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Determination of the Appropriate Plasticity Hardening Model for the Simulation of the Reverse Bending and Straightening of Wires for Civil Engineering Applications

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8 Abstract

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The industry requires an understanding of the effects of reverse bending and straightening test 9 wires for civil engineering applications undergo to detect laminations in them on their tensile 10 properties. In this paper, the identification of the appropriate plasticity hardening model for 11 the simulation of wires reverse bending and straightening test which involves ?double? strain 12 reversal is presented. Finite element simulations revealed that the isotropic hardening model 13 predicted a continuous work hardening of the wire during the bending, reverse bending, and 14 straightening operations and did not capture the softening of the wire due to the Bauschinger 15 effect. Conversely, the combined hardening model adequately captured both the work 16 hardening and Bauschinger effect that are associated with the reverse bending and 17 straightening processes. Consequently, it is demonstrated that the combined hardening model 18 is the appropriate plasticity hardening model for the simulation of reverse bending and 19 straightening of carbon steel wires used for civil engineering applications. This paper thus 20 established the appropriate plasticity hardening model required for the FE simulation of the 21 wires? reverse bending and straightening test needed to investigate the effects of reverse 22 bending and straightening test on the tensile and fracture properties of a typical wire used for 23 civil engineering applications. 24

Index terms— bauschinger effect, combined hardening, finite element simulation, isotropic hardening, laminations, reverse bending strain reversal wires.

28 1 Introduction

arbon steel wires are used in the construction of many civil engineering structures. Specifically, carbon steel wires 29 are used as pre-stressing tendons and as suspension and/or cable-staved bridge wires. Carbon steel wires are also 30 incorporated into flexible pipes used for offshore oil and gas transportation as axial stress reinforcement. These 31 wires are subject to a number of non-destructive tests to detect defects that could threaten their integrity in 32 33 service. One of these tests is the reverse bending and straightening test which involves bending of the wire over 34 the rotating left hand roller, reverse bending of the wire over the rotating middle roller and finally straightening 35 of the wire over the rotating right hand roller as shown in Figure ?? to detect laminations in the wires. A lamination is an elongated line-type defect or a long crack that is usually invisible and usually parallel to the 36 surface of metal products (such as wires) produced through rolling or drawing process (Smith et al, 1957). It is 37 essential to detect laminations in wires/bars used for civil engineering applications as the catastrophic rupture 38 of pre-stressed concrete pipes has been attributed to the presence of long straight pre-service longitudinal cracks 39 (i.e. laminations) in the pre-stressing wires used for pre-stressing the ruptured pre-stressed concrete pipes by the 40 United States Bureau of Reclamation, 1994. 41

