Tough-brittle transition in the planar fracture of unidirectional fiber composites

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The transverse fracture of model unidirectional composite specimen, comprising up to 2^{20} fibers with random strengths, is studied using Monte Carlo simulations. The load sharing from broken to intact fibers is assumed to obey power-law scaling $\sim r^{-\gamma}$ with distance r from the fiber break. Fiber breaks are assumed to interact in order to remain traction free. The pattern of fiber breaks that propagate catastrophically is interpreted through cluster analysis. The empirical strength distributions obtained from the simulations are interpreted using two probabilistic models of brittle fracture available in the literature. These point to a transition from the brittle to the tough fracture mode as $\gamma \downarrow 2$. The transitional γ is approximately equal to that reported in the literature for noninteracting fiber breaks.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Unidirectional fiber composites loaded in uniaxial tension along the fiber direction are model heterogeneous materials. In general, the fracture of these materials entails the formation of fiber breaks, matrix cracks, and interfacial debonds in three dimensions [1,2]. However, in polymer matrix unidirectional composites with a well-bonded fiber-matrix interface, it is reasonable to treat the fracture process as being localized in a plane transverse to the fiber direction by (i) regarding the composite as a chain of independent longitudinal segments [3,4], the failure of one of which amounts to composite failure, and (ii) by conservatively assuming that fiber breaks in each segment occur in a common transverse plane [5,6]. The assumption of fracture processes being confined to a transverse plane has often been used in the literature [6-10]to study the modes of development of fracture and to obtain the strength distributions of heterogeneous materials. This assumption is adopted in the present study also.

It is clear from the foregoing studies that the fracture mode depends on the variability of fiber strengths. The fiber length relevant to the present two-dimensional setting is one segment long. Taking this length to be unity, and assuming the normalized fiber strengths to be Weibull [11] distributed, the distribution function for the random fiber strength, Σ , is given by:

$$F(\sigma) = \Pr\{\Sigma < \sigma\} = 1 - \exp(-\sigma^{\rho}), \tag{1}$$

where $\rho > 0$ is termed the Weibull modulus.

Besides the fiber strength variability, fracture development and strength distribution of two-dimensional unidirectional composite bundles also depends sensitively on the load redistribution among the surviving fibers due to fiber failure [7,8,10,12], i.e., the load-sharing rule. Equal load sharing (ELS) and local load sharing (LLS) are limiting load-sharing

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rules. In ELS, the load dropped by a broken fiber is distributed equally among all the surviving fibers. In ELS composites subjected to monotonically increasing tensile load, the locations of fiber breaks are uncorrelated, and the fracture mode is tough. ELS composite strength obeys a Gaussian distribution [13]. In LLS, the load dropped by the broken fibers is distributed entirely among their nearest intact neighbors. Under LLS, fiber break positions are highly correlated, and the composite suffers brittle fracture, regardless of the scatter in the random tensile strengths of the fibers. That is, fracture proceeds by the catastrophic growth of a localized cluster of breaks. Composite strength obeys weakest-link scaling, and a probabilistic model for the weakest-link event is known [9,14,15].

It is clear from the above that the fracture mode transitions from tough to brittle when the load sharing changes from ELS to LLS. The precise location of the transition, for various interpolation schemes between ELS and LLS, has been studied in the literature. Hidalgo *et al.* [7] considered a square patch with periodic boundary conditions. In a patch with only one broken fiber, they assumed that the stress concentration, K(r), in a surviving fiber distant r from the broken fiber obeys the power law

$$K(r) = 1 + c r^{-\gamma},$$
 (2)

where $\gamma \ge 0$. Parameter *c* is obtained by demanding that the stress overloads (i.e., stress concentrations less unity) add up to unity, i.e.,

$$\sum_{r>0} (K(r) - 1) = 1, \text{ i.e., } c = \left[\sum_{r>0} r^{-\gamma}\right]^{-1}.$$
 (3)

It is clear that $c = c(\gamma, N)$ depends on the load-sharing exponent and the system size. The overload profile in Eq. (2) coincides with ELS for $\gamma = 0$ and with LLS for $\gamma \to \infty$. Hidalgo *et al.* [7] and Roy *et al.* [10] found that brittle fracture is obtained for $\gamma \gtrsim 2.17$, while tough characteristics are obtained for smaller γ .

