

Finite Element Simulation of the Reverse Bending and Straightening of Steel Bars Used For Civil Engineering Applications

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Abstract

Steel bars used for pre-stressing concrete and as tensile armour wires are routinely subjected to reverse bending and straightening test to detect laminations in the bars. In this paper, three dimensional FE simulation of the reverse bending and straightening of steel wires over rotating rollers conducted as a part of the research to numerically investigate the effects of the combination of reverse bending and laminations on the tensile properties of bars for civil engineering applications is presented. The appropriateness of the simulation procedure employed in this work is demonstrated by a good agreement between the finite element and experimental results.

Index terms— steel bars, FE simulation, Reverse bending and straightening test, Static roller, Tensile armour wire.

1 Introduction

Carbon steel bars are steel elements/materials with sizes from 10mm to 32mm [1]. They are used as pre-stressing steel bars and as flexible pipe tensile armour bars which provides longitudinal and hoop (circumferential) tensile stress resistances for flexible pipes used for offshore oil and gas transportation. Carbon steel bars are subjected to routine reverse bending and straightening test which involves bending the bars over a rotating left hand roller, reverse bending the bars over the middle roller and finally straightening of the bars over the right hand roller as shown in Figure ?? to detect laminations in bars. Laminations (particularly the type that may be present in carbon steel bars used for civil engineering application) are line type defects or long cracks which are normally invisible at the surface, are generally parallel to the rolling or drawing direction and are usually revealed through reverse bending of the bars [2]. Crack-like laminations (longitudinal cracks) have been found to be instrumental to the fractures of the pre-stressing wires (carbon steel elements/materials smaller than bars with sizes from 2.5mm to 8mm) of ruptured pre-stressed concrete pipe [3].

Most of the published literature on bending and reverse bending of metal products such as the work of [4][5][6][7], among others, relates to the processing of sheet metal during sheet metal forming operations. The few literature that deals with the bending and reverse bending of wires includes the experimental work conducted by [8] on reverse bending for descaling of wire rods and the experimental and FE simulation works conducted by [9,10] on the effect of excessive bending, which Aluminium Conductor Composite Core (ACCC) experiences due to the reeling of the wires on mandrels on the axial compressive stress and the residual tensile strength of the wires. To date, neither the FE simulation of the reverse bending, nor the FE simulation of the reverse bending and straightening of carbon steel bars used for civil engineering application has been published.

Figure ?? : Industrial reverse bending equipment with three rollers Author : Newcastle University, Newcastle upon Tyne, United Kingdom, NE1 7RU. E-mail : k.k.adewole@yahoo.com pinning the nodes on the end of the ACCC wire that are in contact with a static mandrel at the beginning of the simulation and applied a concentrated load to the free end of the wire to bend the wire round the mandrel. Although this methodology may produce the

5 A) LABORATORY REVERSE BENDING, STRAIGHTENING AND TENSILE TESTING OF BARS

44 desired bending effects in the wire, it does not simulate the actual bending process in practice. In practice, the
45 mandrel is rotated and the wire is bent and wrapped round the rotating mandrel. Also this modelling approach
46 of bending the wire round a static mandrel instead of the rotating mandrel bending the wire round it could
47 not be used to simulate the reverse bending of wires over the second roller without having to unwind the bent
48 wire from the first roller, thereby introducing the unwinding process which is not part of the reverse bending
49 process in practice. Consequently, this modelling approach could not be used to simulate the reverse bending
50 and straightening of bars used for civil engineering applications.

51 This paper presents three dimensional FE simulation of the reverse bending and straightening of steel bars used
52 for civil engineering application which was conducted as a part of the research to numerically predict the effects
53 of the combination of reverse bending and straightening process and defects such as laminations and scratches on
54 the tensile properties of the bars. Numerical prediction methodology was employed in the research because it was
55 not possible to machine the longitudinal line-type or crack-like laminations that are parallel to the bar's length
56 (rolling direction) and cut across the width of the wire experimentally. The reverse bent and straightened (RBS)
57 specimen and the unbent bar specimen were subjected to a tensile testing simulation to determine the effect of
58 the reverse bending and straightening process on the bar in terms of the force-displacement response. The force-
59 displacement curves from the FE simulation of the tensile testing of the RBS and unbent bar specimens were then
60 validated with the force-displacement curves from the laboratory tensile testing of unbent and experimentally
61 RBS bar specimens. The FE simulation was conducted using the combined hardening plasticity models combined
62 with the phenomenological shear failure model in-built in the Abaqus v 6.9.3 material library which has been
63 identified by [11] as an appropriate fracture model for the prediction of the fracture behaviour of the bar considered
64 in this work. The calibrated shear damage and fracture modelling parameters used for the FE simulations are
65 fracture strain of 0.3451, Shear stress ratio of 12.5, Strain rate of 0.000125s⁻¹ and a material parameter Ks of
66 0.3. Interested readers are referred to Adewole, et al [11] for the details of the shear damage and fracture model
67 and the phenomenological fitting procedure employed to obtain the calibrated shear failure modelling parameter
68 values. The details of the combined hardening plasticity model are presented in section 1.1.