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4 B) ISOTROPIC ELASTIC-COMBINED HARDENING PLASTICITY MODEL

Figure ?? : Industrial reverse bending equipment with three rollers In the current work, three dimensional FE 42 simulations were conducted to identify the appropriate hardening model for the simulation of the wire reverse 43 bending and straightening test. The FE simulation of the wire reverse bending and straightening test was 44 conducted as a part of the research to investigate the effects of the combination of reverse bending and laminations 45 on the tensile properties of a typical wire used for civil engineering applications. FE simulation was employed for 46 the investigation of the effects of the combination of reverse bending and laminations on the tensile properties of 47 the wire because it was not experimentally possible to simulate the long straight longitudinal cracks or laminations 48 that are parallel to the length of the wire specimens (such as the lamination found in the pre-stressing wires used to 49 pre-stress the ruptured pre-stressed concrete pipe) using machining techniques. For an accurate simulation of the 50 wires' reverse bending and straightening test, it is essential to employ an appropriate material constitutive model, 51 particularly the plasticity hardening model that is able to capture the wires' behavior(s) during the various stages 52 (bending, reverse bending and straightening) of the reverse bending and straightening test/process. Material 53 constitutive models that have been used in FE sheet metal forming predictions and springback analyses include 54 the isotropic, kinematic and anisotropic hardening models. Combinations of two or more of these hardening 55 models have also been used for FE sheet metal forming simulation and spring back prediction. Firat, (2007), 56 57 Zhao and Lee, (1999), and Kenichiro, (2001) observed that the isotropic hardening model when used in reverse 58 bending simulation overestimates the hardening component and does not predict the through-thickness stress 59 distribution accurately because it does not consider the Bauschinger effect. The Bauschinger effect is responsible 60 for the reduction in both the fatigue strength and the static yield strength of a metal when it is subjected to strain reversal (Takeda and Chen (1999). Zhao and Lee, (1999) reported that "the kinematic hardening rule 61 underestimates the hardening component and exaggerates the Bauschinger effect". The shortcomings associated 62 with using the isotropic and kinematic hardening models has led to an emerging new standard of models with 63 mixed or combined hardening (a combination of two or more different hardening models) which has proven to 64 increase the numerical reliability of sheet metal formability and An acceptable material model should be able to 65 capture the many different material phenomena that occur during plastic deformation, such as work hardening 66 and the Bauschinger effect, and should be able to provide the best possible fit to the actual material properties 67 (Taherizadeh et al, 2010). Consequently, it is essential to understand the applicability of these models and their 68 limitations in order to increase the accuracy of FE reverse bending simulations. To the best of the authors' 69 knowledge, no guidance on the appropriate plasticity hardening model for the simulation of the reverse bending 70 71 and straightening of a wire which involves "double" strain reversal (strain reversal due to reverse bending and 72 strain reversal due to straightening In this work, the three dimensional FE simulations were conducted using the isotropic elastic plastic hardening model and the combined hardening plasticity models in-built in the Abaqus v 73 6.9.3 FE software materials library. The FE simulations with the isotropic and the combined hardening models 74 were conducted in combination with the phenomenological shear damage and failure criterion. The details of the 75 phenomenological shear failure model can be found in the work of Adewole and Bull, (2013). The details of the 76 isotropic elastic-plastic and isotropic elastic-combined hardening plasticity models are presented in the following 77 sections. 78

⁷⁹ 2 a) Isotropic Elastic-Plasticity Model

The isotropic elastic-plasticity model in Abaqus is based on a linear isotropic elasticity theory and a uniaxialstress, plastic-strain strain-rate relationship (Simulia, 2007). The elastic aspect of the model is defined in terms of its volumetric and deviatoric components given in equations (??) and (??) respectively obtained from Simulia, (2007). The model is based on a von Mises yield surface with the yield function, f, given in equation (??) and a flow rule given in equation (??) obtained from (Simulia, 2007). Here p is the hydrostatic stress, vol is the volume strain, S is the deviatoric stress, el e is the deviatoric elastic strain, q is the von Mises equivalent stress, pl e is the deviatoric plastic strain, pl e is the equivalent plastic strain, q S n 2

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, K is the bulk modulus and G is the shear modulus. K and G are calculated from the Young's modulus, E , and
 Poisson's ratio, , of the material.

⁹⁰ 4 b) Isotropic Elastic-Combined Hardening Plasticity Model

The combined hardening model is a combination of the nonlinear kinematic and isotropic hardening models. The isotropic cyclic hardening component is based on the exponential law given in equation (?? evolution of the backstress (a nonlinear evolution of the centre of the yield surface)

given in equation (??) obtained from Simulia, (2007).) 1 (0 pl b i e Q Y (5) pl pl e e C) (10 (6)

Here 0 is the size of the yield surface (size of the elastic range), Q (Q infinity) is the maximum increase

⁹⁶ in the elastic range, b is a material parameter that defines the rate at which the maximum size is reached as

97 plastic straining develops and i Y is the initial yield stress. C and are kinematic hardening parameters, which

are material parameters that define the initial hardening modulus and the rate at which the hardening modulus

99 decreases with increasing plastic strain, respectively (Simulia, 2007).