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In an infinite patch, the summation of Eq. (3) can be approximated as:

$$c = \left[\sum_{r=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{r^{\gamma}} (2\pi r)\right]^{-1} \sim \left[\sum_{r=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{r^{\gamma-1}}\right]^{-1}.$$
 (4)

The latter sum converges for $\gamma > 2$, so that *c* is independent of *N* for sufficiently large *N*. For $\gamma \leq 2$, however, the sum in the right side of Eq. (4) diverges. This means that in a finite simulation cell with *N* fibers, $c \downarrow 0$ with increasing *N*. The overload profile due to a single break thus depends not only on the power-law exponent, γ , but also on the simulation cell size, *N*, even for large *N* if $\gamma \leq 2$.

Another interpolation scheme between the ELS and LLS limits is due to Pradhan *et al.* [8]. In their mixed-mode load-sharing scheme, a fraction $g \in [0, 1]$ of the load dropped by the broken fiber is distributed equally among its nearest neighbors. The remainder, 1 - g, is distributed equally among all the surviving fibers. Clearly, the limits g = 0 and g = 1 correspond to the ELS and LLS limits. Pradhan *et al.* [8] showed that the tough-brittle transition for their model occurred at $g \approx 0.79$.

Roy *et al.* [10] have also proposed an interpolation scheme between ELS and LLS in two dimensions. In their scheme, the load of the broken fiber is distributed to surviving fibers in a rectangular region including the fiber to a specified distance *R*. This scheme, too, approximately interpolates between ELS and LLS as *R* decreases from ∞ to 1. Roy *et al.* [10] found that the phase space spanned by fiber strength variability, and *R* was subdivided into six regions, which they termed brittle nucleating, brittle percolating, quasibrittle nucleating, quasibrittle percolating, high disorder limit, and temporally uncorrelated. Each phase describes a separate mode of fracture development.

Hidalgo *et al.* [7] and Roy *et al.* [10] assumed that the stress overload induced by a set of broken fibers at an intact fiber is simply the sum of the stress overloads due to the individual breaks. This assumption produces nonzero tractions at the fiber breaks, when more than one fiber is broken in the simulation cell. In physical composites, however, breaks interact to ensure zero traction at the fiber breaks. The opening displacement of each break is altered by the presence of the other breaks, which is accounted for in the Hedgepeth model [16,17]. Accounting for the interaction between breaks is also essential to capture the inverse square root decay of the stress fields with distance from the crack tip, composed of a large number of fiber breaks, in agreement with linear elastic fracture mechanics [5].

In the model of Pradhan *et al.* [8], too, fiber breaks do not interact. In this scheme, although zero traction is realized at fiber breaks, the stress state ahead of a large cluster of breaks does not follow the inverse square root decay with distance from the crack tip. Also, two fiber breaks that do not have a common neighboring intact fiber, produce equal overload on their neighbors, regardless of the distance between the breaks, which is different from the response of an interacting elastic system [16–19].

On the one hand, the assumption of noninteraction between fiber breaks in the models of Hidalgo *et al.* [7], Pradhan *et al.* [8], and Roy *et al.* [10] makes the fracture simulations computationally light and enables these studies to access large system sizes. On the other hand, the load-sharing rules in these works is not representative of physically important elastic systems, such as fiber composites. Studies of the fracture modes in elastic systems, on the other hand, have been limited to small system sizes of the order of a few thousand fibers, to keep the computational effort tractable [6,20]. While these studies are able to identify the brittle fracture mode as such, it is not clear whether the tough modes observed represent size-independent response or are an artifact of limited system size [6].

In recent work, an algorithm based on the fast Fourier transform has been developed to simulate fracture of a twodimensional transverse plane [21,22]. These simulations are asymptotically faster than the classical simulations and can access composite bundles composed of millions of fibers, while accounting for elastic interactions between fiber breaks. Also, although Gupta *et al.* [21] and Mahesh *et al.* [22] assumed Hedgepeth load sharing, the methodology developed therein can be applied to arbitrary load-sharing rules, including Eq. (2). These advantages mitigate the simulation cell size limitations of fracture simulations in elastic composites [6,19] and open up the possibility of exploring the tough-brittle transition through fracture simulations.

