The Finite Element Analysis of Kinetic Energy Absorbers for Railway Vehicle

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Abstract: The paper describes the Finite Element Method (FEM) analysis of elastic plastic deformation of steel tube impact absorbers for railway vehicles. Experiment investigation is used as a base for FEM modelling and simulation. The developed FEM model includes material nonlinearity (plasticity), nonlinear contact and large deformation of finite elements. All of aspects used in the absorber FEM model are detailed explained. The Finite Element Analysis results for a chosen absorber are presented and discussed. Developed model opens the possibilities for next investigations in similar problems.

1. Introduction

It is to mention that in the complex problem of reliability and structural integrity of vehicles in operation, in addition to plastic deformation, the cracking should be considered, in three different aspects: theoretical, numerical and experimental. In that sense elastic-plastic transition represents an important topic, being connected with ductility, toughness and cracking [1]. One interesting approach to this problem can be found in [2], [3]. However, numerical methods can be helpful in theoretical analysis [4], [5], [6], but for in-service behaviour of a structure, experimental proof of proper structural behaviour is decisive. Full-scale experimental model testing, like presented [7] or in [8], have to be applied, again strongly supported by updated numerical analysis. Similar approach is also accepted in here presented analysis.

The main role of energy absorber of railway vehicle is absorption of the collision kinetic energy by controlled deformation in order to protect the vehicle main structure. Different solutions for the energy absorber constructions have been developed and examined, [9-14]. The energy absorption characteristics of one absorber type are investigated in this work. This type of absorber consists of a thin-walled seamless tube and conical mandrel. At the moment of impact, the
kinetic energy is taken by the mandrel that expands the tube and thus absorbs part of the collision kinetic energy. The energy absorption is result of elastic plastic deformation of the tube and friction between the mandrel and the tube. The total absorbed energy depends on the material quality (the material should have a high capacity of plasticity), manufacturing quality, and applied design of the tube and mandrel.

The important problem in energy absorber investigations are expensive tests in experiments. In accordance with numerical methods (like Finite Element Method - FEM), and enormous rise in computing power, the investigation and analysis of energy absorbers without expensive experiments is possible, [9-12]. In the light of these facts, the finite element analysis of plastic deformation work of steel tube kinetic energy absorber is performed and described in this work. The FEM model for the simulation of the investigated absorber type is developed in accordance with experimental results, in detail described in [13, 14]. The key results of this experiment are given in the chapter 4 of this paper.

2. Absorber Shape and Dimension

The space available for a collision energy absorber, in an agreement with a standard European rail vehicle buffer, is the limiting factor for designing an absorption device. Dimensioning of absorption devices is performed according to the installation point limitations (dimensions of the buffer and frontal part of the main structure, and in the middle the collision energy absorber), required amount of absorbed energy and experience for frontal rail vehicle collisions. Details of the investigation have been given in previous works, [13, 14]. The shape and dimensions of the elements
chosen for research of steel tube absorbers of collision energy are given in Fig. 1. The mandrel was made of steel C45E (steel number 1.1191) [15, 16], with diameter of 90 mm and dimensions defined in Figure 1. Tube elements were produced from standard seamless tubes of 1.0309 steel, 88.9 mm in diameter and 4 mm wall thickness.

**3. Experimental Research**

Investigations were performed using quasi-static axial pressure on a standard hydraulic testing machine, Figure 2 and Figure 4. Tube expansion is performed in cold state without lubrication. Figure 3 (b) shows initial position of mandrel–tube couple – the experiment starting position. Six tube samples were investigated, Figure 3.

To avoid possible slanting of supporting surfaces, the average value of movement of two indicators is taken as next consideration. Measurement of the compression force was performed using a special indicator designed based on strain gauges connected into a full bridge with temperature self-compensation had been applied. Gauge positioning excluded the sensitivity to the eccentric force action. Acquisition and analysis of data were performed using the Spider 8 measurement acquisition system (details are given in [14]). Figure 4. shows the tube absorber initial position and several views during indenting proces. Figure 5. presents diagrams of the tube support reaction $F$ versus stroke $h$ during the indenting proces. All tested samples exhibited initial force increase much more gradual than that of square cross-section tube crushing–type elements. Force scattering between different samples in this stage can be primarily explained by the fact that two mandrels were used in several consecutive tests with new tubes without minor surface damage repair.

