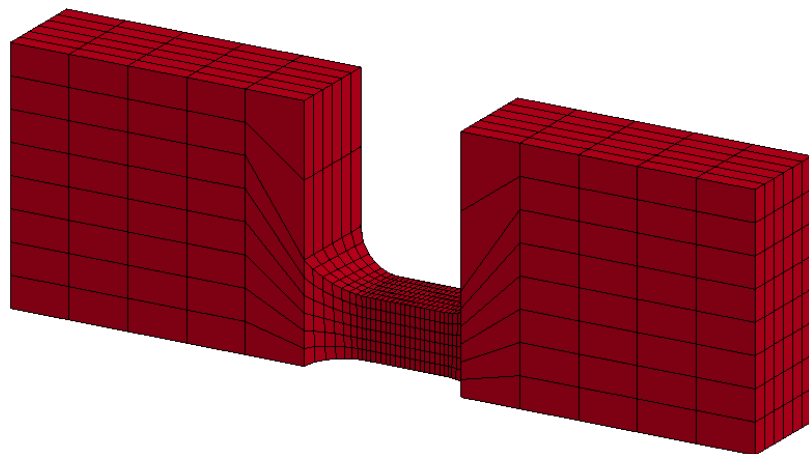
(a) Front



(b) Top



(c) End



(d) 3D view

*Figure 6.1: TQ geometry in LS-DYNA*



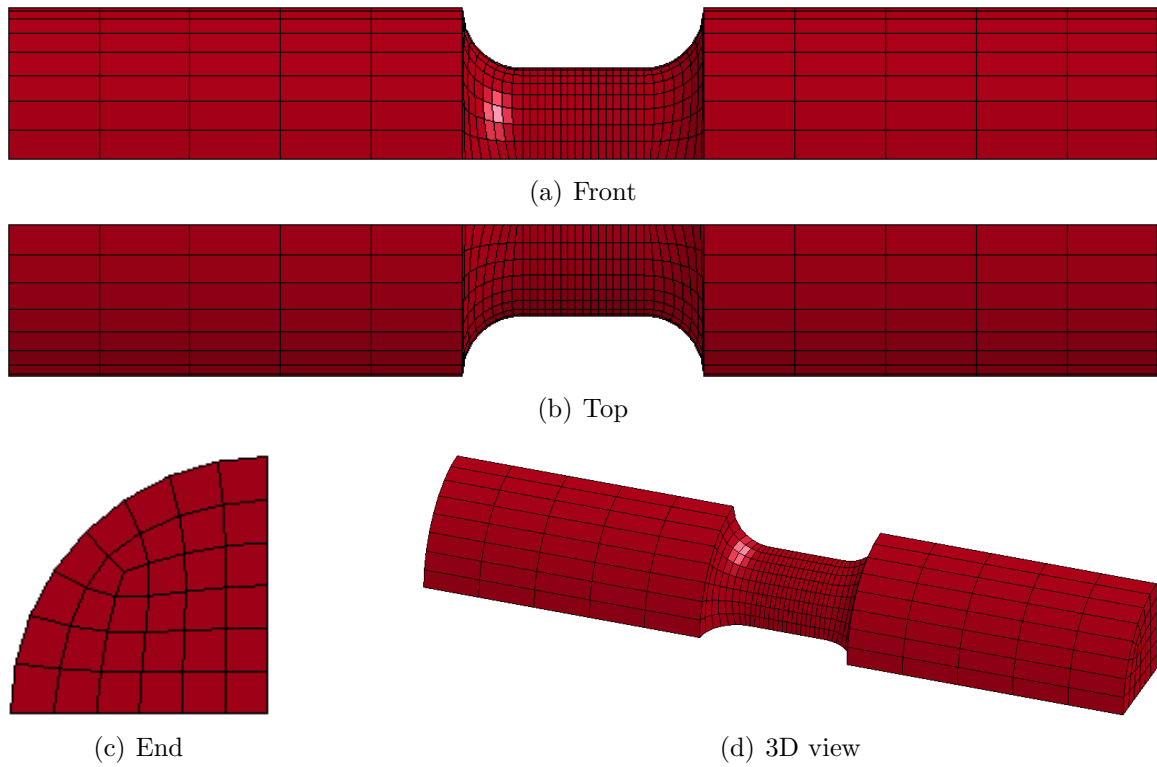


Figure 6.2: TC geometry in LS-DYNA

### 6.1.2 Compression geometry

The CC geometry is shown in Figure 6.3. Because of the friction between the test machine's surface and the specimen, a displacement cannot simply be applied to the top of the specimen. In order to account for the friction in the model, two boxes have to be included above and below the specimen. The box above the specimen is then applied the displacement, and a friction coefficient determines the behavior in the contact surfaces between the specimen and boxes.

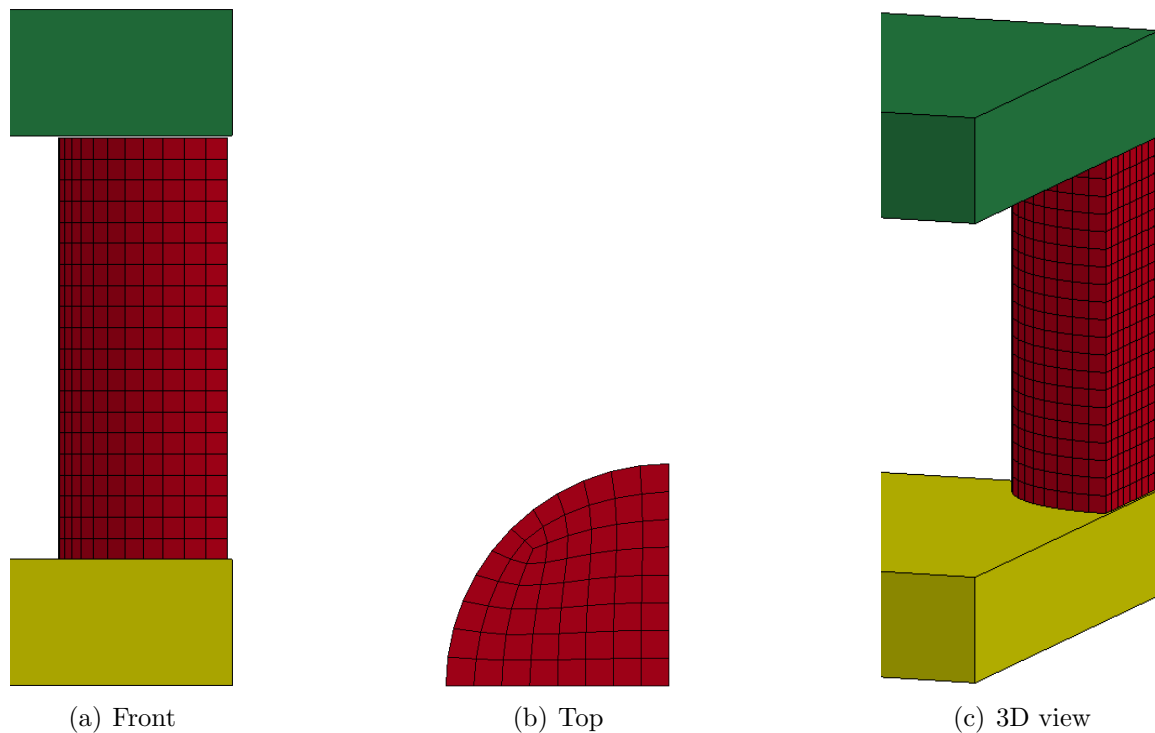


Figure 6.3: CC geometry in LS-DYNA

## 6.2 HDPE

The following results are based on simulations using the parameters from Table 5.1.

### 6.2.1 Tension tests

#### Stress-strain

As the stress-strain curves are the primary basis of the calibration, these results will be presented first. After a numerical analysis has been performed in LS-DYNA, the strains and stresses of each element can be gathered from the output files of the program. Previous studies[10][9] on this material model have used the elements in the section where necking first start when presenting the results of the simulations. Figure 6.5(a) and (b) shows these elements for the TQ and TC geometry, respectively. The resulting stress-strain curves of these elements are compared to the experimental tests in Figure 6.5(c). This method of obtaining the strains and stresses from the simulations will be referred to as the element method in the rest of this thesis.

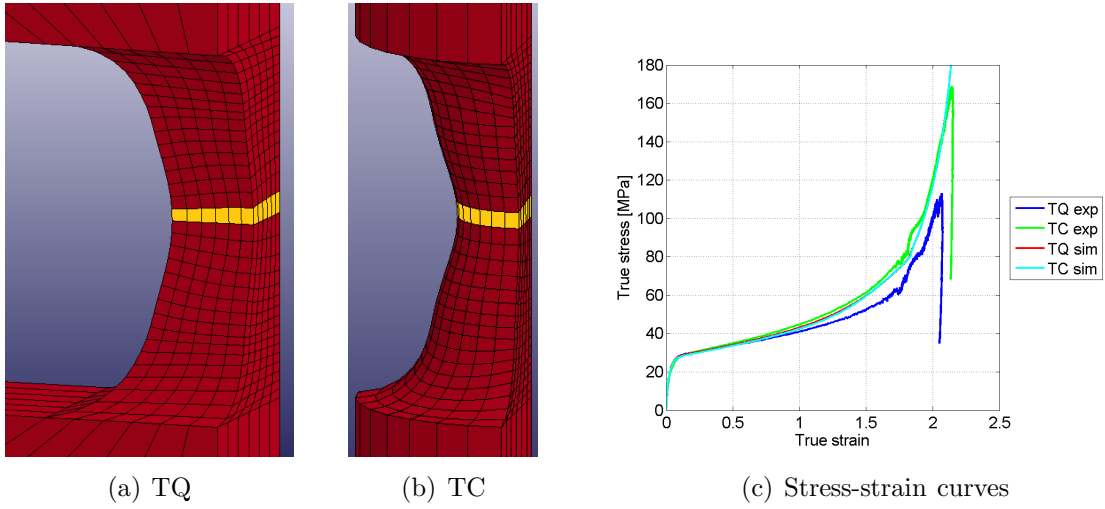


Figure 6.4: Stress-strain curves using the element method

As opposed to the experimental results, the results from the simulations show almost no difference between the two geometries. This seems more logical, as a given material should have the same stress-strain relation independent of the specimen geometry. The reason for the difference in the experimental results become apparent when using a different method of obtaining the strains and stresses, which will be referred to as the node method. Using only the relative displacements of the nodes on the surface of the specimens, the strains can be calculated by

$$\varepsilon = \ln \frac{L}{L_0} \quad (6.1)$$

This is the same way the strains are obtained from the DIC analysis, and should match the experimental results better. The stresses are calculated by determining the cross-section area from the transverse strains, and dividing the force from the simulation by this area. This is the same procedure as used for the experimental results in Section 3.3. Figure 6.5(a) and (b) shows the nodes that were used, and Figure 6.5(c) compares the stress-strain curves of the experimental tests and the node method. This method gives a perfect match for both geometries.

