

Gustav Svensson

# Fatigue prediction models of Dynamic Power Cables by laboratory testing and FE analysis

Master's thesis in Nordic Master in Maritime Engineering

Supervisor: Svein Saevik, Jonas Ringsberg

June 2020

**NTNU**  
Norwegian University of Science and Technology  
Faculty of Engineering  
Department of Marine Technology



Norwegian University of  
Science and Technology



---

# Fatigue prediction models of Dynamic Power Cables by laboratory testing and FE analysis

---

By  
Gustav Svensson

Master's thesis in Maritime Engineering

Submission: 10<sup>th</sup> June 2020.  
Supervisors: Prof. Svein Saevik, Prof. Jonas Ringsberg.

Department of Marine Technology  
Faculty of Engineering  
Norwegian University of Science and Technology

Department of Mechanics and Maritime Sciences.  
Division of Marine Technology  
Chalmers University of Technology



## MASTER THESIS SPRING 2020

for

**Stud. Tech. Gustav Svensson**

### **Fatigue prediction models of Dynamic Power Cables by laboratory testing and FE analysis**

*Utmattingsmodeller for kraftkabler basert på kombinert testing og elementanalyse*

Power cables used as dynamic risers connecting floating offshore wind turbines to the seabed infrastructure will be exposed to loads related to current, waves and associated floater motion. Full scale fatigue tests of copper conductors have been performed and are still ongoing. Meanwhile, small scale fatigue tests of each wire of the conductor have also been performed.

The master thesis work is to be carried out as a continuation of the project work performed during Fall 2019 where the major objective is to combine small scale test fatigue data with FE analysis to investigate the correlation with full scale test results. The work is to be carried out as follows:

1. Continue literature review into power cables, fatigue of copper conductors, relevant rules and standards, methods for structural analysis of cabled structures.
2. Establish models of the full-scale test set-up at different curvature radii and perform FE stress analyses.
3. Perform stress sensitivity analyses with respect to element mesh, contact stiffness by considering axial stiffness test data, modelling procedure and friction coefficient.
4. Perform fatigue analysis and compare to full scale test data.
5. Conclusions and recommendations for further work

The work scope may prove to be larger than initially anticipated. Subject to approval from the supervisors, topics may be deleted from the list above or reduced in extent.

In the report, the candidate shall present her personal contribution to the resolution of problems within the scope of the thesis work

Theories and conclusions should be based on mathematical derivations and/or logic reasoning identifying the various steps in the deduction.



The candidate should utilise the existing possibilities for obtaining relevant literature.

#### Thesis report format

The report should be organised in a rational manner to give a clear exposition of results, assessments, and conclusions. The text should be brief and to the point, with a clear language. Telegraphic language should be avoided.

The report shall contain the following elements: A text defining the scope, preface, list of contents, summary, main body of thesis, conclusions with recommendations for further work, list of symbols and acronyms, references and (optional) appendices. All figures, tables and equations shall be numerated.

The supervisors may require that the candidate, in an early stage of the work, presents a written plan for the completion of the work.

The original contribution of the candidate and material taken from other sources shall be clearly defined. Work from other sources shall be properly referenced using an acknowledged referencing system.

The report shall be submitted in electronic format (.pdf):

- Signed by the candidate
- The text defining the scope shall be included (this document)
- Drawings and/or computer models that are not suited to be part of the report in terms of appendices shall be provided on separate (.zip) files.

#### Ownership

NTNU has according to the present rules the ownership of the thesis reports. Any use of the report has to be approved by NTNU (or external partner when this applies). The department has the right to use the report as if the work was carried out by a NTNU employee, if nothing else has been agreed in advance.

#### Thesis supervisors:

Prof. Svein Sævik, NTNU, Dr. Naiquan Ye, SINTEF Ocean and Prof. Jonas Ringsberg, Chalmers.

Deadline: 10<sup>th</sup> of June, 2020

Trondheim, January 7, 2020

Svein Sævik

Candidate – date and signature: 9 June

*Gustav Ivensson*

## Table of contents:

Preface .....	VI
Acknowledgement.....	VII
Abstract .....	VIII
Summary.....	IX
List of figures.....	XI
List of tables.....	XII
Nomenclature .....	XIII
1. Introduction.....	1
1.1 Background .....	1
1.2 Motivation.....	3
1.3 Objectives.....	3
1.4 Laboratory test data.....	4
1.5 Limitations.....	4
2. Subsea Power Cables .....	5
2.1 General design of subsea power cables.....	5
2.2 Conductors.....	6
2.3 Terminology.....	8
2.4 Fatigue of copper conductors.....	10
2.5 Standards and Guidelines .....	12
2.6 Stick and Slip behaviour .....	13
3. Fatigue.....	15
3.1 Introduction .....	15
3.2 Mean stress correction.....	16
3.3 The SN-Approach (Whöler curves).....	17
3.4 Cumulative damage – Miner sum .....	18
3.5 Analytical calculation of stress ranges.....	19
4. Fretting .....	21
4.1 Introduction .....	21
4.2 Contact theory.....	21
4.3 Fretting maps.....	22
5. Finite Element Analysis .....	25
5.1 Overview of the Finite Element method .....	25
5.2 BFLEX .....	26
5.3 Principle of virtual displacement.....	27
5.4 Nonlinear analysis .....	29

5.5	Material Modell.....	29
5.6	Solution procedure.....	30
5.6.1	Static analysis .....	30
5.6.2	Dynamic analysis.....	31
5.6.3	Convergence criteria.....	33
5.7	Elements formulation.....	33
5.7.1	PIPE31 .....	33
5.7.2	HSHEAR363.....	34
5.7.3	HSHEAR353.....	34
5.7.4	HCONT463 .....	37
5.7.5	HCONT454 .....	37
6.	Modelling.....	39
6.1	Procedure.....	39
6.2	Cross-section definition.....	41
6.3	Material data.....	41
6.4	Boundary conditions .....	42
6.5	Mesh Sensitivity & Length optimization .....	42
6.6	Fatigue set up .....	43
7.	Results.....	44
7.1	Analytical model.....	44
7.2	Friction coefficient.....	44
7.3	Shear stiffness of contact elements.....	45
7.4	Friction forces .....	46
7.5	Ultimate strength and mean stress correction .....	46
7.6	Predicted FE results vs laboratory tests .....	47
7.7	Indications of Fretting.....	48
8.	Discussion .....	51
8.1	General .....	51
8.2	Mean stress effect .....	52
8.3	Fretting.....	53
9.	Conclusions .....	54
10.	Suggestions for future work.....	55
11.	Reference List .....	56
12.	Appendix.....	59

# Preface

This master thesis presents the final work of the Joint Nordic Master's degree programme in Maritime Engineering with specialisation in offshore structures. The Joint programme takes place on two universities and the student receives one MSc diploma from each university. The work has been conducted at the Norwegian University of Science and Engineering during the spring semester of 2020. The scope of the work was suggested by Professor Svein Saevik who is also the main supervisor of this work. The work builds on a project work course (7.5 ECTS) conducted in the Autumn semester of 2019.

This work was written during the outbreak and under the restrictions of the Covid-19 pandemic. This forced me to work from home and to spend most of the days in a small student apartment, something that indeed affected my spirit and motivation. I am grateful for the relative mild restrictions in Norway. Being allowed to go running and clear my mind in the beautiful nature, now seems like a key factor for dealing with this time.

During the modelling phase, quite a lot of results had to be scrapped, this was quite stressful since one simulation takes roughly two weeks. The reason for this is mistakes done by me, but as well due to some bugs that were found in the software. Unfortunately, this delayed my work but since the bugs were fixed, a side effect of this work is an improved software.

Gustav Svensson

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads "Gustav Svensson". The script is cursive and fluid, with the first letters of each word being capitalized and prominent.



# Acknowledgement

This master thesis is written for two universities, but the work has been carried out at Norwegian University of Science and Technology under the supervision of Professor Svein Sævik. His guidance, support, advice and time during this work are gratefully acknowledged. My secondary supervisor Professor Jonas Ringsberg at Chalmers is also acknowledged for his help and support.

I would also like to express my gratitude for all the support and love from my family and friends.

# Abstract

Floating wind turbines are becoming more popular and is likely to be a major source of energy in the future. These floating turbines relies on dynamic subsea power cables for the transportation of electricity which are exposed to fatigue loading. It is desirable to be able to model these power cable for e.g. lifetime predictions. This work focusses on the conductor in the power cable. A FEM model was developed, and reversed bending was simulated. The results were compared to laboratory tests of the same kind and shows that the model overestimates fatigue life. This suggest that the fatigue damage process might be induced by fretting. The study also discusses the influence of mean stress effect and whether fretting is likely to occur based on a simplistic analysis.

# Summary

In these days there are an increasing demand for carbon dioxide free energy. Many countries and EU have set goals to reach a carbon dioxide free energy supply in the near future. Wind power is one technique that plays an important role in reaching these goals. In the past, wind turbines have been built mostly onshore and to some extent offshore but in shallow waters. Because suitable land area is limited and increasing public complains, it is desirable to build further away from the shore and therefore in regions of deeper water. This also comes with the benefit of increased efficiency because wind speed tends to increase with distance from shore.

Floating wind turbines are a relatively new technique that allows the constructions to move into regions of deeper waters. Previously, offshore wind turbines have been built on fixed foundations which are limited to depths of 50-60 meters. Floating turbines thereby takes wind power into a new phase of its development because they can be installed at greater depths.

These floating turbines relies on dynamic subsea power cables for the transport of electricity from the turbine to the seabed. These cables are exposed to dynamic loads such as tides, waves and movement of the floating turbine, the fatigue life of the power cable must therefore be considered with regards to these loads.

Dynamic power cables have a complex mechanical behaviour involving several parts. This master thesis work focused on a conductor which is the part of the power cable that carries the electricity. A dynamic power cable needs to be flexible. This property comes from the mechanical behaviour of stick and slip domains. Initially, with none and little bending the cable behaves as a rigid beam. But as bending continues, sliding occurs between the layers in the cable which gives the cable its flexibility.

BFLEX FE software developed by Sintef was employed for modelling and simulation of the conductor. The conductor was simulated in tension-bending mode where it was bent over a bellmouth with two different radii of curvature. The intention was to represent the loading of a conductor hanging from a floater trough a bend stiffener (bellmouth) and exposed to the loads from motions of the floating turbine. The model was developed with the basis that fatigue life is mainly governed by longitudinal stress ranges. The fatigue life estimation was based on stresses from the model and SN-data from individual wires.

The result shows that when comparing to laboratory tests of the same setup, that the model overestimates fatigue life. This suggest that something more is going on and that

the fatigue life is not mainly governed by longitudinal stress ranges, in this test setup. It is likely that the fatigue damage process is induced by fretting. A simplistic fretting analysis was done based on displacement amplitude and contact pressure. This analysis shows that the conditions for fretting fatigue are sufficient to reduce the fatigue life. This is more likely to occur in the larger radius model which fits well with assumptions and the predicted life of the two models.

The study also shows that the friction coefficient and the shear stiffness of the contact elements has a strong influence on the result. Stresses due to friction comes from contact between the layers and hoop contact within the layer. It was found that the friction forces from the hoop contacts are small compare to inter layer contacts. This validates the analytical model which assumes no friction forces from hoop contact.

It is suggested for future work to further study whether fretting is present and also investigate the effect mean stress has on copper conductors.

## List of figures

Figure 1.1: Different types of foundation structures [3].	2
Figure 1.2: Grid network. Reproduced from [3].	2
Figure 2.1: Typical three-core power cable [10].	5
Figure 2.2: Different conductor designs [5].	7
Figure 2.3: Motions on power cable [7].	7
Figure 2.4: Forces on a conductor [7].	8
Figure 2.5: Cross section of conductor including contact forces. Red arrows show inline contact and black arrows show point (trellis) contact.	9
Figure 2.6: Inline and trellis contact.	10
Figure 2.7: Surface irregularities of a wire [20].	12
Figure 2.8: Stick (I) and Slip (II) zones of a cross-section. Reproduced from [23].	14
Figure 3.1: Stress ranges. Reproduced from [24].	15
Figure 3.2: Haig's Diagram [23].	17
Figure 3.3: SN- Curve. Reproduced from [24].	18
Figure 3.4: A simple conductor model [6].	20
Figure 4.1: Slip and stick regions in a contact zone. Reproduced from [28].	22
Figure 4.2: Tangential force vs displacement. (a) Stick regime, (b) Mixed stick-slip regime, (c) Gross slip regime.	23
Figure 4.3: Fretting map [33].	24
Figure 5.1: BFLEX system architecture.	27
Figure 5.2: Co-rotational formulation [23].	28
Figure 5.3: Hardening rules [36].	30
Figure 5.4: Newton-Raphson iteration [34].	31
Figure 5.5: HSHEAR363 Element.	34
Figure 5.6: HSHEAR353 Element.	35
Figure 5.7: Kinematics of helix element.	36
Figure 5.8: HCONT463 Element.	37
Figure 5.9: HCONT454 Element.	38
Figure 6.1: Model.	39
Figure 6.2: Axial force histories at end beams due to reversed bending.	40
Figure 6.3: Bending curvature along the model at maximum deformation.	43
Figure 7.1: Contact forces vs time of an element.	46
Figure 7.2: Influence of ultimate stress when using Goodman mean stress correction.	47
Figure 7.3: Cycles until failure of the laboratory tests vs predicted stress ranges.	48

## List of tables

Table 1: Results of tension-bending test of the conductor .....	4
Table 2: Example of typical conductors for subsea applications [4] .....	6
Table 3: Material data of structural elements .....	41
Table 4: Material data of contact elements .....	42
Table 5: Summary of stress contribution predicted by the analytical model .....	44
Table 6: Sensitivity study of friction coefficient .....	45
Table 7: Shear stiffness sensitivity .....	45
Table 8: Results no hoop contact elements .....	46
Table 9: Displacement amplitude.....	49
Table 10: Estimated pressure .....	50

## Nomenclature

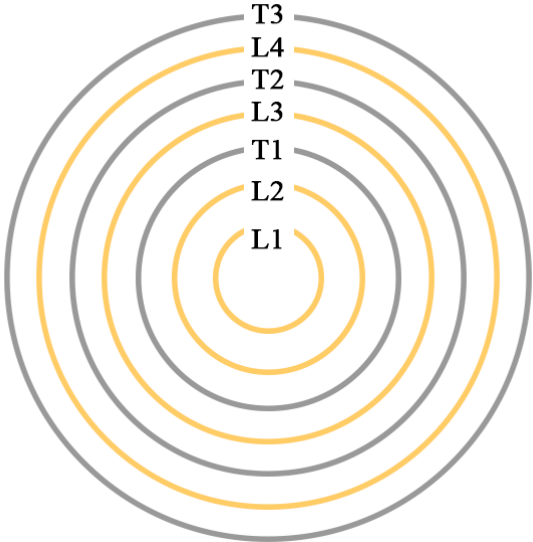
FEA	Finite element analysis
SCF	Stress concentration factor
DFF	Design fatigue factor
FEM	Finite element method
TL	Total Lagrange
UL	Updated Lagrange
MSC	Mean stress correction
$\bar{T}$	Mean global tension
$\bar{M}_T$	Mean global moment
$\Delta T$	Dynamic tensile load
$\Delta M_T$	Dynamic torque
$\Delta \beta$	Dynamic curvature
$\bar{F}_x$	Mean axial force
$\Delta F_x$	Dynamic axial force in wire
$\Delta M_x$	Dynamic torque moment around the helix tangential x-direction.
$\Delta M_y$	Dynamic bending moment around the bi-normal y-direction.
$\Delta M_z$	Dynamic bending moment around the surface normal z-direction
$\mu$	Friction coefficient
$\alpha$	Lay angle
$\theta$	Angle trellis contact is formed at
$M$	Bending moment
$E$	Elastic modulus
$I$	Area moment of inertia
$\kappa$	Curvature
$Q_1$	Axial force in a single wire before slip.
$A$	Area
$R$	Radius of a layer
$\psi$	Polar coordinate of a cross-section
$X^1$	Local length coordinate along the helix
$\tau$	Shear force
$\sigma$	Stress
$\Delta \sigma$	Stress range
$\sigma_m$	Mean stress
$\sigma_a$	Stress amplitude
$R$	Stress ratio (R-ratio)
$\sigma_U$	Ultimate strength
$\sigma_y$	Yield strength
$N$	Number of cycles until failure
$m$	Exponent in crack grow relation in the Basquin equation.
$C$	Constant in the Basquin equation
$D$	Damage
$\Delta \sigma_T$	Stress range from dynamic tension
$\Delta \sigma_{tc}$	Stress range from transverse curvature
$\Delta \sigma_{nc}$	Stress range from normal curvature
$\Delta \sigma_f$	Stress range from friction

$EA_{full}$	Axial stiffness of the conductor
$\Delta\kappa$	Curvature range
$\varepsilon_c$	Strain caused by mean static tension
$p$	Normal pressure
$Q$	Tangential force
$a$	Semi width of contact zone
$P$	Normal force
<b><math>S</math></b>	Generalized modal point forces
<b><math>k</math></b>	Element stiffness matrix
<b><math>v</math></b>	Nodal point displacements
<b><math>S^0</math></b>	Equivalent nodal point forces due to element loads.
<b><math>R</math></b>	System nodal point forces of the structure
<b><math>K</math></b>	System stiffness matrix
<b><math>r</math></b>	Global displacement vector
<b><math>R^0</math></b>	System equivalent nodal point forces due to element loads
$\rho$	Material density
$\ddot{u}$	Acceleration field
$f$	Volume force vector
$\sigma$	Cauchy stress tensor
$\varepsilon$	Natural strain
$t$	Surface traction
$u$	Displacement vector
<b><math>M</math></b>	Global mass matrix
<b><math>C</math></b>	Global damping matrix
<b><math>Q</math></b>	Global load vector
$\nu$	Poisson's ratio
$\varepsilon$	Strain
$\gamma$	Shear strain
$\theta$	Rotation
$u_{i,j}$	the differentiation of the displacement components $u_i$ along $X^i$ with respect to the curvilinear coordinate $X^j$ .
$\varepsilon_1$	First order axial strain
$\varepsilon_2$	Centreline rotations about $X^3$ axis
$\varepsilon_3$	Centreline rotations about $X^2$ axis
$\omega_1$	Centreline torsion
$\omega_2$	Curvature about $X^2$ axis
$\omega_3$	Curvature about $X^3$ axis
$\omega_{ip}$	The quantities represent the prescribed torsion and curvature quantities from bending.
$\kappa_1$	Initial total accumulated torsion of the cross-section centreline
$\kappa_2$	Initial accumulated curvature in the $X^1$ - $X^3$ plane
$\kappa_3$	Initial accumulated curvature in the $X^1$ - $X^2$ plane
$\kappa_t$	Transverse curvature



# Cross-section

- L1 = Core layer
- L2 = First helical layer
- T1 = First Tape layer
- L3 = Second helical layer
- T2 = Second tape layer
- L4 = Third helical layer
- T3 = Third tape layer



# 1. Introduction

*This chapter presents a background, motivation and specifies the objectives of this master thesis. It also gives an introduction to some test data that is developed by others and used for comparison in this work.*

## 1.1 Background

In these days there are an increasing demand for carbon dioxide free energy and wind power is one of the currently available techniques that meets this demand. Wind power is not a new technique, in fact, it has been an important source of energy to mankind throughout the history. The power of the wind was first used to power ships with the help of sails and later on wind was also used to pump water and to grind grains. Modern use of wind power uses turbines to convert mechanical energy into electrical energy.

Wind turbines are mostly built onshore but due to limited suitable land and public complaints about e.g. noise, the percentage of windfarms built offshore are increasing [1]. In the year of 2018, wind power was installed with a total capacity of 51.3 GW, were offshore installations correspond to about 8 percent or 4.5 GW. The offshore market is expected to continue grow in the near future, in the years of 2020-2023 a capacity of 4.9, 8.3, 9.9 and 10.1 GW is expected to be install, respectively [1].

Existing offshore wind turbines are mostly built on fixed seabed foundations, installations of this kind are restricted by a water depth of 50-60 meters. Many regions with the highest available energy have greater depths than this. Also, many coastal countries do not even have the opportunity to install offshore wind power with fixed foundations. The reason for this is the continental shelf, which drops away quickly and steeply, making the regions not suitable [2].

Floating wind turbines is a relatively new technique that allows installations to move into regions with deeper water. Another benefit that comes with this is that wind speed tends to increase with distance from shore. Some examples of different types of foundation structures are given in Figure 1.1. As floating wind turbines opens new markets and possibilities for a larger offshore energy capacity one might say that wind energy is entering a new phase of its development.

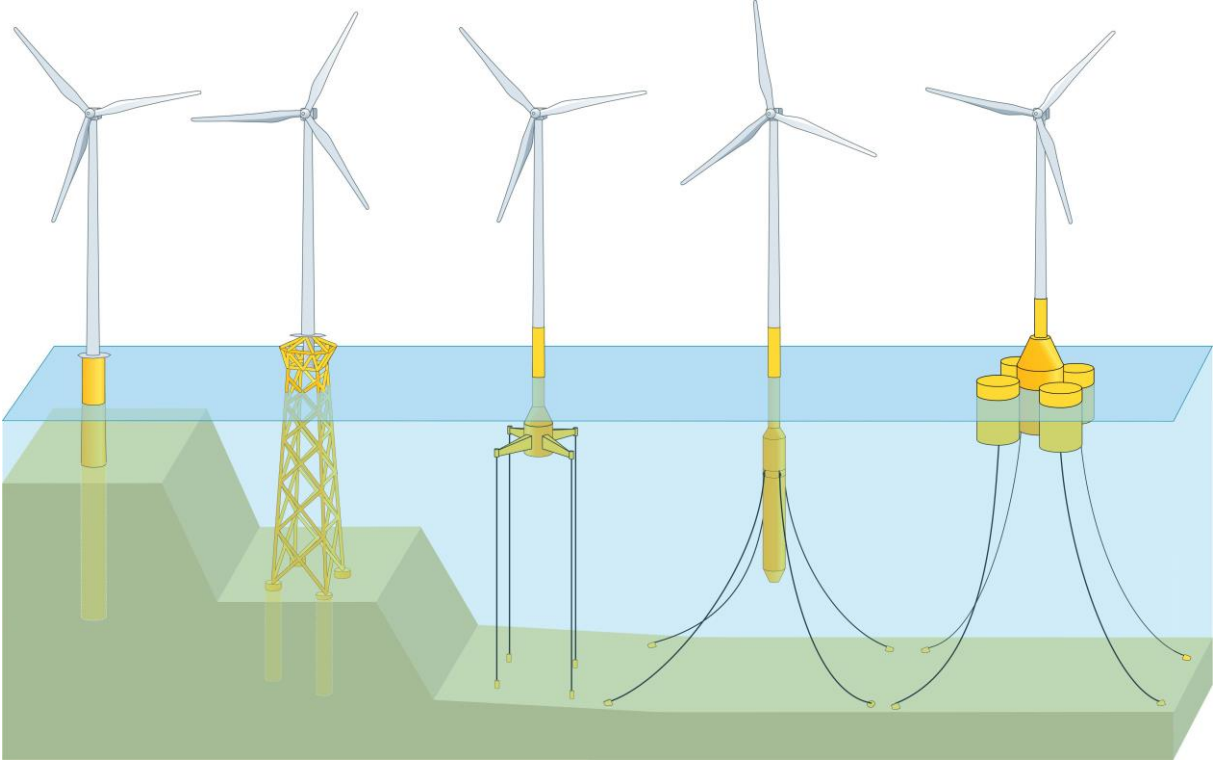


Figure 1.1: Different types of foundation structures [3].

As the demand for floating turbines increases so does it for subsea power cables. The power cable industry has experienced significant growth over the recent years and the demand is growing steadily. The grid network of a wind farm consist of different types of power cables which allows the electricity to flow from the turbines to the shore, an overview of a grid network is shown in Figure 1.2 [4].