The values for plastic tube deformation can be determined measuring tube external diameter before and after deformation. Mean values for the measured dimensions are shown in Figure 6.
4. The Detailed Description of Finite Element Analysis

4.1. Finite element model

The finite element method is used for the stress-strain calculation of tube absorber. The commercial software ANSYS 11.0 is selected for the expansion process simulation. The finite element model is developed with axisymmetric plane finite element defined by four nodes having two degrees of freedom at each node: translations in the nodal $x$ and $y$ directions.

Figure 7. Plane finite elements used for axisymmetric model

Slika 7. Ravani konični elementi korišteni za osnosimetrični model

The FEM model for steel tube absorber of impact energy and mandrel is shown in Figure 8. Finite element mesh (consist of 357 nodes and 358 elements) and the defined boundary conditions are illustrated. The boundary conditions are defined through the constrained displacement in $x$ and $y$ direction for tube end nodes placed opposite of mandrel. The mandrel displacement constrains are defined by contact of mandrel and the internal tube surface before indentation started.

4.2. Nonlinear contact definition

Surface-to-surface contact elements are chosen for simulation of contact conditions between internal surface of tube absorber and mandrel conical surface.

The surface-to-surface contact elements have several advantages over the node-to-node element, [17].
4.3. Material nonlinearities definition

Material nonlinearities occur because of the nonlinear relationship between stress and strain; that is, the stress is a nonlinear function of the strain. The relationship is path-dependent so that the stress depends on the strain history as well as the strain itself. Rate-independent plasticity is characterized by the irreversible instantaneous straining that occurs in a material. The definition of elastic strain for the case of nonlinear materials has the form:

\[
\{\varepsilon\}_{\text{el}} = \{\varepsilon\} - \{\varepsilon\}_{\text{th}} - \{\varepsilon\}_{\text{pl}} - \{\varepsilon\}_{\text{cr}} - \{\varepsilon\}_{\text{sw}},
\]

where:
- \(\varepsilon\) \text{el} – elastic strain vector,
- \(\varepsilon\) – total strain vector,
- \(\varepsilon\) \text{th} – thermal strain vector,
- \(\varepsilon\) \text{pl} – plastic strain vector,
- \(\varepsilon\) \text{cr} – creep strain vector,
- \(\varepsilon\) \text{sw} – swelling strain vector.

In this case, \(\{\varepsilon\}\) is the strain measured by a strain gauge. Eq. (1) is only involved to show the relationships between the terms.

In finite element postprocessing, total strain is reported as:

\[
\{\varepsilon\}_{\text{tot}} = \{\varepsilon\}_{\text{el}} + \{\varepsilon\}_{\text{pl}} + \{\varepsilon\}_{\text{cr}},
\]

where: \(\varepsilon\) \text{tot} – component of total strain.

Comparing the last two equations,

\[
\{\varepsilon\}_{\text{tot}} = \{\varepsilon\} - \{\varepsilon\}_{\text{th}} - \{\varepsilon\}_{\text{sw}}.
\]

The difference between these two “total” strains stems from the different usages: \{\varepsilon\} can be used to compare strain gauge results and \(\varepsilon\) \text{tot} can be used to plot nonlinear stress-strain curves.

Plasticity

Most common engineering materials exhibit a linear stress-strain relationship up to a stress level known as the proportional limit. Beyond this limit, the stress-strain relationship will become nonlinear, but will not necessarily become inelastic. Plastic behavior, characterized by non-recoverable strain, begins when stresses exceed the material's yield point. Because there is usually little difference between the yield point and the proportional limit, it could be assumed that these two points are coincident in plasticity analyses, Figure 10.

Plasticity is a non-conservative, path-dependent phenomenon. In other words, the sequence in which loads are applied and in which plastic responses occur affects the final results. For attainment of plastic response in analysis, loads should apply as a series of small incremental load steps or time steps, so that model will follow the load-response path as closely as possible.