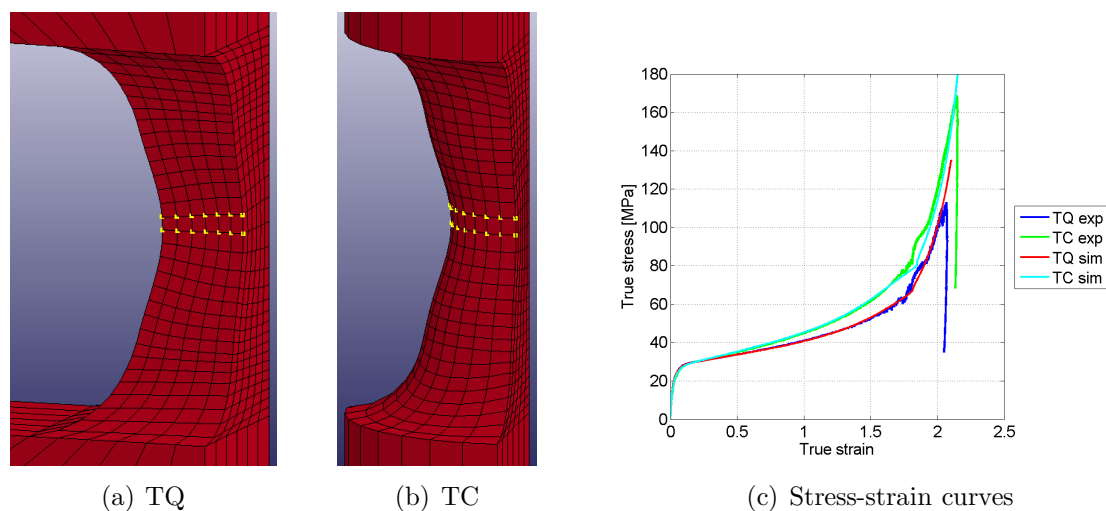


Figure 6.5: Stress-strain curves using the node method

Even though the node method gives a better match of the experimental results, the element method may give a better representation of the actual material behavior. In the experimental results, it is only possible to study the surface of the specimens, and this might not give an accurate picture of what happens inside. Given the perfect match of the surface behavior using the node method, it can be assumed that the element method accurately represents the material behavior inside the test specimens. A material should have the same response regardless of the shape of the specimen, and this is achieved by the element method.

### Strain rate

The stress-strain curve is a perfect match when using the node method, but Figure 6.6(a) shows that the strain increases a lot faster in the simulations than the experiments. The fact that the stress also increases faster in the simulations, as seen in Figure 6.6(b), is why the stress-strain curve still matches. Only the TQ results are shown here, as the TC results are very similar.

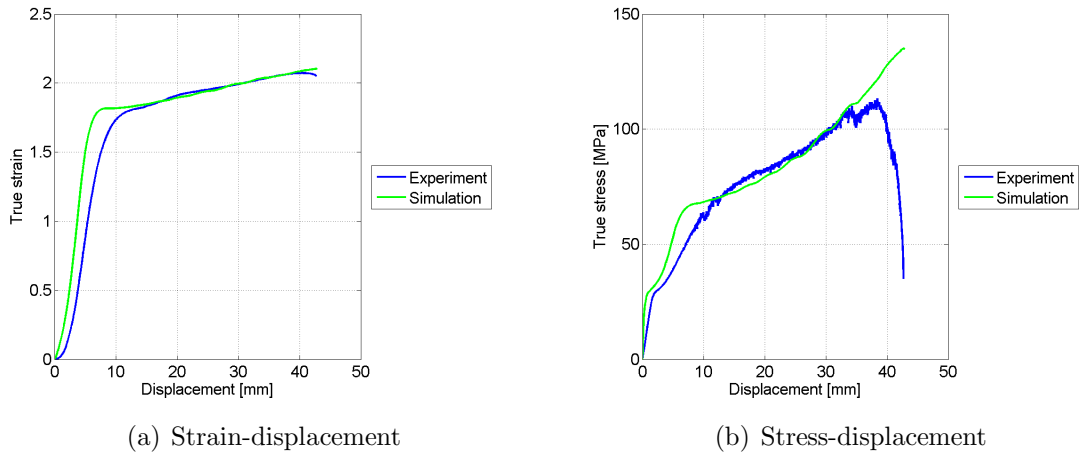


Figure 6.6: Comparing strains and stresses between experiments and simulations for TQ using the node method

Figure 6.7(a) clearly shows how the simulations have a much higher strain rate at the start of the tests. This can also be observed by comparing the pictures taken during the test with the simulation, as in Figure 6.7(b). In the simulations, the deformation is focused on the elements in the middle of the gauge area, and the neck does not spread to the other elements until the middle ones have nearly reached locking. The experimental tests have a more diffuse necking, and the strains are distributed more uniformly along the gauge area.

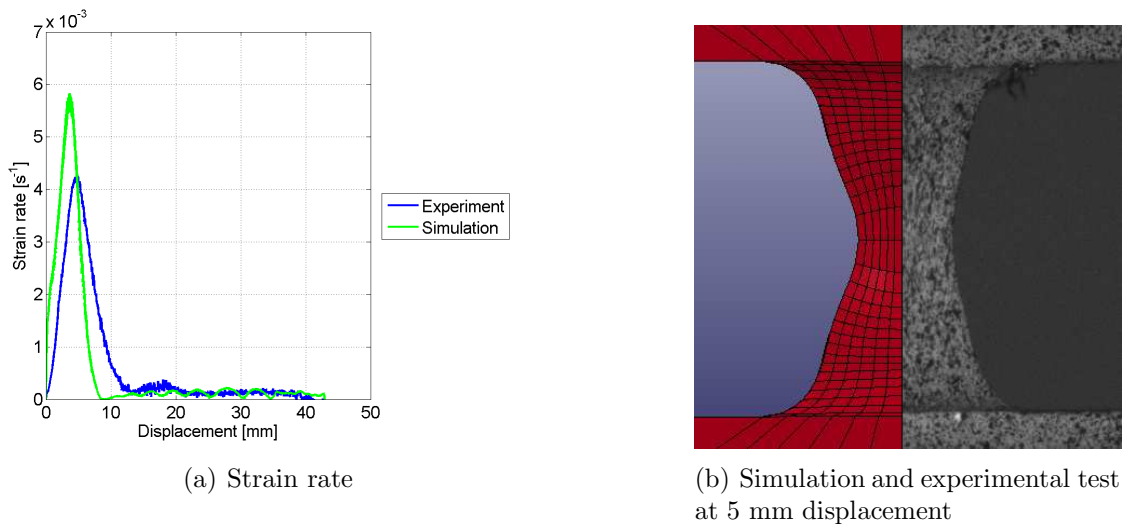


Figure 6.7: Strain rate

### Force-displacement

Figure 6.8 shows the force-displacement curves of the HDPE tension simulations. The slope of the curve from the simulations are steeper than those of the experimental test. This could be caused by the model being too stiff, but since the stress-strain curve fit very well, this is most likely not the case. It can be explained by the higher strain rate in the simulations. Figure 6.6 shows that yielding is reached at a smaller displacement in the simulations.

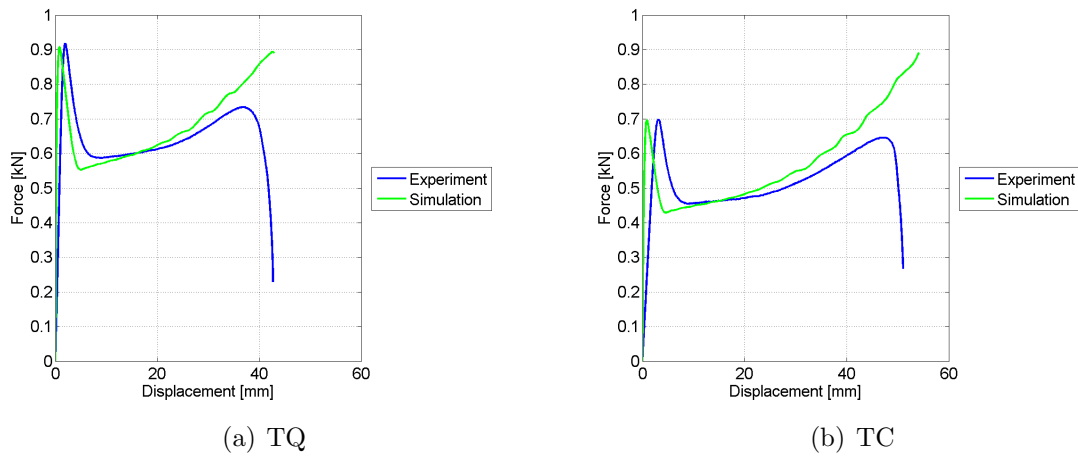


Figure 6.8: Force-displacement curves

### Volumetric strain

The results from the experimental tests showed a negative volumetric strain in the tensile HDPE tests. Using the node method for obtaining the strains, these results were reproduced in the simulations, as illustrated in Figure 6.9.

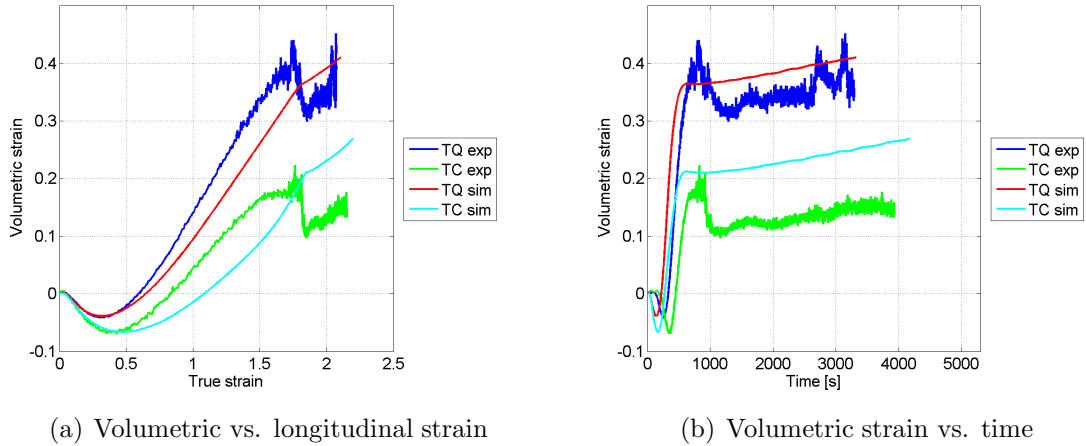


Figure 6.9: Volumetric strains using the node method

Since this material should not be able to have negative volumetric strain in tension, it is likely that the element method gives a better description of the actual material behavior; these results are presented in Figure 6.10.

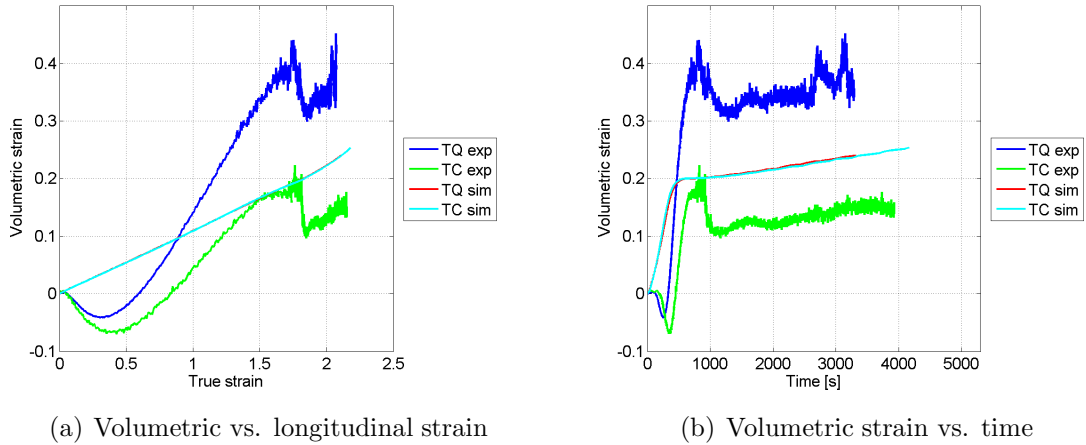


Figure 6.10: Volumetric strains using the element method

A comparison of the longitudinal, transverse and volumetric strains in the elastic domain from both methods is shown in Figure 6.11. The negative volumetric strains from the node method are caused by the difference in longitudinal strain, as the transverse strains are fairly equal in this region. For both geometries, the longitudinal strain eventually ends up at the same value. Only the TC geometry ends up with an equal transverse strain. The TQ geometry ends up with higher transverse strains when using the element method, and therefore a lower volumetric strain.

