A LINEAR 3-D FINITE ELEMENT UNIT CELL MODEL FOR FIBRE WAVINESS IN COMPOSITE MATERIALS

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Keywords: fibre waviness, finite element, voxel, composite materials

Abstract

Composite materials have great potential to continue to improve the efficiency of aircraft manufacture and operation, however they are still limited in their applications because of their damage tolerance properties. As a result, the damage tolerance of composites is still being extensively researched around the world. The purpose of such research is to gain understanding of failure mechanisms and develop improved failure models, hopefully reducing conservative design factors. Researchers are also improving the damage tolerance of composite materials by such methods as toughened resins or throughthickness reinforcement (TTR).

The development of a simple unit cell model to investigate the mechanical properties of a composite laminate with TTR is presented. The equivalent stiffness of the unit cell is evaluated using a voxel (volume pixel), finite element (FE) model. The model results are compared to literature and prove to offer equivalent or better results, at a quarter of the required elements, reducing time and resources required for analysis. The model developed will continue to be further refined and validated using experimental results.

1 Introduction

The need for safer, cheaper and better performing aircraft continues to propel developments in advanced materials and manufacturing techniques. Composite materials have the potential to improve on existing structure, but have been limited by their damage tolerance properties.

In an effort to improve existing aircraft design, extensive research is underway to understand the failure mechanisms of composite materials, and to improve their damage tolerance. Laminate reinforcement by stitching or Z-pinning, is one method of improving damage tolerance that is under investigation [1-12]. Stitching of dry preforms also offers additional advantages of reduced part count and possibly lowering manufacture costs [3]. However, whilst the addition of TTR has been well documented to improve damage tolerance in composite laminates, it comes at a cost to inplane strength and stiffness [1-6,9,13-14]. Extensive experimental work has been performed to characterise many aspects of stitched composite properties [4,7-8,11-15]. For thorough review of TTR. several а comprehensive review articles have already been published [1,3,14].

Fibre misalignment or fibre waviness result as the fibres are pushed aside to accommodate the reinforcement [5]. Fibre waviness may also form as a consequence of the manufacturing process, particularly in thick cross-ply laminates or in filament wound structures [16].

Whether the compromise between damage tolerance and mechanical properties warrants the use of TTR depends on many design considerations. To aid the designer in making such decisions, the ability to accurately predict the impact of TTR in a composite laminate is essential.

Many models, linear [16-21] and nonlinear [22-26], exist for investigating the behaviour of undulating fibres, using analytical [18-24] and FE approaches [25-26]. Likewise, many models have been proposed for the behaviour of a laminate with TTR, using micromechanics, laminate theory and FE methods [6] for calculation.

In this paper, a simple linear unit cell model is presented for the prediction of properties of a reinforced laminate with consequential in-plane fibre waviness. The geometry is represented by voxels; that is, as discrete volume blocks, instead of modelling the geometry as a continuum. This method of modelling lends itself well to FE analysis, as well as the stiffness averaging calculation The voxel modelling approach is methods. advantageous because it is easily automated, allows rapid model adjustments and it guarantees mesh compatibility if multiple stacked plies are investigated.

2 Unit Cell Models

2.1 Model Assumptions

In order to reduce the complexity of the geometry and model detail to a manageable scale, the following assumptions were made with reference to Figure 1:

• The stitching threads are assumed to be a singular, cylindrical body orientated perpendicular to the laminar plane.

- Thread primary modulus is aligned in the thread direction, giving thread transverse properties in the laminate plane.
- The fibre misalignment is sinusoidal around the TTR.
- Within the fibre region, the volume fraction and material properties are assumed to be that of the unstitched laminate, prior to misalignment.
- Regions of pure resin exist either side of the reinforcement and are assumed to be isotropic.
- The reinforcement and ply fibres are assumed to be orthotropic.
- Fibre crimpage (out-of-plane waviness) as a result of the stitching process in the outer most plies is ignored.
- Fibres are assumed to have maximum undulation along the line of stitching, and the waviness amplitude fades linearly to zero at some defined distance, y_t , from the TTR. The spread of further waviness caused by the displacement of adjacent fibres is controlled with an input variable.



Fig. 1. Graded waviness TTR unit cell model.

Where:

- dx unit cell length in x direction.
- *dy* unit cell width in *y* direction.
- *dT* TTR radius.
- y_t Transition distance, over which waviness fades to zero. $0 \le y_t \le dy/2$

If the stitching direction matches the ply direction, dx is equal to the stitch pitch, and dy the row spacing. If the stitch direction is orthogonal to the longitudinal ply direction, then dx is equal to the row spacing and dy the stitch pitch.