69 2 a) Combined Hardening Plasticity Model

70 The combined hardening plasticity model used for this simulation is a combination of the nonlinear kinematic and
71 isotropic hardening models. The isotropic cyclic hardening component is based on the exponential law given in
72 equation (1) obtained from [12]. The kinematic hardening component is based on the evolution of the backstress
73 (a nonlinear evolution of the centre of the yield surface) σ_b given in equation (2) obtained from [12].

$$\sigma_b = \sigma_{b0} + \frac{1}{b} \ln \left(\frac{\sigma_{max} - \sigma_b}{\sigma_{max} - \sigma_{b0}} \right) \quad (1)$$
$$\dot{\sigma}_b = \frac{1}{b} \left(\frac{\sigma_{max} - \sigma_b}{\sigma_{max} - \sigma_{b0}} \right)^n \dot{\sigma} \quad (2)$$

75 Here σ_{b0} is the size or magnitude of the yield surface (the limit of the elastic range), σ_{b0} is the initial yield
76 stress, σ_{max} is the maximum stress increase in the elastic range, σ_{pl} is the plastic strain, and b is a material
77 parameter that defines the rate at which the maximum size is reached as plastic straining develops.

78 σ_b is the overall backstress, C and n are kinematic hardening parameters, which are material parameters that
79 define the initial hardening modulus and the rate at which the hardening modulus decreases with increasing
80 plastic strain respectively [12].

81 3 II.

82 4 Experimental And Fe Analysis Procedures

83 The details of the experimental and FE simulations are presented in this section.

84 5 a) Laboratory Reverse Bending, Straightening and Tensile 85 Testing of Bars

86 The reverse bending, straightening and tensile testing of RBS bar specimen was simulated experimentally in
87 the laboratory by winding a length of the flat bar with 12mmx5mm cross-sectional dimension round a 100mm
88 roller as shown in Figure 2. The bent bar length was then reverse bent in the opposite direction over the same
89 100mm roller. The reverse bent bar length was finally straightened and cut into tensile test specimens. The
90 RBS specimen and the unbent specimen were then subjected to tensile testing using an Instron universal testing
91 machine (IX 4505) fitted with an Instron 2518 series load cell with a maximum static capacity of ± 100 kN. The
92 displacement was measured. The FE simulation of the bending, reverse bending, straightening and tensile testing
93 of the flat bar was conducted in four simulation steps. Figure 3 shows the arrangement used for the simulation
94 which consists of a 305mm long tensile armour bar strip between the left roller (Roller 1) and the right roller
95 (Roller 2), and a guide plate. The guide plate was introduced to prevent Roller 2 from lifting vertically upward
96 during the bending simulation. The 305mm long bar consist of a 50mm long central tensile testing specimen and
97 two 127.5mm long left and right attachments. The attachments were introduced to prevent localised deformation
98 of the ends of the tensile testing specimen, which occurred when the specimen was bonded to the rollers directly.
99 The whole model was meshed with C3D8R elements (8-node hexahedral linear brick reduced integration elements
100 with hourglass control). The rollers and the guide plate were meshed with 3mmx3mmx3mm elements while the
101 attachments and the specimen were meshed with elements having 3mmx3mmx0.5mm and 3mmx1mmx0.5mm

102 dimensions respectively. The 1mm dimension is along the specimen length and the 0.5mm dimension is along
103 the specimen thickness, which translates to 10 elements along the bar thickness. The specimen was meshed with
104 the finest mesh in order to obtain accurate results as the tensile testing simulation was carried out on the 50mm
105 long specimen alone. The rollers, the guide plate and the attachments (which were only introduced to prevent
106 localised deformation of the ends of the specimen) were meshed with a coarse mesh to reduce the output file size
107 and computation time.

108 The bending simulation was conducted by rotating Roller 1 in an anticlockwise direction to wind the bar
109 round Roller 1. The reverse bending simulation was conducted by rotating Roller 1 in a clockwise direction to
110 unwind the bar whilst simultaneously rotating Roller 2 in an anticlockwise direction to reverse bend and wind
111 the bar round Roller 2. The straightening simulation was conducted by rotating Roller 2 in a clockwise direction
112 to unwind the tensile armour bar and pulling Roller 1 longitudinally and vertically simultaneously, until the
113 attachments and test specimen were straightened. The simulation of the tensile testing of the RBS bar specimen
114 model was conducted on the model of the bar specimen within the rollers-attachmentsspecimen assembly. In
115 order to establish the appropriate boundary conditions to be used for the simulation of the tensile testing of the
116 RBS bar specimen within the rollers-attachments-specimen assembly, tensile testing simulations were conducted
117 on the model of an unbent bar within the rollers-attachments-specimen assembly. The left hand end of the
118 specimen, the left roller and the left attachment were fixed, while the right hand end of the specimen, the right
119 roller and the right attachment, which were free to move only in hand end of the specimen alone was fixed,
120 whiles the right hand end of the specimen alone, which was free to move only in the tensile load direction, was
121 subjected to a longitudinal axial tensile displacement in the tensile load direction as shown in Figure 4. A good
122 agreement between the results of the tensile testing simulation conducted with the unbent bar specimen within
123 the rollers-attachments-specimen assembly and the unbent bar specimen alone was then established as presented
124 later in sections 3.2 and 4. The same simulation boundary conditions applied to the tensile testing of the unbent
125 bar specimen within the rollers-attachmentsspecimen assembly was then applied to the tensile testing simulation
126 of the RBS bar specimens within the rollers-attachments-specimen assembly.