Other kinds of nonlinear behavior might also occur along with plasticity. In particular, large deflection and large strain geometric nonlinearities will often be associated with plastic material response.

For efficient modelling the nonlinear material characteristic with plasticity, Plasticity theory provides a mathematical relationship that characterizes the elastic plastic response of materials. There are three components in the rate-independent plasticity theory: the yield criterion, flow rule and the hardening rule.
The yield criterion determines the stress level at which yielding is initiated. For multi-component stresses, this is represented as a function of the individual components, \( f(\{\sigma\}) \), which can be interpreted as an equivalent stress \( \sigma_e \):

\[
\sigma_e = f(\{\sigma\}),
\]

where: \( \{\sigma\} \) – stress vector.

When the equivalent stress is equal to a material yield parameter \( \sigma_Y \), the material will develop plastic strains. If \( \sigma_e \) is less than \( \sigma_Y \):

\[
\sigma_e = f(\{\sigma\}) = \sigma_Y,
\]

the material is elastic and the stresses will develop according to the elastic stress-strain relations. Note that the equivalent stress can never exceed the material yield stress since in this case plastic strains would develop instantaneously, thereby reducing the stress to the material yield.

The flow rule determines the direction of plastic straining and is given as:

\[
\{d\varepsilon^{pl}\} = \lambda \left[ \frac{\partial Q}{\partial \sigma} \right],
\]

where:
- \( \lambda \) – plastic strain increment (which determines the amount of plastic straining);
- \( Q \) – function of stress termed the plastic potential (which determines the direction of plastic straining).

If \( Q \) is the yield function (as is normally assumed), the flow rule is termed associative and the plastic strains occur in a direction normal to the yield surface. The hardening rule describes the changing of the yield surface with progressive yielding, so that the conditions (i.e. stress states) for subsequent yielding can be established. Two hardening rules are available: work (or isotropic) hardening and kinematic hardening. In work hardening, the yield surface remains centered about its initial centerline and expand in size as the plastic strains develop. For materials with isotropic plastic behavior this is termed isotropic hardening and is shown in Figure 11(a). Kinematic hardening assumes that the yield surface remains constant in size and the surface translates in stress space with progressive yielding, as shown in Figure 11(b).

If the equivalent stress computed using elastic properties exceeds the material yield, then plastic straining must occur. Plastic strains reduce the stress in order to satisfies the yield criterion, (5). Based on the theory previously presented in the section, the plastic strain increment is readily calculated.

The hardening rule states that the yield criterion changes with work hardening and/or with kinematic hardening. Incorporating these dependencies into Eq. (5), and recasting it into the following form:

\[
F(\{\sigma\}, k, \{\alpha\}) = 0,
\]

where:
- \( k \) – plastic work, \( \{\alpha\} \) – translation of yield surface

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Specifically, the plastic work is the sum of the plastic work done over the history of loading:

\[
k = \int \{\sigma\}^T [M] \{d\varepsilon^{pl}\},
\]

where:
- \( [M] \) – material parameter; \( \{\alpha\} \) – back stress (location of the center of the yield surface).

Eq. (7) can be differentiated so that the consistency condition is:

\[
dF = \left[ \frac{\partial F}{\partial \sigma} \right]^T [M] \{d\sigma\} + \frac{\partial F}{\partial k} dk + \left[ \frac{\partial F}{\partial \alpha} \right]^T [M] \{d\alpha\} = 0
\]

Noting from Eq. (8) that:

\[
dk = \{\sigma\}^T [M] \{d\varepsilon^{pl}\}
\]

and from Eq. (9) that:

\[
\{d\alpha\} = C \{d\varepsilon^{pl}\}
\]
Eq. (10) becomes:
\[
\left[ \frac{\partial F}{\partial \sigma} \right]^T [M] [\sigma] + \left[ \frac{\partial F}{\partial \varepsilon} \right]^T [M] [\varepsilon] + C \left[ \frac{\partial F}{\partial \varepsilon} \right]^T [M] [\varepsilon] = 0
\]
\[\text{[13]}\]

The stress increment can be computed via the elastic stress-strain relations:
\[
[\Delta \sigma] = [D] [\Delta \varepsilon]^{el}.
\]
\[\text{[14]}\]

where: \([D]\) – stress-strain matrix with
\[
[\Delta \varepsilon]^{el} = [\Delta \varepsilon]^{pl}.
\]
\[\text{[15]}\]

since the total strain increment can be divided into an elastic and plastic part.