¹⁰⁰ 5 II. Experimental and FE Analysis Procedures

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

¹⁰² 6 a) Laboratory Reverse Bending, Straightening and Tensile ¹⁰³ Testing of Wires

A length of the wire was bent and reverse bent round a 100mm diameter cylindrical steel block as shown in Figure 104 2 and the reverse bent wire was finally straightened and cut into tensile test specimens hereinafter referred to 105 as the experimental reverse bent and straightened (ERBS) wire specimens. The ERBS specimens and tensile 106 specimens cut from the asreceived unbent wire specimen hereinafter referred to as unbent wire tensile specimens 107 were tested using an Instron universal testing machine (IX 4505) fitted with an Instron 2518 series load cell with 108 a maximum static capacity of ± 100 kN. The displacement was measured with an Instron 2630-112 clip-on strain 109 gauge extensioneter with a 50 mm gauge length. Figure 3 shows the model of a 305m long wire length, the 110 111 left and right rollers and a guide plate introduced to prevent roller 2 from lifting vertically upward during the bending simulation. The whole model was meshed with C3D8R elements (8-node hexahedral linear brick reduced 112 integration elements with hourglass control). The rollers and the guide plate were meshed with 3mmx3mmx3mm 113 elements. The outer sections of the wire length were meshed with 3mmx3mmx0.5mm elements and the middle 114 115 50mm length designated as the FE tensile test specimen was meshed with a finer mesh with 3mmx1mmx0.5mm dimensions. The 3mmx1mmx0.5mm element size was established through mesh convergence studies to be the 116 optimum mesh size required for accurate predictions of the bending and tensile behaviours of the FE tensile test 117 specimen. The 3mm, 1mm and the 0.5mm dimensions are in the FE tensile test specimen's width, length and 118 thickness respectively. The left hand roller was rotated in an anticlockwise direction to bend the wire round the 119 left hand roller. After the bending simulation, the left hand roller and the right hand roller were simultaneously 120 rotated in a clock wise and antilock wise directions respectively to unwind the wire from the left hand roller and 121 reverse bend the wire round the right hand roller. After the reverse bending simulation, the right hand roller was 122 rotated in a clockwise direction to unwind the reverse bent wire whilst simultaneously pulling the left hand roller 123 longitudinally and vertically upward until the FE reverse bent test specimen was straightened. The FE reverse 124 bent and straightened wire tensile specimen hereinafter referred to as FERBS was subjected to tensile testing by 125 fixing the left hand end roller; the remaining section of the wire length at the left hand end of the specimen and 126 the left hand end of the FERBS tensile specimen, and pulling the right hand end roller; the remaining section 127 of the wire length at the right hand end of the specimen and the right hand end of the remaining section of the 128 wire length at the right hand end of the specimen and the right hand end of the FERBS tensile specimen were 129 free to move only in the tensile load direction (i.e. longitudinally in X-axis direction). 130

The same model arrangement shown in Figure 3 and the same boundary conditions employed for the simulations of the tensile testing of the FERBS wire specimen were employed for the simulations of the tensile testing of the unbent wire except that the bending, reverse bending and straightening simulations steps were suppressed (i.e. not conducted) during the simulations of the tensile testing of the unbent wire.

The simulations of the tensile testing of the unbent and FERBS 5x12mm cross section steel wires were 135 conducted with the isotropic and with the combined hardening plasticity models. . Both the simulations 136 with the isotropic and with the combined hardening plasticity models were conducted in combination with 137 the phenomenological shears failure model inbuilt in Abaqus. The calibrated shear damage and failure modelling 138 parameters employed for the FE simulations are fracture strain of 0.3451, shear stress ratio of 12.5, strain rate of 139 0.000125s -1 and a material parameter K s of 0.3 which were obtained through a phenomenological curve fitting 140 process. Details of the phenomenological curve fitting process employed to obtain the calibrated phenomenological 141 shear failure modelling parameters for the wire considered in this work have been published by Adewole and Bull, 142 (2013)143

The material input parameters for the simulation conducted with the isotropic hardening model are the true stress and true strain values obtained from experimental tensile testing of the wires. The true stress and strain values are not presented in this paper for confidentiality purposes (i.e. due to a non-disclosure agreement on the tensile properties of the wires). Other parameters employed for the simulation conducted with the isotropic elastic-plastic model are the density of 7.6 x 10 6 kg/mm 3, Poisson's ratio of 0.3 and Young's modulus of 200 x 10 3.