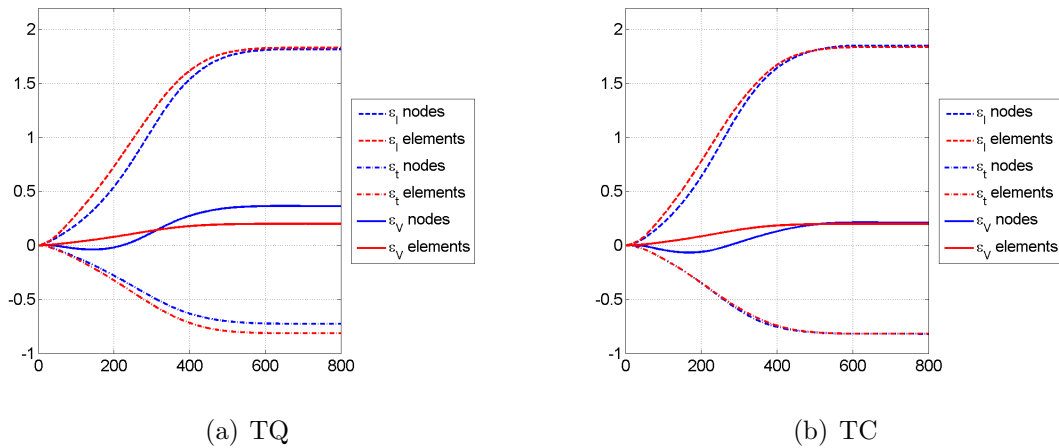


Figure 6.11: Comparison of longitudinal, transverse and volumetric strains

The reason for the difference in longitudinal strains between the two methods can be seen from Figures 6.12 and 6.13. For the TQ geometry in Figure 6.12(a), three pairs of nodes were selected, one in the center, one on the side, and one on the corner of the specimen. The different strain rates in these three areas are plotted in Figure 6.12(b).

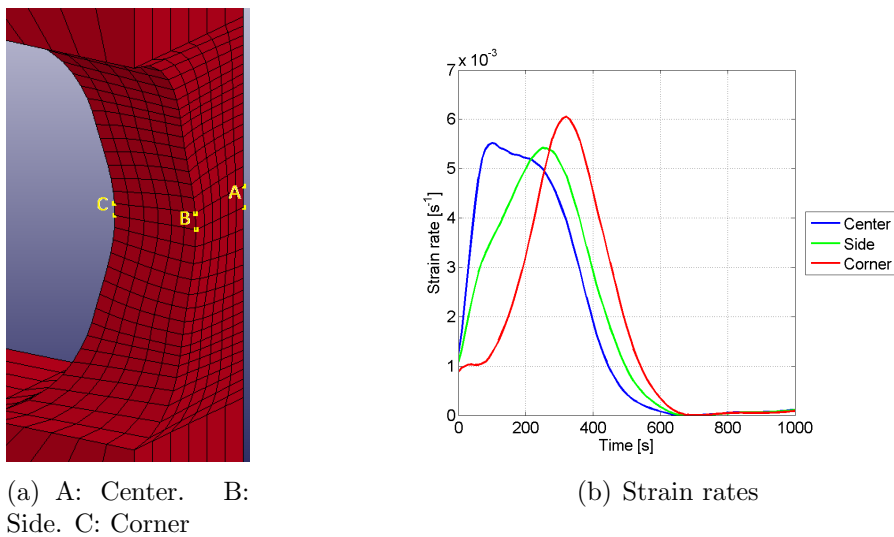


Figure 6.12: Strain rates for HDPE TQ

For the TC geometry, two pairs of nodes were selected as illustrated in 6.13(a), and the resulting strain rates are shown in Figure 6.12(b).



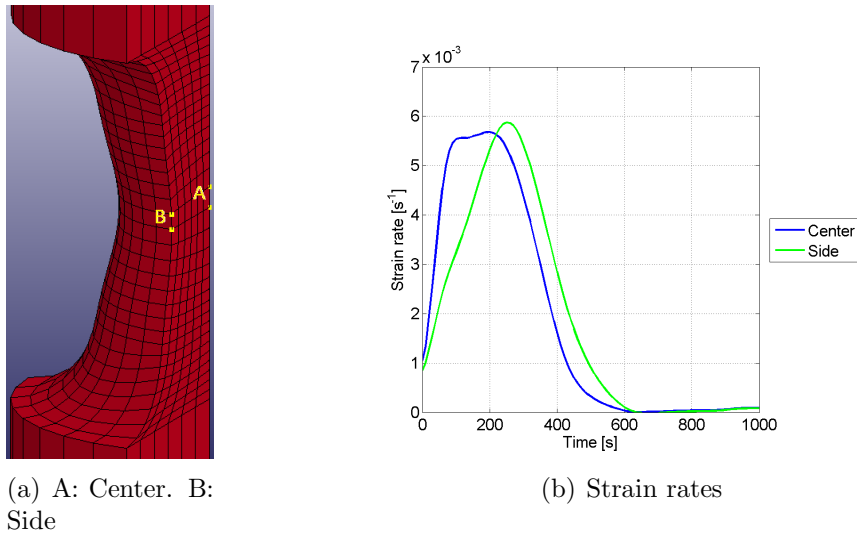


Figure 6.13: Strain rates for HDPE TC

For both geometries, the center of the specimen has a much higher longitudinal strain rate at the start of the test. The strain at the surface catches up later on, but this delay gives the impression of a negative volumetric strain when observing the surface of the specimen.

### Cyclic loading

A cyclically loaded test based on the displacement history of HDPE TQ test 6 was simulated. The resulting force-displacement and stress strain curves are given in Figure 6.14. These results does not give a very good match. The higher strain rate in the start of the simulations shifts the cycles towards the end of the stress-strain curve. Using the displacements that unloaded the experiments to zero force actually gives the simulations a negative force at small strains, but does not even reach zero force for larger strains.

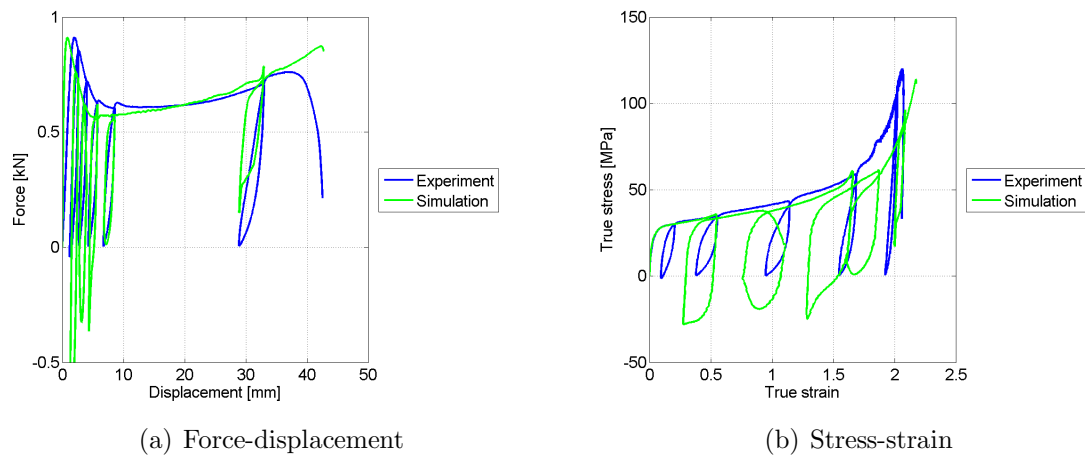


Figure 6.14: Caption for *HDPEsimcycl-FD*

## 6.2.2 Compression tests

### Stress-strain

Since the material model was calibrated based on the tension tests, the results of the compression simulations can not be expected to be as accurate as the tension simulations. Figure 6.15 shows the results from the simulations using the element method for obtaining the strains. Although the curves do not follow each other as close as those of the tensile tests, the results are quite good. As explained in Chapter 4, the DIC analysis did not give an accurate result for the longitudinal strains. Since the node method of the simulations is equivalent to the DIC analysis, these results have been compared in Figure 6.15(b). The value at which the strains stops is highly dependent on the friction coefficient used in the simulation. For these simulation this coefficient has been set to 0.06. For the tensile tests, there was no good way to compare the experimental tests to the element method; with the compression tests there is, using the strains based on displacement from the experiments. The good match in both node and element method suggests that the element method can represent the whole material accurately when the node method matches the surface behavior.

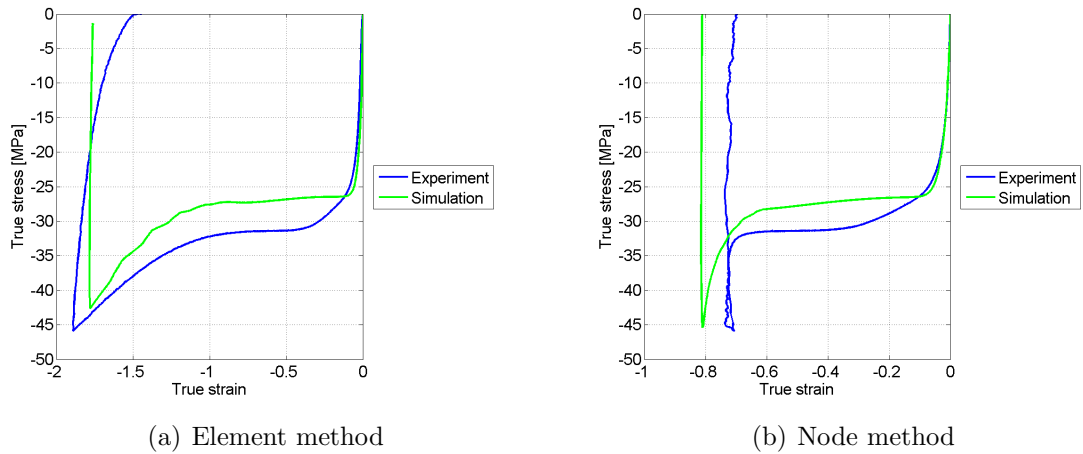


Figure 6.15: Force-displacement curves

### Force-displacement

Figure 6.16(a) shows the force-displacement curve of the HDPE compression test simulation. Compared to the experimental tests, this reaches a much higher maximum force. This error is due to the specimen's cross section area increasing a lot more in the simulation, as seen in Figure 6.16(b). The simulations are only based on the displacement history of the experimental tests, and when the material expands to a larger cross section area, a higher force is required.