127 6 Results

128 The results in terms of the deformed shapes showing the stress and strain distributions at the various stages of
129 the bending, reverse bending, straightening and tensile testing process simulations are presented in this section.
130 All the force-displacement curves in this paper are normalised with experimental ultimate load and displacement
131 at fracture. a) Bending, Reverse bending and straightening simulation results

132 The deformed shape of the entire 305mm long bar strip showing the longitudinal axial stress (designated as S11
133 in the contour plot) distribution in the bar and the position of the 50mm gauge length tensile test specimen after
134 the bending simulation, during the reverse bending simulation, after the reverse bending simulation and after
135 the straightening process simulations are shown in Figures 5(a) The fracture shapes predicted by the simulations
136 conducted with the unbent bar specimen within the rollers-attachments-specimen assembly and with the unbent
137 bar specimen alone are shown in Figures 9 and 10 respectively. The deformed shape of the entire 305mm long
138 bar showing the longitudinal axial stress distribution in the bar and the fractured RBS tensile test specimen
139 within the rollers-attachments-specimen assembly after the tensile testing simulation is shown in Figure ??1.
140 The fractured shape of the numerically simulated RBS specimen subjected to tensile testing simulation is shown
141 in Figure 12(a) and the fractured experimentally RBS tensile specimen subjected to laboratory tensile testing is
142 shown in Figure 12(b). The normalised force-displacement curves obtained from the simulations of the tensile
143 testing of the unbent bar specimen alone and the unbent bar specimen within the rollers-attachments-specimen
144 assembly are shown in Figure 13. The normalised force-displacement curves obtained from the simulation of the
145 tensile testing of the numerically simulated RBS specimen and the laboratory tensile testing of the experimentally
146 RBS tensile specimen are shown in Figure 14. IV.

147 7 Discussion

148 As shown in Figure 5(b), after the bending simulation, the upper and the lower parts of the bar specimen are
149 subjected to tensile and compressive axial stresses respectively, which agrees with the stress pattern in a bent bar
150 stated by [8]. The tensile and compressive axial stresses caused plastic deformations of the upper and the lower
151 parts of the bar specimen as shown by the equivalent plastic strains in the specimen in Figure 5(c). The middle
152 20% (approximately two element layers) of the bar specimen's thickness, where the neutral axis lies remains
153 elastic with zero equivalent plastic strain as shown in Figure 5(c). The peak stress and strain occurred at the
154 surfaces of the bar specimen, which agrees with what is reported by [13] and further shows the accuracy of the
155 bending simulation. The peak stress and strain occurred at the surfaces of the bar Substituting the bar thickness,
156 T , of 5mm and the roller diameter, $r D$, of 100mm in equation (3) obtained from [8] as shown in equation 4 gives
157 a maximum strain, e , of 0.048. The maximum strain of 0.043 predicted by the bending simulation as shown in
158 the equivalent strain contour plot in Figure 5(c) agrees well with the maximum strain value of 0.048 calculated
159 with the analytical expression. This further demonstrates the accuracy of the bending simulation. As shown
160 in Figures ??, 7(a) and 7(b), the initial upper part of the bar is now subjected to compressive stress and the
161 initial lower half is now subjected to tensile stress during and after the reverse bending simulation as a result of

8 CONCLUSION

162 strain/stress reversal associated with the reverse bending operation. The through thickness deformation pattern
163 of the bar specimen after the reverse bending simulation is similar to that predicted by the bending simulation
164 as the upper and the lower parts of the bar specimen were plastically deformed, while the middle 20% of the bar
165 specimen thickness, within which the neutral axis lies remains elastic with zero equivalent plastic strain as shown
166 in Figure ??(c).

167 The initial upper part and the initial lower part of the bar specimen at the beginning of the simulation
168 is now the lower part and the upper part of the bar specimen that has undergone bending, reverse bending
169 and straightening (RBS) and are in tension and compression respectively as shown in Figures ??(b) and (c).
170 From Figure ??(c), approximately the middle 20% of the bar specimen thickness also remains elastic after the
171 straightening simulation, while the remaining outer portions of the bar specimen have been plastically deformed.
172 The stress and the strain in the RBS specimen at the end of the straightening simulation represent the residual
173 stress and the accumulated plastic strain in the tensile test specimen at the beginning of the tensile testing
174 simulation. Thus, the upper and lower parts of the RBS bar specimen that was subjected to tensile testing
175 simulation had undergone cyclic tensile and compressive plastic deformations, with residual compressive and
176 tensile stresses respectively, while the middle 20% of the thickness of the bar remained elastic. This leaves
177 the RBS bar specimen with an unbalanced residual stress distribution and a non-uniform through thickness
178 deformation.

179 The fracture shapes shown in Figures 9 and 10, and the force-displacement curves shown in Figures 13 predicted
180 by the simulations conducted with the unbent bar specimen in the rollers-attachments-specimen assembly and
181 the unbent bar specimen alone are in a good agreement. This indicates that the boundary conditions applied to
182 the reels, attachments and specimen during the tensile testing simulation are appropriate as they have negligible
183 impact on the fracture shape and the tensile response of the specimen with a maximum of 0.19% difference
184 between the tensile properties (occurring in the displacement at fracture) predicted by the two simulations. The
185 good agreements in the fracture shapes shown in Figure 12 and in the force-displacement curves shown in Figure
186 14 predicted by the simulation of the tensile testing of the numerically simulated RBS bar specimen and the
187 curves from the laboratory tensile testing of the experimentally RBS bar specimen shows the accuracy of the
188 bending, reverse bending, straightening and tensile testing simulations.