The material input parameters for the simulation conducted with the combined hardening model are the initial 150 stress i Y at zero plastic strain (not presented for confidentiality purposes) and the calibrated combined hardening 151 plasticity modelling parameters: kinematic hardening parameter C of 15300, gamma () of 275, Q of 12000 and 152 hardening parameter b of 0.04. The calibrated combined hardening plasticity modelling parameters were obtained 153 154 through a phenomenological curve fitting process and they represent the values of the modelling parameters at 155 which the FE predicted force-displacement curve agreed with the experimental curve. The phenomenological curve fitting was conducted by carrying out FE simulations of the tensile testing of unbent wire specimens with 156 varying combined hardening modelling parameters until the FE predicted force-displacement curve agreed with 157 the experimental curve up to the fracture initiation point. 158

159 **7** III.

160 8 Results

The deformed shapes of the wire showing the longitudinal axial stress (S 11) distribution and the through-161 thickness longitudinal axial stress and equivalent plastic strain profiles in the deformed wire specimen at the 162 various stages of the reverse bending and straightening test simulation are presented in this section. In the S 163 11 contour plot, positive axial stresses represent tensile axial stresses and the negative axial stresses represent 164 compressive axial stresses. The deepest red colour at the top of the contour plot represents the highest tensile 165 stress while the deepest blue at the bottom of the contour plot represents the highest compressive stress. For 166 both the throughthickness longitudinal axial stress and the throughthickness equivalent plastic strain profiles, 167 positive and negative stresses and strains represent tensile and compressive stresses and strains respectively. The 168 stress and strain in the upper half thickness and the lower half thickness of the 5mm thick wire are plotted 169 with 0 to 2.5mm and 0 to -2.5mm Y-axis coordinates respectively. Throughout the bending, reverse bending, 170 straightening and tensile testing simulations, the deformed shapes predicted by the simulations conducted with 171 the isotropic hardening and with the combined hardening models are exactly the same. Consequently, only the 172 deformed shapes predicted by the simulation conducted with the combined hardening models after the bending 173 simulation, during the reverse bending simulation, after the reverse bending simulation, after the straightening 174 simulation and after the tensile testing simulation are presented in Figures 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 respectively. The 175 through-thickness longitudinal axial stress and equivalent plastic strain profiles in the bent, reverse bent, and 176 reverse bent and straightened wire specimens predicted by the simulations with the two hardening models are 177 also presented in Figures 4, 6 and 7 respectively. The fractured experimental ERBS wire specimen is shown in 178 Figure ??(c). The experimental force-displacement curves for the unbent and ERBS wire specimens with the 179 forcedisplacement curves obtained from the simulations of the tensile testing of the unbent and FERBS wire 180 181 specimens conducted with the isotropic and the combined hardening plasticity models are shown in Figures ?? 182 and 10

¹⁸³ 9 Global Journal of Researches in Engineering

184 10 Discussion

As shown in Figures 4(b) and (c), there is no significant difference in the through-thickness longitudinal axial 185 stresses and strains profiles predicted by the bending simulations conducted with both the isotropic and the 186 combined hardening models. The simulations conducted with both hardening models predicted tensile and 187 compressive stresses and strains at the initial upper and the initial lower parts of the wire as expected based 188 on the deformed shape of the wire specimen shown in Figure 4(a). Also the strain profiles predicted by the 189 simulations conducted with the two hardening models are linear as expected of a bending induced straining. 190 This result indicates that both the isotropic and the combined hardening models are able to predict the stress 191 and strain distributions/profiles in wires subjected to bending round the roller accurately. 192

Similarly, there is no significant difference in the through-thickness longitudinal axial stress profiles predicted 193 by the reverse bending simulations conducted with both the isotropic and the combined hardening models as 194 shown in Figures 6(b). Also the simulations conducted with the two hardening models predicted the expected 195 strain reversal in the reverse bent wire specimen as the initial upper and initial lower parts of the wire that 196 were subjected to tensile and compressive stresses after the bending simulation are now subjected to compressive 197 and tensile stresses and strains respectively after the reverse bending simulation. However, the strain profile 198 predicted by the simulation conducted with the combined hardening model is linear as expected for a bending 199 induced straining, whereas the strain profile predicted by the simulation with the isotropic hardening model is not 200 linear. Now, a difference between the capability/suitability of the isotropic hardening model and the combined 201 hardening model in predicting the appropriate/expected linear strain profile in the reverse bent wire specimen 202 that has undergone strain reversal is observed. 203

The simulations of the tensile testing of the FERBS specimen conducted with the two hardening models predicted the same fracture shape shown in Figure ??(b), which agrees well with the fracture shape exhibited by the experimentally RBS specimen shown in Figure ??(c). This result indicates that the fracture process and the predicted fracture shape are largely independent of the hardening model and solely dependent on the phenomenological shear fracture model employed for the simulations with the two hardening models.