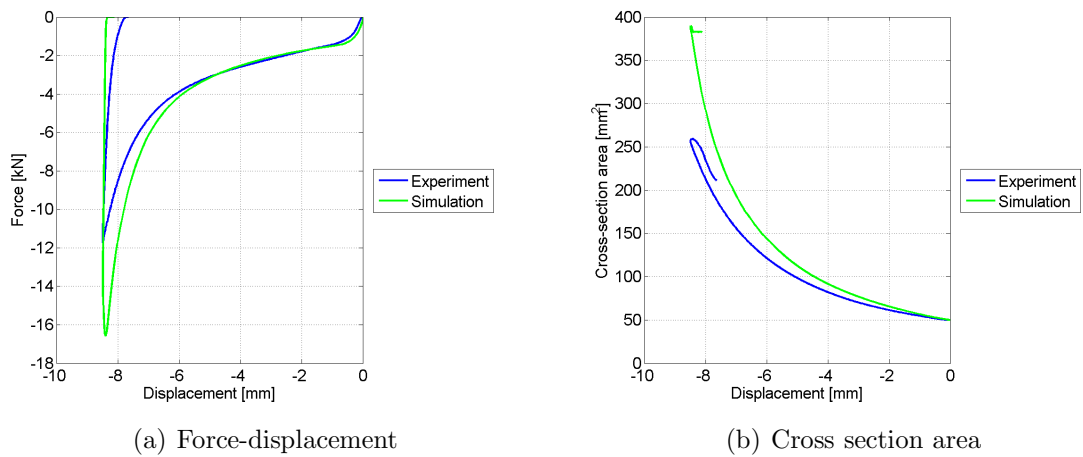


Figure 6.16: HDPE compression tests

### Volumetric strain

Figure 6.17 compares the longitudinal, area and volumetric strains of both the experiment and simulation. The larger area strains of the simulations leads to positive volumetric strains in compression.

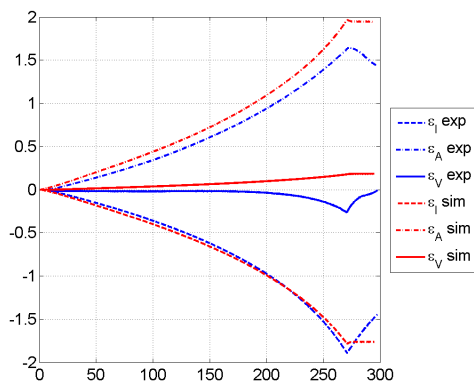


Figure 6.17: Longitudinal, area and volumetric strains for HDPE compression experiment and simulation

## 6.3 PVC

The parameters from Table 5.2 were used to simulate the material behavior of PVC.

### 6.3.1 Tension tests

#### Stress-strain

Figure 6.18 shows a comparison of the stress-strain relation from the PVC tension experiments and simulations. Both the node and the element method is presented, and the difference between these is smaller than for HDPE. The only difference is a higher yield stress when using the element method.

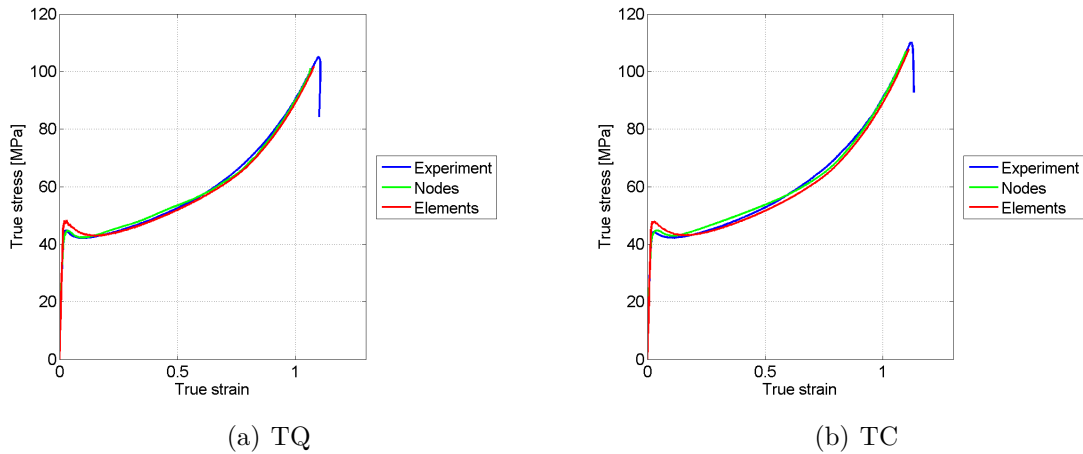


Figure 6.18: Stress-strain curves for PVC tension simulations using both node and element method

### Strain rate

The difference in strain rate at the start of the test between the experiment and simulation is even more apparent for PVC than it was for HDPE. Figure 6.19 gives the strain and stress from the PVC TC test plotted against displacement. Similar results are found for the TQ geometry.

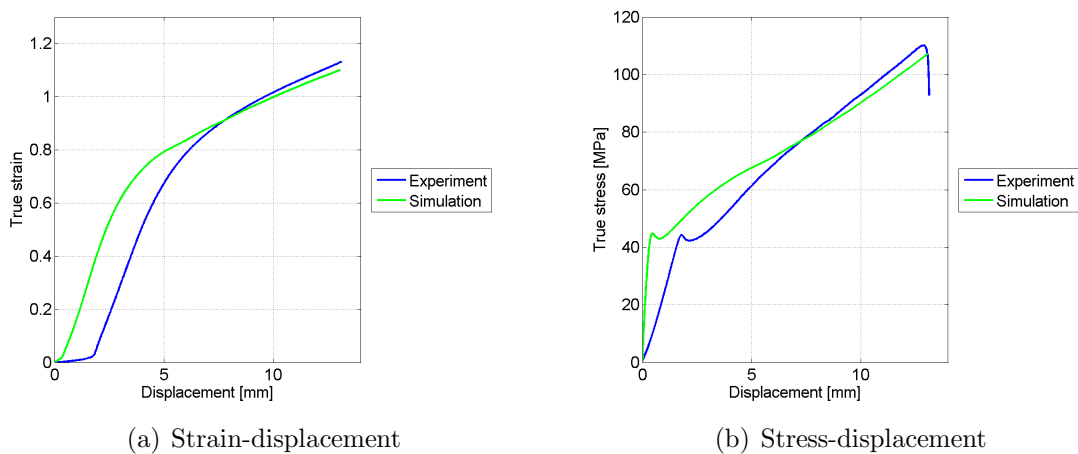


Figure 6.19: Comparing strains and stresses between experiments and simulations for TC using the node method

The strain rate for PVC is given in Figure 6.20(a) and shows a large difference in the timing of the maximum strain rate. An image comparing the geometry at 1 mm

displacement is shown in Figure 6.20(b). The simulation has started showing signs of necking at this point, while the experimental test specimens still has a straight gauge section.

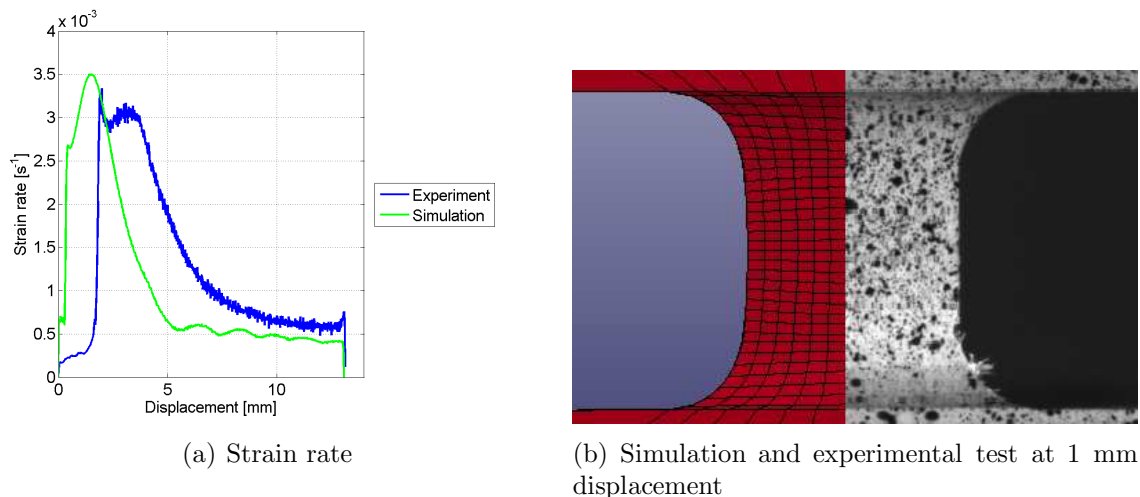


Figure 6.20: Strain rate

### Force-displacement

Again, the force-displacement curves from the simulations are off due to the difference in strain rate. The discrepancy is even larger for PVC than for HDPE.

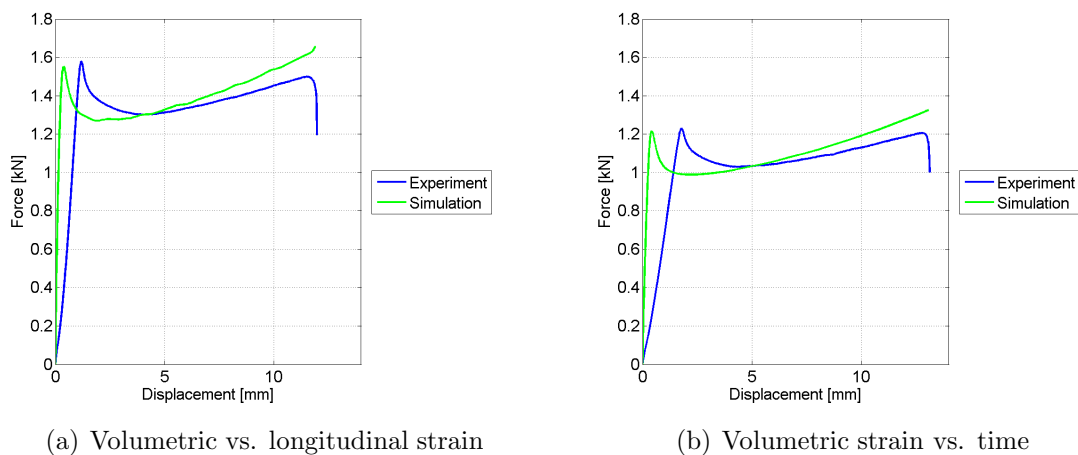


Figure 6.21: Force-displacement curves for PVC TQ simulations

### Volumetric strain

The volumetric strains of the PVC tension tests are presented in Figure 6.22 and 6.23. In this case, the node method actually does not give a good match. The simulations give a negative volumetric strain at the start of the test, which was not the case for the experiments. This is due to the significant necking of the simulations, while the PVC experiments actually had a very diffuse necking. This problem with reproducing the volumetric strain results could be due to void growth in the specimens, something the numerical model is not able to account for.