189 V.

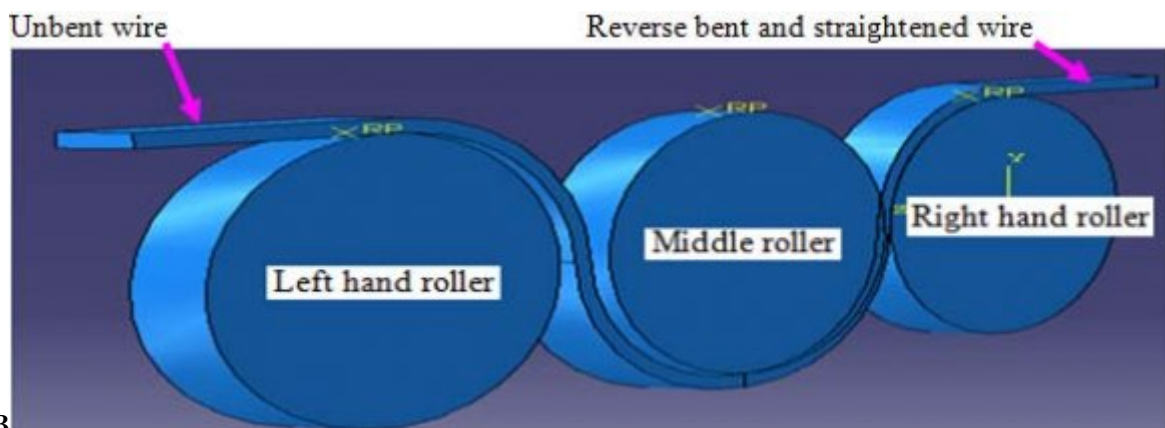
190 8 Conclusion

191 In this paper, the details of the simulation procedures employed for the simulation of the bending and reverse
192 bending of a flat carbon bar used for civil engineering applications as it is conducted in practice, and the
193 straightening and tensile testing simulation processes are presented. It is demonstrated that the bending
194 simulation procedure employed is able to predict a maximum bending strain that agrees with an existing analytical
195 expression. It is also demonstrated that the bending, reverse bending and straightening simulation methodologies
196 employed are appropriate to predict the behaviour of carbon steel wires for civil engineering application subjected
197 to bending, reverse bending and straightening processes. This is evidenced in the good agreement in the fracture
198 shapes and the tensile responses of the experimentally and numerically RBS bar tensile specimens. This paper
199 thus presents a FE simulation procedure which is essential to the research on the numerical prediction of the
200 effect of the combination of reverse bending and straightening process and laminations on the tensile properties
201 of bars used for civil engineering applications.



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Figure 1: Figure 2 :



3

Figure 2: Figure 3 :



4

Figure 3: Figure 4 :

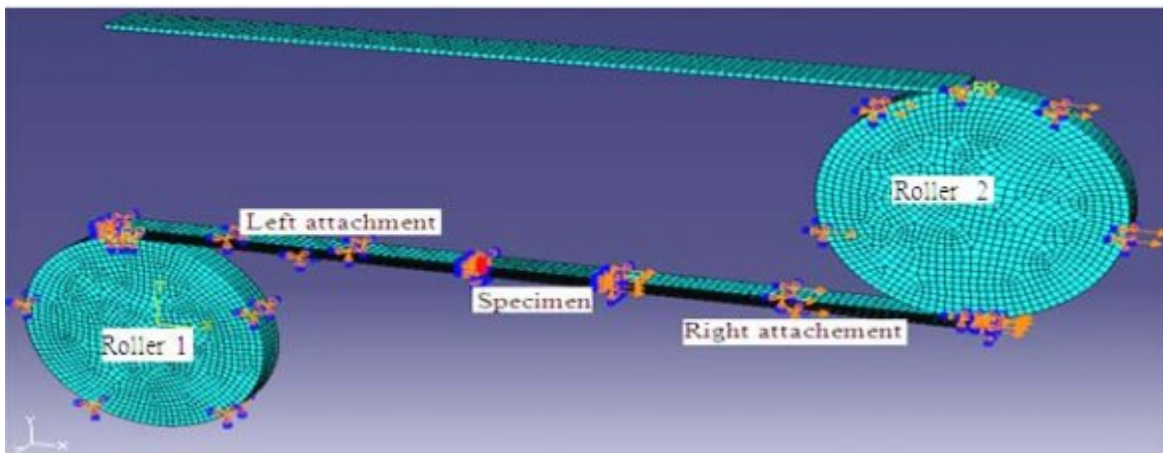


Figure 4:

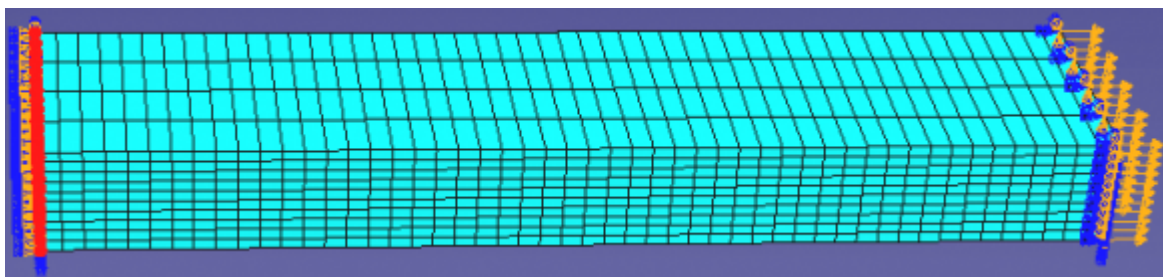
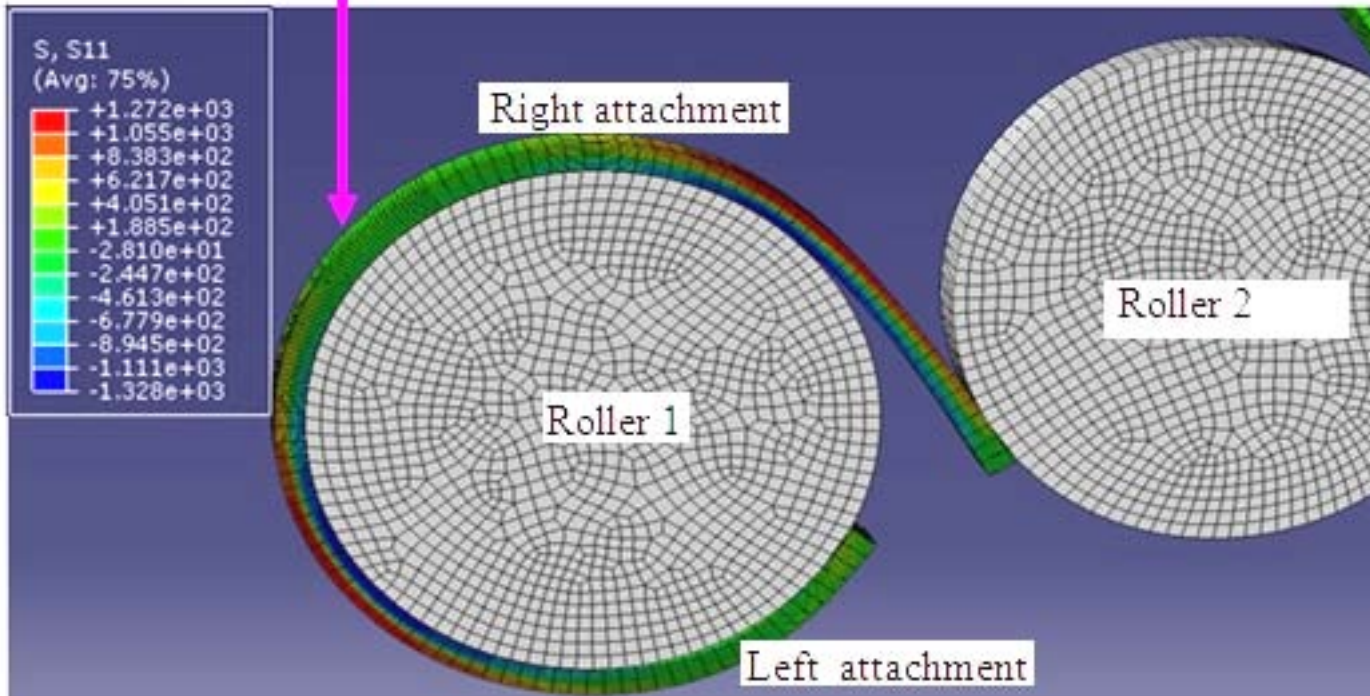


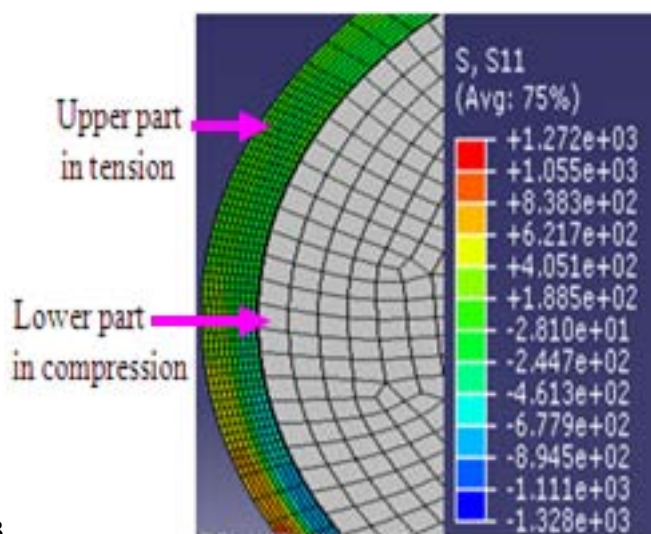
Figure 5:

50mm Gauge length



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Figure 6: Figure 5 :



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Figure 7: Figure 6 :Figure 7 :Figure 8 :