Substituting Eq. (6) into Eq. (13) and Eq. (15) and combing Eq. (13), Eq. (14) and Eq. (15) yields:
\[
\lambda = \left[ \left( \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial \varepsilon} \right)^{el} \right]^{-1} \left[ \left( \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial \varepsilon} \right)^{pl} \right]^{-1} \left[ \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial \varepsilon} \right]^{pl}
\]
\[\text{[16]}\]

The size of the plastic strain increment is therefore related to the total increment in strain, the current stress state, and the specific forms of the yield and potential surfaces. The plastic strain increment is then computed using Eq. (6):
\[
[\Delta \varepsilon]^{pl} = \lambda \left( \frac{\partial Q}{\partial \sigma} \right)_{\varepsilon_{n-1}}
\]
\[\text{[17]}\]

Implementation

An Euler backward scheme is used to enforce the consistency condition Eq. (10). This ensures that the updated stress, strains and internal variables are on the yield surface. The algorithm proceeds as follows:

1. The material value of \(\sigma_Y\) (Eq. (5)) is determined for this time step (e.g., the yield stress at the current temperature).

2. The stresses are computed based on the trial strain \([\varepsilon^T]\), which is the total strain minus the plastic strain from the previous time point (thermal and other effects are ignored):
\[
\varepsilon_n^T = \varepsilon_T^T - \varepsilon_{pl}^T.
\]
\[\text{[18]}\]

Notation and subscripts refer to the time point. Where all terms refer to the current time point, the subscript is dropped. The trial stress is then:
\[
[\sigma^T] = [D] [\varepsilon^T].
\]
\[\text{[19]}\]

3. The equivalent stress \(\sigma_e\) is evaluated at this stress level by Eq. (4). If \(\sigma_e\) is less than \(\sigma_Y\) the material is elastic and no plastic strain increment is computed.

4. If the stress exceeds the material yield, the plastic multiplier \(\lambda\) is determined by a local Newton-Raphson iteration procedure [19].

5. \([\Delta \varepsilon^T]\) is computed via Eq. (17).

6. The current plastic strain is updated:
\[
\varepsilon_n^{pl} = \varepsilon_{n-1}^{pl} + [\Delta \varepsilon^T].
\]
\[\text{[20]}\]

where: \(\varepsilon_n^{pl}\) – current plastic strains, and the elastic strain computed:
\[
\varepsilon_n^{el} = \varepsilon_n^{T} - [\Delta \varepsilon^T],
\]
\[\text{[21]}\]

where: \(\varepsilon_n^{el}\) – elastic strains. The stress vector is:
\[
[\sigma] = [D] [\varepsilon^T],
\]
\[\text{[22]}\]

7. The increments in the plastic work \(\Delta k\) and the center of the yield surface \(\{\Delta \alpha\}\) are computed via Eq. (11) and Eq. (12) and the current values updated:
\[
k_n = k_{n-1} + \Delta k
\]
\[\text{[23]}\]

and \(\{\alpha_n\} = \{\alpha_{n-1}\} + \{\Delta \alpha\},\)
\[\text{[24]}\]

where the subscript \(n-1\) refers to the values at the previous time point

8. For output purposes, an equivalent plastic strain \(\varepsilon_n^{pl}\), equivalent plastic strain increment \(\Delta \varepsilon_n^{pl}\), equivalent stress parameter \(\sigma_n^{pl}\) and stress ratio \(N\) are computed. The stress ratio is given as:
\[
N = \frac{\sigma_n}{\sigma_Y}
\]
\[\text{[25]}\]

where: \(\sigma_e\) is evaluated using the trial stress. \(N\) is therefore greater than or equal to one when yielding is occurring and less than one when the stress state is elastic.