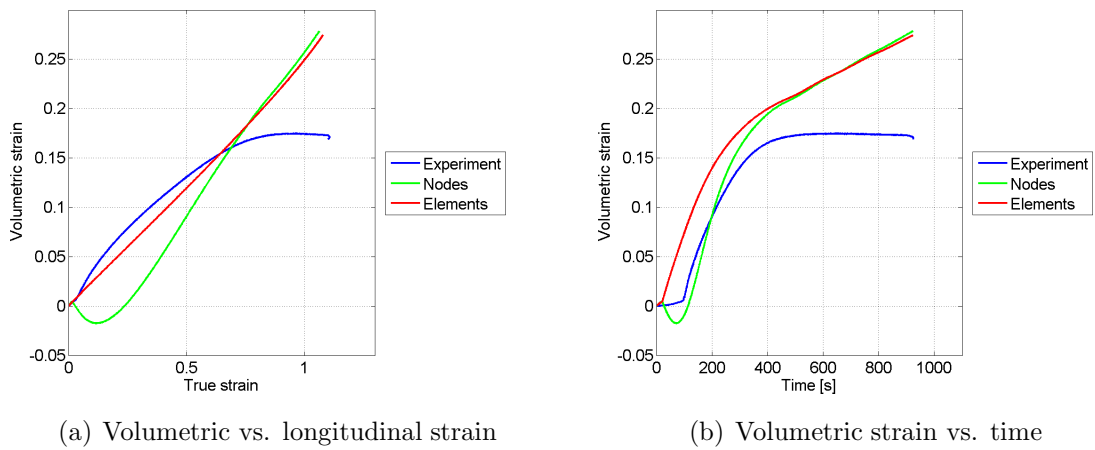


Figure 6.22: Volumetric strain curves for PVC TQ simulations

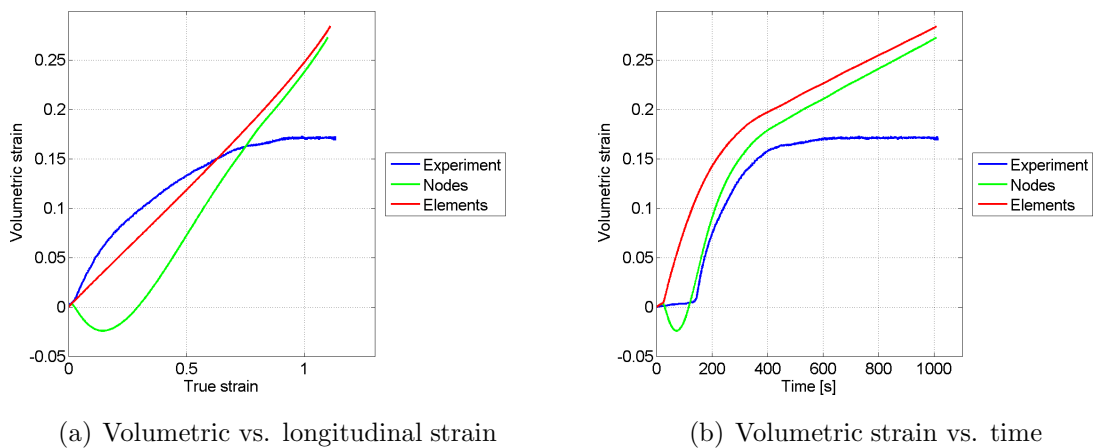


Figure 6.23: Volumetric strain curves for PVC TC simulations

### Cyclic loading

From Figure 6.24 it can be seen that the same problems arises for PVC when simulating cyclic loading. The unloading cycles result in negative forces for the simulations, and the cycles are shifted towards the end of the stress-strain curve.

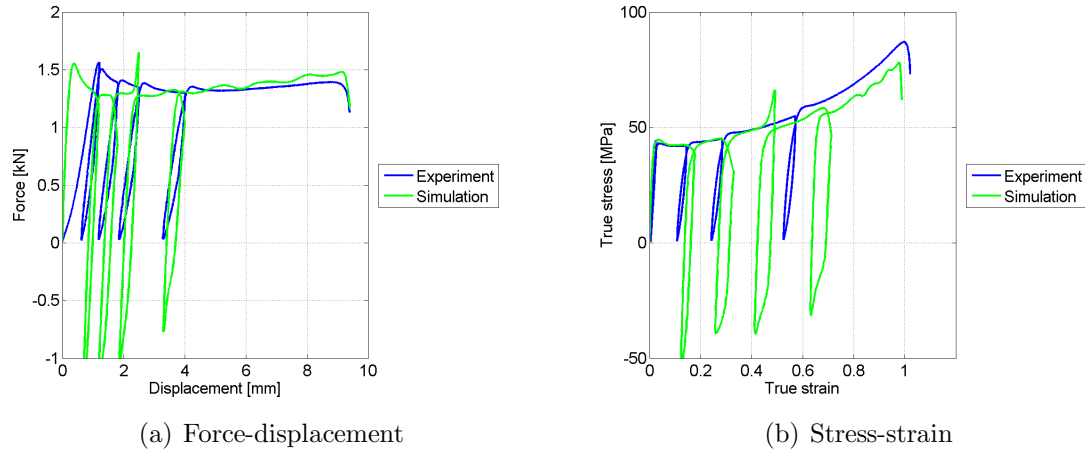


Figure 6.24: Cyclically loaded simulation

### 6.3.2 Compression tests

#### Stress-strain

The PVC compression simulations show a much higher stress than the simulations in Figure 6.25; this suggests a much larger force in the simulations. The node method gives a good comparison to the DIC strains in Figure 6.25(b), using a friction coefficient of 0.06 also for PVC.



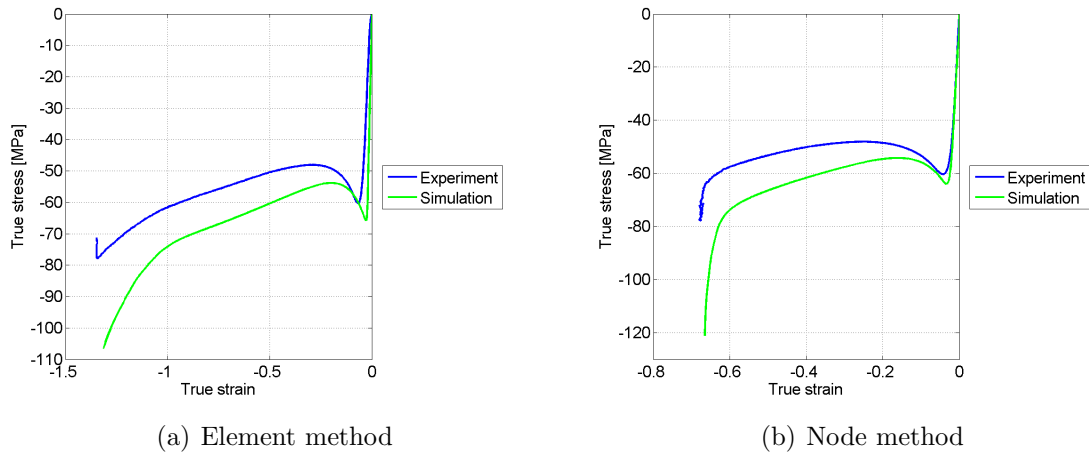


Figure 6.25: Force-displacement curves

### Force-displacement

As expected from the stress-strain curve, the force is larger in the simulations than the experiments, as seen in Figure 6.26. As for HDPE, this is due to the cross section area becoming larger and increasing the resistance of the specimen. This can be seen in Figure 6.26(b).

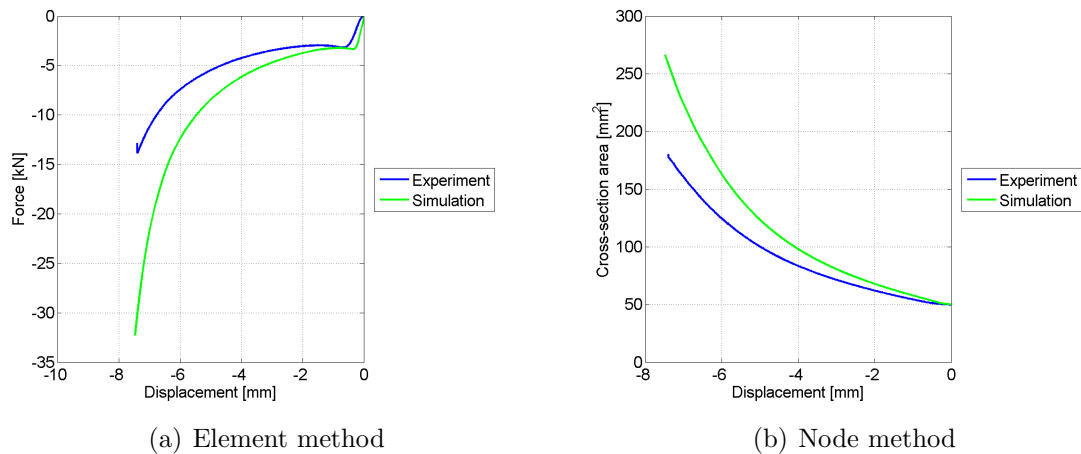


Figure 6.26: Force-displacement and cross section area

### Volumetric strain

Just like with HDPE, the area strain is larger in the simulations and gives a positive volumetric strain for the compression tests; this is illustrated in Figure 6.27.

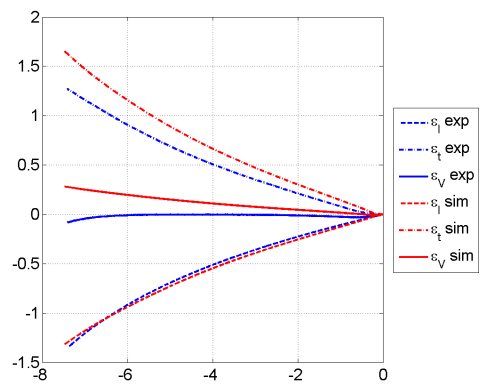


Figure 6.27: Volumetric strain for PVC compression tests

# Chapter 7

## Conclusion

Overall, the material model is able to reproduce the experimental tests very well. Both the stress-strain and force-displacement relations from the numerical simulations give a close match to those of the experimental tests. There are, however, certain problems with reproducing the correct strain history. In the simulations, necking occurs earlier and is more pronounced than in the experimental results. Almost all the deformation in the early stages of the simulation is focused on the elements in the section where necking first starts. There is almost no propagation of the neck until these elements have reached locking stretch. The experimental tests show a more diffuse necking, and the deformations are more evenly distributed along the gauge area at the early stages of the tests. For the compression geometry, there was a problem of too much expansion of the material in the transverse direction in the simulations. This resulted in the cross-section area, and in turn the force, being too large; it also gave a positive volumetric strain in compression.

In this thesis, two methods of determining the strains of the numerical simulations have been suggested. One uses the strains directly from the elements, while the other uses the relative displacement of the nodes on the surface of the specimen to calculate the strains. The node method is equivalent to the way strains from the experimental tests are determined using DIC, so this method is great for comparison between experiments and simulations. As this method only observe the surface of the specimen, this could lead to some small errors in the results. The strains from the element method should therefore be assumed to give the correct representation of the material behavior. The difference between the two methods may seem insignificant when evaluating the stress-strain relation; but other results, like the volumetric strain, is very sensitive to which method is used.

A new tension geometry, with a circular cross-section, was tested in this study. The results from this geometry were overall better than those from the quadratic geometry. The corners of the quadratic geometry give a strain field that varies along the specimen's surface. This problem is completely eliminated by using a circular geometry. Also, the difference between the two methods of determining the strains of the simulations is smaller for the circular geometry. This suggests that the difference in strain rate between the center of the specimen and the surface is also smaller using this geometry. It is therefore recommended that the circular geometry is used for future experiments.