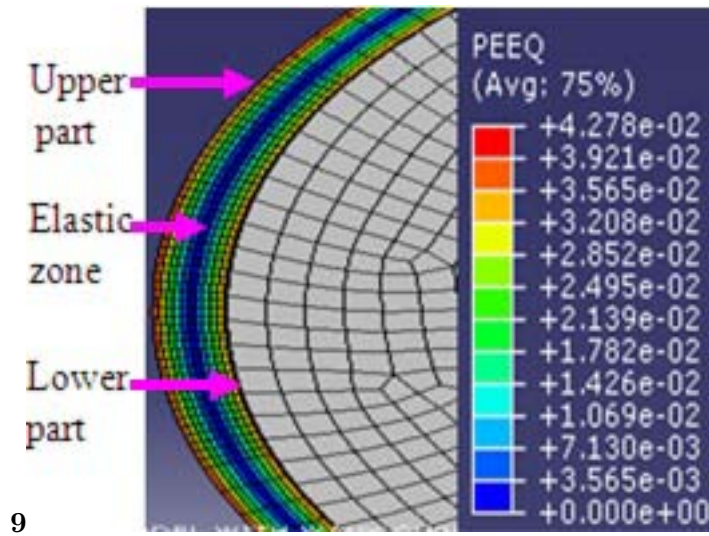


Figure 8: Figure 9 :

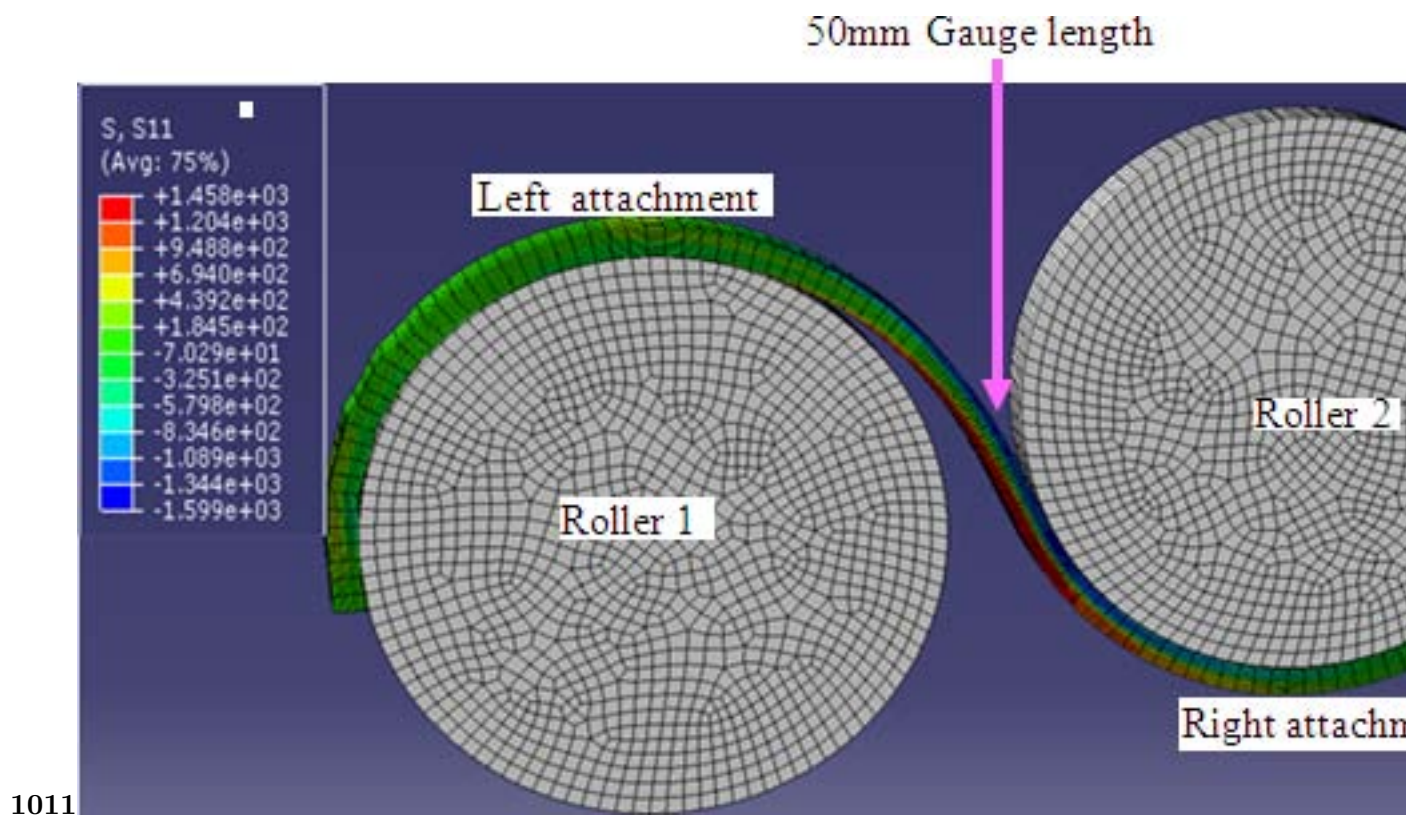


Figure 9: Figure 10 :Figure 11 :