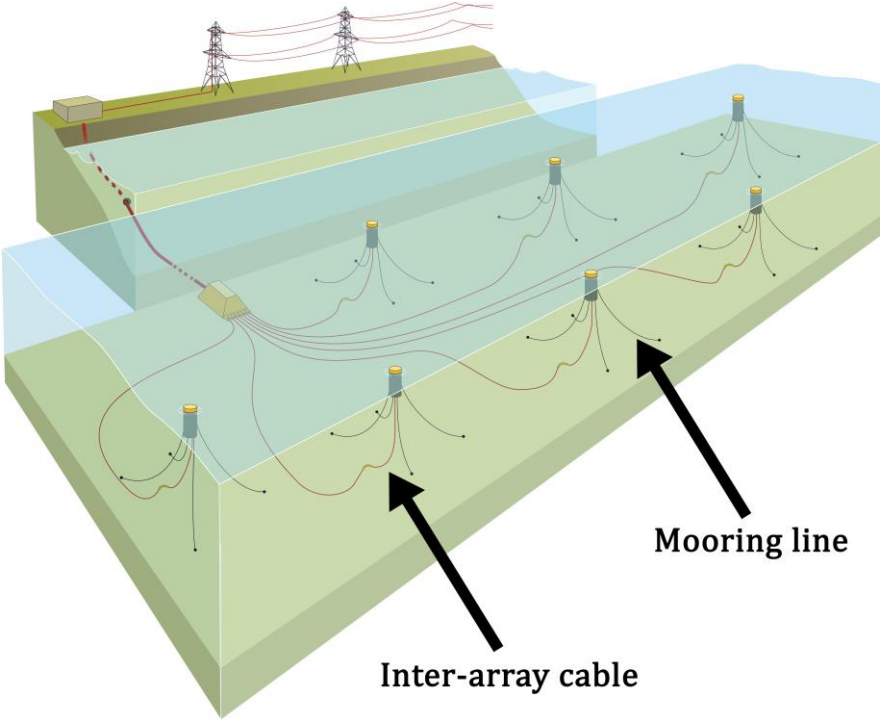


Figure 1.2: Grid network. Reproduced from [3].

The inter-array cable connects the floating turbine to the seabed. This cable, also referred to as a dynamic subsea power cable, is exposed to fatigue loading from waves, currents and from movements of the floating platform [4]. A typical dynamic power cable has voltage of 10-36 kV and consists of three copper conductors [5]. The cable can either hang freely from the platform down to the seabed or buoyant modules can be attached to the cable, a common configuration of such modules is what creates the “s-shape” shown in Figure 2.3. The purpose of distributing modules in this way is to minimize dynamic responses by decoupling the platform motion from the seabed connection point [4]. The turbines can also be connected between each other instead of to the seabed. This work represents the situation and loading of a conductor hanging from a floater through a bend stiffener (bellmouth) being exposed to loads from motions of a floating turbine.

## 1.2 Motivation

Many countries and EU have set up goals to achieve a carbon dioxide free energy production in the near future. The trends seen today suggest that floating wind power will play an important role in reaching these goals. Therefore, it is of interest to use numerical models to predict stresses in power cables used for these applications.

The main goal of this master thesis is to combine small scale test fatigue data with FE analysis to investigate the correlation with full scale test results. This is done in order to reduce the gap between observed test data and finite element analysis.

## 1.3 Objectives

The main objectives of this master thesis are:

1. Continue literature review into power cables fatigue of copper conductors, relevant rules and standards, methods for structural analysis of cabled structures.
2. Establish models of the full-scale test set-up at different curvature radii and perform FE stress analyses.
3. Perform stress sensitivity analyses with respect to element mesh, contact stiffness by considering axial stiffness test data, modelling procedure and friction coefficient.
4. Perform fatigue analysis and compare to full scale test data.
5. Conclusions and recommendations for further work.

## 1.4 Laboratory test data

The results of this master thesis are based on and compared to experimental tests done by Nasution et al. [6, 7]. The fatigue life prediction is based on a SN-curve developed by single wire test data and the results of the model are compared to test data of the full cross-section conductor.

The single wire tests were done in tension-tension mode until failure. The full cross-section conductor tests were done in tension-bending mode in a test rig. The bending was applied in one plane and the procedure was monitored by extensive instrumentation. The failure criteria for the full cross-section tests was taken as when a rapid change of the conductor length was measured. The fracture was investigated with a scanning electron microscope and no signs of fretting was found. The results of the full cross-section tests are show in Table 1.

*Table 1: Results of tension-bending test of the conductor*

Radius of curvature [m]	No. of cycles to failure	Remark	Failure position (Layers)
3	212 644	Unlubricated	2 <sup>nd</sup> – 3 <sup>rd</sup>
3	225 244	Unlubricated	2 <sup>nd</sup> – 3 <sup>rd</sup>
3	262 394	Unlubricated	2 <sup>nd</sup> – 3 <sup>rd</sup>
6.5	617 474	Unlubricated	2 <sup>nd</sup> – 3 <sup>rd</sup>
6.5	951 059	Unlubricated	2 <sup>nd</sup> – 3 <sup>rd</sup>
6.5	980 782	Unlubricated	2 <sup>nd</sup> – 3 <sup>rd</sup>
3	387 178	Lubricated	2 <sup>nd</sup>
3	372 636	Lubricated	2 <sup>nd</sup>
3	434 643	Lubricated	2 <sup>nd</sup>

## 1.5 Limitations

The progress of this work resulted in a move towards theory of fretting and mean stress effect on copper. When studying these fields, one often faces material science such as microstructures, grain sizes etc. This has been noted but not studied in depth since it is beyond the scope of this work.

## 2. Subsea Power Cables

*This chapter introduces subsea power cables. Several topics are covered in order to understand the mechanics and to design them.*

### 2.1 General design of subsea power cables

Several different designs and configurations of power cables exists. Thies et al. [8, 9] describes the main 7 components that a typical subsea power cable consists of as:

- *Conductor core.* The core carries the electrical current and consists of several layers of wires.
- *Electrical insulation.* The conductor is insulated by the possible use of three different design/materials types: traditional oil-impregnated paper, cross-linked polyethylene or ethylene propylene rubber.
- *Screen.* A semiconducting layer around the core that reduces the electric field strength and avoids field concentration zones.
- *Sheath.* A metal layer around the core that acts as a water barrier and protects the cable against fault currents.
- *Armature.* An outer metal armature that provides the cable with mechanical strength and impact protection. Usually made of galvanized steel wires.
- *Optic fibre.* Optional, used for data transmission and monitoring.
- *Protecting sheath.* An outer layer that consists of polypropylene for abrasion resistance.

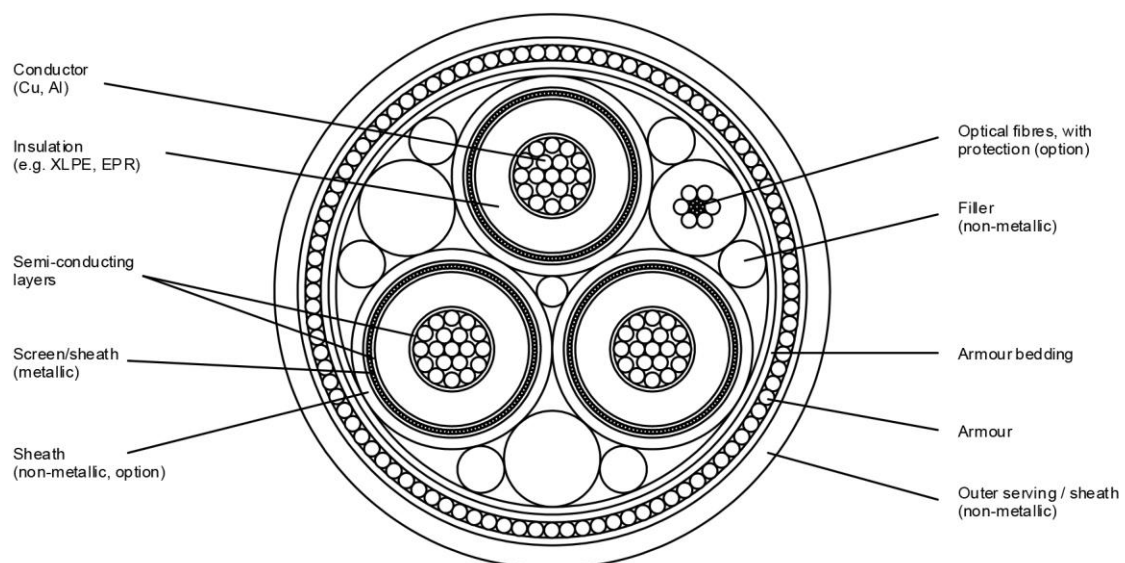


Figure 2.1: Typical three-core power cable [10].

The cable is designed by combining the components in a cylindrical and/or helical configuration and with different sizes. Cable design is commonly tailored by the manufacturer for a specific application and standardized cables does not exist [9]. A typical subsea power cable is shown in Figure 2.1.

The vast majority of existing subsea power cables are used in static applications. This means that they are connected to a fixed structure and not exposed to any significant fatigue loading. Floating wind turbines requires cables that are not fixed and thus exposed to fatigue loading. Static cables are too vulnerable for fatigue loads and therefore are dynamic power cables required for these load applications [9].

## 2.2 Conductors

The main purpose of a power cable is to transport electricity and the conductor(s) is the responsible component for this. Conductors are usually made of copper or aluminium. The choice of material depends on price and application. Copper is more expensive than aluminium. However, power cables with copper conductors are less expensive since copper allows a smaller cross-section of the conductor and thus are less lead and steel needed for the outer layers [5]. Some example of data for typical conductors for subsea power cables are given in Table 2.

*Table 2: Example of typical conductors for subsea applications [4]*

Nominal cross-section area of copper conductor [mm <sup>2</sup> ]	95	120	185	240
Outer diameter [mm]	104	106	114	119
Weight [kg/m]	16	18	21	23

Conductors can be designed in many ways and some common designs are shown in Figure 2.2. Conductors in subsea power cables are mostly stranded from round wires. In the manufacturing process of these, single wires are laid up in layers and placed in a stranding machine. The conductor is then compressed either layer by layer or at the end of the stranding machine. The compression is done by dies or roller sets and reduces the gaps between the wires of the conductor. A filling factor of 92 percent is achievable for round wires [5].

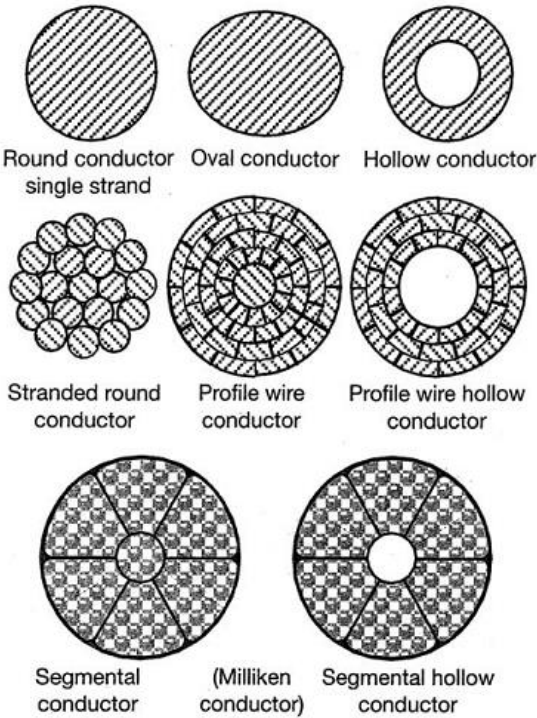


Figure 2.2: Different conductor designs [5]

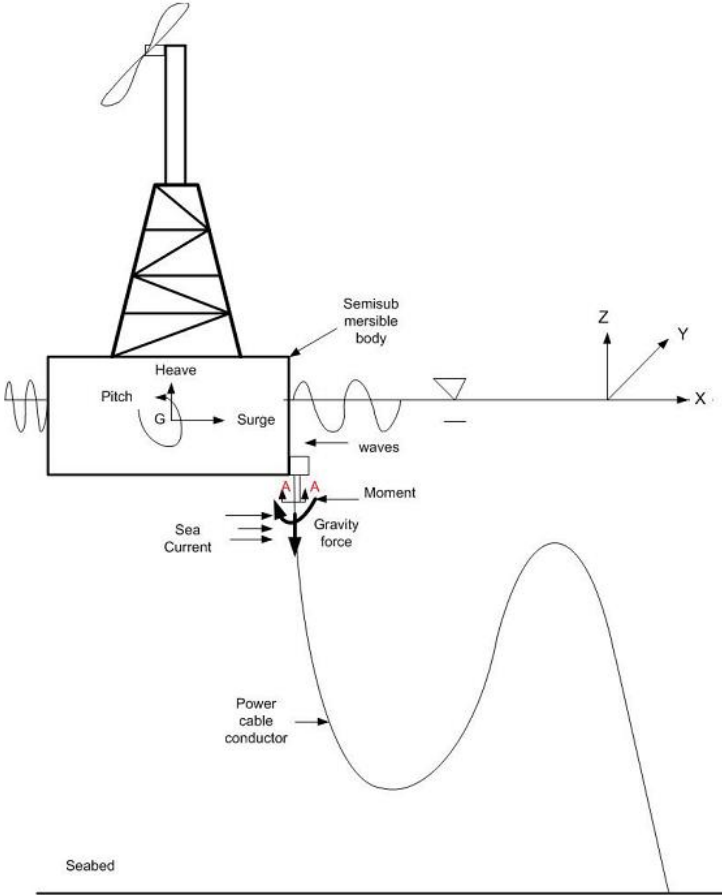


Figure 2.3: Motions on a power cable [7].



## 2.3 Terminology

The terminology in this section is taken from Nasution et al. [7] and shown in Figure 2.4.

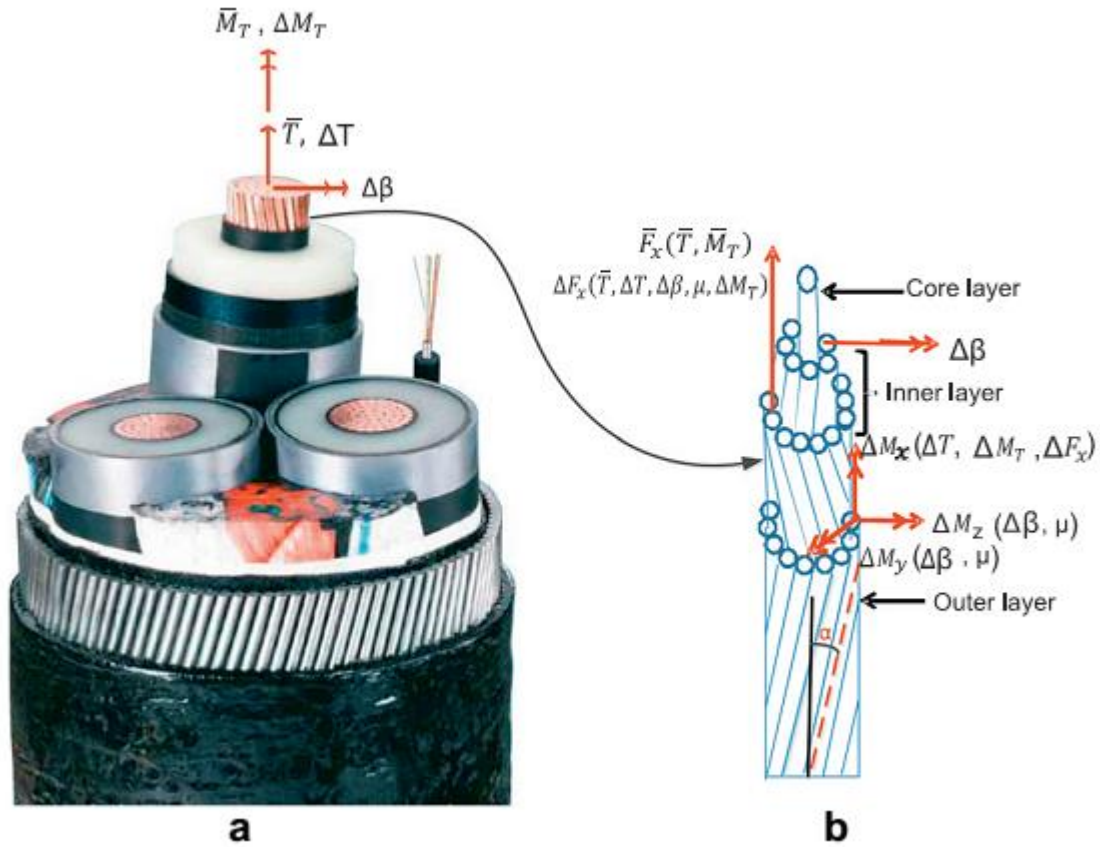


Figure 2.4: Forces on a conductor [7].

The power cable is exposed to several forces such as gravity, waves, and movement of the connecting point. Gravity causes:

- A mean global tension,  $\bar{T}$ .
- A mean global moment,  $\bar{M}_T$ .

Heave and surge motion of the connection point causes:

- A dynamic tensile load,  $\Delta T$ .
- A dynamic torque,  $\Delta M_T$ .

Pitch and roll motions cause dynamic curvatures,  $\Delta\beta$ , acting on the conductor. The most heavily loaded section of the conductor is close to the connection point. Each individual wire is subjected to a mean axial force,  $\bar{F}_x$ , which is a function of the mean global tension and the mean global moment. Each wire is also subjected to a dynamic axial force,  $\Delta F_x$ , which is a function of dynamic tensile load and torque, dynamic curvatures and the coefficient of friction,  $\mu$ , between the layers. The dynamic curvature causes local bendings in each wire:

- $\Delta M_x$ , a dynamic torque moment around the helix tangential x-direction.
- $\Delta M_y$ , a dynamic bending moment around the bi-normal y-direction.
- $\Delta M_z$ , a dynamic bending moment around the surface normal z-direction.

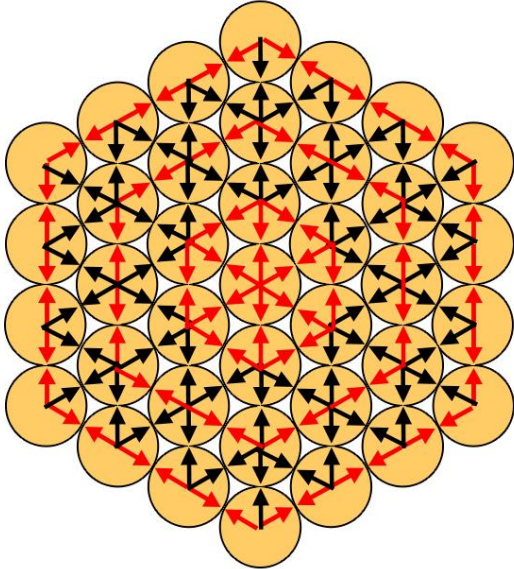


Figure 2.5: Cross section of conductor including contact forces. Red arrows show in-line contact and black arrows show point (trellis) contact.

A typical stranded round conductor consists of several wires that are stranded helically into layers, as shown in Figure 2.4 b. This stranding leads to both in-line- and point (trellis) contact. In-line (hoop) contact occurs between the core layer and the first helical layer, and within the helical layers. Point (trellis) contact occurs between two helical layers. Figure 2.5 illustrates in-line and trellis contact on a conductor cross-section. The global axial force causes longitudinal and transverse forces in each layer of the conductor, the transverse forces causes a reduction of the conductor diameter.

If wires are pressed together, they deform, and a small contact area occur at the trellis point as illustrated in Figure 2.6 B. The trellis contact is formed at an angle  $\theta$  given by the lay angle  $\alpha$ . This is a result of the manufacturing of the conductor.

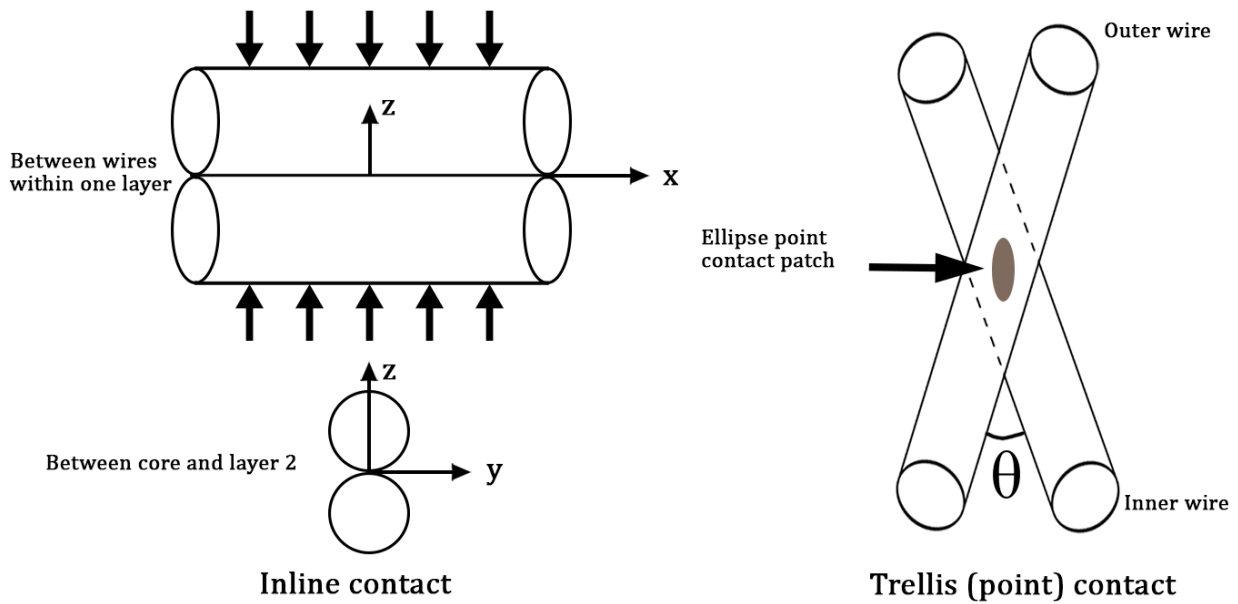


Figure 2.6: Inline and trellis contact.

## 2.4 Fatigue of copper conductors

A literature research of fatigue and contact stresses of cabled structures was conducted in the prior project work to this master thesis. The following section is based on that research but have been customized and continued for this work. Cable structures includes ropes and strands. The main difference between a rope and a strand is that individual wires in a strand follows a simple helical path, while as wires in a rope follows a more complex helical path in strands, where the strands themselves are formed into helices. In this work is the considered conductor designed like a strand.

Johnson [11] described the Hertz contact stresses due to a normal load occurring between two solid bodies. A contact theory was developed, predicting the geometry of the contact area and how the size changes with increasing load. The theory also predicts magnitude and distribution of surface tractions and more.

Hobbs and Ghavami [12] investigated fatigue of socketed structural wire strands. They concluded that failure behaviour was governed by different failure mechanisms related to the contacts conditions near the socket.

Alani and Raouf [13] investigated the effect of mean axial load on axial fatigue life of spiral strands. They found that due to the wire flattening at the trellis points of the interlayer contacts, the fatigue life increases with increasing levels of mean stress for a given lay angle. They also concluded that fatigue life decreases with increasing lay angle

The fatigue life of a multilayer stranded steel wire or rope is considered to be governed mainly by fretting fatigue, which is due to stress concentration in the trellis contact point [14, 15]. Hobbs and Raouf [14] further reports that lubrication is an important factor in fatigue strength. They also suggest that due to the complexity of fretting fatigue

in stranded objects, fatigue tests should be representative of the actual inter-wire movements in the cable. This means that whole cables should be tested.

Raof [16] used single wire data to develop a theoretical model that, for a constant load amplitude, predicts axial fatigue of the full cross-section. The model correlates well with experimental data. Raof [17] concluded that the model provides upper bounds for the fatigue life of cables that fails at the end termination, and also that the observed fatigue life is significantly affected by the termination type.

A model for predicting fretting fatigue due to inter-wire contact stress was introduced by Hobbs and Raof [18]. The model considers inline and trellis contact stresses, also frictional effects were considered. Both tension and bending load cases are included in the model.

Copper conductors in power cables are surrounded by an outer armour of steel wires and bend stiffeners, this reduces forces and curvatures in the conductor. Stranded conductors are similar to stranded steel wires in design, however, the materials copper and steel behaves differently. This master thesis focuses on copper conductors and the rest of this section is dedicated to literature research concerning them.

Karlsen [19] investigated fatigue of copper conductors for dynamic subsea power cables. A test method for simulating strain range fatigue was presented, including effects from friction, fretting, creep properties of copper and high tension at deep waters.

Nasution et al. [7] investigated fatigue performance by experimental tests and by finite element analysis (FEA) of a 95 mm<sup>2</sup> copper conductor. The experimental tests were performed both on individual wires and on full cross-section conductors, FEA was performed on an individual wire. The individual wire tests were done in tension-tension loading and the full cross-section tests in tension-bending loading. The experiments showed that fatigue strength of full cross-section conductors is lower than for individual wires. The reason for this is cracks arising from the vulnerable trellis point. This point is a result of the manufacturing of the conductor and causes surface irregularities in the wire, as shown in Figure 2.7.

The same study also shown that fatigue strength of individual wires taken from the outer layer is less than wires taken from the inner layer, this is due to larger surface irregularities. Fractures were investigated with a scanning electron microscopy. This showed, for single wires, that fatigue initiation arises from cracks close to the thinnest section of the wire. For the full cross-section, all failures occurred in the inner layer and fractography showed fatigue initiation from the outside of the wire, at the trellis contact with the outer layer.