Figure ?? indicates that the force-displacement curve predicted by the simulations of the tensile testing of the 209 unbent wire with both isotropic and combined The straightening of the wire caused a second stress and strain 210 reversal and induced tensile and compressive stresses and strains in the initial upper and initial lower parts of the 211 212 wire specimens respectively as shown in Figure ??(a). Consequently, the initial upper part of the wire specimen 213 has undergone a "double" stress/strain reversal resulting from the tensile stress/strain in the upper part of the 214 wire due to bending, followed by compressive stress/strain in the upper part of the wire due to the reverse bending 215 and followed by the tensile stress in the upper part of the wire due to straightening of the wire. Similarly the initial lower part of the wire has undergone a double strain reversal (compressive stress due to bending, tensile 216 stress due to reverse bending and compressive stress due to straightening). There is a significant difference in 217 predicted by the simulations conducted with the isotropic model and with those conducted with the combined 218

hardening model as shown in Figure ??(b), with the simulation conducted with the isotropic hardening model 219 predicting higher tensile and compressive stresses at the upper and the lower parts of the wire respectively. The 220 strain profiles predicted by the two hardening models shown in Figure 5(c) are no longer linear due to the plastic 221 straining involved in the straightening process. the through-thickness longitudinal axial stress profiles hardening 222 models agree well with the experimental curve up to the fracture initiation point. The forcedisplacement curve 223 224 predicted by the simulation of the tensile testing of the FERBS wire with the combined hardening model agrees 225 very well with the experimental curve throughout the elastic region, and fairly well in the plastic and fracture regions (Figure ??0). However, the force-displacement curve predicted by the simulation of the tensile testing of 226 the FERBS with isotropic hardening does not show a good agreement with the experimental curve throughout 227 the elastic region. 228

It is considered that the difference between prediction and experiment is due to the fact that the isotropic 229 hardening model does not capture the softening of the wire due to the Bauschinger effect and merely predicts that 230 the wire has been continuously work hardened during the bending, reverse bending, and straightening operations, 231 which is not evident in the experimental curve. The inability of the isotropic hardening model to capture the 232 softening of the wire due to the Bauschinger effect associated with the double strain reversal involved during 233 the reverse bending and straightening simulation also explains why the simulation conducted with the isotropic 234 hardening model predicted higher through-thickness stress values as shown in the stress profile of the FERBS 235 wire in Figure ??(b). Conversely, the combined hardening model adequately captured both the work hardening 236 237 and Bauschinger effect that are associated with the double strain reversal involved in the reverse bending and 238 straightening processes. Figure ?? 0 also indicates that the isotropic hardening model predicts a displacement 239 at fracture far higher than the experimental results. Consequently, it is concluded that the combined hardening model is the appropriate material constitutive (plasticity hardening) model for the simulation of bending, reverse 240 bending, and straightening of carbon steel wires used for civil engineering applications. 241

²⁴² 11 XII.

243 **12** Conclusion

In this paper, it is demonstrated that both the isotropic and the combined hardening models are able to predict 244 245 the bending behaviour of wires for civil engineering applications as they both predicted the stress and strain 246 distributions and profiles in bent wire accurately. However, the isotropic hardening model does not give good 247 predictions of the stress and strain distributions and profiles, and also does not give a good prediction of the 248 tensile behaviour of the reverse bent and straightened wire which has undergone "double strain reversal" due to the reverse bending and straightening operations. This is due to the fact that the simulation conducted with 249 the isotropic hardening model predicted a continuous work hardening of the wire during the bending, reverse 250 bending, and straightening operations and did not capture the softening of the wire due to the Bauschinger 251 effect that E is associated with the double strain reversal experienced by the reverse bent and straightened wire. 252 Conversely, the simulation conducted with the combined hardening model adequately captured both the work 253 hardening due to bending and the softening of the wire due to the Bauschinger effect resulting from the "double" 254 strain reversal experienced by the wire during reverse bending and straightening operations. Consequently, it is 255 concluded that the combined hardening model serves as the most appropriate plasticity hardening model for the 256 prediction of the behaviour of carbon steel wires subjected to bending, reverse bending, and straightening. 257