As in Hidalgo *et al.* [7], Pradhan *et al.* [8], and Roy *et al.* [10], it is attempted in the present work to identify the γ^* at which the tough-brittle transition occurs in the transverse fracture of unidirectional composites. The difference between those works, and the present one is that the elastic interactions among fiber breaks is accounted for, so that fiber breaks in the present work are traction free. The stress concentration at the edge of a cluster of interacting fiber breaks is greater than the simple sum of the stress concentrations induced by noninteracting fiber breaks [6,17,19]. The increased stress concentration may promote the brittle fracture mode and may thereby decrease the value of γ^* .

In Sec. II, the simulation methodology, cluster analysis tools, and probabilistic models are recollected. Empirical strength distributions obtained from the simulations are presented in Sec. III and interpreted using the probabilistic model based on tight cluster growth [9]. The use of probabilistic fracture models to identify the tough-brittle transition is a novel feature of the present work. Of central importance in this analysis is the size of the critical cluster of fiber breaks, which triggers catastrophic crack growth. It is shown that the size of the critical cluster scales as the system size for $\gamma \approx 2$ but scales slower than the system size for $\gamma > 2$. This points to a tough-brittle transition very near $\gamma = 2$, even when fiber breaks interactions are accounted for.

II. FRACTURE MODES

A. Computational

1. Fracture simulations

Monte Carlo simulations are performed in rhombus-shaped patches representing a transverse cross section of the fiber composite. The transverse cross section is composed of $N = v \times v$ fibers, as shown in Fig. 1. N is termed the system size. The *m*-*n* coordinate system to locate fibers in the simulation



FIG. 1. A rhombus-shaped periodic simulation cell of $v \times v$ fibers arranged in a hexagonal lattice showing the *m-n* coordinate system.

cell is also shown. Periodic conditions are imposed so that the row of fibers at the left and right edges (m = 0 and m = v - 1) are neighbors. Similarly, the fibers at the bottom and top edges (n = 0 and n = v - 1) are also considered neighbors. The periodic boundary conditions ensure that the stress concentrations induced by a single break is translation invariant, i.e., only the separation between the broken fiber and a surviving fiber is important for determining the stress concentration in the latter, due to the former, and not the absolute positions of the two fibers. This property makes the matrix $[\Lambda]$, whose element Λ_{mnpq} represents the stress overload in fiber (p, q)due to a fiber break at (m, n), circulant in two modes [23]. The circulance of $[\Lambda]$ enables it to be diagonalized asymptotically faster in Fourier space than in real space, as detailed in Gupta et al. [21], and enables an asymptotically faster solution for the opening displacements at the fiber breaks.

The computational time of the Monte Carlo simulations can also be decreased by a considerable factor by noticing that in a two-dimensional simulation cell, the stress overload in a surviving fiber increases monotonically with the number of fiber breaks. This enables the determination of the ultimate tensile strength of the simulation cell to any desired accuracy using successive bisection. If the ultimate tensile strength of the composite can be bracketed tightly, then this proves to be much faster than the commonly followed approach [6,24] of gradually increasing the applied load up to the point of catastrophic crack growth, as detailed in Mahesh *et al.* [22].

For each Weibull exponent ρ , and system size, N, N_{sim} statistically identical composite specimen are generated by assigning fiber strengths drawn from Eq. (1). Let $\bar{\sigma}_{(i)}$ denote the strength of the *i*th weakest specimen for $i \in \{1, 2, ..., N_{\text{sim}}\}$. The empirical strength distribution, $G_N(\sigma_{(i)}; \gamma, \rho)$ is then defined as

$$G_N(\sigma_{(i)};\gamma,\rho) = \frac{i-1/2}{N_{\rm sim}},\tag{5}$$

2. Cluster analysis

The fracture mode—tough or brittle—can sometimes be identified visually by examining snapshots of fracture development [6]. Clustering together of breaks into a critical cluster, and their propagation suggests brittle fracture. However, seemingly disperse fiber breakage can also cause brittle fracture [22]. Visual identification of the fracture mode may thus be erroneous.

Kun *et al.* [25], Roy *et al.* [10], Hidalgo *et al.* [7], Pradhan *et al.* [8], and others have used a quantitative method to identify the fracture mode, based on cluster analysis. In this method, the frequency f(s) of clusters of fiber breaks of size *s* is obtained just before catastrophic crack growth begins. The moments of f(s), defined as:

$$M_k = \sum_s s^k f(s), \tag{6}$$

are calculated for $k \in \{0, 1, 2, ...\}$. M_0 and M_1 represent the number of clusters, and the number of broken fibers, respectively. Hidalgo *et al.* [7] have identified the γ at which M_2/M_1 achieves a maximum with the brittle-ductile mode transition.