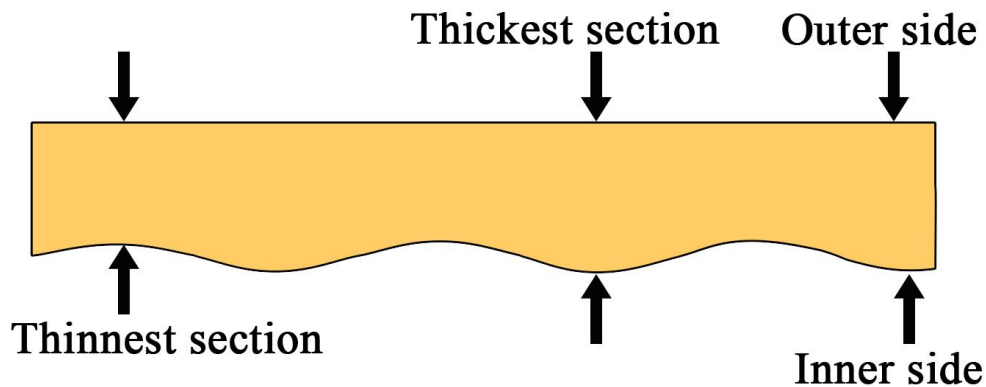


Figure 2.7: Surface irregularities of a wire [20].

A similar study was performed by Nasution et al. [21] investigating a 95 mm<sup>2</sup> full cross-section conductor in tension-tension and tension-bending modes with FEA. The models were based on beam and beam contact elements and concluded to be valid as long as longitudinal stresses governs fatigue performance. The FEA model predicts first failure in the outer layer for tension-tension and in the inner layer for tension-bending, all in accordance with experiments. The tension-tension tests indicate that fatigue failures were govern by local stress concentration factors (SCFs). The tension-bending tests indicate that the effect of friction between the layers plays an important role in fatigue life.

Nasution et al. [6] investigated fatigue strength of a 300 mm<sup>2</sup> copper conductor experimentally and by FEA. The study concludes that wires from 95 mm<sup>2</sup> and 300 mm<sup>2</sup> conductors tested in tension-tension loading falls in a common scatter band when maximum stress due to SCFs are considered. It supports previous conclusions that fatigue initiations arise from cracks at the trellis point. The study also showed that lubricated conductors have a longer fatigue life than unlubricated conductors. FEA based on fatigue strength of individual wires predicted that the second layer had the shortest fatigue life, full scale tests showed failures in either the second or third layer. Fatigue failure occurs in the inner layers because the contribution from friction forces is largest there. Also, in this study, an analytical method for calculating stress variation of individual wires of the conductor was developed.

## 2.5 Standards and Guidelines

In the progress of designing subsea power cables, different standards can be used as guidelines. Since applications of dynamic power cables are relatively new, there is a lack of standards for them. However, DNV-GL has two standards that can be used, DNV-GL-ST-0119 and GL-ST-0359. Certification of a cable design requires that these two standards are applied and that their requirements are fulfilled.

DNVGL-ST-0359 (subsea power cables for wind power plants) provides an overview of standards for subsea power cables. DNVGL-ST-0119 (floating wind turbine structures) has a section dedicated for power cables.

IEC 60228 is an international standard for conductors of insulated cables. It includes, among other things, requirements for numbers and sizes of wires. Solid and stranded conductors made out of both copper and aluminium is included. Also, fixed installations and dynamic applications are included. IEC 60502 concerns cables with extruded insulation.

## 2.6 Stick and Slip behaviour

The conductor consists of helical layers that are free to move and subjected to friction forces. Initially and for small curvatures, the shear force is less than the available friction force. In this state, the wires are restrained by the friction and the conductor behaves as a rigid body with constant bending stiffness. For this state, the plane surfaces remain plane assumptions holds true and the following relationship from standard beam theory between bending moment and curvature is valid.

$$M = EI\kappa \quad (2.1)$$

As the shear force increase it eventually overcomes the friction force and the wires starts to slip. This slip results in a decrease of bending stiffness, this is due to the movement of the wires, as they move, they cannot contribute to the bending stiffness as much as they could in the rigid body behaviour. It is due to the reduction of bending stiffness that the cable gets its desirable flexible properties.

It is known from standard beam theory that in bending, the shear stress distribution follows a parabola with maximum value at the neutral axis. Therefore, the slip process of the wires does not start at the same time. By considering a cross-section of the conductor, wires at the neutral axis starts to slip first and the wires with the greatest distance from the neutral axis will be last to slip. A conductor with three helical layers has therefore three critical curvatures values describing where the slip process starts for each layer.

At what curvature slip begins for a layer can be estimated analytically. The Axial force before slip in a single wire is given by:

$$Q_1 = EA \cos^2 \alpha R \kappa \cos \Psi \quad (2.2)$$

where  $EA$  is the axial stiffness,  $\alpha$  is the lay angle,  $\kappa$  is the curvature,  $R$  is the helix radius. With the relation for the circumferential coordinate:

$$\Psi = \frac{\sin \alpha}{R} X^1 \quad (2.3)$$

where  $X^1$  is the local length coordinate along the helix. Differentiation of the axial force with respect to the local length coordinate gives the maximum shear force:

$$\frac{dQ_1}{dX^1} = EA \cos^2 \alpha \kappa \sin \Psi \sin \alpha = \tau_{max} \quad (2.4)$$

The maximum shear force is found at the neutral axis and the following expression gives the critical curvature where slip begins:

$$\kappa_{cr} > \frac{\tau_{max}}{EA \cos^2 \alpha \sin \alpha} \quad (2.5)$$

This means that until full slip is reached, one part of the cross section will be in stick and one part will be in slip as shown in Figure 2.8. Full slip is reached at a curvature with a factor of  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  larger than the critical curvature where slip begins [22]. Because of the stick and slip effect, the relationship between stress and curvature results in a hysteresis loop that corresponds to the work done by the friction force at the contact interfaces after slip.

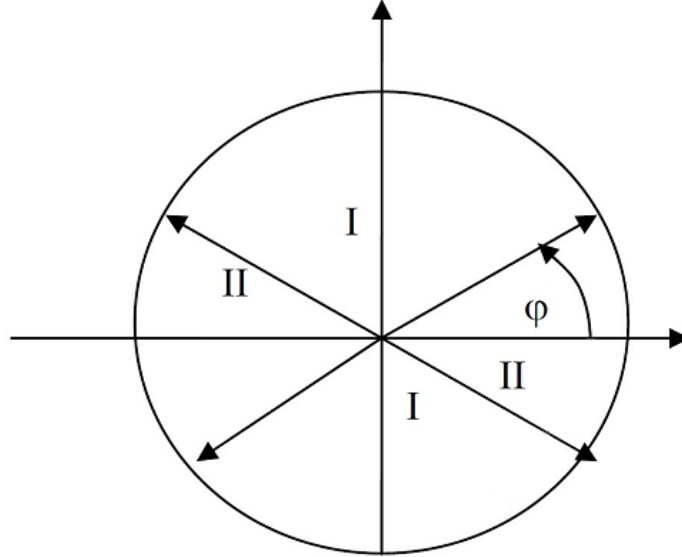


Figure 2.8: Stick (I) and Slip (II) zones of a cross-section. Reproduced from [23].

# 3. Fatigue

*This chapter introduces the fatigue phenomenon of metallic structures. A general overview is given together with an analytical model specifically developed for calculating stress ranges in a copper conductor.*

## 3.1 Introduction

Fatigue is a phenomenon that weakens a material and occurs when the material is exposed to repeated cyclic loading, usually with loads corresponding to stresses significantly lower than yield stress. The fatigue damage per cycle may be insignificant and not even detectable, however fatigue failure is a result of a cumulative damage process. The process contains the following three stages.

1. Crack initiation,  $N_i$
2. Crack growth,  $N_g$
3. Final failure

The total fatigue life,  $N$ , can be calculated by:

$$N = N_i + N_g \quad (3.1)$$

For a sinusoidal load variation as shown in Figure 3.1 some basic parameters are introduced to describe cyclic stress loading [24]:

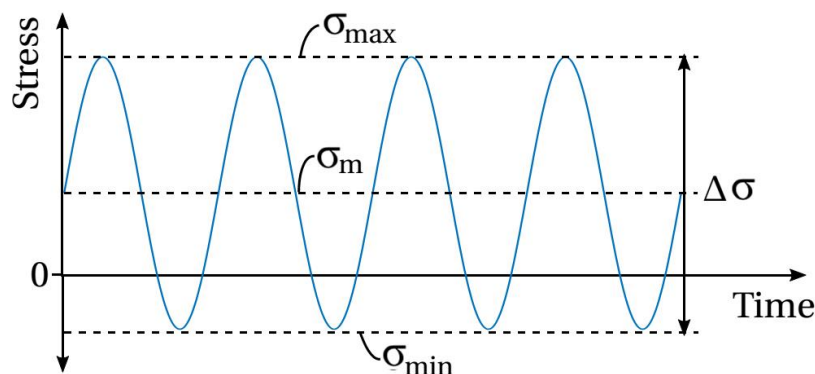


Figure 3.1: Stress ranges. Reproduced from [24]

$\sigma_{max}$  is the maximum stress in a cycle,  $\sigma_{min}$  is the minimum stress in a cycle and  $\sigma_m$  is the mean stress in a cycle. The stress range is established from the figure as:



$$\Delta\sigma = \sigma_{max} - \sigma_{min} \quad (3.2)$$

The stress ratio (R-ratio) is defined as:

$$R = \frac{\sigma_{min}}{\sigma_{max}} \quad (3.3)$$

Fully reversed loading, zero-tension loading, and static loading corresponds to R-ratios of -1, 0 and 1, respectively. The stress range can be related to R-ratio by:

$$\Delta\sigma = 2\sigma_m \frac{1 - R}{1 + R} \quad (3.4)$$

Fatigue can be divided into low cycle fatigue (LCF) and high cycle fatigue (HCF). High cycle fatigue has a life of more than  $10^5$  cycles. Offshore structures are mainly in the high cycle range and this is also what is used in standards [24].

## 3.2 Mean stress correction

A mean stress value not equal to zero affects the fatigue life and must be considered. An increase of mean stress normally decreases the fatigue life. SN-curves (see next section) are used with stress amplitude but are produced with and depends on a certain level of mean stress. Constant life diagrams can represent the effect of mean stress. The two most common are the modified Goodman- and Gerber relation. Some experiments for steel have shown that the truth lies somewhere in this range depending on material where Goodman is the conservative. The relations are shown in Figure 3.2, known as a Haig's diagram and are given by:

$$\text{Modified Goodman relation:} \quad \sigma_a = \sigma_a|_{\sigma_m=0} \left\{ 1 - \frac{\sigma_m}{\sigma_U} \right\} \quad (3.5)$$

$$\text{Gerber relation:} \quad \sigma_a = \sigma_a|_{\sigma_m=0} \left\{ 1 - \left( \frac{\sigma_m}{\sigma_U} \right)^2 \right\} \quad (3.6)$$

where  $\sigma_a$  is the stress amplitude for a nonzero mean stress,  $\sigma_a|_{\sigma_m=0}$  is the stress amplitude for fully reversed loading i.e. when  $\sigma_m = 0$ ,  $\sigma_y$  is the tensile stress and  $\sigma_U$  is the ultimate strength of the material [25].

It should be noted that this theory is based on steel and there are therefore uncertainties when applying this theory on copper. However, there are more methods that can be considered, see for e.g. Dowling [26]. Dowling also states that the sensitivity to mean stress seems to increase for higher strength metals. Mean stress effect that differs from

the traditional approach described above, is referred to as anomalous mean stress sensitivity (AMSS).

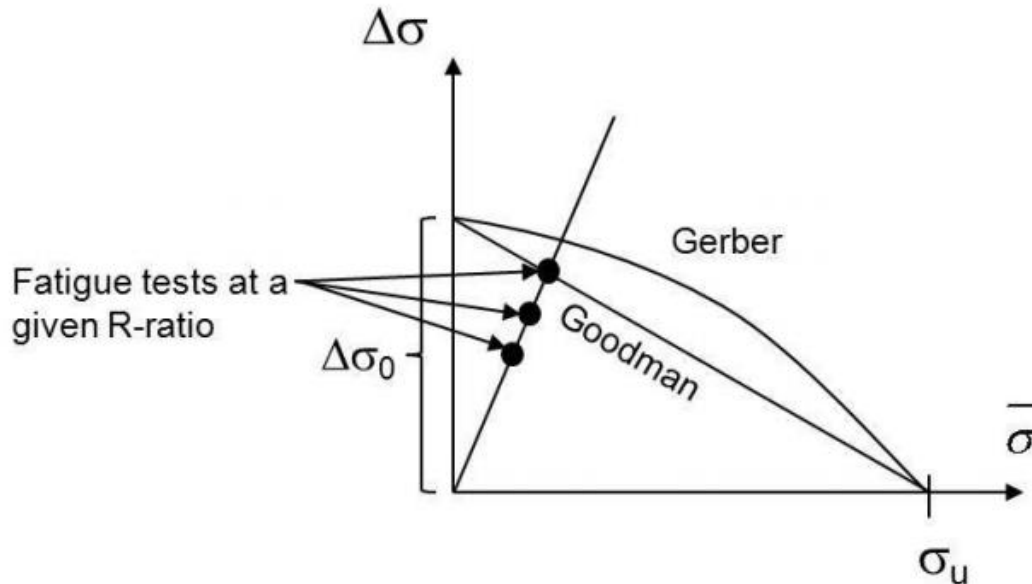


Figure 3.2: Haig's Diagram [23]

### 3.3 The SN-Approach (Whöler curves)

This approach is based on experimental data from fatigue tests. The stress-life diagram or SN-diagram shows how many stress cycles that a material can withstand for a given stress range. The fatigue life is only related to the stress range until a certain threshold, at lower range, the fatigue life may become infinite. The concept of infinite life only applies in a none-corrosive environment and where all the cycles are below the threshold. Also, this work is based on copper, which is generally considered not having a fatigue limit. The SN-curve is typically plotted on log-log format since fatigue life normally spans over a large number of cycles. A SN-curve is shown in Figure 3.3 and the mathematical relationship is given by:

$$N \cdot (\Delta\sigma)^m = C \quad (3.7)$$

where  $C$  is a constant,  $m$  is an exponent in crack growth relation and  $N$  is the number of cycles until failure [24]. The SN-curve has by definition a failure probability of 50 percent. Big margins are common in fatigue, in a design curve are often 2 standard deviations used as a safety margin, resulting in a 97.6 percent probability of survival.

Karlsen [19] points out that for copper conductors, it may be more suitable to use a strain-based approach. The reasons for this are the poor creep properties and nonlinear stress-strain relationship of the copper. However, in this work is a stress-based approach used for simplicity.

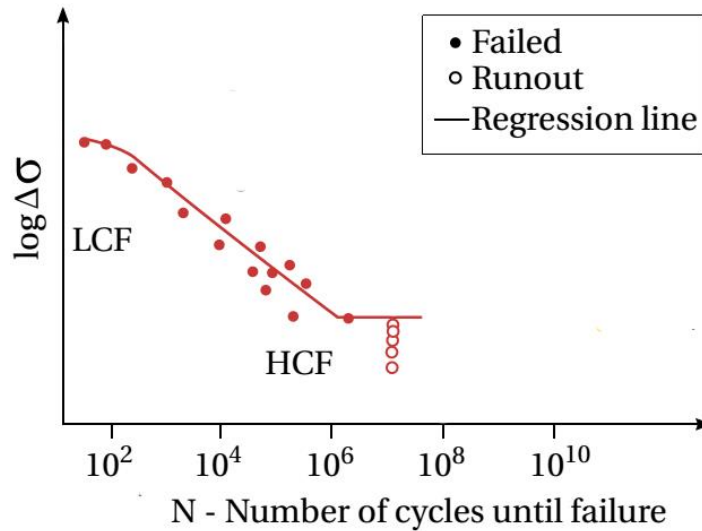


Figure 3.3: SN- Curve. Reproduced from [24].

### 3.4 Cumulative damage – Miner sum

SN-curves are based on data from stress ranges with constant amplitudes and are therefore only relevant for constant amplitude fatigue loading. In reality, structures are exposed to environments that causes irregular: amplitudes, mean stress levels and frequencies on the structures. E.g. loads from waves and tides on marine structures. The Miner-Palmgren cumulative damage rule is a simple approach that considers irregular loading. The rule assumes linear damage, this assumption should be taken with care since sequence and interaction of events may influence the fatigue life. For  $i$  number of different stress ranges the damage or Miner sum is given by:

$$D = \sum_i \frac{n_i}{N_i} \quad (3.8)$$

where  $n_i$  is the number of cycles for a constant stress range and  $N_i$  is the number of cycles that the given stress range can survive, fracture normally occurs once  $D = 1$ .

Cycle counting methods are often used to reduce the load history into series of constant stress amplitude. There are many methods on how to do this, general consensus is that the *Rainflow counting method* is the best. In standards a design fatigue factor (DFF) is used so that it satisfies:

$$D \cdot \text{DFF} \leq 1.0 \quad (3.9)$$

Different DFFs are recommended depending on safety class.

### 3.5 Analytical calculation of stress ranges

Nasutian et al. [21] developed an analytical model for calculating stress ranges of individual wires in a stranded conductor cross-section. The longitudinal stress range can be calculated by:

$$\Delta\sigma = \Delta\sigma_T + \Delta\sigma_{tc} + \Delta\sigma_{nc} + \Delta\sigma_f \quad (3.10)$$

where  $\Delta\sigma_T$  is the stress ranges from dynamic tension,  $\Delta\sigma_{tc}$  is the stress ranges from transverse curvature,  $\Delta\sigma_{nc}$  is the stress ranges from normal curvature and  $\Delta\sigma_f$  is the stress ranges from friction.

#### Stress ranges from dynamic tension

The axial stiffness of the conductor can be calculated by:

$$EA_{full} = EA \left( 1 + \sum_{i=1}^m n_i \cos^3 \alpha_i \right) \quad (3.11)$$

where  $EA$  is the axial stiffness of each wire,  $n_i$  is the number of wires in helical layer  $i$  and  $\alpha_i$  is the lay angle of layer  $i$ . Dynamic tension causes a stress variation in each wire according to:

$$\Delta\sigma_T^i = E \cos^2 \alpha_i \frac{\Delta T}{EA_{full}} \quad (3.12)$$

#### Elastic bending stresses

For the bending moment about the helix bi-normal axis, the corresponding stress range can be approximately determined for small lay angles by:

$$\Delta\sigma_{nc} = R_{nominal} E \cos^2 \alpha_i \cos 2 \alpha_i \Delta\kappa \cos \Psi \approx R_{nominal} E \Delta\kappa \cos \Psi \quad (3.13)$$

where  $\Delta\kappa$  is the curvature range and  $\Psi$  is the polar coordinate angle defining the helix position as shown in Figure 3.4.

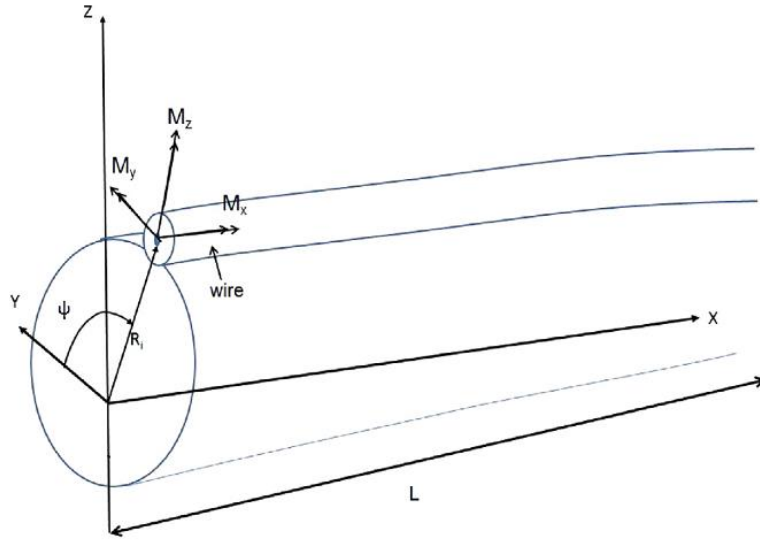


Figure 3.4: A simple conductor model [6]

### Friction stress

The friction stress range can be calculated as the smallest stress range that is obtained from either the plane surfaces remain plain solution or the maximum allowed due to the friction between the interfaces, given by:

$$\Delta\sigma_f^i = \min\left(E \cos^2 \alpha_i R_i \Delta\kappa, \frac{\pi R_i \tau_i}{\sin \alpha_i A_i}\right) \quad (3.14)$$

The expression for the maximum allowed due to friction is a result of integrating the available friction force per unit length  $\tau_i$  along a quarter pitch length multiplied by 2 and divided by the area of the wire  $A_i$ . The friction force per unit length is calculated by:

$$\tau_i \cong E \varepsilon_c \mu \left( \sum_{j=i+1}^m \frac{n_j A_j \cos^2 \alpha_j \sin^2 \alpha_j}{n_i R_j} + \sum_{j=i}^m \frac{n_j A_j \cos^2 \alpha_j \sin^2 \alpha_j}{n_i R_j} \right) \quad (3.15)$$

where  $\mu$  is the coefficient of friction,  $\varepsilon_c$  is the strain resulting from the mean static tension  $T$ , given by:

$$\varepsilon_c = \frac{T}{EA_{\text{full}}} \quad (3.16)$$

# 4. Fretting

*This chapter introduces the phenomenon of fretting. This is done in order to gain a better understanding of fretting, which may or may not contribute to a reduction of fatigue life of the conductor.*

## 4.1 Introduction

According to [27] fretting is referred to as:

*“A surface wear phenomenon occurring between two contacting surfaces having oscillating relative motion of small amplitude.”*

Fretting fatigue is the combined effect of fretting and fatigue and often also include corrosion effects. The phenomenon can occur with less than  $10\ \mu\text{m}$  of relative motion between the mating surfaces. Major factors governing fretting fatigue are normal contact pressure between the mating surfaces, amplitude of the relative motion, frictional shear stresses between the mating surfaces, residual stresses, environment, material properties, load, frequency and the number of cycles [27].

## 4.2 Contact theory

The contact surfaces can behave in two ways:

1. The whole contact area slides (gross slip).
2. Some region of the contact area slides (partial slip).

In practise, most fretting problems do not involve gross sliding, here is the issue of wear often under control. It is therefore important to consider contacts where the shear force is less than the limiting frictional value [28].

If two bodies with curved surfaces are pressed together, they connect at a point or along a line. This results in an elastic or plastic flattening of the mating surfaces and this kind of contact is referred to as a Hertzian contact. The material close under the surface experiences tri-axial stress state and can due to this withstand higher stresses than yield stress [29].

The partial slip phenomenon is explained here with the example of two elastically similar cylinders. The cylinders are pressed together with a normal force  $P$ , which creates a Hertzian contact zone of semi width  $a$ . This zone has an elliptical distribution of normal pressure given by [28]:

$$p(x) = -p_0\sqrt{1 - (x/a)^2} \quad (4.1)$$

If an increasing tangential force  $Q$  is applied so that it is less than the limiting factor of gross slip,  $Q < \mu P$ . The non-uniform pressure distribution causes a division of the contact zone into a slip and stick region as shown in Figure 4.1 [28].

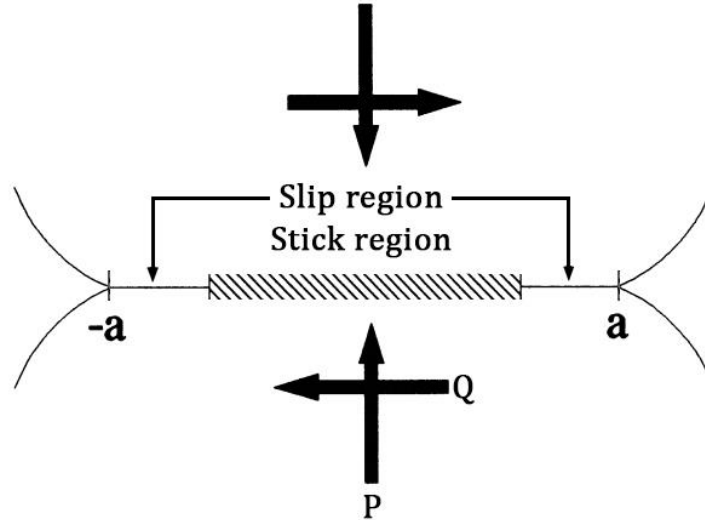


Figure 4.1: Slip and stick regions in a contact zone. Reproduced from [28]

Two slip zones will always be present at the ends, even if the shear force is small. The reason for this is as the normal pressure drops to zero, the required coefficient of friction must be infinite. A mathematical derivation proving this is given in [28] and by Johnson in [11], Johnson further noted that this is not surprising since the assumption of no slip requires two bodies to behave as one. For the case of two elastically dissimilar bodies, fretting can arise from a pure normal force only. This is due to different tangential displacement of the bodies which causes shear tractions [28].