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## Suggestions for further work

The reason behind the high strain rate at the start of the simulations should be looked more into. A solution to this would greatly improve the accuracy of the numerical simulations.

Due to time constraints, the cyclically loaded tests were not given much attention in this thesis. The simulations of these tests did not produce accurate results, and should be studied further.

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# Appendix A

## LS-DYNA k-files

The simulations were run using a k-file called main.k. This file used the \*INCLUDE command to include the material, mesh, load curve and contact conditions that were defined in separate files. The main.k example given here is for the simulation of PVC CC test number 1, but the files included can be changed depending on which test is run.

### A.1 main.k

```
*KEYWORD
*INCLUDE
CC.k
PVC.k
curve-PVCCC-1.k
contact.k
*CONTROL_TIMESTEP
$# dtinit      tssfacc      isdo      tslimt      dt2ms      lctm      erode      ms1st
      0.000  0.900000      0      0.000      0.000      0      0      0
$# dt2msf      dt2mslc      imscl
      0.000      0      0
*DATABASE_BNDOUT
$# dt      binary      lcur      iopt
      0.250000      1      0      1
*DATABASE_ELOUT
$# dt      binary      lcur      iopt
      0.250000      1      0      1
*DATABASE_NODFOR
$# dt      binary      lcur      iopt
      0.250000      1      0      1
*DATABASE_NODOUT
$# dt      binary      lcur      iopt      dthf      binhf
      0.250000      1      0      1      0.000      0
*DATABASE_BINARY_D3PLOT
$# dt      lcdt      beam      npltc      psetid
      0.500000      0      0      0      0
$# iopt
      0
```

## A.2. MESH FILES

---

```
*DATABASE_EXTENT_BINARY
$#  neiph      neips      maxint      strflg      sigflg      epsflg      rtlflg      engflg
      0         0         3           1           1           1           1           1
$#  cmpflg     ieverp      beamip      dcomp       shge        stssz       n3thdt      ialemat
      0         0         0           1           1           1           2           1
$#  nintsld    pkp_sen     sclp       unused      msscl       therm       intout      nodout
      1         0 1.000000    0           0           OSTRESS     STRESS

*DATABASE_NODAL_FORCE_GROUP
$#  nsid       cid
      1         0

*DATABASE_HISTORY_NODE_SET
$#  id1        id2        id3         id4         id5         id6         id7         id8
      6         7         0           0           0           0           0           0

*DATABASE_HISTORY_SOLID_SET
$#  id1        id2        id3         id4         id5         id6         id7         id8
      1         0         0           0           0           0           0           0

*BOUNDARY_PRESCRIBED_MOTION_RIGID
$#  pid        dof        vad         lcid        sf          vid         death       birth
      3         1         2           2 1.000000    01.0000E+28 0.000

*PART
$# title
HDPE
$#  pid        secid      mid         eosid       hgid        grav        adpopt      tmid
      1         1         1           0           0           0           0           0

*SECTION_SOLID
$#  secid     elform     aet
      1        -1         0

*END
```

## A.2 Mesh files

The mesh files include node and element list, node and element sets and boundary conditions. The node and element lists are not included in the appendix.

### A.2.1 TQ.k

```
*BOUNDARY_SPC_SET
$#  nsid       cid        dofx       dofy       dofz       dofrx      dofry      dofrz
      2         0         1          0          0          0          0          0

*SET_NODE_LIST_TITLE
bottom
$#  sid        da1        da2        da3        da4        solver
      2        0.000     0.000     0.000     0.000MECH
$#  nid1       nid2       nid3       nid4       nid5       nid6       nid7       nid8
```



APPENDIX A. LS-DYNA K-FILES

1730	1731	1732	1733	1734	1735	1736	1737	
1738	1739	1740	1741	1742	1743	1744	1745	
1746	1747	1748	1749	1750	1758	1763	1768	
1772	1782	1783	1789	1791	1793	1795	1798	
1801	1802	1810	1814	1815	1816	1817	1818	
1821	1822	1823	1824	1825	1826	1827	1831	
1832	1833	1834	1835	1837	1843	1845	1846	
1849	1851	1853	1867	1868	1873	1876	0	
*BOUNDARY_SPC_SET								
\$#	nsid	cid	dofx	dofy	dofz	dofrx	dofry	dofrz
	3	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
*SET_NODE_LIST_TITLE								
top								
\$#	sid	da1	da2	da3	da4	solver		
	3	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	MECH		
\$#	nid1	nid2	nid3	nid4	nid5	nid6	nid7	nid8
	568	569	570	571	572	573	574	575
	576	577	578	579	580	581	582	583
	584	585	586	587	588	596	601	606
	610	620	621	627	629	631	633	636
	639	640	648	652	653	654	655	656
	659	660	661	662	663	664	665	669
	670	671	672	673	675	681	683	684
	687	689	691	705	706	711	714	0
*BOUNDARY_SPC_SET								
\$#	nsid	cid	dofx	dofy	dofz	dofrx	dofry	dofrz
	4	0	0	1	0	1	0	1
*SET_NODE_LIST_TITLE								
xz								
\$#	sid	da1	da2	da3	da4	solver		
	4	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	MECH		
\$#	nid1	nid2	nid3	nid4	nid5	nid6	nid7	nid8
	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	28	29	30	31	32
	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48
	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56
	57	58	59	60	61	62	63	446
	447	448	449	450	469	470	502	528
	539	552	557	563	564	589	590	603
	605	610	622	623	625	632	633	635
	637	641	643	647	649	650	651	662
	663	664	671	676	682	683	707	712

## A.2. MESH FILES

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713	820	822	823	828	833	834	835
836	837	844	846	849	856	859	861
865	866	873	874	877	879	880	886
887	888	889	893	894	899	903	911
914	946	947	948	949	950	951	952
953	955	956	963	965	966	972	973
976	981	1163	1164	1165	1166	1167	1168
1169	1170	1171	1172	1173	1174	1175	1176
1177	1178	1179	1180	1181	1182	1183	1184
1185	1186	1187	1188	1189	1190	1191	1192
1193	1194	1195	1196	1197	1198	1199	1200
1201	1202	1203	1204	1205	1206	1207	1208
1209	1210	1211	1212	1213	1214	1215	1216
1217	1218	1608	1609	1610	1611	1612	1631
1632	1664	1690	1701	1714	1719	1725	1726
1751	1752	1765	1767	1772	1784	1785	1787
1794	1795	1797	1799	1803	1805	1809	1811
1812	1813	1824	1825	1826	1833	1838	1844
1845	1869	1874	1875	1982	1984	1985	1990
1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2006	2008	2011
2018	2021	2023	2027	2028	2035	2036	2039
2041	2042	2048	2049	2050	2051	2055	2056
2061	2065	2073	2076	2108	2109	2110	2111
2112	2113	2114	2115	2117	2118	2125	2127
2128	2134	2135	2138	2143	0	0	0

\*BOUNDARY\_SPC\_SET

\$#	nsid	cid	dofx	dofy	dofz	dofrx	dofry	dofrz
	5	0	0	0	1	1	1	0

\*SET\_NODE\_LIST\_TITLE

xy

\$#	sid	da1	da2	da3	da4	solver		
	5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	MECH		

\$#	nid1	nid2	nid3	nid4	nid5	nid6	nid7	nid8
	1	8	15	22	29	36	43	50
	57	64	71	78	85	92	99	106
	113	120	127	134	141	148	155	162
	169	176	183	190	197	204	211	218
	225	232	239	246	253	260	267	274
	281	288	295	302	309	316	323	330
	337	344	351	358	365	372	379	386
	393	400	407	414	421	428	435	443
	444	445	457	462	468	469	491	499
	511	521	522	526	529	539	546	550
	562	589	590	591	595	596	598	602
	607	611	614	615	618	621	630	638

APPENDIX A. LS-DYNA K-FILES

642	644	645	666	669	674	682	683
684	687	689	690	691	694	695	696
697	698	699	700	706	824	825	827
835	849	854	860	863	871	872	878
883	885	891	897	916	917	918	919
920	921	922	923	924	925	931	934
935	936	937	938	939	940	941	947
948	949	950	951	958	959	968	969
971	974	975	978	983	987	1163	1170
1177	1184	1191	1198	1205	1212	1226	1233
1240	1247	1254	1261	1268	1275	1289	1296
1303	1310	1317	1324	1331	1338	1352	1359
1366	1373	1380	1387	1394	1401	1415	1422
1429	1436	1443	1450	1457	1464	1478	1485
1492	1499	1506	1513	1520	1527	1541	1548
1555	1562	1569	1576	1583	1590	1605	1606
1607	1619	1624	1630	1631	1653	1661	1673
1683	1684	1688	1691	1701	1708	1712	1724
1751	1752	1753	1757	1758	1760	1764	1769
1773	1776	1777	1780	1783	1792	1800	1804
1806	1807	1828	1831	1836	1844	1845	1846
1849	1851	1852	1853	1856	1857	1858	1859
1860	1861	1862	1868	1986	1987	1989	1997
2011	2016	2022	2025	2033	2034	2040	2045
2047	2053	2059	2078	2079	2080	2081	2082
2083	2084	2085	2086	2087	2093	2096	2097
2098	2099	2100	2101	2102	2103	2109	2110
2111	2112	2113	2120	2121	2130	2131	2133
2136	2137	2140	2145	2149	0	0	0

\*SET\_NODE\_LIST\_TITLE  
center

\$#	sid	da1	da2	da3	da4	solver	
	1	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	MECH	

\$#	nid1	nid2	nid3	nid4	nid5	nid6	nid7	nid8
	57	58	59	60	61	62	63	120
	121	122	123	124	125	126	183	184
	185	186	187	188	189	246	247	248
	249	250	251	252	309	310	311	312
	313	314	315	372	373	374	375	376
	377	378	435	436	437	438	439	440
	441	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

\*SET\_NODE\_LIST\_TITLE  
disp

\$#	sid	da1	da2	da3	da4	solver	
	6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	MECH	

## A.2. MESH FILES

---

```
$#   nid1   nid2   nid3   nid4   nid5   nid6   nid7   nid8
      568     0     0     0     0     0     0     0
*SET_NODE_LIST_TITLE
strains
$#   sid     da1     da2     da3     da4   solver
      7   0.000   0.000   0.000   0.000MECH
$#   nid1   nid2   nid3   nid4   nid5   nid6   nid7   nid8
      56     63    119    126    182    189    245    252
      308    315    371    378    434    441     0     0
*SET_SOLID_TITLE
section
$#   sid     solver
      1MECH
$#   k1     k2     k3     k4     k5     k6     k7     k8
      43     44     45     46     47     48     91     92
      93     94     95     96    139    140    141    142
     143    144    187    188    189    190    191    192
     235    236    237    238    239    240    283    284
     285    286    287    288     0     0     0     0
```

### A.2.2 TC.k

```
*TITLE
$# title
LS-DYNA keyword deck by LS-PrePost
*BOUNDARY_SPC_SET
$#   nsid   cid     dofx   dofy   dofz   dofrx   dofry   dofrz
      2     0     1     0     0     0     0     0
*SET_NODE_LIST_TITLE
bottom
$#   sid     da1     da2     da3     da4   solver
      2   0.000   0.000   0.000   0.000MECH
$#   nid1   nid2   nid3   nid4   nid5   nid6   nid7   nid8
      998    999    1000    1002    1004    1009    1022    1023
     1028    1030    1031    1032    1034    1055    1056    1057
     1058    1059    1060    1061    1062    1063    1064    1065
     1066    1067    1068    1069    1070    1071    1072    1073
     1074    1075    1076    1077    1099    1100    1103    1108
     1109    1110    1111     0     0     0     0     0
*BOUNDARY_SPC_SET
$#   nsid   cid     dofx   dofy   dofz   dofrx   dofry   dofrz
      3     0     0     0     0     0     1     1
*SET_NODE_LIST_TITLE
top
$#   sid     da1     da2     da3     da4   solver
```