In the present setting, cluster analysis has been implemented using the classical Hoshen and Kopelman [26] and union-find [27, Sec. 22.3] algorithms. As noted in Sec. II A 1, composite strength is determined presently by a bracketing procedure. The lower end point of the bracket signifies a load level at which the model composite survives. Cluster frequencies, f(s), are calculated or recalculated at the lower end point whenever it is set or updated. The f(s) when the simulation terminates characterize the computational critical cluster, which propagates to rupture the remaining fibers. The moments, M_k , are calculated from f(s), and the values of M_k are averaged across the Monte Carlo simulations.

B. Probabilistic models

The empirical strength distributions obtained from the Monte Carlo simulations will be interpreted using the probabilistic models of composite fracture, recalled below.

1. Tough mode

The prototypical example of a unidirectional tough composite is the loose bundle of threads studied by Daniels [13]. The load dropped by a broken fiber is redistributed equally among all the surviving fibers in a loose bundle of threads, following ELS. Qualitatively, in a tough composite, fracture occurs by the linking up of multiple clusters of fiber breaks spatially distributed over the entire cross section. The number of fiber breaks in these clusters is comparable to the total number of fibers in the composite.

Consider a loose bundle of M threads, whose strengths are Weibull [11] distributed, following Eq. (1). Then the classical result of Daniels [13] states that as $M \to \infty$, the bundle strength per fiber, $E_M(\sigma)$, is Gaussian distributed:

$$E_M(\sigma) = \Phi\left(\frac{\sigma - \mu_M}{\sigma_M}\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_M^2}} \exp\left[-\frac{(\sigma - \mu_M)^2}{2\sigma_M^2}\right],$$
(7)

for $i \in \{1, 2, ..., N_{sim}\}$.

with mean bundle strength [24],

$$\mu_M = (1/\rho)^{(1/\rho)} \exp(-1/\rho), \tag{8}$$

and standard deviation,

$$\sigma_M = \sqrt{\exp(-1/\rho)[1 - \exp(-1/\rho)]/n}.$$
 (9)

Equation (7) is a good approximation of the bundle strength for large M. For smaller M, McCartney and Smith [28] have proposed a recursive formula for the strength of the M bundle,

$$E_{M}(\sigma) = \{F(\sigma'_{M-1})\}^{M} - \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} \binom{M}{k} \Pi^{(k)} \{F(\sigma'_{M-1}) - F(\sigma'_{k})\}^{M-k}.$$
(10)

In Eq. (10), $F(\cdot)$ is given by Eq. (1),

$$\Pi^{(k)} = \{F(\sigma'_{k-1})\}^m - \sum_{l=0}^{k-1} \binom{k}{l} \Pi^{(l)} \{F(\sigma'_{k-1}) - F(\sigma'_l)\}^{k-l},$$

 $\binom{k}{l} = k!/(k!(k-l)!), \quad \sigma'_k = M\sigma/(M-k), \text{ and } \Pi^{(0)} = 1.$ This formula becomes too computationally intensive and prone to floating point truncation errors to use beyond about M = 100. Presently, therefore, the strength distribution is taken to follow Eq. (7) for M > 100 and to follow Eq. (10) for $1 \le M \le 100$.

The ELS bundle has been investigated extensively in the literature. Much is known about the fracture characteristics of ELS bundles, including the scaling of avalanche sizes and energy released. These results may be found in Hansen *et al.* ([29], Chaps. 2, and 3).

2. Brittle mode

The fracture of the composite bundle exhibits a brittle character when a localized cluster of fiber breaks forms and propagates catastrophically. The number of fiber breaks in the localized cluster is much smaller than that in the composite. Let $G_N(\sigma; \gamma, \rho)$ denote the empirical strength distribution, obtained from the Monte Carlo simulations, and defined in Eq. (5). Following Harlow and Phoenix [14], an unequivocal signature of the brittle mode is that the weakest-link empirical strength distribution,

$$W_N(\sigma;\gamma,\rho) = 1 - [1 - G_N(\sigma;\gamma,\rho)]^{1/N},$$
 (11)

is independent of the number of fibers, *N*. Pictorially, the existence of a weakest-link failure event is confirmed by the collapse of plots of $W_N(\sigma; \gamma, \rho)$ for different system sizes *N* into a common master curve. If W_N were independent of *N*, it is reasonable to write $W(\sigma; \gamma, \rho)$, which now denotes the system-size independent strength distribution of the weakest-link failure event.