Repeated sliding in the slip region leads to oxidation of the fretted surface, this causes wear debris formation and cracking. By investigation this region, a more worn out look compare to the rest of the contact area can be noticed [25]. Resistance to fretting fatigue generally decreases with higher hardness, and thereby with higher strength materials. Failures due to fretting fatigue results from micro cracks that arises in the fretting region and grows with cyclic stresses until fracture [27].

### 4.3 Fretting maps

It is practical to be able to determine the fretting regime based on experimental conditions. Vingsbo and Söderberg [30] suggested a fretting map model based on two variables with regime boundaries representing the critical transition values. Examples of fretting map variables are displacement amplitude, normal and tangential force and frequency of vibration. The model consists of four different regimes:

- *Stick regime*
- *Mixed stick-slip regime*

- *Gross slip regime*
- *Reciprocating sliding regime*

The *stick regime* has very limited surface damage by corrosion and wear. No fatigue crack growth is observed (up to  $10^6$  cycles) and low fretting damage is experienced. In the *mixed stick-slip regime*, wear and oxidation is noticeable but the effects are small. Accelerated crack growth may cause a strongly reduced fatigue life. Damage caused by this regime is referred to as fretting fatigue. The *gross slip regime* has severe surface damage, but crack formation is limited. This regime is often referred to as fretting wear and the surfaces can be in full sliding across each other. As the displacement amplitude increases, the gross slip approaches the *reciprocating sliding regime*. This leads to sliding wear.

The regime can be illustrated by a hysteresis loop in tangential force vs displacement diagram as shown in Figure 4.2. The stick regime is characterised in (a), it can be seen that for a low amplitude, the displacement is directly proportional to the tangential force. In the mixed stick-slip regime (b) a hysteresis loop is created where a small area between the lines represents the partial slip. For higher displacements, a larger area with a sudden drop of tangential force can be observed. This represents the gross slip regime (c).

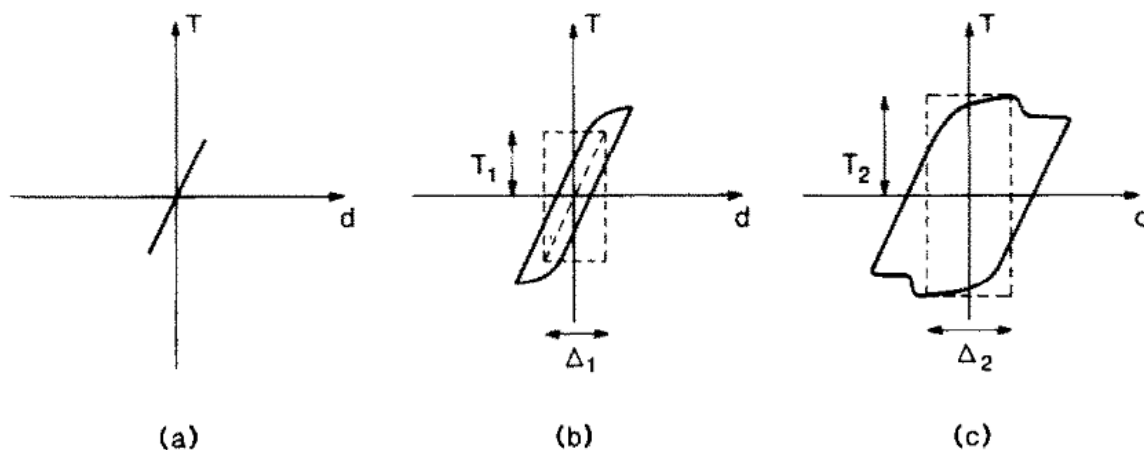


Figure 4.2: Tangential force vs displacement. (a) *Stick regime*, (b) *Mixed stick-slip regime*, (c) *Gross slip regime*

The study combined data from several other studies and a fretting map was suggested, see Figure 4.3. It can be seen that for low amplitudes in the mixed stick and slip regime, the wear rate is low. As the gross slip regime is entered, the wear rate increases until its levels of in the reciprocating sliding regime. The study also points out and shows in the figure that the fatigue life decreases with an increasing slip amplitude until a certain value. The reason for this is according to Novell and Hills [31] debatable, their study points out two possible reasons for this. 1. The increase in wear rate wears out embryo cracks before they can propagate. 2. A study [32] suggest that wear debris itself forms a solid lubricant layers, and thereby reduces stresses.



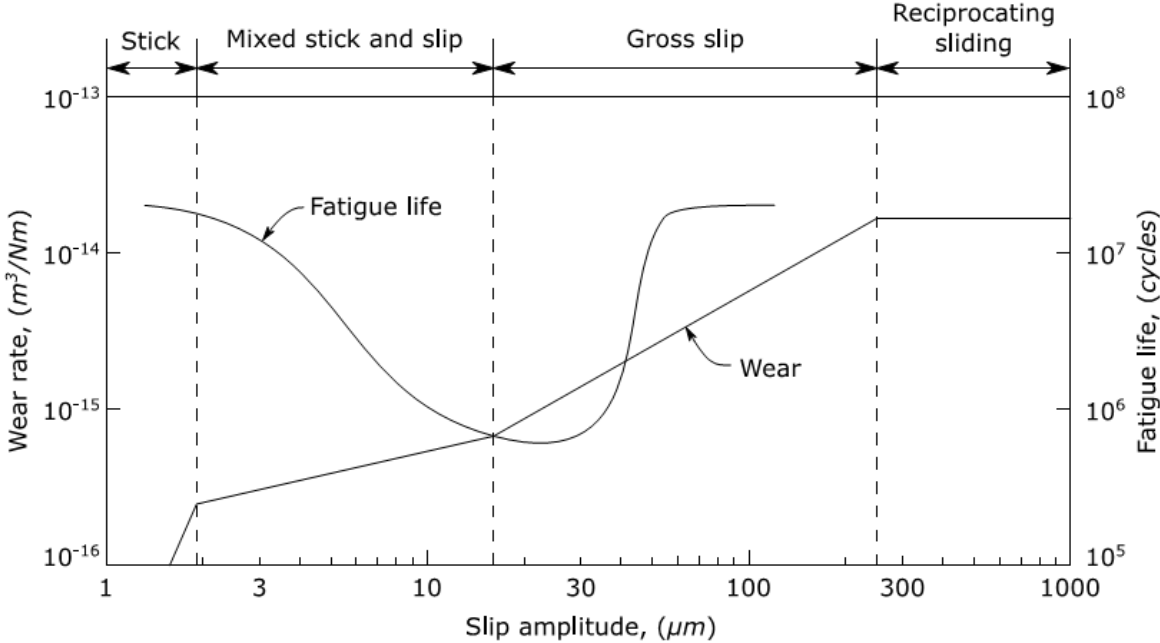


Figure 4.3: Fretting map [33]

# 5. Finite Element Analysis

*This chapter introduces an overview of the finite element method, which is used in this work for solving structural problems. This is done by the use of BFLEX software which is described together with its methods.*

## 5.1 Overview of the Finite Element method

The finite element method (FEM) is a numerical method to solve partial differential equations. The method is widely used in engineering for solving problems which are too complex to solve analytically. The basic concept is to discretize a system or a structure into a finite number of elements, where each element consists of a number of nodes. This is known as meshing. The unknown displacement field of a structure is thereby an approximation and described by the nodes. The displacement field between the nodes are interpolated, usually by linear, quadratic or cubic interpolation.

A stiffness relationship is established for each element using the principle of virtual displacement and the assumed displacement field. This yields an equilibrium between element forces, moments and displacements on the following form:

$$\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{k}\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{S}^0 \quad (5.1)$$

where  $\mathbf{S}$  is the generalized nodal point forces,  $\mathbf{k}$  is the element stiffness matrix,  $\mathbf{v}$  is the nodal point displacements and  $\mathbf{S}^0$  is the equivalent nodal point forces due to element loads.

A system stiffness relationship is then established by demanding equilibrium of all nodal points in the structure, the relationship is given by:

$$\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{K}\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{R}^0 \quad (5.2)$$

where  $\mathbf{R}$  is a vector containing all the nodal point forces of the structure. The system stiffness matrix  $\mathbf{K}$  is established by the sum of the element stiffness matrices and  $\mathbf{r}$  is the unknown global displacements vector. The system nodal force vector  $\mathbf{R}^0$  is obtained from the equivalent element nodal point forces.

Once the system relationship is established, boundary conditions are introduced, which allows the global displacement vector to be solved for. The displacements are then used to calculate stresses in the structure by material laws.

Finite Element Analysis is solved by computers, accuracy depends on the number of elements which is a cost of computer time.

## 5.2 BFLEX

In this work, the BFLEX2010 FEA software has been used to model and solve for stresses in the conductor with finite element analysis. The software is based on the principle of virtual displacements, kinematic compatibility, material law and displacement interpolation. Also, nonlinear behaviour is considered. BFLEX was developed by the department of structural engineering at SINTEF Ocean with the purpose to:

- “provide a tool for stress and fatigue analysis of flexible pipes that both covers the cases where longitudinal stresses are insignificant and cases where such effect are important.”
- “provide a tool for local buckling analysis of flexible pipes armour wires by building a model for all layers and allow for arbitrary motion of the wires.”

The system architecture of BFLEX2010 is given by Figure 5.1 and the modules are:

- BFLEX2010. Analysis module.
- BFLEX2010POST. Postprocessing module.
- PLEX. Beam stress analysis of pressure spirals.
- BOUNDARY. Transverse stress analysis of pressure spirals.
- LIFETIME. Fatigue analysis.
- BPOST. The local model postprocessing module.
- XPOST. Graphical user interface for result visualization.

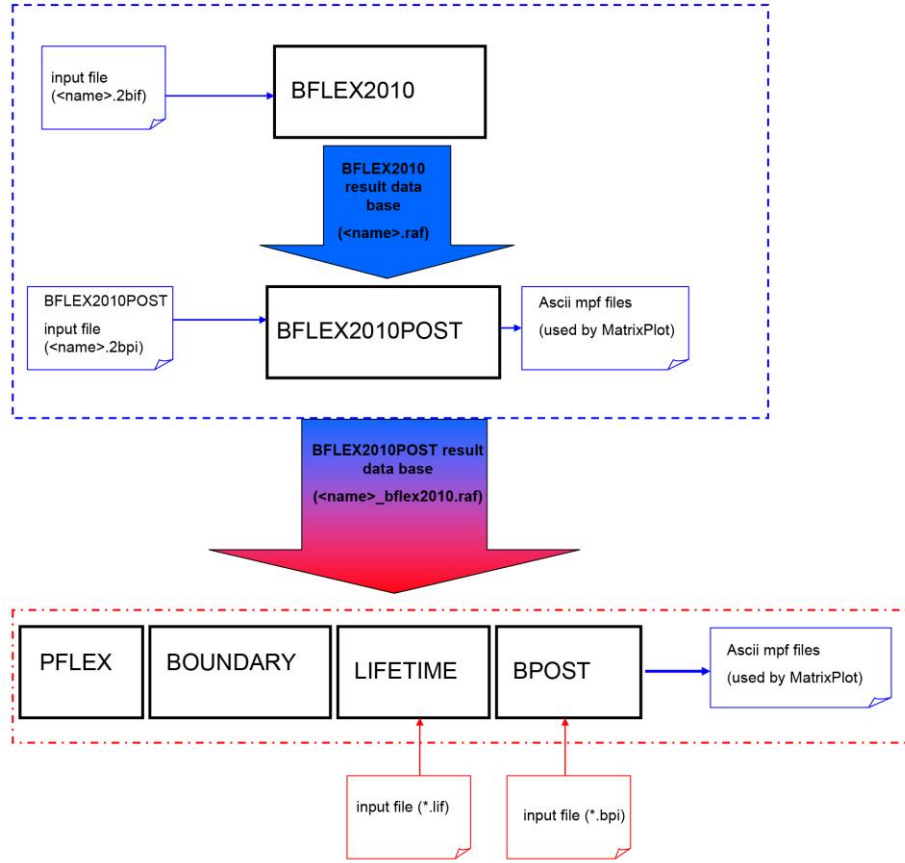


Figure 5.1: BFLEX system architecture

### 5.3 Principle of virtual displacement

The principle of virtual displacement or principle of virtual work basically states that the sum of internal work equals the sum of external work of the system. The general formula excludes volume forces and is given by [23]:

$$\int_V (\rho \dot{\mathbf{u}} - \mathbf{f}) \cdot \delta \mathbf{u} dV + \int_V \boldsymbol{\sigma} : \delta \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} dV - \int_S \mathbf{t} \cdot \delta \mathbf{u} dS = 0 \quad (5.3)$$

where  $\rho$  is the material density,  $\dot{\mathbf{u}}$  is the acceleration field,  $\mathbf{f}$  is the volume force vector,  $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$  is the Cauchy stress tensor,  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$  is the natural strain,  $\mathbf{t}$  is the surface traction and  $\mathbf{u}$  is the displacement vector. The first term in the equation is related to the inertial force, the second term is work done by internal forces and the last term corresponds to work done by external forces for the assumed displacement. BFLEX uses 2<sup>nd</sup> Piola Kirchhoff stress and the green strain tensor.

To solve problems with large deformation and with non-linearities, principle of virtual displacement has to be done on incremental form. Two common formulations are used, total Lagrange (TL) and updated Lagrange (UL), the difference between them is the choice of reference configuration. Total Lagrange refers to the initial configuration ( $C_0$ ) and updated Lagrange refers to last obtained equilibrium configuration ( $C_n$ ).

BFLEX uses a co-rotational formulation (CTL), this is a mixture of the total and the updated Lagrange formulation. This formulation separates rigid body motion from local or relative deformation of the element. To achieve this, a local coordinate system is attached to the element that continuously translates and rotates with the element during the deformation. This formulation is shown in Figure 5.2. The initial configuration  $C_0$  is the reference point, each element has  $C_{0n}$  as its local coordinate system and  $C_n$  describes the deformation of the element.

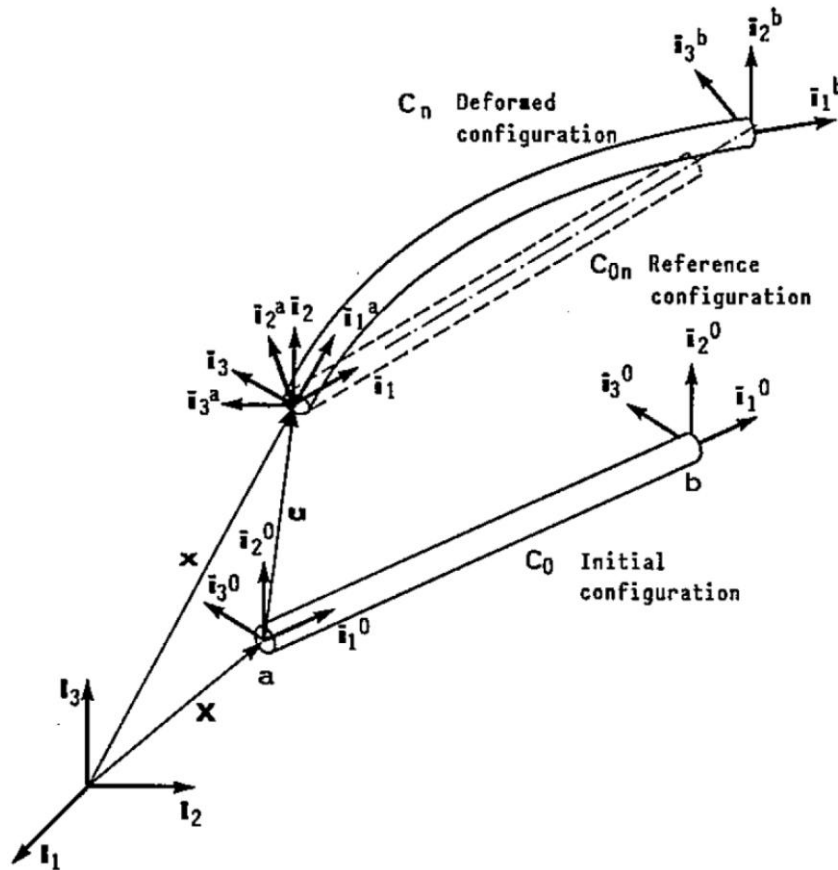


Figure 5.2: Co-rotational formulation [23]

The following three points are needed to implement the principle of virtual displacement into a numerical code.

1. Kinematic description. A relation between the displacement and rotations and the strains at a material point.
2. A material law connecting the strain with resulting stresses.
3. Displacement interpolation, describing the displacement and rotation fields by a number of unknowns on matrix format.

## 5.4 Nonlinear analysis

Nonlinear analysis is used when the displacement cannot be expressed as a linear function of the external load. This analysis has to be solved incrementally where the stiffness matrix is updated for each load step. There are generally three sources of nonlinearities [34, 35]:

- *Geometric nonlinearities.* This nonlinear effect is due to the change geometry as the structure deforms under a load. This is also referred to as large displacement analysis.
- *Material nonlinearities.* The relationship between strains and stresses is only linear until a certain limit, referred to as the yield strength of the material. Once stresses of this limit are exceeded, the material law changes from linear to non-linear. This is further explained in the next section.
- *Boundary conditions/contact.* Boundary nonlinearity occurs when displacement of the structure leads two surfaces into or out of contact. Stresses and displacements of bodies in contact are usually not linear dependent on the applied loads. This may occur even for small displacements and were the material behaviour is assumed to be linear, due to the fact that the contact area is usually not linear dependent on the applied loads. Friction effects causes a stick and slip behaviour of the contact areas and adds a further nonlinear complexity.

## 5.5 Material Model

As the stresses exceeds the elastic limit of the material an elastic-plastic formulation is required. There are three major features that governs the plasticity and are described here for a one-dimensional stress case [35]:

- *A yield condition or yield surface.* The condition defines which combinations of multi-axial stresses causing the material to be plastic.
- *A flow rule.* A relation between stress increment history to the plastic strain and the stress rate.
- *A hardening rule.* Describes how the yielding changes by historical plastic flow.

The *yield condition* states that yielding begins when the stress reaches its tensile yield strength. However, the level of stress needed to continue yielding, changes as the material yields and exceeds the initial level.

The *flow rule* can be written in multidimensional problems. For a one-dimensional stress case it leads to the relation  $d\sigma = E_T(\varepsilon)d\varepsilon$ .

The *hardening rule* describes how the yield condition changes by historic plastic flow. The two common methods used are kinematic and isotropic hardening. In kinematic

hardening the yielding occurs after unloading of  $2\sigma_y$  whereas in isotropic hardening, the material remembers the hardening that already has occurred. For common metals, kinematic hardening model has better results. The two methods are shown in Figure 5.3.

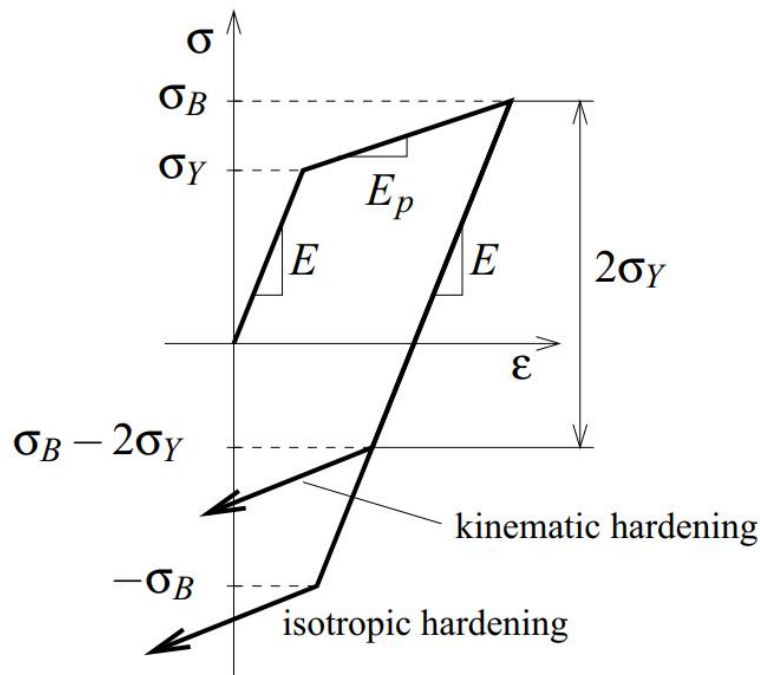


Figure 5.3: Hardening rules [36]

## 5.6 Solution procedure

BFLEX solves nonlinear problems by load incrementation with Newton-Raphson iteration. This is a common method in engineering and works well until one is dealing with extreme nonlinear problems where other methods such as the arc-length methods is needed.

### 5.6.1 Static analysis

The static solution procedure is based on Newton-Raphson iteration at each load step, the iteration procedure is according to:

$$\Delta \mathbf{r}_{k+1}^i = \mathbf{K}_{T,k+1}^{-1i} \Delta \mathbf{R}_{k+1}^i \quad (5.4)$$

where  $\mathbf{K}$  is the global stiffness matrix,  $\Delta \mathbf{R}$  is the load increments and  $\Delta \mathbf{r}$  is the displacement increments. The load vector and the stiffness matrix are updated at each load step and the procedure is repeated until convergence is obtained. Newton-Raphson iteration for a system with 1 degree of freedom is shown in Figure 5.4 [23].

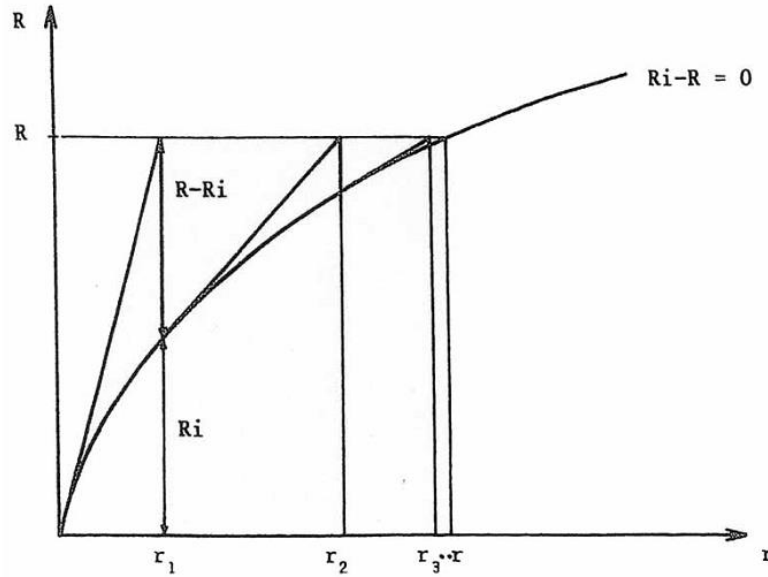


Figure 5.4: Newton-Raphson iteration [34]

### 5.6.2 Dynamic analysis

The dynamic solution procedure works in the same way as the static but is time dependent and considers inertia forces and damping in the structure. A step by step approach is used and the time interval is divided into smaller sub-intervals. At the beginning of a sub-interval are the displacement, velocity and acceleration known. By assuming the acceleration over the time step, the solution can be calculated for the end of the interval. The equilibrium equation of forced motion is defined as:

$$\mathbf{M}\ddot{\mathbf{r}} + \mathbf{C}\dot{\mathbf{r}} + \mathbf{K}\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{Q}(t) \quad (5.5)$$

where  $\mathbf{M}$  is the global mass matrix,  $\mathbf{C}$  is the global damping matrix,  $\mathbf{K}$  is the global stiffness matrix and  $\mathbf{Q}$  is the global load vector. To perform dynamic analysis, direct time integration is needed, this can be done by either explicit or implicit methods. Explicit methods are typically expressed as:

$$\mathbf{r}_{k+1} = \mathbf{f}(\ddot{\mathbf{r}}_k, \dot{\mathbf{r}}_k, \mathbf{r}_k, \mathbf{r}_{k-1}, \dots) \quad (5.6)$$

For explicit methods, the displacement at the next time step will be determined by the information of the current and previous time steps. The explicit method is conditionally stable and small time-steps are therefore required. This method is suitable for impulse analysis where small time steps are needed.

For implicit methods, the displacement at the next time step depends on quantities of the current and next time step, expressed as:



$$\mathbf{r}_{k+1} = \mathbf{f}(\ddot{\mathbf{r}}_{k+1}, \ddot{\mathbf{r}}_k, \dot{\mathbf{r}}_{k+1}, \dot{\mathbf{r}}_k, \mathbf{r}_k \dots) \quad (5.7)$$

Since information of the next time step is used, the acceleration of the system must be assumed between the time steps. Using information of the next step also results in a better numerical stability than for the explicit methods. The acceleration is assumed by different methods and some basic examples are the methods of constant acceleration, linear acceleration and constant initial acceleration. The Newmark  $\beta$  method is often used with different  $\lambda$  and  $\beta$  values to represent these different methods [37].