APPENDIX A. LS-DYNA K-FILES

```

      3      0.000      0.000      0.000      0.000MECH
$#  nid1      nid2      nid3      nid4      nid5      nid6      nid7      nid8
      52      53      54      56      58      63      76      77
      82      84      85      86      88      109     110     111
      112     113     114     115     116     117     118     119
      120     121     122     123     124     125     126     127
      128     129     130     131     153     154     157     162
      163     164     165      0      0      0      0      0
*BOUNDARY_SPC_SET
$#  nsid      cid      dofx      dofy      dofz      dofrx      dofry      dofrz
      4      0      0      1      0      1      0      1
*SET_NODE_LIST_TITLE
xz
$#  sid      da1      da2      da3      da4      solver
      4      0.000     0.000     0.000     0.000MECH
$#  nid1      nid2      nid3      nid4      nid5      nid6      nid7      nid8
      24      25      30      32      33      34      39      44
      46      47      52      53      54      58      59      61
      62      63      65      66      74      79      82      83
      89      90      95      98      99     100     101     102
      103     104     105     106     107     108     155     157
      159     166     259     260     261     262     263     264
      265     266     267     268     269     270     271     272
      273     274     275     276     277     278     279     280
      281     282     283     284     285     393     395     397
      400     401     402     403     416     417     418     419
      422     426     427     428     429     433     435     436
      437     441     442     444     446     448     449     450
      453     477     478     479     480     481     482     483
      484     682     686     695     696     697     698     699
      701     702     703     704     705     706     707     708
      709     710     711     712     713     714     717     718
      719     720     721     722     723     724     725     726
      727     728     729     730     764     765     766     767
      768     769     770     771     772     773     774     775
      776     777     970     971     976     978     979     980
      985     990     992     993     998     999    1000    1004
     1005    1007    1008    1009    1011    1012    1020    1025
     1028    1029    1035    1036    1041    1044    1045    1046
     1047    1048    1049    1050    1051    1052    1053    1054
     1101    1103    1105    1112    1205    1206    1207    1208
     1209    1210    1211    1212    1213    1214    1215    1216
     1217    1218    1219    1220    1221    1222    1223    1224
     1225    1226    1227    1228    1229    1230    1231    1339
     1341    1343     400     401     402     403    1362    1363

```

## A.2. MESH FILES

---

1364	1365	1368	1372	1373	1374	1375	1379	
1381	436	437	1387	1388	444	1392	1394	
1395	1396	1399	1423	1424	1425	1426	1427	
1428	1429	1430	1628	1632	1641	1642	1643	
1644	1645	1647	1648	1649	1650	1651	1652	
1653	1654	1655	1656	1657	1658	1659	1660	
1663	1664	1665	1666	1667	1668	1669	1670	
1671	1672	1673	1674	1675	1676	1710	1711	
1712	1713	1714	1715	1716	1717	1718	1719	
1720	1721	1722	1723	0	0	0	0	
*BOUNDARY_SPC_SET								
\$#	nsid	cid	dofx	dofy	dofz	dofrx	dofry	dofrz
	5	0	0	0	1	1	1	0
*SET_NODE_LIST_TITLE								
xy								
\$#	sid	da1	da2	da3	da4	solver		
	5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	MECH		
\$#	nid1	nid2	nid3	nid4	nid5	nid6	nid7	nid8
	24	27	31	35	36	37	43	45
	49	50	56	59	61	80	82	89
	132	133	134	135	136	137	138	139
	140	141	142	143	144	145	146	147
	148	149	150	151	153	162	163	164
	165	166	335	336	337	338	339	340
	341	342	343	344	345	346	347	348
	349	350	351	352	353	354	355	356
	357	358	359	360	361	362	363	364
	365	366	367	368	369	395	396	398
	399	411	412	413	414	415	416	417
	418	421	422	424	425	426	430	432
	434	436	438	439	442	443	445	448
	452	646	647	648	649	650	651	652
	653	654	655	656	657	658	659	660
	661	662	663	664	665	666	667	668
	669	670	671	672	724	725	726	727
	728	729	730	731	732	733	734	735
	736	737	778	779	780	781	782	783
	784	785	970	973	977	981	982	983
	989	991	995	996	1002	1005	1007	1026
	1028	1035	1078	1079	1080	1081	1082	1083
	1084	1085	1086	1087	1088	1089	1090	1091
	1092	1093	1094	1095	1096	1097	1099	1108
	1109	1110	1111	1112	1281	1282	1283	1284
	1285	1286	1287	1288	1289	1290	1291	1292
	1293	1294	1295	1296	1297	1298	1299	1300

APPENDIX A. LS-DYNA K-FILES

1301	1302	1303	1304	1305	1306	1307	1308
1309	1310	1311	1312	1313	1314	1315	1341
1342	1344	1345	411	412	413	414	415
1362	1363	1364	421	1368	1370	1371	1372
1376	1378	1380	436	1384	1385	1388	1389
1391	1394	1398	1592	1593	1594	1595	1596
1597	1598	1599	1600	1601	1602	1603	1604
1605	1606	1607	1608	1609	1610	1611	1612
1613	1614	1615	1616	1617	1618	1670	1671
1672	1673	1674	1675	1676	1677	1678	1679
1680	1681	1682	1683	1724	1725	1726	1727
1728	1729	1730	1731	0	0	0	0

\*SET\_NODE\_LIST\_TITLE  
center

\$#	sid	da1	da2	da3	da4	solver		
	1	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	MECH		

\$#	nid1	nid2	nid3	nid4	nid5	nid6	nid7	nid8
	370	371	372	373	374	375	376	377
	378	379	380	381	382	383	384	385
	386	387	388	389	390	391	392	400
	401	402	403	404	405	406	407	408
	409	410	411	412	413	414	415	421
	436	437	444	370	371	372	373	374
	375	376	377	378	379	380	381	382
	383	384	385	386	387	388	389	390
	391	392	400	401	402	403	404	405
	406	407	408	409	410	411	412	413
	414	415	421	436	437	444	0	0

\*SET\_NODE\_LIST\_TITLE  
disp

\$#	sid	da1	da2	da3	da4	solver		
	6	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	MECH		

\$#	nid1	nid2	nid3	nid4	nid5	nid6	nid7	nid8
	52	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

\*SET\_NODE\_LIST\_TITLE  
strains

\$#	sid	da1	da2	da3	da4	solver		
	7	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	MECH		

\$#	nid1	nid2	nid3	nid4	nid5	nid6	nid7	nid8
	419	437	404	316	319	405	406	322
	325	407	408	334	331	409	410	328
	443	421	0	0	0	0	0	0

\*SET\_SOLID\_TITLE  
section

\$#	sid	solver	
-----	-----	--------	--

## A.3. MATERIAL FILES

---

	1MECH							
\$#	k1	k2	k3	k4	k5	k6	k7	k8
	292	296	300	304	308	312	316	320
	321	322	323	324	337	338	339	340
	353	354	355	356	369	370	371	372
	388	392	396	400	404	408	412	416

## A.3 Material files

### A.3.1 HDPE.k

\*MAT\_USER\_DEFINED\_MATERIAL\_MODELS

```
$#      mid      ro      mt      lmc      nhv      iortho      ibulk      ig
      1 9.400000      46      16      50      0      15      16
$#  ivect      ifail      itherm      ihyper      ieos      lmca      unused      unused
      1      0      0      1      0      0      0      0
$      E      PR      Eps0      Ct      St      Cr      Lam      Alpha
      1400      0.43 1.00E-02      0.12      12.1      1.5      5.6      1.00
$      beta      Sigsat      H      Epsfail      K      G
      1.07      0.0      26.10      56.00      3333      490
*END
```

### A.3.2 PVC.k

\*MAT\_USER\_DEFINED\_MATERIAL\_MODELS

```
$#      mid      ro      mt      lmc      nhv      iortho      ibulk      ig
      1 940.00E-2      46      16      50      0      15      16
$#  ivect      ifail      itherm      ihyper      ieos      lmca      unused      unused
      1      0      0      1      0      0      0      0
$      E      PR      Eps0      Ct      St      Cr      Lam      Alpha
      2800      0.38 1.00E-03      0.07      44.4      10.2      2.28      1.33
$      beta      Sigsat      H      Epsfail      K      G
      1.16      0.0      31.20      12.00      3889      1015
```

## A.4 Displacement curve

The displacement curves were created using the displacement history of the experimental tests. The example given here is from the cyclic test HDPE TQ 6.

\*CONTROL\_TERMINATION

```
$#  endtim  endcyc      dtmin  endeng  endmas
      4854.0000      0      0.0000      0.0000      0.0000
```

\*DEFINE\_CURVE



```

$#   lcid      sidr      sfa      sfo      offa      offo      dattyp
      2         0  1.000000  1.000000   0.000   0.000        0
$#           a1              o1
      0.000000          0.000000
      206.000000        2.591300
      314.000000        1.247615
      530.000000        3.993521
      630.000000        2.760988
      864.000000        5.744325
      978.000000        4.319742
     1308.000000        8.542849
     1448.000000        6.782837
     3466.000000       32.942337
     3780.000000       28.916528
     4864.000000       42.833568

```

## A.5 Contact conditions

This k-file is only used for the compression tests. It defines the material properties of the two boxes used in the simulation, and the conditions of the contact surface.

```

*CONTACT_AUTOMATIC_SINGLE_SURFACE_ID
$#   cid                                     title
      1
$#   ssid      msid      sstyp      mstyp      sboxid      mboxid      spr      mpr
      1         0         2         0         0         0         0         0
$#   fs        fd        dc        vc        vdc        penchk      bt        dt
      0.060000  0.000000   0.000   0.000   0.000         0   0.0001.0000E+20
$#   sfs       sfm       sst       mst       sfst       sfmt       fsf       vsf
     10.000000  1.000000   0.000   0.000  1.000000  1.000000  1.000000  1.000000
*PART
$# title
top
$#   pid      secid      mid      eosid      hgid      grav      adpopt      tmid
      3         1         3         0         0         0         0         0
*MAT_RIGID_TITLE
top
$#   mid      ro      e      pr      n      couple      m      alias
      35.0000E-10  1.000E+04  0.300000   0.000   0.000   0.000   0.000
$#   cmo      con1      con2
      1.000000        5         7
$#   lco or a1      a2      a3      v1      v2      v3
      0.000      0.000      0.000      0.000      0.000      0.000
*PART

```

## A.5. CONTACT CONDITIONS

---

```

$# title
bottom
$#      pid      secid      mid      eosid      hgid      grav      adpopt      tmid
        4         1         4         0         0         0         0         0
*MAT_RIGID_TITLE
bottom
$#      mid      ro      e      pr      n      couple      m      alias
        45.0000E-10 1.000E+04 0.300000 0.000 0.000 0.000
$#      cmo      con1      con2
        1.000000      7      7
$# lco or a1      a2      a3      v1      v2      v3
        0.000      0.000      0.000      0.000      0.000      0.000
*SET_PART_LIST_TITLE
Slave
$#      sid      da1      da2      da3      da4      solver
        1      0.000      0.000      0.000      0.000MECH
$#      pid1      pid2      pid3      pid4      pid5      pid6      pid7      pid8
        1      3      4      0      0      0      0      0
*SET_PART_LIST_TITLE
Master
$#      sid      da1      da2      da3      da4      solver
        2      0.000      0.000      0.000      0.000MECH
$#      pid1      pid2      pid3      pid4      pid5      pid6      pid7      pid8
        3      4      0      0      0      0      0      0

```

# Appendix B

## Matlab scripts

Here, the Matlab scripts used for obtaining the results of the experimental tests and simulations are presented.