Two models available in the literature for predicting $W_N(\sigma; \gamma, \rho)$, viz., the Curtin [20] model, and the tight cluster growth model [9,22,30], are now summarized.

Curtin [20] proposed that composite failure occurs when at least one of N/N_c , $1 \le N_c \le N$ events occurs, the event being the failure of an N_c bundle of fibers obeying ELS. Accordingly, the composite strength distribution, $G_N(\sigma; \gamma, \rho)$, is related to the strength distribution of the weakest-link event



FIG. 2. Schematic representation of the failure event hypothesized to be the weakest-link event by the tight cluster growth model. The composite cross section is viewed as a patch-work of bundles. In this figure, each bundle is composed of 19 fibers, obeying equal-load sharing. The failure of a bundle, labeled ①, causes an overload in its six neighbors. Under this overload, one of them (bundle ②) fails. The overloads due to the pair of failed bundles leads to the failure of bundle ③, and so on.

given by Eq. (7) through:

$$G_N(\sigma;\gamma,\rho) = 1 - \left[1 - E_{N_c}(\sigma;\mu'_{N_c})\right]^{N/N_c}.$$
 (12)

Here $E_{N_c}(\sigma; \mu'_{N_c})$ denotes the strength distribution of an N_c fiber ELS bundle, with $M = N_c$, and standard deviation given by Eq. (9). The mean, μ'_{N_c} , of $E_{N_c}(\sigma; \mu'_{N_c})$ generally differs from that given by Eq. (8). The shifted mean, μ'_{N_c} , and the size of the weakest link, N_c , are the two parameters of the Curtin [20] model.

It follows from Eqs. (11) and (12) that

$$W_N(\sigma;\gamma,\rho) = 1 - \left[1 - E_{N_c}(\sigma)\right]^{1/N_c}.$$
 (13)

The Curtin [20] model regards the N_c cluster of fiber breaks as the nucleus of brittle fracture; fibers ahead of this cluster are assumed to break almost surely, i.e., with probability 1.

The following procedure is used to fit the parameters of the Curtin [20] model. For each $N'_c \in \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$, the empirical distribution, $1 - [1 - G_N(\sigma_{(i)}; \gamma, \rho)]^{N'_c/N}$, is plotted on Gaussian probability coordinates. The empirical distribution is assumed Gaussian distributed, and a minimum least-squares straight line is fit to it. The reciprocal of the slope of this straight line gives the standard deviation of the empirical distribution. The empirical standard deviation so obtained is compared with the standard deviation of the Daniels distribution, Eq. (9), with $M = N'_c$. The N'_c for which the relative error between the empirical and Daniels standard deviations is the least is considered the best fit. The corresponding N'_c is taken to be N_c . With N_c fit, μ'_{N_c} is fixed by determining the translation to be applied to the mean of the model predicted strength distribution so that it matches the mean of the empirical strength distribution.

The second model of interest is called the tight cluster growth model [9,22,30]. The development of the weakest-link event, according to this model, is depicted schematically in Fig. 2. Here, neighboring ELS bundles, each composed of M fibers, hereafter termed M bundles, fail sequentially. The sequence begins with the failure of one M bundle, labeled ① in the schematic Fig. 2. The failure of this M bundle overloads

its six neighboring ELS bundles. The second step involves the failure of one of these overloaded ELS M bundles, say, \mathbf{Q} , due to the overload. The third step involves the failure of one of the overloaded neighbors of the pair of M bundles ① and 2, and so on. Growth of the cluster of bundles in this manner has been termed "tight cluster growth" [6].