Given the above terms and local ply coordinate system shown in Figure 1, the automated modelling tool determines the material and groups each element according to the conditions outlined in Table 1.

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Material	Condition
Undisturbed Fibres	$dT + y_t < y$
TTR	$\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \le dT$
Matrix	$\sqrt{dT^2 - x^2} < y \le \frac{dT}{2} \left(\cos\left(\frac{2\pi x}{dx}\right) + 1 \right)$
Misaligned Fibres	$\frac{dT}{2} \left(\cos \left(\frac{2\pi x}{dx} \right) + 1 \right) < y \le dT + y_t$

Where fibres are deemed misaligned, their misalignment angle, α , from the local ply orientation, θ , is given by Equation 1. This function governs the fading of waviness and the sign of the misalignment angle.

$$\alpha = \left(\frac{y}{|y|}\right) \left(\frac{dT + y_t - |y|}{dT + y_t}\right) \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{dT\pi}{dx} \left(1 - \sin\left(\frac{2\pi x}{dx}\right)\right)\right) \quad (1)$$

2.2 Unit Cell Types

The graded waviness unit cell is a full repeating and symmetric unit cell, meaning that the laminate can be constructed by tiling unit cells with uniform orientation, or by reflecting along any of its boundaries. This is important for the application of boundary conditions.

3 Boundary Conditions

In order to extract equivalent laminate properties from the unit cell models, boundary conditions must be applied in such a way that the unit cell behaves as though other identical unit cells surround it. The calculation requires the computation of six separate iso-strain load cases. Each load case requires a specific set of boundary conditions be applied to ensure correct periodicity is maintained. The iso-strain load cases and boundary conditions used were based on those available in literature [27].

To minimise modelling time, a software tool was written where all the major model parameters and material properties are inputted, and the 3-D model is automatically generated. Boundary conditions and load cases are defined as part of the automated process, leaving the user with no further role after inputting the model parameters until the results are to be processed.

Whilst the pure tensile load cases are relatively simple to model, shear boundary conditions can be difficult to capture accurately [28]. Implementing boundary conditions for the three shear iso-strain boundary conditions required additional attention to ensure that periodic requirements were correctly satisfied. An isotropic, homogeneous unit cell under isostrain shear boundary conditions will deform with straight boundaries. However, this is not the case for a heterogeneous unit cell, as shown in Figure 2. Note that whilst the boundaries of the sheared unit cell are not linear, they are periodic, satisfying the important boundary condition for unit cell analysis. This can be confirmed by examining the behaviour of a unit cell surrounded by identical unit cells along all boundaries [28].



Previous studies have applied shear boundary conditions that constrain boundaries to remain straight [6]. Such over-constraint yields higher shear modulus results. Periodic boundary conditions yield theoretically correct shear results, however the final properties must still be viewed with an appropriate level of caution, given the complex shear behaviour of a composite laminate.

Figure 3 shows the exaggerated deformation in the voxel model resulting from correct iso-strain shear boundary conditions in the x-y plane. It can be seen that the unit cell remains periodic even though the boundaries are curved.



Fig. 3. Exaggerated boundary deformation resulting from iso-strain shear BCs. Colours indicate shear stress pattern within the strained unit cell.

4 Voxel Approach

4.1 Concept

In FE analysis, it is typical to define the geometry of the subject, and then generate a mesh that adheres to the specified geometric confines. Alternatively, a voxel model approach can be adopted, where limiting mesh size and shape approximates the geometry of the subject. A voxel model, made from many voxels, is analogous to a picture made of many pixels. The quality of the approximation is

therefore dependant on the size, or resolution of the voxel model, and the purpose of the analysis. Stiffness prediction by FE methods involves volumetric averaging of the stresses within the model. Such analysis is well suited to a voxel approach because the effect of localised stress concentrations along jagged boundaries is insignificant when averaged across the entire body.

4.2 Model Automation

Adopting a voxel approach makes model automation a simpler task. For the TTR unit cell models presented, a blank solid is first created and meshed at the desired resolution. It is important that the mesh size be small enough to accurately represent all unit cell constituents in their correct volume fractions. The software tool then scans through the elements, determining their material properties and orientation based on the element coordinates and a mathematical description of the geometry, see Table 1 and Equation 1. Elements are then grouped by type to allow simple visual representation of the model with the use of colours. This approach proves to be quick and there is no need to examine the mesh for poor element topologies as a result of meshing complex geometric regions. A resulting model is shown in Figure 4, where plies of different orientations are assigned different colours for clarity. The modelling tool was programmed in Patran Command Language (PCL) to operate in the Patran environment using Nastran as the FE solver



Figure 4. 3-D cut-away image of voxel model with 0° (blue), 45° (green) and 90° (pink) plies, TTR (dark grey) and resin regions (light grey) clearly indicated.