### B.1 testdata.m

This script reads the file written by the test machine containing the force and displacement of the experimental tests. It also reads the file written by eCorr that contains the strains of the tests.

```
clear all
clc

mat = 'HDPE';
geo = 'RUTS6';

for test = 1:2

dir = ['C:\Master\' mat '\ geo '\'];

% Load log file
fLog = [geo '-' num2str(test) '_Log.txt'];
A = importdata([dir fLog], '\t', 5); A = A.data;
col = size(A, 2);
if col == 5
    A(:, 3) = [];
end

[removed, sm, steps, slutt] = testedit(mat, geo, test, A);
A(slutt:end, :) = [];

% Extract frame, time, force and displacement
fr = A(:, 1);
t = A(:, 2);
F = A(:, 3);
D = A(:, 4);
```

```
if strcmp(mat,'HDPE',4) && strcmp(geo,'RUT66',5) && test <= 4
    testdata2D;
else
    % Load strains and sides
    feps = ['strains\' geo '-' num2str(test) '_strains.txt'];

    % Extract strains
    eps = importdata([dir feps],',',4); eps = eps.data;
    [row,col] = size(eps);
    Nele = col/2;
    if strcmp(geo,'Trykk',5)
        epsTe = eps(:,1:Nele);
        epsLe = eps(:,Nele+1:col);
    else
        epsLe = eps(:,1:Nele);
        epsTe = eps(:,Nele+1:col);
    end
end
epsLe(slutt:end,:) = [];
epsTe(slutt:end,:) = [];

% Strain rate
Depse = zeros(size(epsLe));
for j = 1:size(epsLe,2)
    for i = 2:size(epsLe,1)-1
        Depse(i,j) = (epsLe(i+1,j)-epsLe(i-1,j))/(t(i+1)-t(i-1));
    end
end

% Area and volumetric strain, and mean strains
if strcmp(geo,'RUT66',5)
    epsAe = 2*epsTe;
else
    epsAe = log(exp(epsTe).^2);
end
epsVe = epsLe + epsAe;

epsL = mean(epsLe,2);
epsT = mean(epsTe,2);
epsA = mean(epsAe,2);
epsV = mean(epsVe,2);
```

```
Depos = mean(Depose,2);

% Formatting data to start at zero
D(1:removed) = [];
F(1:removed) = [];
epsL(1:removed) = [];
epsT(1:removed) = [];
epsA(1:removed) = [];
epsV(1:removed) = [];
Depos(1:removed) = [];

if ~strcmp(mat,'PVC') || ~strcmp(geo,'RUT66') || test ~= 5
    D = D - D(1);
    F = F - F(1);
    epsL = epsL - epsL(1);
    epsT = epsT - epsT(1);
    epsA = epsA - epsA(1);
    epsV = epsV - epsV(1);
    Depos = Depos - Depos(1);
end

D = [zeros(removed,1); D];
F = [zeros(removed,1); F];
epsL = [zeros(removed,1); epsL];
epsT = [zeros(removed,1); epsT];
epsA = [zeros(removed,1); epsA];
epsV = [zeros(removed,1); epsV];
Depos = [zeros(removed,1); Depos];

for i = 1:sm
    D(1:steps) = smooth(D(1:steps));
    D(1) = 0;
    F(1:steps) = smooth(F(1:steps));
    F(1) = 0;
    epsL(1:steps) = smooth(epsL(1:steps));
    epsL(1,:) = 0;
    epsT(1:steps) = smooth(epsT(1:steps));
    epsT(1,:) = 0;
    epsA(1:steps) = smooth(epsA(1:steps));
    epsA(1,:) = 0;
    epsV(1:steps) = smooth(epsV(1:steps));
    epsV(1,:) = 0;
end
```

```

        Deps(1:steps) = smooth(Deps(1:steps));
        Deps(1,:) = 0;
end

% Cross section area
if strcmp(geo,'RUT66')
    d0 = 6;
    d = d0*exp(epsT);
    A = d.^2;
elseif strcmp(geo,'RUTS6')
    r0 = 3;
    r = r0*exp(epsT);
    A = pi*r.^2;
elseif strcmp(geo,'Trykk')
    r0 = 4;
    r = r0*exp(epsT);
    A = pi*r.^2;
end

H = 10 + D;
if strcmp(geo,'Trykk')
    epssecL = log(H/H(1));
    epssecV = epssecL + epsA;
    Depssec = zeros(size(epssecL));
    for i = 2:length(epssecL)-1
        Depssec(i) = (epssecL(i+1)-epssecL(i-1))/(t(i+1)-t(i-1));
    end
end

% Stress
sig = 1000*F./A;
sig = sig - sig(1);

fclose all;

end

```

## B.2 nodoutread.m

This script reads the nodout file from LS-DYNA, containing the displacement of the nodes of the numerical simulations. It also reads the bndout file, which contains the

force history of the simulations.

```
clear all
clc

mat = 'HDPE';
geo = 'Trykk';
test = 'nofric';

dir = ['C:\Master\LS-DYNA\' mat '\ ' geo '\ ' test];
nod = fopen([dir '\nodout']);

% Finding number of nodes
tline = fgetl(nod);
while ~strncmp(tline,' nodal',5)
    tline = fgetl(nod);
end
Nnod = 0;
while ~strcmp(tline,'')
    Nnod = Nnod + 1;
    tline = fgetl(nod);
end
fclose all;
Nnod = Nnod - 2;

% Extracting time, displacement and coordinates
nod = fopen([dir '\nodout']);
D = [0; 0];
F = D;
t = D;
k = 0;
s = 0;
while k < 20
    k = k + 1;
    tline = fgetl(nod);
    if strcmp(tline,' n o d',6) == 1
        s = s + 1;
        t(s) = sscanf(tline,'%*104c%f',[1 1]);
        fgetl(nod);
        fgetl(nod);

        if ~strcmp(geo,'RUT66')
            tline = str2num(fgetl(nod));
```

```
        D(s) = tline(2);
    end

    for i = 1:Nnod
        tline = str2num(fgetl(nod));
        C(i,:,s) = [tline(11:13) tline(1) 0];
    end

    if strcmp(geo,'RUT66')
        tline = str2num(fgetl(nod));
        D(s) = tline(2);
    end

    k = 0;
end
end

% Sorting coordinate matrix
C(:, :, 1) = sortrows(C(:, :, 1), [2 1]);
for i = 1:Nnod
    nodnum(i, 1) = i;
    if i < Nnod && abs(C(i, 2, 1) - C(i+1, 2, 1)) < 0.01;
        C(i, 2, 1) = C(i+1, 2, 1);
    end
end
end
C(:, :, 1) = sortrows(C(:, :, 1), [2 1]);
nodnum(:, 2) = C(:, 4, 1);
for i = 1:s
    for j = 1:Nnod
        for k = 1:size(nodnum, 1)
            if C(j, 4, i) == nodnum(k, 2)
                C(j, 5, i) = nodnum(k, 1);
            end
        end
    end
end
end
for i = 1:s
    C(:, :, i) = sortrows(C(:, :, i), 5);
end

% Converting coordinates to strains
[epsLe, epsTe] = coord2strains(C, Nnod, s);
```



```
Depse = zeros(size(epsLe));
for j = 1:size(epsLe,2)
    for i = 2:size(epsLe,1)-1
        Depse(i,j) = (epsLe(i+1,j)-epsLe(i-1,j))/(t(i+1)-t(i-1));
    end
end

% Area and volumetric strains
if strcmp(geo,'RUT66',5)
    epsAe = 2*epsTe;
else
    epsAe = log(exp(epsTe).^2);
end
epsVe = epsLe + epsAe;

epsL = mean(epsLe,2);
epsT = mean(epsTe,2);
epsA = mean(epsAe,2);
epsV = mean(epsVe,2);
Deps = mean(Depse,2);

% Radius and area
if strcmp(geo,'RUT66')
    d0 = 6;
    d = d0*exp(epsT);
    A = d.^2;
else
    r0 = pythagoras([0 0 0],C(Nnod-1,1:3,1));
    r = r0*exp(epsTe(:,1));
    A = pi*r.^2;
end

fclose all;

bnd = fopen([dir '\bndout']);

k = 0;
s = 0;
while k < 400
    k = k + 1;
```

```
tline = fgetl(bnd);
if strncmp(tline,'                xtotal=',21) == 1
    s = s + 1;
    b = sscanf(tline,'%*22c%f',[1 1]);
    F(s) = 4*b/1000;
    k = 0;
end
end

rev = reversal(mat,geo,test);
stop = 0;
if rev ~= 0
    for j = 1:length(rev)
        start = stop + 1;
        stop = rev(j) - 1;
        for k = 1:30
            F(start:stop) = smooth(F(start:stop));
            F(1) = 0;
        end
        F(rev(j)) = F(rev(j)-1);
    end
    F(end) = [];
else
    for j = 1:30
        F = smooth(F);
        F(1) = 0;
    end
end
end

sig = 1000*F./A;

fclose all;
```

## B.3 eloutread.m

This script reads the elout file from LS-DYNA, containing the strains and stresses of the elements of the numerical simulations.

```
dir = ['C:\Master\LS-DYNA\' mat '\' geo '\' test];
el = fopen([dir '\elout']);

[Nele,center,corner,side] = sectionoutput(geo,test);
```

```
Nsid = length(side);

k = 0;
i = 0;
while k < 50
    k = k + 1;
    tline = fgetl(e1);
    if strcmp(tline,'element stress',28) == 1
        i = i + 1;

        % Time
        t(i) = sscanf(tline,'%*82c%f%*12c%f',[1 1]);

        % Empty lines
        for j = 1:4
            fgetl(e1);
        end

        for j = 1:Nele
            fgetl(e1);
            tline = str2num(fgetl(e1));

            s11e(i,j) = tline(2);
            s22e(i,j) = tline(3);
            s33e(i,j) = tline(4);
            s12e(i,j) = tline(5);
            s23e(i,j) = tline(6);
            s31e(i,j) = tline(7);
        end

        % Empty lines
        for j = 1:7
            fgetl(e1);
        end

        for j = 1:Nele
            fgetl(e1);
            tline = str2num(fgetl(e1));

            % Strains section
            epssecLe(i,j) = tline(2);
            epssecTye(i,j) = tline(3);
```

```
        epssecTze(i,j) = tline(4);
    end

    k = 0;
end
end

epssecAe = epssecTye + epssecTze;
epssecVe = epssecLe + epssecAe;

epssecL = mean(epssecLe,2);
epssecTy = mean(epssecTye,2);
epssecTz = mean(epssecTze,2);
epssecA = mean(epssecAe,2);
epssecV = mean(epssecVe,2);

sigsece = s11e;
sigsec = mean(sigsece,2);
Fs = sigsec.*A/1000;

fclose all;
```