### Newmark's $\beta$

The following equations describes the Newmark  $\beta$ -family, including the Wilson  $\theta$  –method considering a constant time step in the analysis. The methods relate the displacement, velocity and acceleration vectors at time  $t$  and  $t + \Delta\tau$ .

$$\dot{\mathbf{r}}_{t+\Delta\tau} = \mathbf{r}_t + (1 - \gamma)\dot{\mathbf{r}}_t\Delta\tau + \ddot{\mathbf{r}}_{t+\Delta\tau} \quad (5.8)$$

$$\mathbf{r}_{t+\Delta\tau} = \mathbf{r}_t + \dot{\mathbf{r}}_t\Delta\tau + \left(\frac{1}{2} - \beta\right)\ddot{\mathbf{r}}_t(\Delta\tau)^2 + \beta\ddot{\mathbf{r}}_{t+\Delta\tau}(\Delta\tau)^2 \quad (5.9)$$

Where  $\Delta\tau = \theta\Delta t$ ,  $\theta \geq 1$ .

The parameters  $\gamma$ ,  $\beta$  and  $\theta$  defines the functional change in displacement, velocity and acceleration vectors over the time step  $\Delta t$ . For the Newmark  $\beta$ -family,  $\theta = 1$ , this gives by change of parameters  $\gamma$  and  $\beta$  the different methods within the Newmark  $\beta$ -family [38, 39].

Dynamic analysis results in a series of modes with different frequencies. Usually are only the modes with low frequency of interest and it is therefore desirable to remove the other modes. The medium modes are eliminated by increasing the damping ratio or introducing Rayleigh-damping to the Newmark  $\beta$  method, leaving the lower and the higher modes unaffected. The higher modes can be damped out by numerical damping, this will reduce the accuracy in the Newmark  $\beta$  method.

### Modified Hilbert-Hughes-Taylor method

The modified Hilbert-Hughes-Taylor method (HHT- $\alpha$  method) is used in BFLEX and does not suffer from reduced accuracy when the high modes are damped out. The modified equilibrium equation is given by [39]:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{M}\ddot{\mathbf{r}}_{k+1} + (1 + \alpha_H)\mathbf{C}\dot{\mathbf{r}}_{k+1} - \alpha_H\mathbf{C}\dot{\mathbf{r}}_k + (1 + \alpha_H)\mathbf{R}_{k+1}^I - \alpha_H\mathbf{R}_k^I \\ = (1 + \alpha_H)\mathbf{R}_{k+1}^E - \alpha_H\mathbf{R}_k^E \end{aligned} \quad (5.10)$$

where  $\mathbf{M}$  is the mass matrix,  $\mathbf{C}$  is the damping matrix  $\mathbf{R}^I$  is the internal force vector,  $\mathbf{R}^E$  is the external force vector and  $\alpha$  is a constant. The damping matrix  $\mathbf{C}$  includes both Rayleigh and diagonal damping. The method is unconditionally stable when [23]:

- $-\frac{1}{3} \leq \alpha_H \leq 0$
- $\gamma = \frac{1}{2}(1 - 2\alpha_H)$
- $\beta = \frac{1}{4}(1 - \alpha_H)^2$

### 5.6.3 Convergence criteria

The iteration algorithm stops when equilibrium of a certain tolerance level is reached, this is achieved by a vector norm, which is a measure of the size of the vector. Norms based on displacement, energy and forces can be used.

BFLEX runs on a predefined number of iterations and divisions. If no convergence is reached for the first iterations cycle, it divides the time-step and starts a new trial. This process repeats until convergence is reached or stops after the specified number of divisions is reached.

## 5.7 Elements formulation

In the model are different types of elements used depending on what degrees of freedom that is needed. The elements used in this model are presented in the following and the theory is taken from the BFLEX theory manual [23].

### 5.7.1 PIPE31

The PIPE31 element is a standard 3D beam element. It has two nodes and 6 degrees of freedom in each node, 3 translational and 3 rotational. The stresses under plane stress are according to Hooke's law:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{11} \\ \sigma_{22} \\ \tau \end{bmatrix} = \left( \frac{E}{1 - \nu^2} \right) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \nu & 0 \\ \nu & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1 - \nu^2}{2(1 + \nu)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_{11} \\ \varepsilon_{22} \\ \gamma \end{bmatrix} \quad (5.11)$$

The displacement of an arbitrary point is given by:

$$u_1(x, y, z) = u_{1,0} - yu_{2,0} - zu_{3,0} \quad (5.12)$$

$$u_2(x, y, z) = u_{2,0} - z\theta_x \quad (5.13)$$

$$u_3(x, y, z) = u_{3,0} - y\theta_x \quad (5.14)$$

Where  $\sigma_{i,j}$  is the stress in the  $i, j$  direction,  $\nu$  is the Poisson's ratio,  $\varepsilon_{i,j}$  is the strain in the  $i, j$  direction,  $\gamma$  is the shear strain,  $u_i$  is the displacement in  $i$  direction and  $\theta$  is the rotation.

### 5.7.2 HSHEAR363

The HSHEAR363 element is similar to a standard beam element (PIPE31). Compare to a standard beam element, one additional node is included to describe radial motion of the layer. The additional node includes 3 degrees of freedom, but since only the radial DOF is used the other two has to be suppressed. The purpose of the element is to handle plastic layers, pressure armour layers and tape layers.

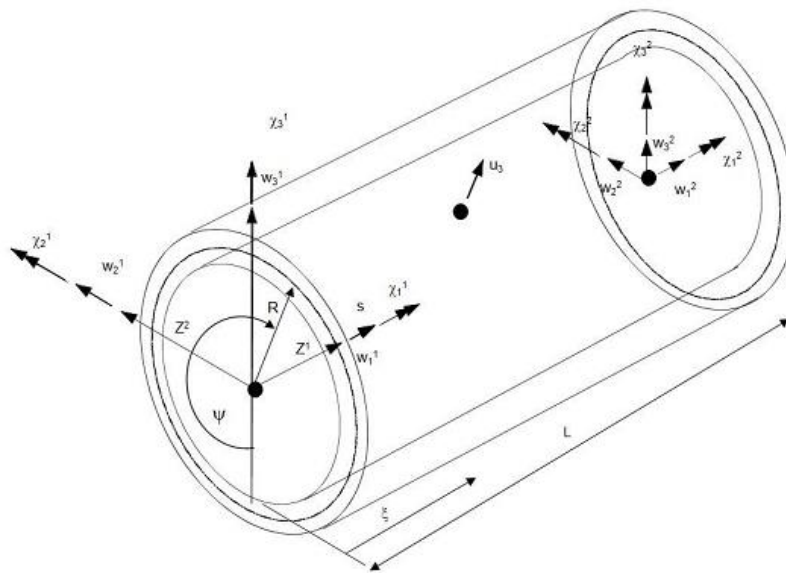


Figure 5.5: HSHEAR363 Element

### 5.7.3 HSHEAR353

The HSHEAR353 element is a curved beam element with 26 degrees of freedom and 4 nodes that it is used to model helices. In addition to the 12 standard DOFs at the centreline used to model global strain quantities, 12 are used to describe the local displacement of the wire relative to the core and 2 are used to describe the longitudinal slip process. However, the torsion DOF at the helix nodes has to be suppressed due to kinematic constraints and thereby are only 24 DOFs active.

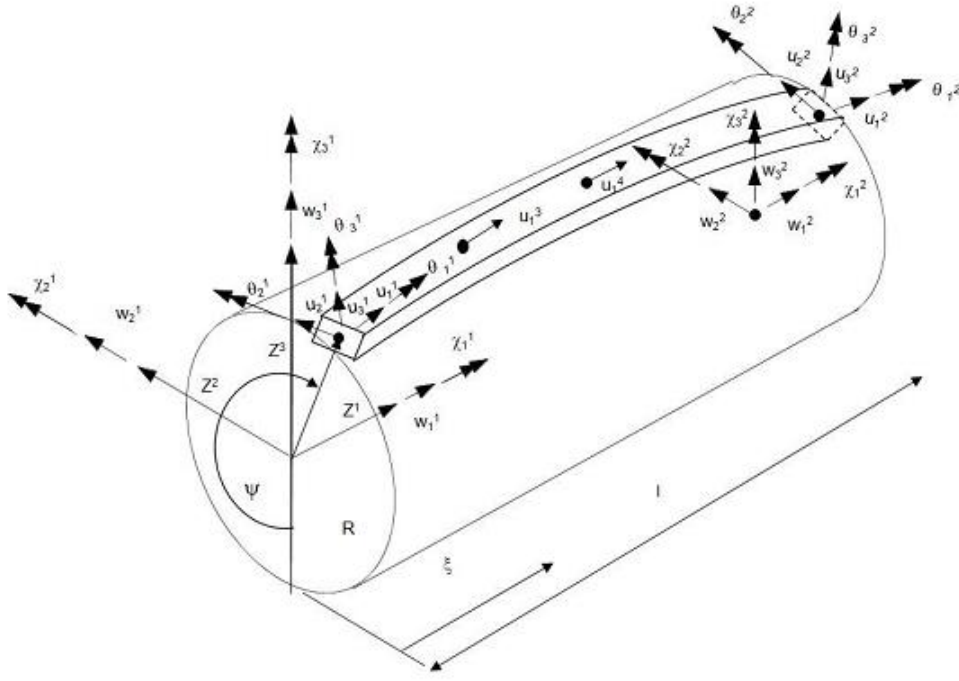


Figure 5.6: HSHEAR353 Element

The kinematics of the element is described in the following with respect to Figure 5.7. The strains can be described by:

$$\varepsilon_1 = u_{1,1} - \kappa_3 u_2 + \kappa_2 u_3 \quad (5.15)$$

$$\varepsilon_2 = u_{2,1} - \kappa_3 u_1 + \kappa_1 u_3 \quad (5.16)$$

$$\varepsilon_3 = u_{3,1} - \kappa_2 u_1 + \kappa_1 u_2 \quad (5.17)$$

Rotations can be described by:

$$\omega_1 = \kappa_1 u_{1,1} - \kappa_t u_{2,1} + \kappa_3 (u_{3,1} + \kappa_1 u_2) + \kappa_2 (u_{2,1} - \kappa_1 u_3) + \omega_{1p} \quad (5.18)$$

$$\omega_2 = u_{3,11} - \kappa_2 u_{1,1} - 2\kappa_1 u_{2,1} - \kappa_3 \kappa_t u_2 + \kappa_1 \kappa_1 u_3 + \omega_{2p} \quad (5.19)$$

$$\omega_3 = u_{2,11} - \kappa_3 u_{1,1} - 2\kappa_1 u_{3,1} + \kappa_2 \kappa_t u_2 - \kappa_1 \kappa_1 u_2 + \omega_{3p} \quad (5.20)$$

where:

$u_{i,j}$ : the differentiation of the displacement components  $u_i$  along  $X^i$  with respect to the curvilinear coordinate  $X^j$ .

$\varepsilon_1$ : First order axial strain

$\varepsilon_2$ : Centreline rotations about  $X^3$  axis

$\varepsilon_3$ : Centreline rotations about  $X^2$  axis

$\omega_1$ : Centreline torsion

$\omega_2$ : Curvature about  $X^2$  axis

- $\omega_3$ : Curvature about  $X^3$  axis  
 $\omega_{ip}$ : The quantities represent the prescribed torsion and curvature quantities from bending.  
 $\kappa_1$ : Initial total accumulated torsion of the cross-section centreline  
 $\kappa_2$ : Initial accumulated curvature in the  $X^1$ -  $X^3$  plane  
 $\kappa_3$ : Initial accumulated curvature in the  $X^1$ -  $X^2$  plane

In the initial state of the helix, from which  $\omega_i$  and  $\varepsilon_i$  are measured:

$$\omega_i, \varepsilon_i, \kappa_1 = \frac{\sin \alpha \cos \alpha}{R}, \quad \kappa_2 = \frac{\sin^2 \alpha}{R}, \quad \kappa_3 = 0 \quad (5.21)$$

The kinematic constraint describing the torsion rotation is given by:

$$\theta_1 = \kappa_1 u_1 - \kappa_t u_2 \quad (5.22)$$

which assumes that the wire follows the supporting surface with varying transverse curvature given by:

$$\kappa_t = \frac{\cos^2 \alpha}{R} + \sin^2 \alpha \left( \frac{-\omega_{2,11} \sin \psi}{1 - R\omega_{2,11} \sin \psi} + \frac{\omega_{3,11} \cos \psi}{1 + R\omega_{3,11} \cos \psi} \right) \quad (5.23)$$

where  $\omega_i$  is the global displacement along the global axis  $Z^i$ .

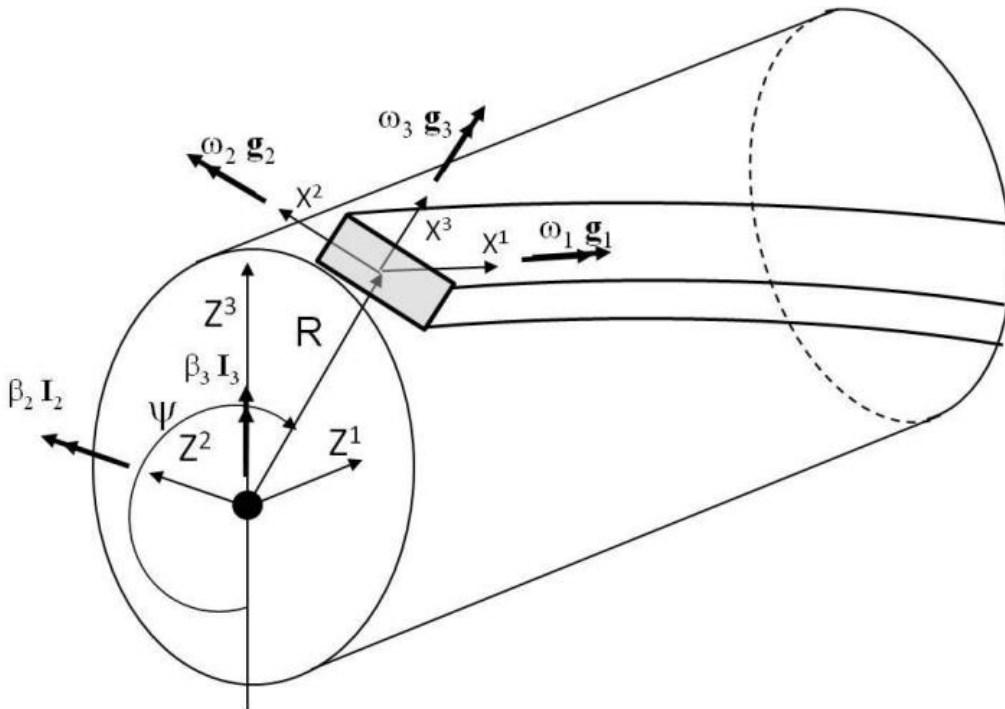


Figure 5.7: Kinematics of helix element

### 5.7.4 HCONT463

The HCONT463 element is a contact element with 13 degrees of freedom and 3 nodes, it is used to model contact between a cylindrical layer and a helix layer, i.e. between a HSHEAR363 and a HSHEAR353. Figure 5.8 illustrates how the HCONT463 element connects a HSHEAR363 (body A) element with a HSHEAR353 (body B) element. The HSHEAR353 element includes 3 translation directions and the HSHEAR363 includes only the radial displacement.

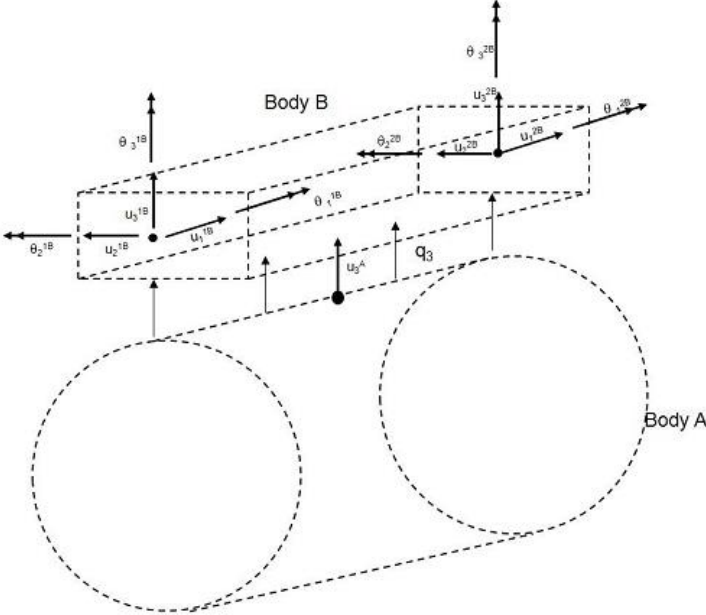


Figure 5.8: HCONT463 Element

### 5.7.5 HCONT454

The HCONT454 element is a contact element with 36 degrees of freedom and 6 nodes. It is used to model contact in the hoop direction within helical layers i.e. between HSHEAR353 elements.

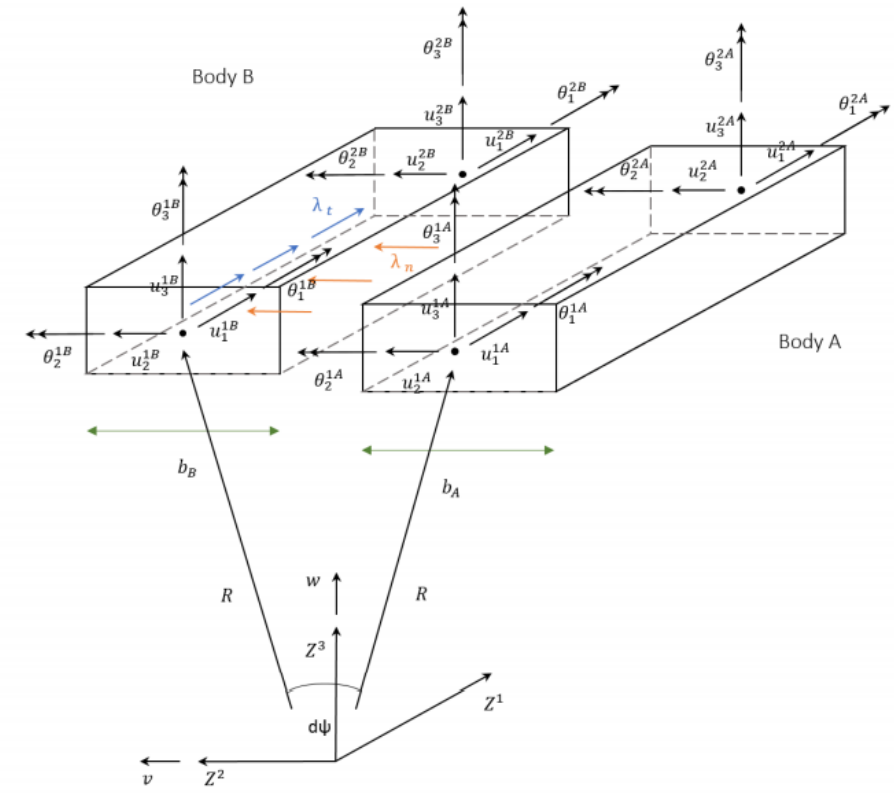


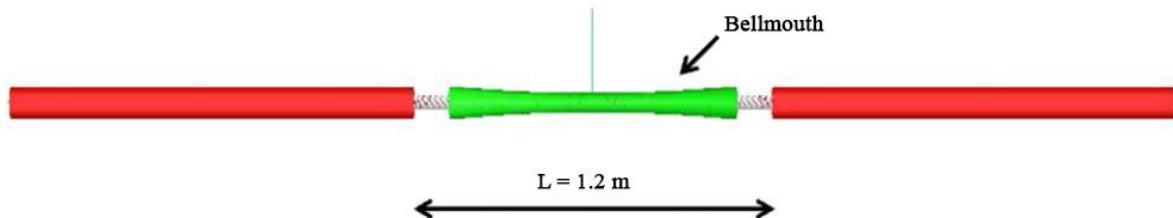
Figure 5.9: HCONT454 Element

# 6. Modelling and Simulation

*In this chapter are the main parts of the modelling procedure and the simulation described.*

## 6.1 Procedure

The conductor was modelled in with a full length of 3.24 meter, but due to computer limitations, it was truncated into a detailed part of the midsection. The detailed part was meshed with 100 elements per wire in the longitudinal direction. The two remaining parts, the ends, was modelled with 30 standard beam elements for each end.



*Figure 6.1: Illustration of the model*

A tensile load of 30 kN was applied gradually by initial strain during the first second and then held constant. The conductor was then bent back and forward by the movement of a bellmouth with a prescribed displacement in order to simulate tension-bending loading. Figure 6.1 shows an illustration of the conductor inside the bellmouth. This was done for two radii of curvature, 3 and 6.5 meters. This results in an axial force history at the end beams as shown in Figure 6.2. The maximum dynamic forces are 32.2 kN and 30.4 kN for the 3 and 6.5-meter bellmouth, respectively. The stress ranges due to dynamic tension are based on these forces.



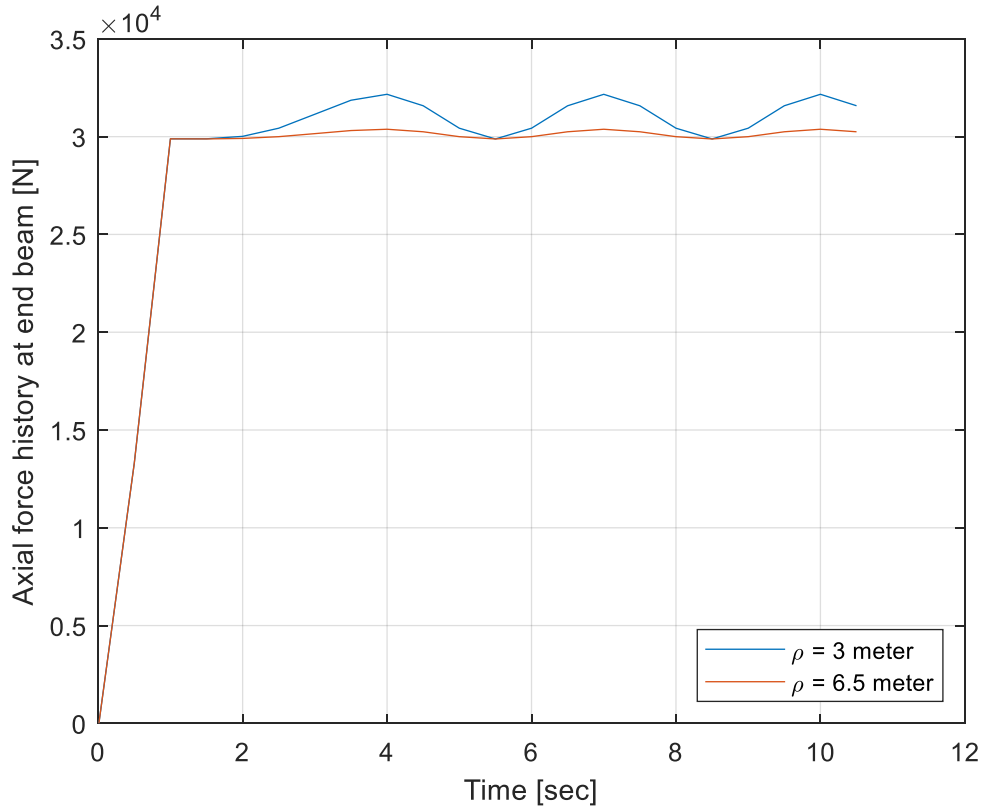


Figure 6.2: Axial force histories at end beams due to reversed bending.

Dynamic analysis was used with a time step of 0.001 seconds. Displacement, energy, and force norms of  $1 \cdot 10^{-5}$  was used when possible and only the displacement norm when convergence was hard to reach.

The model is based on beam and beam contact elements with the idea that fatigue strength is mainly governed by longitudinal stresses. The local longitudinal stress is given by:

$$\sigma_{XX} = \sigma_{XX-AX} + \sigma_{XX-MY} + \sigma_{XX-MZ} \quad (6.1)$$

where  $\sigma_{XX-AX}$  is axial stress,  $\sigma_{XX-MY}$  is stress due to bending about the y-axis (weak axis) and  $\sigma_{XX-MZ}$  is stress due to bending about the z-axis (strong axis). SCFs due to the geometrical irregularities are applied in the fatigue set up.