The equivalent plastic strain increment is given as:
\[
\Delta \varepsilon_n^{pl} = \left( \frac{2}{3} \varepsilon_n^{pl} \right)^T [M] [\varepsilon_n^{pl}] \frac{1}{2}.
\]
\[\text{[26]}\]

The equivalent plastic strain and equivalent stress parameters are developed for each option in the next sections.

Note that the Euler backward integration scheme in step 4 is the radial return algorithm [20] for the Von Mises yield criterion.

Elastic plastic Stress-Strain Matrix

The tangent or elastic plastic stress-strain matrix is derived from the local Newton-Raphson iteration scheme used in step 4 above [19]. It is therefore the consistent (or algorithmic) tangent. If the flow rule is no associative \((\dot{F} \neq Q)\), then the tangent is asymmetric.

Specialization for Bilinear Kinematic Hardening

For definition of plastic material characteristics in presented model, authors used bilinear kinematic hardening model. The Bilinear Kinematic Hardening (BKIN) option assumes the total stress range is equal to twice the yield stress, so that the Bauschinger effect is included, Figures 12 and 13 illustrates a typical display of bilinear kinematic hardening properties for a different temperatures.
This option uses the von Mises yield criterion with the associated flow rule and kinematic hardening. The equivalent stress (Eq. (4)) is therefore:

$$
\sigma_e = \frac{3}{2} \left[ (s) - \{\alpha\}^T [M] (s) - \{\alpha\} \right]^{1/2},
$$

(27)

where: \(\{s\}\) – deviatoric stress vector:

\(\{s\} = \{\sigma\} - \sigma_m \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T\),

(28)

where:

\(\sigma_m = \text{mean or hydrostatic stress} = \frac{1}{3} (\sigma_x + \sigma_y + \sigma_z)\);

\(\{\alpha\}\) – yield surface translation vector, (Eq. (9)).

Note that since Eq. (27) is dependent on the deviatoric stress, yielding is independent of the hydrostatic stress state. When \(\sigma_e\) is equal to the uniaxial yield stress, \(\sigma_Y\), the material is assumed to yield. The yield criterion, Eq. (7) is therefore:

$$
F = \left[ \frac{3}{2} \left( (s) - \{\alpha\} \right)^T [M] \left( (s) - \{\alpha\} \right) \right]^{1/2} - \sigma_Y = 0.
$$

(29)

The associated flow rule yields:

$$
\frac{\partial Q}{\partial \sigma} = \frac{\partial F}{\partial \sigma} = \frac{3}{2\sigma_e} (s) - \{\alpha\},
$$

(30)

so that the increment in plastic strain is normal to the yield surface. The associated flow rule with the von Mises yield criterion is known as the Prandtl-Reuss flow equation.

The yield surface translation is defined as:

$$
\{\alpha\} = 2G \{\varepsilon^{sh}\},
$$

(31)

where: \(G\) – shear modulus – \(E/(2(1+\nu))\); \(E\) = Young's modulus; \(\nu\) = Poisson's ratio.

The shift strain is computed analogously to Eq. (24):

$$
\Delta \varepsilon^{sh} = \frac{C}{2G} \{\Delta \varepsilon^{pl}\},
$$

(32)

where:

$$
\{\Delta \varepsilon^{sh}\} = \frac{C}{2G} \{\Delta \varepsilon^{pl}\}, \quad C = \frac{E_E}{3(E - E_T)}.
$$

(33)

where:

\(E\) = Young's modulus and \(E_T\) = tangent modulus from the bilinear uniaxial stress-strain curve.

The yield surface translation \(\{\varepsilon^{sh}\}\) is initially zero and changes with subsequent plastic straining. The equivalent plastic strain is dependent on the loading history and is defined to be:

$$
\dot{\varepsilon}_{pl}^n = \dot{\varepsilon}_{pl}^{n-1} + \Delta \dot{\varepsilon}_{pl}^n,
$$

(34)

where: \(\dot{\varepsilon}_{pl}^n\) – equivalent plastic strain for this time point and \(\dot{\varepsilon}_{pl}^{n-1}\) – equivalent plastic strain from the previous time point.