Let $N_i^{(M,N)}$ denote the number of overloaded neighboring *M* bundles surrounding a tight cluster of *j M* bundles, in a composite composed of *N* fibers. Let $N_0^{(M)} \equiv 1$. Let $K_j^{(M,N)}$ denote the stress concentration imposed by this tight cluster on its neighbors. Let $K_0 \equiv 1$. Then, assuming the successive steps of tight cluster growth are approximately independent, the probability of tight cluster growth, $W^{(M,N)}(\sigma; \gamma, \rho)$, can be written as:

$$W^{(M,N)}(\sigma;\gamma,\rho) = \prod_{j=0}^{\lfloor N/M \rfloor - 1} \left\{ 1 - \left[1 - E^{(M)} \left(K_j^{(M,N)} \sigma \right) \right]^{N_j^{(M,N)}} \right\}.$$
(14)

 $W^{(M,N)}(\sigma; \gamma, \rho)$ depends on γ through the stress concentrations, $K_j^{(M,N)}$, and on ρ through $E^{(M)}(\cdot)$. The upper limit on the index j, $\lfloor N/M \rfloor - 1$ indicates the number of M bundles that can fit into the simulation cell of size N. The tight cluster growth model thus directly accounts for the finiteness of the system.

Although $K_j^{(M,N)}$, and $N_j^{(M,N)}$ can be evaluated directly following Gupta *et al.* [21], an approximation is presently used to speed up the evaluation of Eq. (14). Consider a tight cluster of j fiber breaks in a simulation cell composed of N/Mfibers. The problems of j M bundles, and j single breaks, differ only in terms of size scale. Also, $K_j^{(M)}$ and $N_j^{(M)}$ are nondimensional quantities. Therefore, it is presently assumed that

$$K_j^{(M,N)} = K_j^{(1,N/M)}, \text{ and } N_j^{(M)} = N_j^{(1,N/M)}.$$
 (15)

Now N/M in Eq. (15) need not, in general, be a square number and may therefore not fit in a rhombus-shaped patch, Fig. 1. Also, it is computationally advantageous if the system size were an even power of 2 [21]. The approximations

$$K_j^{(M,N)} \approx K_j^{(1,N_1)}$$
 and $N_j^{(M,N)} \approx N_j^{(1,N_1)}$, (16)

with $N_1 = 2^{2[\log_2 \sqrt{N/M}]}$, address these issues. Here $[\cdot]$ denotes rounding off to the nearest natural number. $K_j^{(1,N_1)}$ can be directly evaluated following Gupta *et al.* [21]. To evaluate $N_j^{(1,N_1)}$, the tight cluster of *j* breaks is associated with radius, *R*, given by

$$j = \pi R^2. \tag{17}$$

The intact neighbors of a tight cluster of radius R are taken to be those fibers that are broken in a tight cluster of radius R + 1 but not in one of radius R. The number of neighbors can be determined by a simple geometric calculation and is plotted in Fig. 3. It is seen that

$$N_j^{(1)} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \times 2\pi R = 4\sqrt{\frac{\pi j}{3}}$$
(18)

captures the empirical scaling very well, provided $j \ll N_1$. However, if $j \approx N_1$, then the number of neighbors will be limited by the system size and is better approximated as $N_i^{(1)} =$



FIG. 3. The number of intact neighbors of penny-shaped clusters of fiber breaks obeys Eq. (18). The system size, $N_1 = 2^{20}$, is much larger than the size of the largest cluster considered.

 $N_1 - j$. Both possibilities are approximately accounted for by taking

$$N_i^{(1,N_1)} = \min(4\sqrt{\pi j/3}, N_1 - j).$$
⁽¹⁹⁾

This concludes the discussion of the parameters appearing in Eq. (14).

Let the composite cross section be *a priori* partitioned into N/M M bundles. Assuming the weakest-link event may initiate from any of these bundles with equal likelihood implies that

$$G_N(\sigma;\gamma,\rho) = 1 - [1 - W^{(M,N)}(\sigma;\gamma,\rho)]^{N/M}.$$
 (20)

Comparing Eqs. (11) and (14) shows that

$$W_N(\sigma;\gamma,\rho) = 1 - [1 - W^{(M,N)}(\sigma;\gamma,\rho)]^{1/M}.$$
 (21)

The case M = N represents a degenerate condition, wherein a single *M* bundle occupies the entire composite cross section. In this case, Eqs. (14) and (20) reduce to $G_N(\sigma) = E_M(\sigma)$, where $E_M(\sigma)$ is given by either Eq. (7) or (10). The tight cluster growth model reduces to the Curtin [20] model if only the first factor were retained in the product of Eq. (14). It reduces to the tight cluster growth model of Mahesh *et al.* [6] by setting $M \equiv 1$.