The model and the simulation consist of three input files or codes, one for the model, one for the fatigue set up and one for post processing. The input file of the 3-meter radii model is given in appendix B, this is identical with the 6.5-meter model except for the radii of the bellmouth and the movement of it.

## 6.2 Cross-section definition

The conductor consists of 4 layers. Layer 1 is the core and consist of 1 wire, layer 2, 3 and 4 are helical layers and consist of 6, 12 and 18 wires, respectively. In order to model the conductor with the chosen elements, artificial tape layers have to be introduced between layer 2 and 3, 3 and 4, and outside layer 3. This means that the trellis contact is not modelled as a point contact, instead, it is a smooth distributed contact. The helical layers have a lay angle of  $4.33^\circ$ ,  $-8.03^\circ$  and  $11.56^\circ$  for the 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> layer, respectively.

The core and the tape layers are modelled with HSHEAR363 and the helical layers with HSHEAR353 elements. Inline contact is modelled with HSHEAR454. Contact between the core and layer 2 and contact between helical layers and tape layers are modelled with HCONT463.

## 6.3 Material data

The copper material is defined in BFLEX for the cross-section of a wire. There are 37 wires and each wire have a cross section of  $8.11 \text{ mm}^2$ . The material data is presented in Table 3 and Table 4.

Table 3: Material data of structural elements

Property	Copper	Plastic
Type	Linear	Elastic
Young's modulus [GPa]	115	0.7
Shear modulus [GPa]	0.42	-
Poison's number [-]	0.355	0.35
Axial stiffness [N]	932650	-
Bending stiffness [ $\text{Nm}^2$ ]	0.6	-
Bending stiffness [ $\text{Nm}^2$ ]	0.6	-
Torsional stiffness [ $\text{Nm}^2$ ]	0.44	-

The shear stiffness of the axial contact elements has to be set with sufficient stiffness to reflect the plane surfaces remain plane condition. The minimum value recommended for a helix element is given by [40]:

$$10 \frac{EA}{R_i^2} \sin^2 \alpha_i \quad (6.2)$$

where  $R_i$  and  $\alpha_i$  is the radius and the lay angle of the layer, respectively. The results of this is shown for each layer in Table 4.

Table 4: Material data of contact elements

Property	Contact01
Type	Coulomb friction
Static friction coefficient [-]	0.2
Dynamic friction coefficient [-]	0.2
Elastic stiffness in axial direction [MN/m <sup>2</sup> ]	
-Layer 2	5159
-Layer 3	1298
-Layer 4	577

### 6.4 Boundary conditions

The degrees of freedom of the conductor’s ends are fixed in all translation directions and in rotation about the x-axis. All the nodes of the helical layers are fixed in rotations about the x and y axis, and the end nodes are fixed in x and y translation as well. The nodes of the core and the tape layers are fixed in y and z translation.

It should be noted that the degrees of freedom do not reflect the displacement of the nodes. The elements are free to deform. The restriction is not in space, but relative to the supporting surface, this means that surfaces/elements instead sticks to each other.

### 6.5 Mesh Sensitivity & Length optimization

The initial length of the truncated conductor was 1.5 meter. By investigating the of curvature along the length of the conductor, it was found that this length was longer than needed. A length corresponding to a curvature of zero close to the ends is a better choice taking computational cost into account, this length was found to be 1.2 meter. Figure 6.3 shows the bending curvature along the length of the conductor at maximum deformed formation.

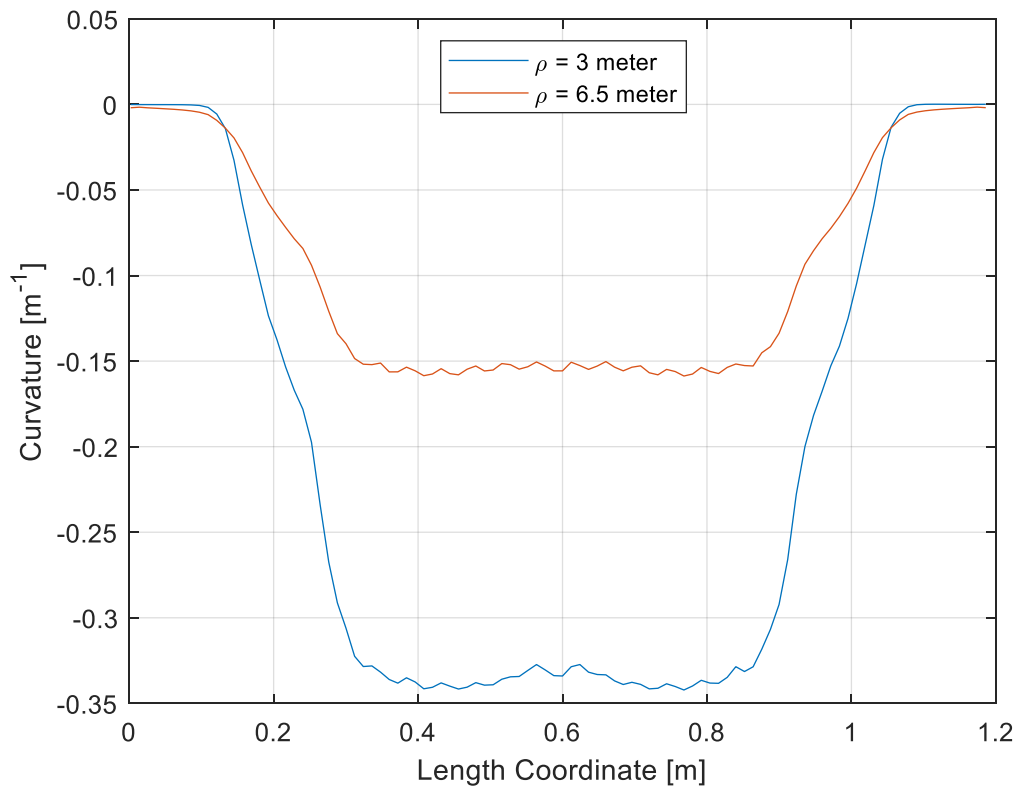


Figure 6.3: Bending curvature along the model at maximum deformation

Shortening of the conductor and keeping 100 elements per wire in the length direction serves as a mesh sensitivity study, doing so resulted in no significant difference. To further validate this, the initial 1.5 m conductor was simulated with 150 elements to make sure no effects of changing the length were involved.

## 6.6 Fatigue set up

The SN-curve for single wires produced by Nasution et al [7] was imported into BFLEX. This curve is given by equation 3.7 and with the parameters of  $m = 8.424$  and  $c = 2.88 \cdot 10^{25}$ .

The stress concentration factors for each layer were specified,  $SCF = 1.08$  for layer 4 and  $SCF = 1$  for the other layers. When mean stress correction is considered it is handled by BFLEX with the given ultimate stress for copper as 315 MPa, taken from [6].

The fatigue life prediction is based on the maximum stress range found from when the conductor has reached maximum deformation and then one full bending cycle from there.

# 7. Results

*This chapter presents the results.*

## 7.1 Analytical model

The stress ranges were predicted with the analytical model presented in section 3.5 and given in Table 5.

*Table 5: Summary of stress contribution predicted by the analytical model*

Contribution	Analytical	Layer 3	Layer 4
Radius of curvature $\rho = 3$ m			
Dynamic tension	7	7	7
Friction	105	45	6
Bending stress in the y-direction	121	116	108
Total	232	167	121
Radius of curvature $\rho = 6.5$ m			
Dynamic tension	1	1	1
Friction	105	45	6
Bending stress in the y-direction	56	53	50
Total	162	99	57

## 7.2 Friction coefficient

The influence of the friction coefficient was investigated by performing several simulations. The results are shown in Table 6. It should be noted that this sensitivity study was performed with an axial stiffness of  $400 \text{ MN/m}^2$  which is not used in the final results. The dry and lubricated friction coefficient corresponds to  $\mu = 0.2$  and  $\mu = 0.02$  respectively. It is clear that the friction coefficient has a strong influence on the stress and thereby the predicted life. All failures were found in the second layer except for the two cases with the lowest friction coefficient where they occurred in the fourth layer and the third layer with Goodman correction.

Table 6: Sensitivity study of friction coefficient

$\mu$	$\Delta\sigma_{xx}$ [MPa]	No mean stress correction	Gerber	Goodman
Bellmouth with radii of 3 meter:				
0.01	159 (L4)	8 276 227	8 562 303	7 337 134
0.02	158 (L4)	8 705 948	8 717 180	7 081 601
0.10	185	2 267 713	2 424 560	2 484 793
0.20	226	432 333	704 449	891 409
0.30	265	109 751	297 629	423 610
0.40	289	52 804	180 877	275 584
0.50	296	43 420	160 462	254 125
Bellmouth with radii of 6.5 meter:				
0.2	134	35 058 196	25 732 408	19 544 305
0.5	171	4 371 203	3 967 482	3 760 049

### 7.3 Shear stiffness of contact elements

The shear stiffness of the contact element must be set with sufficient stiffness to reflect the plane surface remain plane condition. The simulation was first done with shear stiffness of 400 and 600 MN/m<sup>2</sup>. These values are far less than the minimum recommended given by equation 7.2. At first, values from this formula resulted in no convergence, this was solved by only using the displacement norm. The result shows that the change of shear stiffness have some minor influence on the 3-meter radii model and a significant influence on the 6.5-meter radii model. The reason for this is that the 6.5-meter radii model is more in the stick domain which is governed by the parameter.

Table 7: Shear stiffness sensitivity

Shear stiffness MN/m <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta\sigma_{xx}$ [MPa]	No mean stress correction	Gerber	Goodman
Bellmouth with radii of 3 meter:				
400	226	432 333	704 449	891 409
600	229	385 405	652 468	838 490
Eq. 7.2	231	354 481	619 306	806 517
Bellmouth with radii of 6.5 meter:				
400	134	35 058 196	25 732 408	19 544 305
600	141	22 239 865	17 393 694	14 227 543
Eq. 7.2	159	8 424 528	7 747 793	7 278 603

### 7.4 Friction forces

The friction force starts to develop as the conductor is being bent, it comes from contact between the different layers and hoop contacts within the layer. By plotting the forces (Figure 7.1) of a contact element vs time it can be seen that the contribution from hoop contact is small. This was done for different elements and it should be noted that for one element, “spikes” was found at certain time steps resulting in big jumps of the otherwise smooth curve. This is assumed to be due to some numerical error meaning the model is not totally stable.

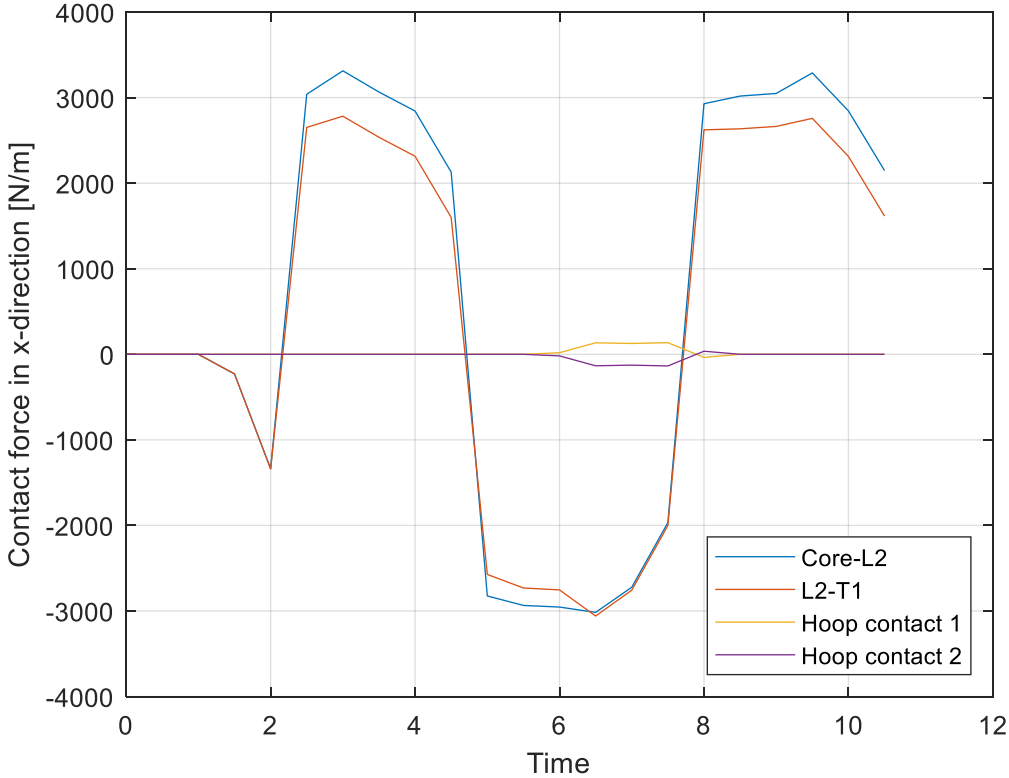


Figure 7.1: Contact forces vs time of an element

Removing the contact elements results in a higher stress range and thus a better prediction, as shown in Table 8. However, this result is not considered valid.

Table 8: Results with no hoop contact elements

$\Delta\sigma_{xx}$	No mean stress correction	Gerber	Goodman
245	211 933	435 974	576 897

### 7.5 Ultimate strength and mean stress correction

The ultimate strength of copper varies, values of 315 MPa and 250 MPa was investigated. The fatigue life of using the higher ultimate strength gives a shorter life for

the model with 3-meter radii bellmouth and longer life for the 6.5-meter model, using Goodman mean stress correction. This is because the correction depends on if the results of the stresses lies above or beneath the R-ratio of the SN-curve. As can be seen in Figure 7.2, the influence of ultimate stress and mean stress correction is small but significant for the model with 3 meter radii and almost non existing for the model with 6.5 meter radii. How the ultimate strength affects fatigue life with other or no mean stress correction is unknown.

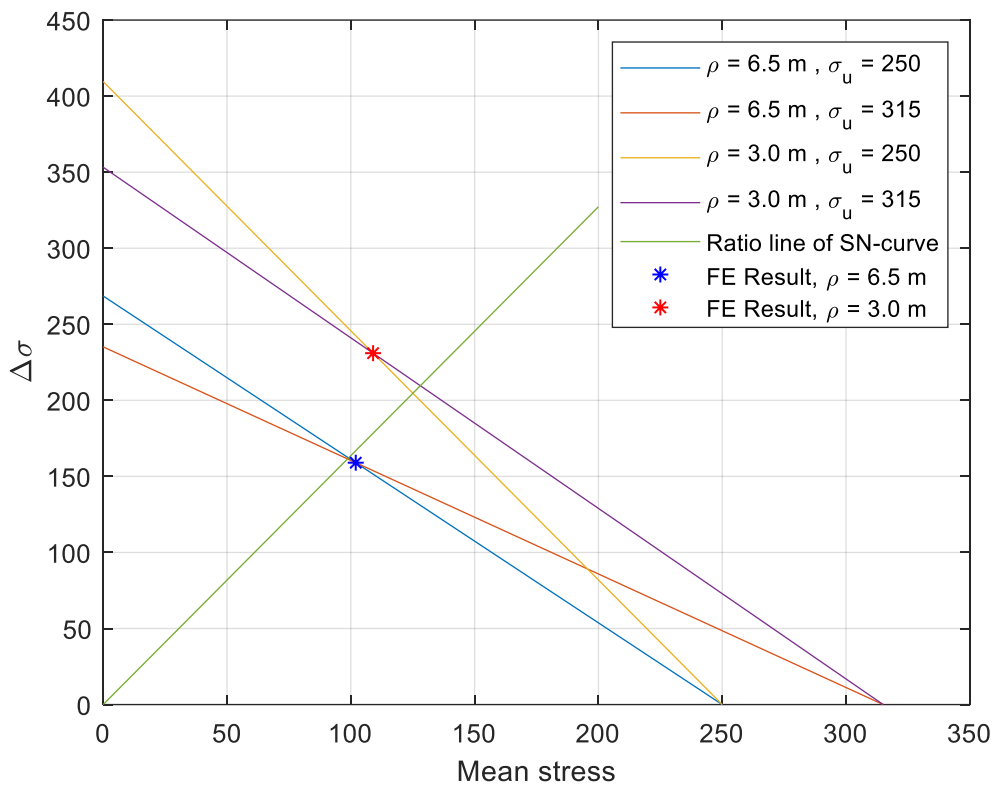


Figure 7.2: Influence of ultimate stress and Goodman mean stress correction

## 7.6 Predicted results vs laboratory tests

Considering the friction coefficient of  $\mu = 0.2$ , all predicted failures took place in the second layer inside the bellmouth (some distance off-centre) and was in good agreement with the analytical model. The predicted stress range was 231 and 159 MPa for the 3-meter radii and 6.5-meter radii, respectively and without mean stress correction. Figure 7.3 shows the predicted stress ranges compared with the results of the laboratory tests, it is clear that the model overestimates the fatigue life or underestimates the stress range. The latter implies that fatigue life is mainly governed by longitudinal stress range which is not necessarily true. In fact, the result suggests that the fatigue damage is induced by fretting.



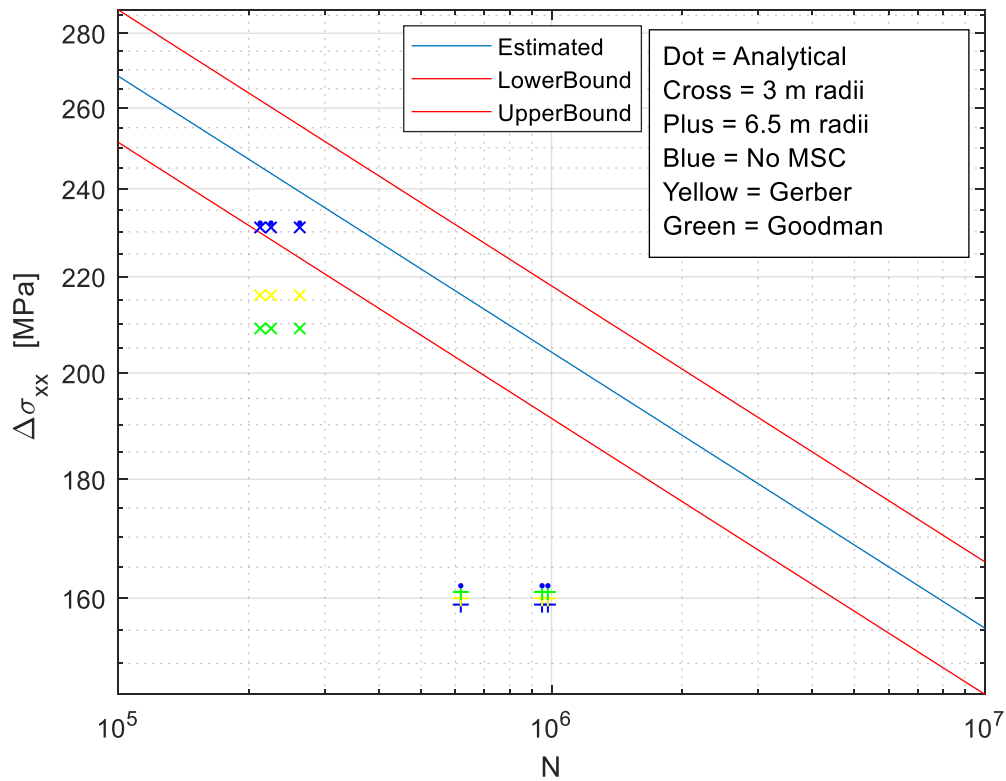


Figure 7.3: Cycles until failure of the laboratory tests vs predicted stress ranges

## 7.7 Indications of Fretting

The displacement amplitude is one major parameter governing fretting. In BFLEX this parameter corresponds to the relative displacement between wires. The displacement differs between layers, cross-section position and length coordinate. As a reference for the results presented in this section, the displacement amplitude is taken at the midsection of the conductor, and at the highest amplitude for each of the mating surfaces. Table 9 shows the results of the two models. Comparing these results with the fretting map (Figure 7.4) developed by Vingsbo and Söderberg, it can be seen that the displacements of the 6.5 meter radii bellmouth model, generally falls within in the range of decreasing fatigue life better than the 3 meter radii bellmouth model. This is very speculative since the fretting map is not based on copper, but it still serves as an indication that the 6.5-meter radii model is more prone to fretting fatigue than the 3-meter model.

Table 9: Displacement amplitudes

Location	Bellmouth with radii of 3 m [ $\mu\text{m}$ ]	Bellmouth with radii of 6.5 m [ $\mu\text{m}$ ]
Core - Layer 2	39	8
Layer 2 - Layer 3	130	53
Layer 3 - Layer 4	190	93
Within Layer 2	33	12
Within Layer 3	64	25
Within Layer 4	68	30

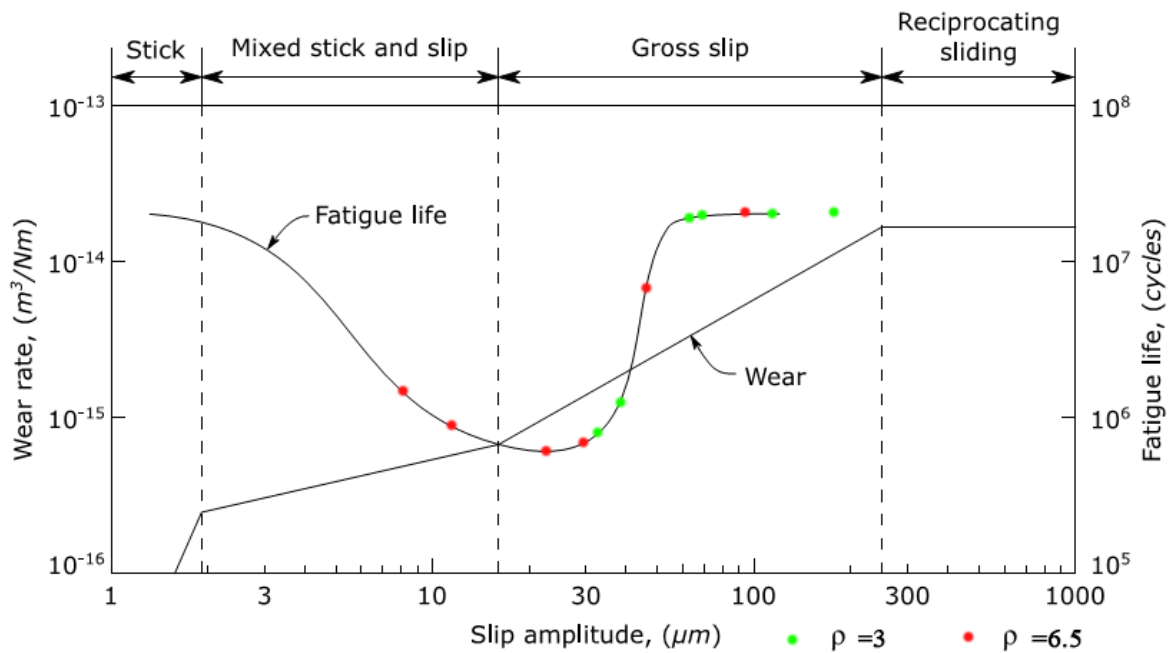


Figure 7.4: Fretting map with displacement amplitudes

The other major parameter governing fretting is the contact pressure. The contact pressure is not explicitly given by the model, and what pressure causing fretting on copper is not found in literature. However, a scatter band of the contact pressure was estimated from the contact line force by division of a lower and upper assumption of a deformed cylinder. The lower assumption was taken as the diameter length and the upper assumption was taken as 10 percent of the diameter. The contact pressure varies as the conductor is being bent. The inline contact pressure fluctuates and reaches zero in the neutral position. The interlayer contacts also fluctuate but remains more or less the same, at maximum the pressure is reduced by 4.6 MPa. The results are shown in Table 10.

Table 10: Estimated contact pressure

Location	Bellmouth with radii of 3 m [MPa]	Bellmouth with radii of 6.5 m [MPa]
Core – Layer 2	4.7 – 47.2	4.9 – 49.8
Layer 2 – Layer 3	2.2 – 22.4	2.19 – 21.9
Layer3 – Layer 4	1- 10.4	0.93- 9.37
Within Layer 2	0.2 – 2	0.089 – 0.89
Within Layer 3	0.53- 5.38	0.23 2.38
Within Layer 4	0.7 - 7	0.3 – 3

No data of contact pressure regarding fretting fatigue of copper was found in literature. However, it was found that an aluminium alloy on steel experience fretting fatigue at 20 MPa and beyond [41]. For stainless steel fretting fatigue is present at 15 MPa [42]. For aluminium fretting fatigue is present at 5 and 20 MPa for two different setups [43].

This data of contact pressure falls within some of the estimated scatter bands of the contact pressures in the conductor. There is a better fit for inter layer contact than for the inline contacts. This suggest that the contact pressure is sufficient to cause fretting fatigue damage also on copper.