12

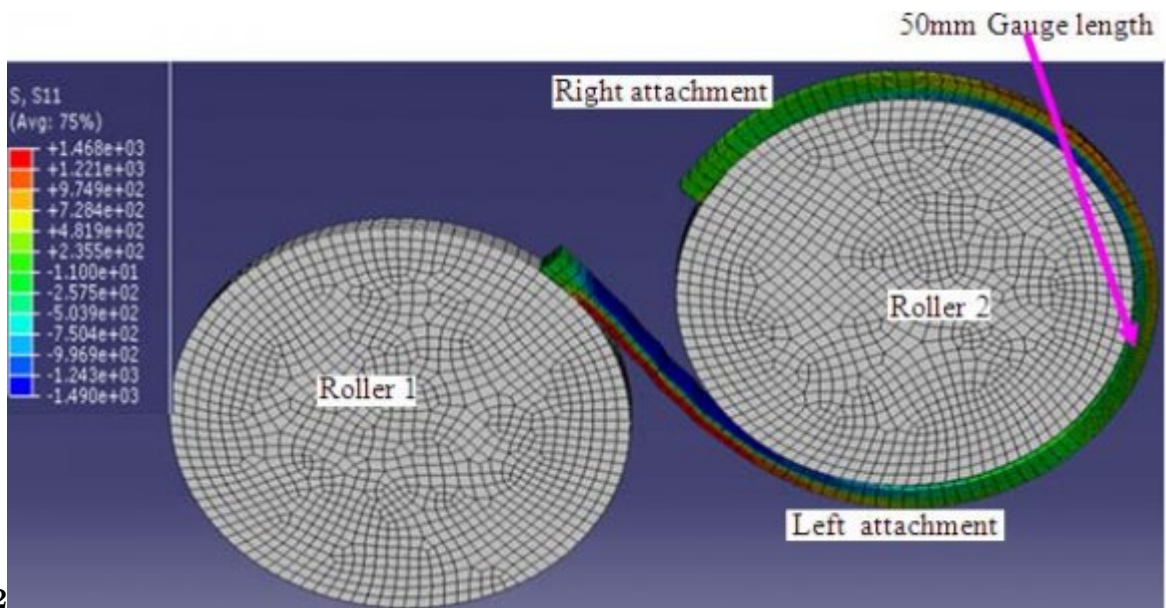


Figure 10: Figure 12 :

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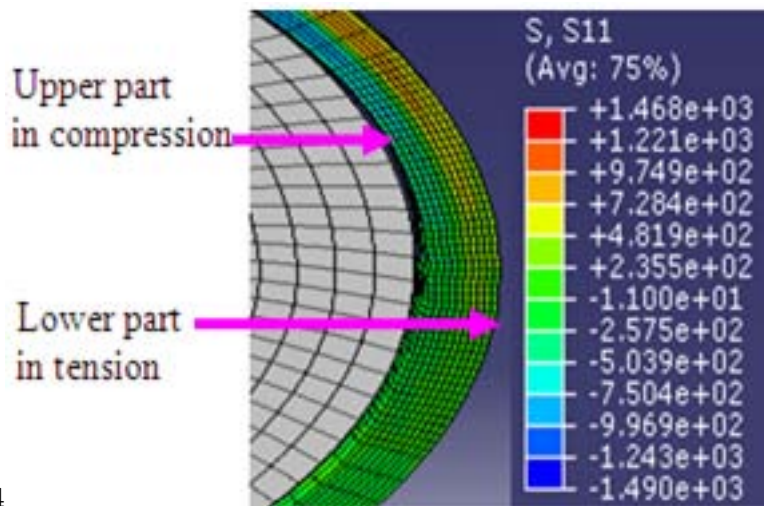


Figure 11: Figure 13 :Figure 14 :