The voxel approach also solves the difficult problem of mesh compatibility between two adjacent plies in the analysis of a laminate, as seen in Figure 5. If two orthogonal adjacent plies were meshed strictly according to their geometric boundaries, the two meshed plies will not be compatible when stacked. This problem is worsened with the addition of +45/-45 plies. Hinders and Dickinson [6] adopt a star like arrangement, where in one ply, the unit cell geometry is rotated in 0/90/45/-45 orientations, and the resulting star shape is meshed. This ensures compatibility across plies of different orientations; however generating the mesh without distorted elements is difficult. The resulting mesh, which must be redefined for different unit cell geometries, requires three to four thousand solid elements per ply.



conventionally meshed unit cells.

4.3 Mesh Size Investigation

It has been mentioned that the accuracy of the result is dependant upon the size of the mesh used to construct the voxel model. Two methods to gauge if the mesh size is sufficiently small are to compare the results to a conventionally meshed model, or to systematically refine the mesh size until the results converge.





(b) Fig. 6. Voxel unit cell models, (a) 900 Elements, 30 x 30, (b) 3600 Elements, 60 x 60.

To determine a satisfactory mesh size for the proposed unit cell model, results were compared at different mesh sizes to a conventionally meshed unit cell, for two different reinforcement volume fractions. Table 2 shows the primary Young's Modulus (E_1) calculated at different mesh resolutions normalized to the conventional mesh model for two different reinforcement diameters. Mesh sizes of 30 x 30 and 60 x 60 were used, and are shown in Figure 6 (a) and (b). It can be seen from Table 2 that the improvement in results is less than 0.5%, but requires four times as many elements. Therefore, a mesh grid of 30×30 elements per ply was adopted for the final analyses.

Table 2. Primary Young's Modulus (E_l) voxel results normalised to conventional mesh.

	900 Elements 30 x 30	3600 Elements 60 x 60
TTR $V_f = 3 \%$	0.995	0.997
TTR $V_f = 6 \%$	0.995	0.998

6 Model Comparison

The results of the voxel model were compared to similar results available in the literature. Hinders and Dickinson compared their FE unit cell model to results computed by the software Texcad [6]. Texcad uses orientation averaging under isostrain conditions to evaluate unit cells [29]. The models chosen for comparison are summarised in Table 3, and material properties are given in Table 4.

Table 3.	Summary	of models compared.	
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Series	TTR	TTR	Layup
Name	Material	V_f	
c4a	C/ep	0.3 %	[0/90]
c2a	C/ep	1.9 %	[0/90]
c5a	Gr/ep	4.9 %	[0/90]
c2a-kev	Kevlar	1.9 %	[0/90]
c2a-ti	Titanium	1.9 %	[0/90]
c2a-steel	Steel	1.9 %	[0/90]
c2b	Gr/ep	1.9 %	[+45/-45]
c2c	Gr/ep	1.9 %	[0/0]
c2quasi	Gr/ep	1.9 %	[45/0/-45/90]

Material	E ₁ (GPa)	E ₂ (GPa)	<i>G</i> ₁₂ (GPa)	G ₂₃ (GPa)	<i>V</i> ₁₂
Lamina AS4/3501-6	134	8.69	5.84	3.15	0.25
TTR T300/9310	141	7.17	4.37	2.61	0.25
TTR Kev/3501-6	38.6	8.96	5.48	5.27	0.31
TTR Titanium	110	-	43.4	-	0.30
TTR Steel	207	-	82.7	-	0.28
Resin 3501-6	4.36	-	1.62	-	0.34

Table 4.	Summary	y of inve	stigated	materials.

For complete listing of all model variables, see ref. [6].

7 Results

Figures 7 through 9 plot E_1 for all analysed models compared to the reference FE and Texcad solutions [6]. The annotations refer to the percentage difference between the voxel and reference FE solution. Similarly, Figures 10 through 12 plot G_{12} for all analysed models compared to the reference solutions.