The equivalent stress parameter is defined to be:

$$
\dot{\sigma}_{pl}^n = \sigma_Y + \frac{E_E}{E - E_T} \dot{\varepsilon}_{pl}^n,
$$

(35)

where: \(\dot{\sigma}_{pl}^n\) – equivalent stress parameter.

Note that if there is no plastic straining (\(\dot{\varepsilon}_{pl}^n = 0\)), then \(\dot{\sigma}_{pl}^n\) is equal to the yield stress. \(\dot{\sigma}_{pl}^n\) only has meaning during the initial, monotonically increasing portion of the load history. If the load were to be reversed after plastic loading, the stresses and therefore \(\sigma_e\) would fall below yield but \(\dot{\sigma}_{pl}^n\) would register above yield (since \(\dot{\varepsilon}_{pl}^n\) is nonzero).

The stress and strain analysis for tube absorber is performed with elastic plastic material characteristic presented in Figure 14. Material characteristics are the same as used in experimental investigation [13].
4.4. External loads definition

External loads in Finite element analysis are defined, in accordance with performed experiment, discussed in detail in part 3 of this paper. Therefore, the displacement of mandrel of 130 mm in 85 substeps is defined in $y$ direction.

4.5. Finite Element Analysis results

Finite element calculation has performed in 85 substeps with 726 cumulative iterations that made possible the contact conditions convergence and strain-stress calculation. Figure 15. presents deformed and undeformed shape of tube absorber and mandrel at the last moment of expansion process.

The contour results for equivalent stresses at the last moment of tube expansion are shown in Figures 16. and 17. presents normal stresses in contact zone at the last moment of deformation process. The analysis of presented stress states allows to conclude that expected results are obtained and that developed FEM model could be recognized as very good numerical simulation of investigated problem.

![Figure 15. Deformed and undeformed shape of tube](image)

**Figure 15.** Deformed and undeformed shape of tube

**Slika 15.** Deformirani i nedeformirani oblik cijevi

For the comparative analysis of experiment and numerical results, Figure 18(a) shows total VonMises deformation of tube absorber, Figure 18(b) shows elastic component of total deformation and Figure 18(c) shows plastic component of total deformation.

![Comparative quantities of tube deformations](image)

Comparative quantities of tube deformations (in percent) obtained during experiment and FEM calculation are given in Table 1.

![Table 1](image)

**Table 1.** Dimension variation due to expansion

**Tablica 1.** Promjena dimenzija kao rezultat proširivanja
Figure 18. Von Mises tube deformations, N/m²

Slika 18. Von Mises-ove deformacije cijevi, N/m²

Figure 19. Plastic deformation work/volume during tube expansion, J/m³

Slika 19. Rad plastične deformacije/obujam u toku proširivanja cijevi, J/m³
Figure 20. Plastic deformation work/volume at the end of deformation process, J/m³
Slika 20. Rad plastične deformacije/obujam na kraju procesa deformiranja, J/m³

Figure 19 represents variation of tube form during energy absorption and can be observed as review of variation of plastic deformation work/volume during tube expansion process. Also, 3D view on tube form at the end of energy absorption is given, Figure 20. The further research will include the deformation of a tube with a flaw, [21].

5. Conclusions

The investigation of plastic deformation work of steel tube energy absorber of railway vehicle impact described in this paper results in developing of finite element model for simulation of experiment conditions. It is important to note that material characteristics modeling is one of most significant factor for plastic deformation simulation. The material nonlinearities definition used in described model has given results in compliance with experimental results.

The developed FEM model simultaneously includes material nonlinearities (plasticity), nonlinear contact and large deformation of finite elements. Comparison of FEM results for plastic deformation of tube during expansion and tube absorber deformation during testing exhibited the excellent agreement.

With aspect of very expensive experimental testing and investigation of tube energy absorbers of railway vehicle impact, the presented numerical simulation offers the way how to analyze and design railway absorbers and also enable further optimizing of shock absorber.

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REFERENCES