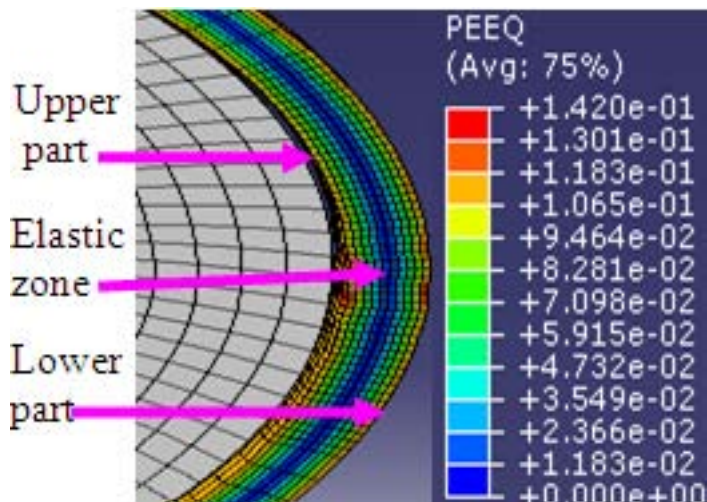


Figure 12: Finite

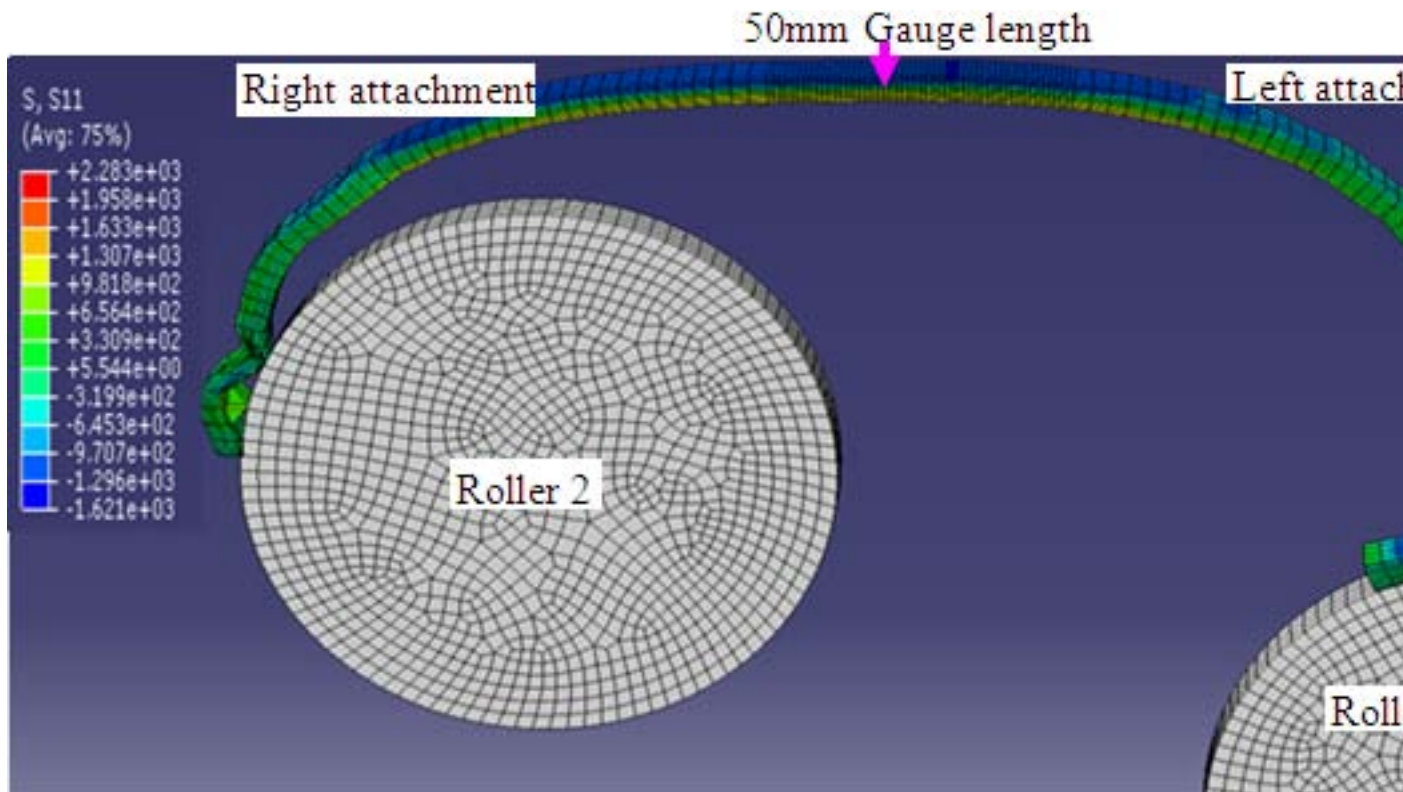


Figure 13:

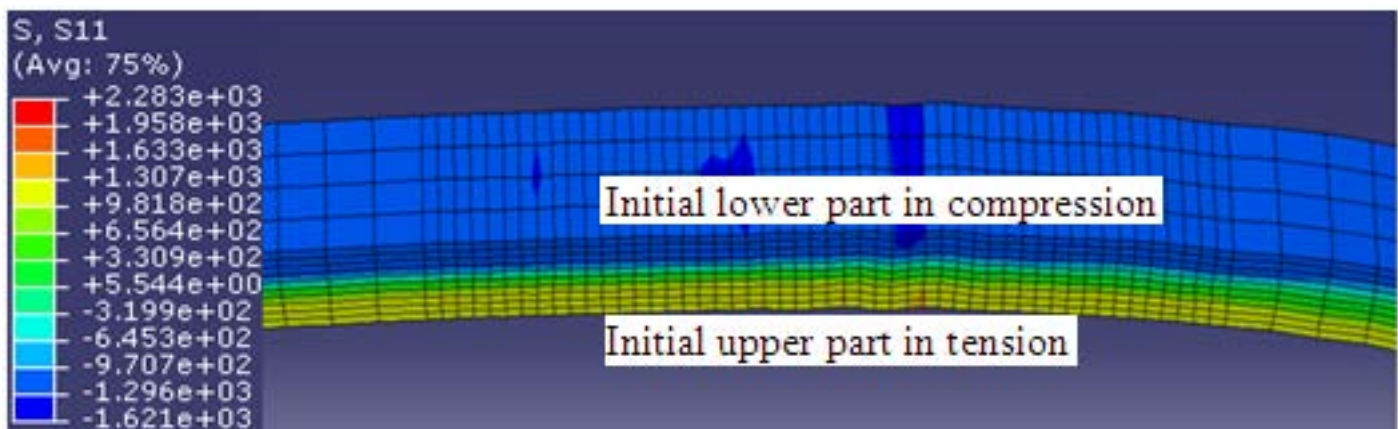


Figure 14:

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