Figure 13 shows E_1 , E_2 and E_3 for a unidirectional (UD) laminate and a quasiisotropic laminate normalised to the unstitched modulus versus volume fraction percentage of TTR. Data are plotted to a TTR V_f of 10%, though typically in practice reinforcement does not exceed roughly 5%.

8 Discussion

From Figures 7 through 9 it can be seen that the E_1 calculated with the voxel model is very similar, though slightly less than that from the literature. The average difference was only 2.8%, with a maximum of 8.9% between the voxel and reference FE solution. This is explained by differences in the unit cell model and not the mesh methodology. Hinders et al. assume a smaller region of fibre [6] misalignment, and that the angle is constant. This model presented assumes a sinusoidal fibre misalignment, and is not able to confine the waviness to the small bands assumed by Hinders et al. [6].

Similarly, the shear modulus determined by the voxel model was always lower than that of the other methods, typically the difference was around 4%, however where 45° plies were present in the laminate, this difference increased up to 17%. This difference can be explained by the different boundary condition methods for the shear iso-strain load cases. The reference solution requires that boundaries remain straight, resulting in a slightly stiffer shear modulus. The larger difference in shear results for laminates with 45° plies suggests that such



Fig. 7. E_I for models with decreasing TTR V_{f} .



Fig. 8. E_1 increases with TTR stiffness. $V_f = 1.9\%$.



Fig. 9. E_1 is strongly dependent on laminate design.











Fig. 12. G_{12} is strongly dependent on laminate design.



Fig. 13. Normalised E_1 , E_2 and E_3 of a UD and quasi-isotropic laminate versus %Vf of TTR.

cells deform with more significant distortion of the cell boundaries.

In addition to comparing analysis methods, the figures also provide insight into the effect of major parameters on the resulting stiffness. Figures 7 and 10 show a decrease in Young's Modulus and Shear Modulus as the volume of reinforcement increases. The reference shear result for c5a in Figure 10 is somewhat erroneous in light of the voxel, Texcad and other FE results and is therefore questionable.

Figures 8 and 11 depict a general trend in calculated response of a reinforced laminate for the in-plane properties to increase with an increase in reinforcement material stiffness. However, the overall change as a result of changing reinforcement material remains quite small as a percentage of overall stiffness. Selection of a reinforcement material is therefore driven by other factors such as manufacturing method, cost, etc.

Figures 9 and 12 plot the effect of TTR on different laminates. It is expected that the reduction in laminate stiffness resulting from TTR is more significant where plies are oriented in the loading direction. The more significant percentage variation shown in Figure 9 than Figures 7 and 8 is a mathematical consequence of relatively low modulus models and not an inadequacy in the modelling procedure.

Figure 13 shows that the in-plane properties are reduced as a consequence of TTR, and that the decrease continues with an increase For a unidirectional laminate, the in TTR. decrease is more significant than that of a quasiisotropic laminate. The effect of stitching on E_2 of a unidirectional laminate was negligible, because the transverse modulus is significantly lower than that in the fibre direction, and is not greatly influenced by fibre misalignment. The out of plane modulus, E_3 , rose significantly with an increase in TTR. This is an expected result as the amount of fibres in the out-of-plane direction increases with stitching; the rate of increase of E_3 is more significant than the decrease in E_1 and E_2 . The magnitude of reduction in in-plane properties is inline with expectations highlighted in a compilation of experimental data [9].

9 Conclusion

A voxel based, finite element unit cell model has been presented for calculating effective mechanical properties of a through-thickness reinforced laminate. The voxel method is advantageous for this type of analysis because it allows fast, automated pre- and post-processing, guarantees mesh compatibility between adjacent plies in a laminate analysis, and is capable of giving satisfactory results with fewer elements.

The voxel model results were compared to a reference FE solution. Young's Modulus results were typically within 1.4% of the reference FE solution, however a couple of larger variations brought the average to 2.9% variation. Larger variation was found when comparing shear modulus results, an average of 8.4%, however this can be attributed to differences in boundary condition assumptions. The models were generated using a simple-touse, automated software tool currently under further development. The models were computed using approximately one quarter of the elements used in the reference results, proving the validity of the voxel approach as an efficient method to determine equivalent linear stiffness properties.

Investigating the effects of stitching on both unidirectional and quasi-isotropic laminates using the voxel model reveals a decrease in in-plane properties and significant increase in out-of-plane stiffness with an increase in reinforcement. This result is inline with expectations from experimental data.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to acknowledge the support of the Cooperative Research Centre for Advanced Composite Structures Ltd, Airbus Deutschland GmbH, and also the support through the Australian Postgraduate Awards Scheme.

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