# 8. Discussion

*This chapter includes a general discussion and also discussion about mean stress effect and fretting.*

## 8.1 General

All models are an attempt to describe reality, some are useful, and some are not. In this work, a finite element model was developed with the underlying basis that the fatigue life is mainly govern by longitudinal stress ranges. The result shows that the model over predicts the fatigue life when the conductor is subjected to reversed bending in one plane. However, neglecting mean stress correction, the result of the 3-meter radii bellmouth falls within the scatter band of  $\pm$  two standard deviations from the SN-curve of individual wires. The results from the analytical model are in good agreement with the finite element model prediction.

The predicted life is compared to the laboratory tests, in these tests are all the effects contributing to the fatigue life included by the nature of the test. This comparison (Figure 7.3) suggests that the underlying basis of the model, that the fatigue life is mainly governed by longitudinal stress ranges, may or may not be valid. This depends on whether fretting and the effect of mean stress are present or not.

As already stated, both models overpredicts the fatigue life when comparing to the laboratory tests. However, the amount of overprediction differs between the two models. Assuming the effect of mean stress is negligible, the fatigue life is overestimated by a factor of 1.52 and 9.91 for 3- and 6.5-meters radii bellmouth models, respectively. This means that laboratory tests, especially the longer lives test with the larger radius, fails earlier than what the model predicts. It is normal with large margins in fatigue, and the first factor is indeed predicting life within the scatter band of the SN-curve. Moreover, regarding fretting, the difference of the factors suggests that some fatigue damage comes from fretting.

The influence of the friction coefficient was investigated. It was shown in Table 6 that the predicted fatigue life is very sensitive to the choice of friction coefficient. The coefficient of  $\mu = 0.2$  was used and based on the measurement done by Nasution et. al [6]. However, there are some uncertainties regarding this. The friction coefficient may differ from the full-scale tests to the test where the friction coefficient was established. Also, even a change in the second decimal place will affect the predicted life significantly. The friction coefficient may increase during the test as well. Comparing  $\mu = 0.2$  to general values of dry copper-copper friction coefficient found in literature, it is quite low.

It was found that the contribution of hoop friction forces was small compare to interlayer friction forces. This servers as a validation of the analytical model that excludes hoop friction forces. The hoop contact elements were removed, this saved computational time but resulted in a higher stress range and thus not considered valid.

The reason for this is assumed to be due to a “hugging” effect increasing interlayer friction force, which comes from the lack of support in the radial direction which the hoop contacts also contributed to.

For the case of the lubricated conductor, there are no final results. However, from the analysis done it can be seen that they are likely not near the scatter band of the SN-curve. It is assumed that the fatigue life of lubricated conductors cannot be explained by friction and therefore not predicted by this model. The fatigue life is governed by other phenomena and perhaps on microscopic level. So, generally low stress ranges do not go well with the model because other phenomena take control over the fatigue life.

## 8.2 Mean stress effect

There are uncertainties regarding mean stress correction of copper conductors since there have been no research studying this. Dowling stated that the sensitivity of mean stress increases for higher strength metals, since copper has a low strength it is expected to have a low sensitivity. However, for this study, a traditional approach using Goodman correction was used in order to check its influence on the results.

Goodman correction was investigated together with the ultimate strength of copper conductors. A Haig’s diagram was constructed by equation 3.5 using the mean stress and the stress range from BFLEX. As can be seen in Figure 7.2 the effects of ultimate strength and Goodman correction is small or for the larger radius possibly even neglectable. The reason for this is that the results from the finite element prediction are close to the R-ratio line of the SN-curve.

Normally, using a lower ultimate strength or a Söderberg relation (same relation as Goodman but with yield stress), adds conservatives. But since the results are both above and beneath the R-ratio line, the mean stress correction is both conservative and unconservative. The predicted life of the 3-meter radii bellmouth model increases and the life of the 6.5-meter model decreases (or stays more or less the same because the results are almost on the R-ratio line). This reduces the difference of the overestimation but moves at the same time the predicted life of the 3-meter radii bellmouth model out of the scatter band. Also, further decreasing the ultimate strength causes an issue as it becomes less than the maximum stress of 226 MPa.

As already stated, the effect of mean stress on copper conductors is not known and the developed model benefits if the sensitivity is low. Since this cannot be concluded in this study, a literature research was done for discussion purposes.

For a study with aluminium, it was found that traditional mean stress sensitivity theory can lead to non-conservative fatigue design [44]. Another study showed, among other things, that the fatigue life on copper is weakly dependent on mean stress [45]. A study on titanium alloy showed that the Goodman relation can lead to significantly over-conservative as well as non-conservative estimations depending on the considered cycles to failure [46]. One study [47] found showed that copper is sensitive to the mean stress effect, but for low stress ranges and relatively low mean stress. However, sensitivity is usually weaker for higher mean stress [48].

So, it is clear that the traditional theories may not be applicable. The sensitivity is dependent on at least what material being used, mean stress and load amplitude, and it seems likely that the sensitivity for copper is low.

### 8.3 Fretting

The fretting phenomenon is known to be a complex problem to analyse. Little research has been done on fretting related to copper conductors. A literature study was done in order to gain a better understanding of the phenomenon. Even though Nasution et al. found no signs of fretting when investigating fractured wires with a Scanning Electron Microscope, it cannot be ruled out as a possibility. The result of the simulations clearly suggests fretting since the lifetime of the predictions differs significantly. Generally, fretting suffers from the large number of parameters governing the phenomenon, this makes comparisons between studies difficult. Anyhow, contact pressure and displacement amplitude are two parameters that can be used for analysis. With regards to these parameters, the result shows or indicates that fretting is possible. However, these indications of fretting should be taken very briefly as the tribological effects are limited. E.g. the trellis contact is not modelled as a point contact and partial slip phenomenon in fretting is not considered. Also, the contact pressure had to be estimated.

In this study, only the midsection of the conductor and the maximum displacement for each mating surfaces was studied with regards to displacement amplitude and the contact pressure. The displacement amplitude and contact pressure varies from here in location and the contact pressure also varies with time. The contact pressure increases slightly off center and then decreases out to the ends. The interlayer contact force remains sufficiently large over time but the contact within the layers goes to zero when the beam is strait. A more complete analysis would consider all locations in all time steps.

Perhaps the most interesting in this analysis is the displacement and contact pressure between the core and the second layer of the 6.5-meter radii bellmouth model. This fits the reduced fatigue life of Vingsbo's and Söderberg's map well and has likely sufficient pressure to cause fretting fatigue. If this is the case, the fracture also due to fretting would occur in the second layer which is in line with the laboratory tests. The 3-meter radii bellmouth model also shows decreased fatigue life for its displacement amplitude between the core and the second layer. However, since it has a shorter life, it is less exposed to fretting and assumed to be more governed by the stress variation.

As no data on contact pressure on copper was found in literature, data of steel and aluminium was used instead. It is realistic to assume that fretting on copper may occur at the same or even lower levels of contact pressure. The studies found does not investigate a lower threshold for when fretting fatigue is present, which would be of more interest for this study. However, values are taken as the lowest contact pressure when fretting fatigue is present in those studies.

# 9. Conclusions

The fatigue strength of stranded copper conductors was investigated. A finite element model based on the assumption that fatigue life is mainly governed by longitudinal stress ranges was developed. The predicted life of the model was compared to laboratory tests. The conductor was subjected to static tension and reversed bending in one plane. The main conclusion of this work is that the finite element model overpredicts the fatigue life, by a large factor for the 6.5-meter radius model and by a smaller factor within the scatter band of the SN-curve for the 3.5-meter radius model. The reasons for this are unclear but fretting seems to be a likely explanation. Hence, the model cannot be used for fatigue life prediction of stranded copper conductors. However, some conclusions are drawn from the study.

1. The predicted life is very sensitive to the choice of friction coefficient.
2. The shear stiffness of the contact elements has a significant influence on the predicted life, especially for the 6.5-meter radii bellmouth model.
3. The predicted failure of the unlubricated conductor occurs in the second layer inside the bellmouth. This is in line with the laboratory tests where they occurred in the second or third layer.
4. The analytical model is in good agreement with the finite element model.
5. The contribution of friction forces within a layer is small compare to interlayer friction forces.
6. Traditional use of mean stress correction theory both increases and decreases the predicted life. However, this is uncertain since it is not known how copper conductors respond to the effect of mean stress. A literature study suggests that the sensitivity of mean stress correction is likely low.
7. A simplistic fretting analyses suggest that failure due to fretting damage is most likely to occur in the second layer of the larger radius model.

## 10. Suggestions for future work

A natural continuation of this work is to further investigate the fretting phenomenon. One can consider performing tests of longer fatigue life in order to capture fretting effects. It is also possible to compare reversed bending tests as done in this work with rotational bending tests. Rotational bending tests should suffer less from fretting because all of the wires are affected. With regards to finite element modelling the next step is to use volume elements, this may or may not improve the results but at a significantly increased computational cost.

No studies were found in literature regarding the mean stress effect of copper conductors. As mentioned in the discussion, the effect of mean stress depends on several parameters and the sensitivity is most likely low. It would therefore be of interest to further investigate and possibly confirm this. This can be done by producing more SN-curves at several different stress amplitudes and R-ratios.

Finally, it is possible to produce SN-curves of whole copper conductors. This would include the possible effects of fretting but makes the SN-curve dependent on the load case.



# 11. Reference List

1. Council, G.W.E., *Global Wind Report 2018*. 2019.
2. Castro-Santos, L. and V. Diaz-Casas, *Floating Offshore Wind Farms*. 1st ed. 2016 ed. Green Energy and Technology. 2016, Cham: Cham: Springer International Publishing.
3. [www.aquaret.com](http://www.aquaret.com). 2020.
4. Srinil, N., *Cabling to connect offshore wind turbines to onshore facilities*. 2016. 419-440.
5. Worzyk, T., *Submarine Power Cables: Design, Installation, Repair, Environmental Aspects*. Design, Installation, Repair, Environmental Aspects. 2009, Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer Berlin Heidelberg, Berlin, Heidelberg.
6. Nasution, F.P., S. Sævik, and S. Berge, *Experimental and finite element analysis of fatigue strength for 300 mm<sup>2</sup> copper power conductor*. *Marine Structures*, 2014. **39**(C): p. 225-254.
7. Nasution, F.P., et al., *Experimental and finite element analysis of fatigue performance of copper power conductors.(Report)*. *International Journal of Fatigue*, 2013. **47**: p. 244.
8. de Alegría, I.M., et al., *Transmission alternatives for offshore electrical power*. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 2009. **13**(5): p. 1027-1038.
9. Thies, P., L. Johanning, and G. Smith, *Assessing mechanical loading regimes and fatigue life of marine power cables in marine energy applications*. *Proceedings of the Institution of Mechanical Engineers*, 2012. **226**(1): p. 18.
10. DNVGL-ST-0359, *Subsea power cables for wind power plants*.
11. Johnson, K.L., *Contact mechanics*. 1985: CAMBRIDGE UNIVERISTY PRESS.
12. Hobbs, R.E. and K. Ghavani, *The fatigue of structural wire strands*. *International Journal of Fatigue*, 1982. **4**(2): p. 69-72.
13. Alani, M. and M. Raouf, *Effect of mean axial load on axial fatigue life of spiral strands*. *International Journal of Fatigue*, 1997. **19**(1): p. 1-11.
14. Hobbs, R.E. and M. Raouf, *Behaviour of cables under dynamic or repeated loading*. *Journal of Constructional Steel Research*, 1996. **39**(1): p. 31-50.
15. Suh, J.-I. and S.P. Chang, *Experimental study on fatigue behaviour of wire ropes*. *International Journal of Fatigue*, 2000. **22**(4): p. 339-347.
16. Raouf, M., *Axial Fatigue of Multilayered Strands*. *Journal of Engineering Mechanics*, 1990. **116**(10): p. 2083-2099.
17. Raouf, M., *AXIAL FATIGUE LIFE PREDICTION OF STRUCTURAL CABLES FROM FIRST PRINCIPLES*. *Proceedings of the Institution of Civil Engineers*, 1991. **91**(1): p. 19-38.
18. Hobbs, R.E. and M. Raouf, *Mechanism of fretting fatigue in steel cables*. *International Journal of Fatigue*, 1994. **16**(4): p. 273-280.
19. Karlsen, S., *Fatigue of copper conductors for dynamic subsea power cables*. 2010. p. 275-281.
20. Nasution, F.P., S. Sævik, and J.K.Ø. Gjøsteen, *Fatigue Analysis of Copper Conductor for Offshore Wind Turbines by Experimental and FE Method*. *Energy Procedia*, 2012. **24**(C): p. 271-280.

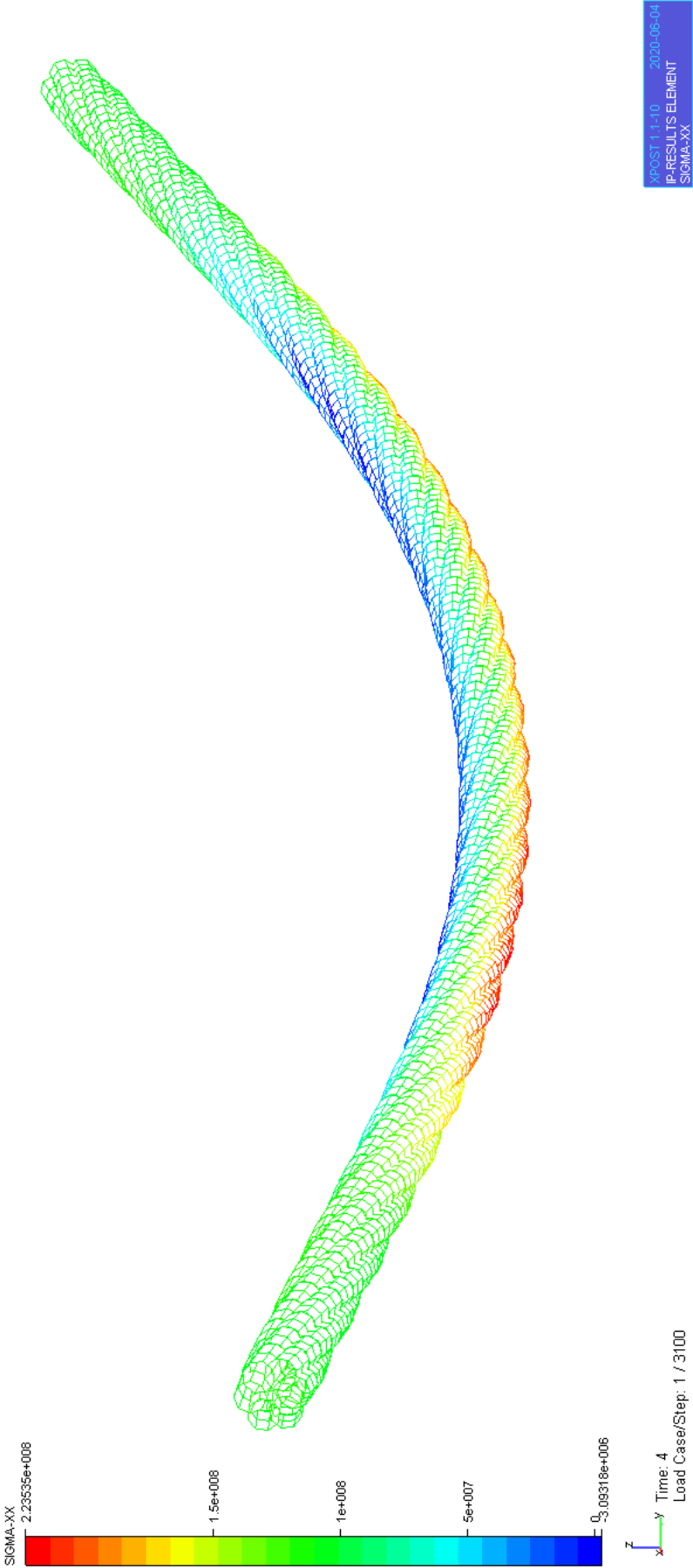
21. Nasution, F.P., S. Sævik, and J.K.O. Gjøsteen, *Finite element analysis of the fatigue strength of copper power conductors exposed to tension and bending loads*. International Journal of Fatigue, 2014. **59**: p. 114.
22. Kraincanic, I. and E. Kedadze, *Slip initiation and progression in helical armouring layers of unbonded flexible pipes and its effect on pipe bending behaviour*. The Journal of Strain Analysis for Engineering Design, 2001. **36**(3): p. 265-275.
23. *BFLEX Theory Manual*, SINTEF, Editor. 2019.
24. Stig Berge, S.K.Å., *Fatigue and Fracture Design of Marine Structures, Compendium 2017*.
25. Suresh, S., *Fatigue of Materials*. 1998: CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS.
26. Lewinsohn, C.A., *Mechanical Behavior of Materials by Norman E. Dowling*. 2000. p. 775-776.
27. Ralph I. Stephens, A.F., Robert R. Stephens, Henry O. Fuchs, *Metal Fatigue in Engineering*. JOHN WILEY & SONS, INC.
28. D. A.HILLS , D.N., *Mechanics of Fretting Fatigue* ed. G.M.L. GLADWELL. SPRINGER.
29. Björk, K., *Formler och tabeller för mekanisk konstruktion*. Karl Björks Förlag HB.
30. Vingsbo, O. and S. Söderberg, *On fretting maps*. Wear, 1988. **126**(2): p. 131-147.
31. Nowell, D., D. Dini, and D.A. Hills, *Recent developments in the understanding of fretting fatigue*. Engineering Fracture Mechanics, 2006. **73**(2): p. 207-222.
32. *Fretting fatigue: Waterhouse, R.B. Int. Mater. Rev. 1992 37, (2), 77-97*. International Journal of Fatigue, 1993. **15**(4): p. 347-347.
33. Edvardsen, A.V., *Numerical and Experimental Fretting Fatigue Testing Using a New Test Rig*. 2019.
34. Moan, T., *Finite element modelling and analysis of marine structures*. Kompendium (Norges teknisk-naturvitenskapelige universitet. Institutt for marin teknikk). Vol. UK-03-98. 2003, Trondheim: Department of Marine Technology, Norwegian University of Science and Technology.
35. Sævik, S., *Lecture Notes, Advanced Analysis of Marine Structures*
36. Sigmund, O., *Notes and Exercises for the Course: FEM-Heavy*.
37. Ivar Langen, R.S., *Dynamisk Analyse Av konstruksjoner*.
38. *RIFLEX Theory Manual*, SINTEF, Editor. 1995.
39. Mathisen, K.M., *Large Displacement Analysis of Flexible and Rigid Systems Considering Displacement-dependent Loads and Nonlinear Constraints*, in *Structural Engineering*. 1990, NTH.
40. Sævik, S.
41. Sadeler, R., *Influence of contact pressure on fretting fatigue behaviour of AA 2014 alloy with dissimilar mating material*. Fatigue & Fracture of Engineering Materials & Structures, 2006. **29**(12): p. 1039-1044.
42. Nakazawa, K., et al., *Effect of contact pressure on fretting fatigue of austenitic stainless steel*. Elsevier Science Publishing Co., Inc., Tribology International (USA), 2003. **36**(2): p. 79-85.
43. Adibnazari, S. and D.W. Hoepfner, *A fretting fatigue normal pressure threshold concept*. Wear, 1993. **160**(1): p. 33-35.
44. Aigner, R., M. Leitner, and M. Stoschka, *On the mean stress sensitivity of cast aluminium considering imperfections*. Materials Science & Engineering A, 2019. **758**: p. 172-184.
45. Eckert, R., C. Laird, and J. Bassani, *Mechanism of fracture produced by fatigue cycling with a positive mean stress in copper*. Materials Science and Engineering, 1987. **91**(C): p. 81-88.

46. Oberwinkler, B., *On the anomalous mean stress sensitivity of Ti-6Al-4V and its consideration in high cycle fatigue lifetime analysis*. International Journal of Fatigue, 2016. **92**(P1): p. 368-381.
47. Lukas, P., et al., *EFFECT OF MEAN STRESS ON THE LOW-AMPLITUDE CYCLIC STRESS-STRAIN CURVE OF POLYCRYSTALLINE COPPER*. Mater. Sci. Eng. A-Struct. Mater. Prop. Microstruct. Process., 1989. **118**: p. L1-L4.
48. Yung-Li Lee, J.P., Richard Hathaway, Mark Barkey *Fatigue Testing and Analysis. Theory and Practice-Butterworth-Heinemann*. 2004: ELSAVIER.

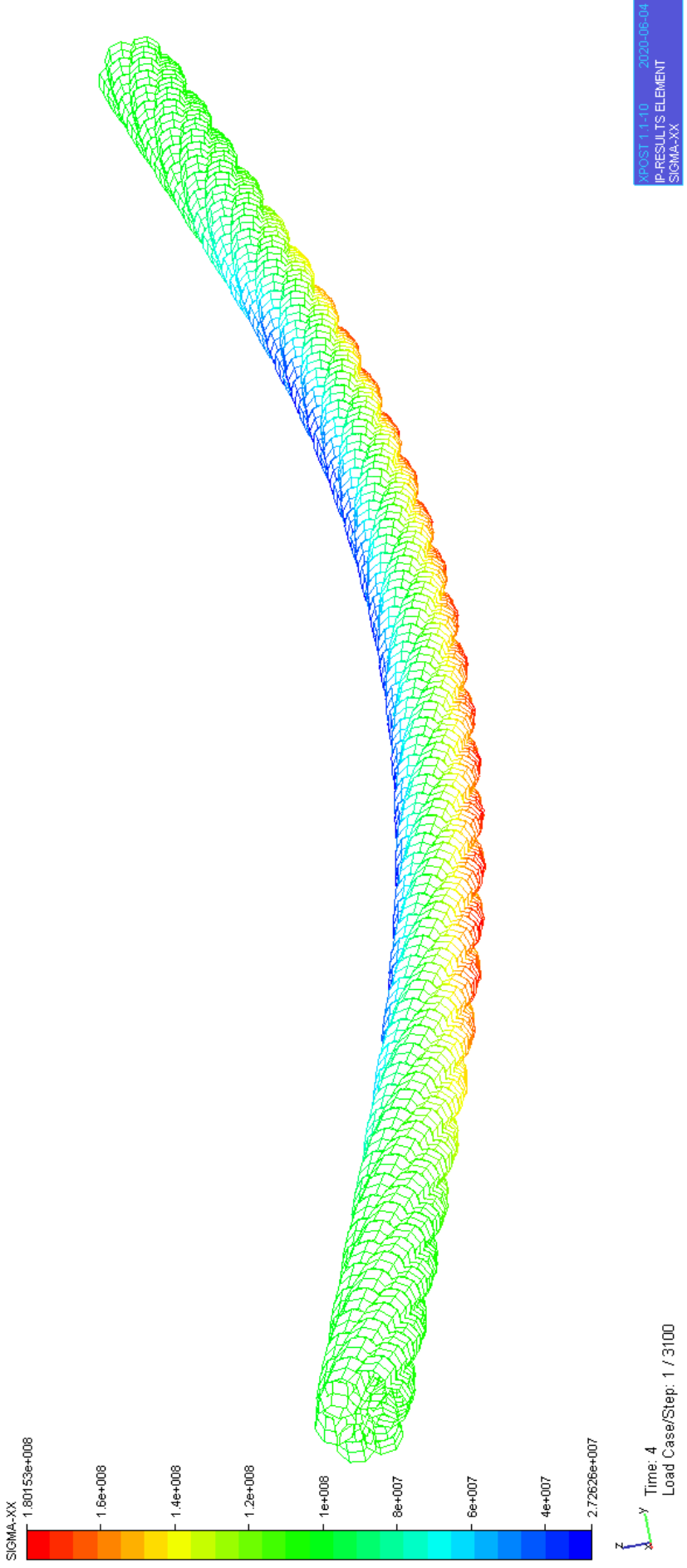
## 12. Appendix

- A) Stress distribution of the conductors in fully bent position.
- B) BFLEX input file of the 3-meter radii model.

A)



Stress distribution 3-meter radii model att fully bent position.



Stress distribution 6.5-meter radii model att fully bent position.