This work thus identifies the combined hardening model as the appropriate plasticity hardening model for wires for civil engineering applications reverse bending and straightening test simulation. This work thus provides the appropriate material constitutive model required for the numerical simulation of wires reverse bending and straightening test which is required for the numerical investigation of the effects of the combination of reverse bending and laminations on the tensile properties of a typical wire used for civil engineering applications which cannot be done experimentally as it is impossible to machine the long straight longitudinal laminations into the wires. ^{1 2}

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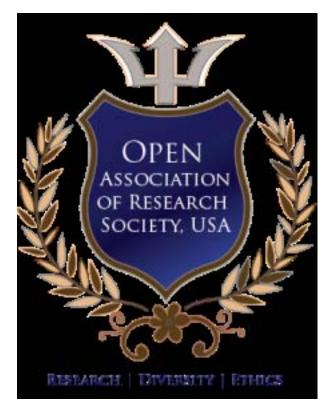


Figure 1: E

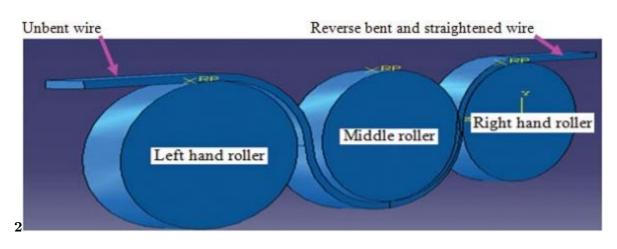
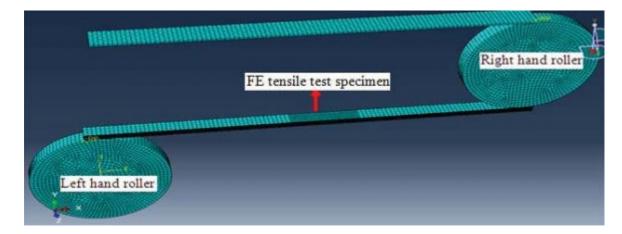
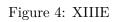


Figure 2: Figure 2 :



Figure 3: Figure 3 :





50mm Gauge length

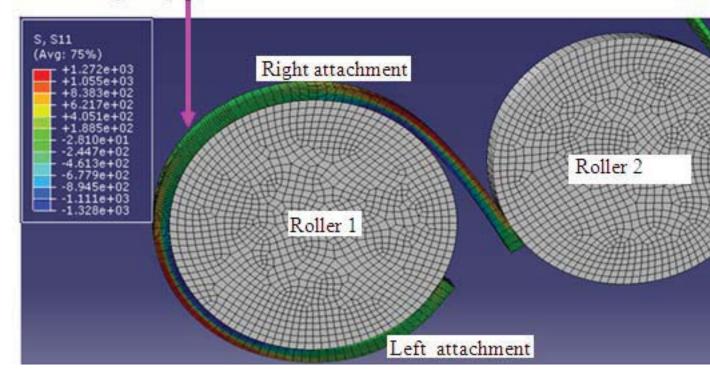


Figure 5:

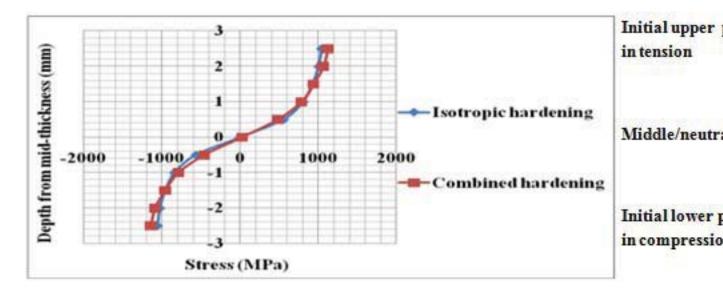


Figure 6:

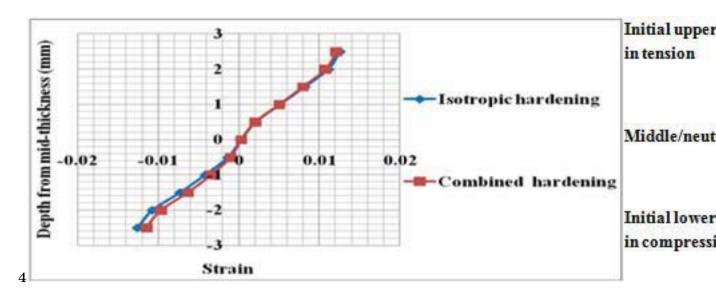
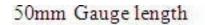


Figure 7: Figure 4 :



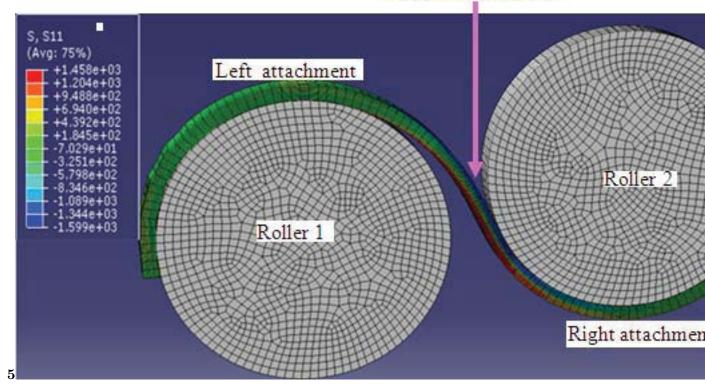
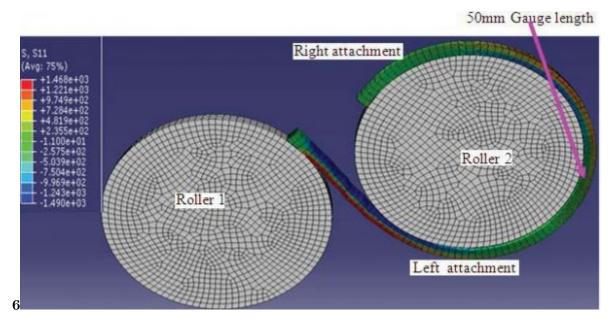
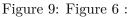


Figure 8: Figure 5 :





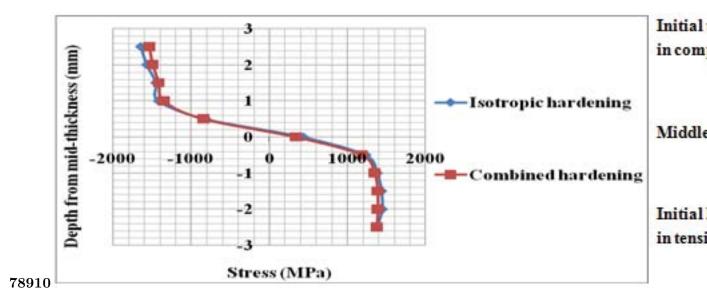


Figure 10: Figure 7 : Figure 8 : Figure 9 : Figure 10 :

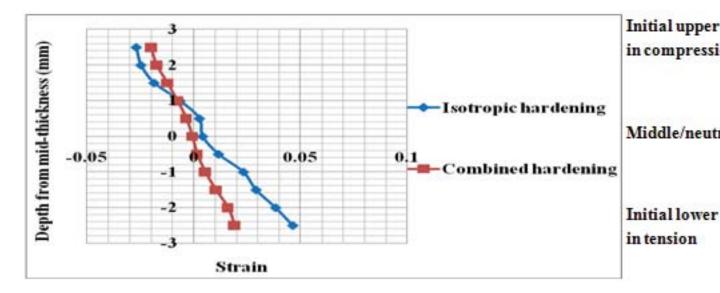


Figure 11:

12 CONCLUSION

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