B)

```

1  HEAD M50, BELLMOUTH Length 0.8 RADIUS 3, ELEMENTS = 100 Model Lenght = 1.2 Met
er
2  HEAD Contact01,
3  HEAD FATIGUE INK.
4  HEAD Units: m, N, Pa, s
5
6  # Control parameters.
7  #          MAXIT  NDIM      ISOLVR  NPOINT  IPRINT  CONR      GAC      ISTRES
8  CONTROL 200    3      2      8      11      10E-05    0      stressfree # str
essfree / restart #
9
10 VISRES INTEGRATION      1      SIGMA-XX SIGMA-XX-AX SIGMA-XX-MY SIGMA-XX-MZ V
CONFOR-Z FATIGUE
11
12 #          MSTAT      ALPHA 1      ALPHA 2      ALPHA
13 DYNCONT 1      0.0      0.05      -0.05
14
15 # Time control data for dynamic iteration
16 #          T      DT      DTVI  DT0      Type      STEPTYPE  ITERCO  ITCRIT  MAXIT  MAX
DIV  CONR
17 TIMECO 1.0    0.01  0.5  100.0  DYNAMIC  AUTO      NONE    disp    20    1
0      1.0E-04
18 TIMECO 13.0  0.001  0.5  100.0  DYNAMIC  AUTO      NONE    disp    16    1
0      1.0E-05
19
20
21 #          NAME  TYPE      POISSON TALFA  TECOND  HEATC  BETA  EA      EIY
EIZ      GIT      EM      GM
22 MATERIAL copper1 LINEAR  0.355  1.1E-5  50      800    0.0    932650  0.59
936 0.59936 0.442332 1.15E11 0.42435E11
23 MATERIAL copper2 LINEAR  0.355  1.1E-5  50      800    0.0    932650  0.59
936 0.59936 0.442332 1.15E11 0.42435E11
24 MATERIAL copper3 LINEAR  0.355  1.1E-5  50      800    0.0    932650  0.59
936 0.59936 0.442332 1.15E11 0.42435E11
25 MATERIAL copper4 LINEAR  0.355  1.1E-5  50      800    0.0    932650  0.59
936 0.59936 0.442332 1.15E11 0.42435E11
26
27 FATPROP copper1 copperfatigue1
28 FATPROP copper2 copperfatigue2
29 FATPROP copper3 copperfatigue3
30 FATPROP copper4 copperfatigue4
31
32
33 MATERIAL plastic ELASTIC 0.35  1000.0  1.1E-5  0.0  0.0  700E6
34 MATERIAL endmat1 LINEAR 0.35  1.1E-5  50      800    0.0  220640.994 823.6
823.6 607.8 1.15e11 0.42435E11
35 #
36 #          TYPE  MUS  MUD  KEL1      KEL2      FRAC  KDYNCl
C1  C2  DIM  KSURF
37 MATERIAL contact01R2 FRICONTACT 6  0.2  0.2  5159e6  5159e6  2  0.0
1.0 1.0 -1.0 1e10
38 MATERIAL contact01R3 FRICONTACT 6  0.2  0.2  1298e6  1298e6  2  0.0
1.0 1.0 -1.0 1e10
39 MATERIAL contact01R4 FRICONTACT 6  0.2  0.2  577e6  577e6  2  0.0
1.0 1.0 -1.0 1e10
40
41 # The attachecement beams
42 NOCOOR coordinates 5001 0 0 0.00
43 5011 0 0 0.51
44 5031 0 0 1.02
45 #-----Conductor-----#
46 5032 0.0 0 2.22
47 5052 0.0 0 2.73
48 5062 0.0 0 3.24
49 #
50 NOCOOR coordinates 50001 0 0 1.62
51
52
53 #          group      elty      material  ID  n1  n2
54 ELCON  end1      pipe31  endmat1  5001  5001  5002

```

```

55 REPEAT 30 1 1
56 ELCON end2 pipe31 endmat1 5031 5032 5033
57 REPEAT 30 1 1
58
59 ELORIENT COORDINATES 5001 0.0 1000.0 0.0000
60 REPEAT 60 1 0 0 0
61
62 # name type radius th CDr Cdt CMr CMT wd ws ODp
   ODw rks
63 ELPROP end1 pipe 0.025 0.005 0.8 0.1 2.0 0.2 0.80 0.80 0.012
   5 0.01250 0.5
64 ELPROP end2 pipe 0.025 0.005 0.8 0.1 2.0 0.2 0.80 0.80 0.012
   5 0.01250 0.5
65
66 # BELLMOUTH BODY AND CONTACT.
67
68 ELCON bellmouth body502 none 90001 50001
69 ELORIENT EULERANGLE 90001 0 0 0
70 ELPROP bellmouth body geol 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0
   0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0
71 # theta nvis len diam radius
72 GEOM geol 1 dTrumpet 0.0 20 0.8 0.030 3.0
73
74 # Contact between bellmouth and conductor
75 ELCON bscontact cont152 rollmat2 90101 50001
76 REPEAT 101 1 0
77 ELORIENT EULERANGLE 90101 0 0 0
78 90201 0 0 0
79
80 # name type diameter inside
81 ELPROP bscontact bellmouth 0.029 1
82 CONTINT bscontact bellmouth TAPE3 13001 13100 500 500
   0.0 60 1
83
84 # name type mmyx xname zname
85 MATERIAL rollmat2 contact 0.2 0.2 rollmat1_x rollmat1_x rollmat1_z
86
87 # name type alfa eps sig
88 MATERIAL rollmat1_x epcurve 1 0 0
89 0.005 1
90 100.00 2
91 # name type eps sig
92 MATERIAL rollmat1_z hycurve -1.0e7 -3.0e15
93 1.0e7 3.0e15
94
95 # BOUNDARY CONDITIONS
96
97 BONCON GLOBAL 5001 1
98 BONCON GLOBAL 5001 2
99 BONCON GLOBAL 5001 3
100 BONCON GLOBAL 5001 4
101
102 BONCON GLOBAL 5062 1
103 BONCON GLOBAL 5062 2
104 BONCON GLOBAL 5062 3
105 BONCON GLOBAL 5062 4
106
107 CONSTR CONEQ global 10001 1 0.0 5031 1 1.0
108 CONSTR CONEQ global 10001 2 0.0 5031 2 1.0
109 CONSTR CONEQ global 10001 3 0.0 5031 3 1.0
110 CONSTR CONEQ global 10001 4 0.0 5031 4 1.0
111 CONSTR CONEQ global 10001 5 0.0 5031 5 1.0
112 CONSTR CONEQ global 10001 6 0.0 5031 6 1.0
113
114 CONSTR CONEQ global 10101 1 0.0 5032 1 1.0
115 CONSTR CONEQ global 10101 2 0.0 5032 2 1.0
116 CONSTR CONEQ global 10101 3 0.0 5032 3 1.0
117 CONSTR CONEQ global 10101 4 0.0 5032 4 1.0
118 CONSTR CONEQ global 10101 5 0.0 5032 5 1.0
119 CONSTR CONEQ global 10101 6 0.0 5032 6 1.0

```



```

120
121 BONCON GLOBAL 50001 1
122 BONCON GLOBAL 50001 2
123 #BONCON GLOBAL 50001 3
124 BONCON GLOBAL 50001 4
125 BONCON GLOBAL 50001 5
126 BONCON GLOBAL 50001 6
127
128 # ROTATION AND SHIFT OF X COORDINATE
129 NOCOOR ROTDISP 0.0 1.57079632 0.0 -1.02 0.0 0.0
130
131
132 # DEFINING NODAL COORDINATES OF CONDUCTOR.
133 # LAYER 1
134 NOCOOR COORDINATES 10001 0.0 0.0 0.0
135 10101 1.20 0.0 0.0
136
137 NOCOOR COORDINATES 11001 0.00 0.00 0.00
138 11100 1.20 0.00 0.00
139
140 # TAPES
141 NOCOOR COORDINATES 12001 0.00 0.00 0.00
142 12100 1.20 0.00 0.00
143
144 NOCOOR COORDINATES 13001 0.00 0.00 0.00
145 13100 1.20 0.00 0.00
146
147 NOCOOR COORDINATES 14001 0.00 0.00 0.00
148 14100 1.20 0.00 0.00
149
150
151 # LAYER 2
152 .
153 # no x0 y0 z0 b1 b2 b3 R node xcor theta
154 NOCOOR Polar 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.00321 200010.00 0
20101 1.20 23.7101
155 *1.2
156 # N NODINC XINC THETAINC
157 Repeat 6 101 0.0 6.283185307/6
158 # LAYER 3
159 .
160 NOCOOR Polar 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.00642 300010.00 0
30101 1.20 -22.046
161 26*1.2
162 # N NODINC XINC THETAINC
163 Repeat 12 101 0.0 6.283185307/12
164 # LAYER 4
165 .
166 NOCOOR Polar 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.00963 400010.00 0
40101 1.20 21.2989
167 *1.2
168 # N NODINC XINC THETAINC
169 Repeat 18 101 0.0 6.283185307/18
170
171
172 # Defining element groups
173 # Element connectivity and properties
174
175 # ELGR ELTY MATNAME ELID NOD1 NOD2 NOD3
176 ELCON LAYER1 HSHEAR363 COPPER1 10001 10001 10002 11001
177 REPEAT 100 1 1
178
179 ELCON TAPE1 HSHEAR363 PLASTIC 11001 10001 10002 12001
180 REPEAT 100 1 1
181
182 ELCON TAPE2 HSHEAR363 PLASTIC 12001 10001 10002 13001
183 REPEAT 100 1 1
184

```

```

185 ELCON TAPE3 HSHEAR363 PLASTIC 13001 10001 10002 14001
186 REPEAT 100 1 1
187
188 # ELGR ELTY MATNAME ELID NOD1 NOD2 NOD3 NOD4
189 ELCON LAYER2 HSHEAR353 COPPER2 20001 10001 10002 20001 20002
190 20002 10001 10002 20102 20103
191 20003 10001 10002 20203 20204
192 20004 10001 10002 20304 20305
193 20005 10001 10002 20405 20406
194 20006 10001 10002 20506 20507
195 REPEAT 100 6 1
196
197 # ELGR ELTY MATNAME ELID NOD1 NOD2 NOD3 NOD4
198 ELCON LAYER3 HSHEAR353 COPPER3 30001 10001 10002 30001 30002
199 30002 10001 10002 30102 30103
200 30003 10001 10002 30203 30204
201 30004 10001 10002 30304 30305
202 30005 10001 10002 30405 30406
203 30006 10001 10002 30506 30507
204 30007 10001 10002 30607 30608
205 30008 10001 10002 30708 30709
206 30009 10001 10002 30809 30810
207 30010 10001 10002 30910 30911
208 30011 10001 10002 31011 31012
209 30012 10001 10002 31112 31113
210 REPEAT 100 12 1
211
212 # ELGR ELTY MATNAME ELID NOD1 NOD2 NOD3 NOD4
213 ELCON LAYER4 HSHEAR353 COPPER4 40001 10001 10002 40001 40002
214 40002 10001 10002 40102 40103
215 40003 10001 10002 40203 40204
216 40004 10001 10002 40304 40305
217 40005 10001 10002 40405 40406
218 40006 10001 10002 40506 40507
219 40007 10001 10002 40607 40608
220 40008 10001 10002 40708 40709
221 40009 10001 10002 40809 40810
222 40010 10001 10002 40910 40911
223 40011 10001 10002 41011 41012
224 40012 10001 10002 41112 41113
225 40013 10001 10002 41213 41214
226 40014 10001 10002 41314 41315
227 40015 10001 10002 41415 41416
228 40016 10001 10002 41516 41517
229 40017 10001 10002 41617 41618
230 40018 10001 10002 41718 41719
231 REPEAT 100 18 1
232
233 # CONTACT ELEMENTS:
234 # ELGR ELTY MATNAME ELID NOD1 NOD2 NOD3
235 ELCON LAYER1-LAYER2 hcont463 contact01R2 51001 11001 20001 20002
236 51002 11001 20102 20103
237 51003 11001 20203 20204
238 51004 11001 20304 20305
239 51005 11001 20405 20406
240 51006 11001 20506 20507
241 repeat 100 6 1
242
243 ELCON LAYER2-TAPE1 hcont463 contact01R2 52001 20001 20002 12001
244 52002 20102 20103 12001
245 52003 20203 20204 12001
246 52004 20304 20305 12001
247 52005 20405 20406 12001
248 52006 20506 20507 12001
249 repeat 100 6 1
250
251 ELCON TAPE1-LAYER3 hcont463 contact01R3 53001 12001 30001 30002
252 53002 12001 30102 30103
253 53003 12001 30203 30204

```

254				53004	12001	30304	30305	
255				53005	12001	30405	30406	
256				53006	12001	30506	30507	
257				53007	12001	30607	30608	
258				53008	12001	30708	30709	
259				53009	12001	30809	30810	
260				53010	12001	30910	30911	
261				53011	12001	31011	31012	
262				53012	12001	31112	31113	
263	repeat	100	12	1				
264								
265	ELCON	LAYER3-TAPE2	hcont463	contact01R3	55001	30001	30002	13001
266					55002	30102	30103	13001
267					55003	30203	30204	13001
268					55004	30304	30305	13001
269					55005	30405	30406	13001
270					55006	30506	30507	13001
271					55007	30607	30608	13001
272					55008	30708	30709	13001
273					55009	30809	30810	13001
274					55010	30910	30911	13001
275					55011	31011	31012	13001
276					55012	31112	31113	13001
277	repeat	100	12	1				
278								
279	ELCON	TAPE2-LAYER4	hcont463	contact01R4	57001	13001	40001	40002
280					57002	13001	40102	40103
281					57003	13001	40203	40204
282					57004	13001	40304	40305
283					57005	13001	40405	40406
284					57006	13001	40506	40507
285					57007	13001	40607	40608
286					57008	13001	40708	40709
287					57009	13001	40809	40810
288					57010	13001	40910	40911
289					57011	13001	41011	41012
290					57012	13001	41112	41113
291					57013	13001	41213	41214
292					57014	13001	41314	41315
293					57015	13001	41415	41416
294					57016	13001	41516	41517
295					57017	13001	41617	41618
296					57018	13001	41718	41719
297	repeat	100	18	1				
298								
299	ELCON	LAYER4-TAPE3	hcont463	contact01R4	59001	40001	40002	14001
300					59002	40102	40103	14001
301					59003	40203	40204	14001
302					59004	40304	40305	14001
303					59005	40405	40406	14001
304					59006	40506	40507	14001
305					59007	40607	40608	14001
306					59008	40708	40709	14001
307					59009	40809	40810	14001
308					59010	40910	40911	14001
309					59011	41011	41012	14001
310					59012	41112	41113	14001
311					59013	41213	41214	14001
312					59014	41314	41315	14001
313					59015	41415	41416	14001
314					59016	41516	41517	14001
315					59017	41617	41618	14001
316					59018	41718	41719	14001
317	repeat	100	18	1				
318								
319								

```
320 # INTERNAL LAYER CONTACT ELEMENTS:
321
322 ELCON LAYER2IntCont hcont454 contact01R2 85001 10001 10002 20001
    20002 20102 20103
323
    85002 10001 10002 20102
    20103 20203 20204
324
    85003 10001 10002 20203
    20204 20304 20305
325
    85004 10001 10002 20304
    20305 20405 20406
326
    85005 10001 10002 20405
    20406 20506 20507
327
    85006 10001 10002 20506
    20507 20001 20002
328 repeat 100 6 1
329
330 ELCON LAYER3IntCont hcont454 contact01R3 86001 10001 10002 30001
    30002 30102 30103
331
    86002 10001 10002 30102
    30103 30203 30204
332
    86003 10001 10002 30203
    30204 30304 30305
333
    86004 10001 10002 30304
    30305 30405 30406
334
    86005 10001 10002 30405
    30406 30506 30507
335
    86006 10001 10002 30506
    30507 30607 30608
336
    86007 10001 10002 30607
    30608 30708 30709
337
    86008 10001 10002 30708
    30709 30809 30810
338
    86009 10001 10002 30809
    30810 30910 30911
339
    86010 10001 10002 30910
    30911 31011 31012
340
    86011 10001 10002 31011
    31012 31112 31113
341
    86012 10001 10002 31112
    31113 30001 30002
342 repeat 100 12 1
343
344 ELCON LAYER4IntCont hcont454 contact01R4 88001 10001 10002 40001
    40002 40102 40103
345
    88002 10001 10002 40102
    40103 40203 40204
346
    88003 10001 10002 40203
    40204 40304 40305
347
    88004 10001 10002 40304
    40305 40405 40406
348
    88005 10001 10002 40405
    40406 40506 40507
349
    88006 10001 10002 40506
    40507 40607 40608
350
    88007 10001 10002 40607
    40608 40708 40709
351
    88008 10001 10002 40708
    40709 40809 40810
352
    88009 10001 10002 40809
    40810 40910 40911
353
    88010 10001 10002 40910
    40911 41011 41012
354
    88011 10001 10002 41011
    41012 41112 41113
355
    88012 10001 10002 41112
    41113 41213 41214
356
    88013 10001 10002 41213
    41214 41314 41315
357
    88014 10001 10002 41314
    41315 41415 41416
```

```

358      41416  41516  41517      88015  10001  10002  41415
359      41517  41617  41618      88016  10001  10002  41516
360      41618  41718  41719      88017  10001  10002  41617
361      41719  40001  40002      88018  10001  10002  41718
362  repeat 100 18 1
363
364
365  #          BOUNDARY CONDITONS
366  .
366  # TAPES
367  BONCON  GLOBAL 11001 2 REPEAT 100 1
368  BONCON  GLOBAL 11001 3 REPEAT 100 1
369
370  BONCON  GLOBAL 12001 2 REPEAT 100 1
371  BONCON  GLOBAL 12001 3 REPEAT 100 1
372
373  BONCON  GLOBAL 13001 2 REPEAT 100 1
374  BONCON  GLOBAL 13001 3 REPEAT 100 1
375
376  BONCON  GLOBAL 14001 2 REPEAT 100 1
377  BONCON  GLOBAL 14001 3 REPEAT 100 1
378
379
380  #LAYERS
381  BONCON  GLOBAL 20001 1 REPEAT 6 101
382  BONCON  GLOBAL 20101 1 REPEAT 6 101
383  BONCON  GLOBAL 20001 2 REPEAT 6 101
384  BONCON  GLOBAL 20101 2 REPEAT 6 101
385  BONCON  GLOBAL 20001 4 REPEAT 606 1
386  BONCON  GLOBAL 20001 5 REPEAT 606 1
387
388  BONCON  GLOBAL 30001 1 REPEAT 12 101
389  BONCON  GLOBAL 30101 1 REPEAT 12 101
390  BONCON  GLOBAL 30001 2 REPEAT 12 101
391  BONCON  GLOBAL 30101 2 REPEAT 12 101
392  BONCON  GLOBAL 30001 4 REPEAT 1212 1
393  BONCON  GLOBAL 30001 5 REPEAT 1212 1
394
395
396  BONCON  GLOBAL 40001 1 REPEAT 18 101
397  BONCON  GLOBAL 40101 1 REPEAT 18 101
398  BONCON  GLOBAL 40001 2 REPEAT 18 101
399  BONCON  GLOBAL 40101 2 REPEAT 18 101
400  BONCON  GLOBAL 40001 4 REPEAT 1818 1
401  BONCON  GLOBAL 40001 5 REPEAT 1818 1
402
403  # Element properties.
404  #          ELGRP          SHEARHELIX          GEOTYPE          W          TH          WD          WS
          SCALEFACT [PHIST GHIST AXISYM]
405  ELPROP  Layer1          shearhelix          tube          0.001605          0.001605          0.1          0.
          1          1          50          50          10
406  ELPROP  Layer2          shearhelix          tube          0.001605          0.001605          0.1          0.
          1          1          50          50          10
407  ELPROP  Layer3          shearhelix          tube          0.001605          0.001605          0.1          0.
          1          1          50          50          10
408  ELPROP  Layer4          shearhelix          tube          0.001605          0.001605          0.1          0.
          1          1          50          50          10
409
410  ELPROP  TAPE1          shearhelix          tube          0.004815          0.001605          0.1          0.
          1          1          50          50          10
411  ELPROP  TAPE2          shearhelix          tube          0.008025          0.001605          0.1          0.
          1          1          50          50          10
412  ELPROP  TAPE3          shearhelix          tube          0.011235          0.001605          0.1          0.
          1          1          50          50          10
413
414  # ELPROP ELGRP          LAYERCONTACT          GAP0          TTIME          CNTR1          CNTR2          SCALEFAC
          T

```

415	ELPROP	LAYER1-LAYER2	layercontact	D	D	D	0	1.0	
416	ELPROP	LAYER2-TAPE1	layercontact	D	D	D	0	1.0	
417	ELPROP	TAPE1-LAYER3	layercontact	D	D	D	0	1.0	
418	ELPROP	LAYER3-TAPE2	layercontact	D	D	D	0	1.0	
419	ELPROP	TAPE2-LAYER4	layercontact	D	D	D	0	1.0	
420	ELPROP	LAYER4-TAPE3	layercontact	D	D	D	0	1.0	
421									
422	ELPROP	LAYER2IntCont	layercontact	D	D	D	0	1.0	
423	ELPROP	LAYER3IntCont	layercontact	D	D	D	0	1.0	
424	ELPROP	LAYER4IntCont	layercontact	D	D	D	0	1.0	
425									
426	#	Contacts							
427	CONTINT	LAYER1-LAYER2	LAYER1	LAYER2	1	3	0.0	0.0	0
	60	2							
428	CONTINT	LAYER2-TAPE1	LAYER2	TAPE1	1	3	0.0	0.0	0
	60	2							
429	CONTINT	TAPE1-LAYER3	TAPE1	LAYER3	1	3	0.0	0.0	0
	60	2							
430	CONTINT	LAYER3-TAPE2	LAYER3	TAPE2	1	3	0.0	0.0	0
	60	2							
431	CONTINT	TAPE2-LAYER4	TAPE2	LAYER4	1	3	0.0	0.0	0
	60	2							
432	CONTINT	LAYER4-TAPE3	LAYER4	TAPE3	1	3	0.0	0.0	0
	60	2							
433									
434	CONTINT	LAYER2IntCont	LAYER2	LAYER2	1	3	0.0	0.0	0
	60	2							
435	CONTINT	LAYER3IntCont	LAYER3	LAYER3	1	3	0.0	0.0	0
	60	2							
436	CONTINT	LAYER4IntCont	LAYER4	LAYER4	1	3	0.0	0.0	0
	60	2							
437									
438									
439									
440	#	ELEMENT ORIENTATION.							
441	#	TYPE	ElementID	X	Y	Z			
442									
443	ELORIENT	COORDINATES	10001	0.0	1.0	0.0			
444			10100	0.0	1.0	0.0			
445									
446	ELORIENT	COORDINATES	11001	0.0	1.0	0.0			
447			11100	0.0	1.0	0.0			
448									
449	ELORIENT	COORDINATES	12001	0.0	1.0	0.0			
450			12100	0.0	1.0	0.0			
451									
452	ELORIENT	COORDINATES	13001	0.0	1.0	0.0			
453			13100	0.0	1.0	0.0			
454									
455									
456	ELORIENT	COORDINATES	20001	0.0	1.0	0.0			
457			20600	0.0	1.0	0.0			
458									
459	ELORIENT	COORDINATES	30001	0.0	1.0	0.0			
460			31200	0.0	1.0	0.0			
461									
462	ELORIENT	COORDINATES	40001	0.0	1.0	0.0			
463			41800	0.0	1.0	0.0			
464									
465	ELORIENT	COORDINATES	85001	0.0	1.0	0.0			
466			85600	0.0	1.0	0.0			
467									
468	ELORIENT	COORDINATES	86001	0.0	1.0	0.0			
469			87200	0.0	1.0	0.0			
470									
471	ELORIENT	COORDINATES	88001	0.0	1.0	0.0			
472			89800	0.0	1.0	0.0			
473									
474									
475	#	TYPE	ElementID	X	Y	Z			
476	ELORIENT	eulerangle	51001	0.0	0.0	0.0			

```
477          51600          0.0  0.0  0.0
478
479  ELORIENT eulerangle  52001          0.0  0.0  0.0
480          52600          0.0  0.0  0.0
481
482  ELORIENT eulerangle  53001          0.0  0.0  0.0
483          54200          0.0  0.0  0.0
484
485  ELORIENT eulerangle  55001          0.0  0.0  0.0
486          56200          0.0  0.0  0.0
487
488  ELORIENT eulerangle  57001          0.0  0.0  0.0
489          58800          0.0  0.0  0.0
490
491  ELORIENT eulerangle  59001          0.0  0.0  0.0
492          60800          0.0  0.0  0.0
493
494  # External pressure and gravity(=0).
495  PELOAD  50 50
496  THIST   50
497          0.0  1.0
498          1.0  1.0
499          13.0 1.0
500
501
502  # Tensile load as strain.
503  INISTR  110   1  5001  0.135967  5060  0.135967
504  THIST   110   0  0.0
505          0.1  0.001
506          1  1.0
507          10  1.0
508          360 1.0
509
510
511  # Movement of bellmouth
512  CONSTR PDISP GLOBAL 50001  3 -0.18 300
513  THIST_R 300   1.0 4.0 rampcos  1.0
514          4.0 7.0 rampcos -1.0
515          7.0 10.0 rampcos  1.0
516          10.0 13.0 rampcos -1.00
517
518
519
```