The tight cluster growth model is more complex than the Curtin [20] model. First, it requires the direct calculation of $K_i^{(M,N)}$, as described above. The Curtin [20] model does not require any stress concentration calculations. Second, the tight cluster growth model requires the evaluation of a product in Eq. (14). This may be computationally intensive, particularly if the individual factors must be evaluated using the McCartney and Smith [28] recursion, Eq. (10).

In return for the added complexity, the tight cluster growth requires only that a single parameter, M, be fit. M may be regarded as the counterpart of the fitting parameter N_c in the Curtin [20] model. There is no analog of the Curtin [20] model fitting parameter, μ'_{N_c} , in the tight cluster growth model.



FIG. 4. Variation of the moment ratio, M_2/M_1 , averaged over all the simulations. Solid lines correspond to system size, $N = 2^{20}$, and dashed lines to $N = 2^{14}$.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Monte Carlo fracture simulations have been run on $N_{\text{sim}} = 256$ computer specimen with system sizes, $N \in \{2^{14}, 2^{16}, 2^{18}, 2^{20}\}$, for each Weibull exponent $\rho \in \{1, 2, 3, 5, 10\}$ and for each load-sharing power-law exponent $\gamma \in \{0, 1, 1.5, 2, 2.05, 2.1, 2.2, 2.5, 3\}$. Of these γ , only those in the range $2 < \gamma \leq 3$ represent physical load-sharing rules in elastic composites, as noted in Eq. (4). Therefore, attention is focused on this range. This range is of interest also because Hidalgo *et al.* [7] and Roy *et al.* [10] observed a transition within it.

Cluster moments M_k , defined in Eq. (6) have been recorded at the point of catastrophic crack propagation from each of these simulations. Specimen strengths are also recorded, and the empirical strength distributions, $G_N(\sigma_{(i)}; \gamma, \rho)$, are derived using Eq. (5).

A. Cluster statistics

As noted in Sec. II A 2, Kun *et al.* [25], Hidalgo *et al.* [7], Pradhan *et al.* [8], and Roy *et al.* [10] have used cluster analysis to quantitatively identify the parametric value corresponding to the tough-brittle transition in systems wherein fiber breaks are assumed to be noninteracting. Of these studies, Hidalgo *et al.* [7] and Roy *et al.* ([10], Fig. 7) have considered power-law load sharing. The former work assumes Weibull-distributed strengths, with $\rho = 2$, while the latter assume uniform or power-law distributed fiber strengths. They locate the transition at $\gamma = 2.17$ and $\gamma = 2.15$, respectively. The proximity of the transition point despite quite different fiber strength distributions suggests its robustness.

Figure 4 shows the variation of the moment ratio, M_2/M_1 with γ for all the presently studied ρ and for two simulation cell sizes, $N = 2^{14}$ and $N = 2^{20}$. For $2 \le \rho \le 10$, M_2/M_1 maximizes at $\gamma \gtrsim 2$, with the maximum moving from $\gamma =$ 2 for $\rho = 10$ to $\gamma = 2.2$ for $\rho = 2$. When $\rho = 1$, M_2/M_1 increases from $\gamma = 3$ to $\gamma = 2.5$ and remains nearly constant over $0 \le \gamma \le 2.5$. That is, the largest γ at which M_2/M_1 maximizes increases with decreasing ρ . These observations hold for both simulation cell sizes. Applying the criterion of Hidalgo *et al.* [7] and Roy *et al.* [10] to the present results, it is found that the toughbrittle transition occurs at $\gamma = 2$ for $\rho = 10$ and monotonically increases to $\gamma = 2.5$ for $\rho = 1$. The γ at which the presently obtained M_2/M_1 maximize are comparable to those of Hidalgo *et al.* [7] and Roy *et al.* [10]. It is speculated that for still smaller $\rho < 1$, the transitional γ will increase further toward $\gamma = 3$. However, the present results do not clearly indicate if the transitional γ will decrease with increasing system size, N, for fixed ρ . This is because the same transitional γ is presently obtained for both the largest and smallest system sizes studied for all ρ . Much larger simulations than those presently feasible will be required to resolve this question through cluster analysis.

B. Strength distributions

Figure 5 shows the empirical strength distributions for $\gamma \in \{3, 2.5, 2\}$ composites with $\rho \in \{10, 1\}$ in Gaussian probability coordinates. These are compared with the best fit lines obtained from the Curtin [20] model. It is seen that in every case, the Curtin [20] model fits the empirical distributions very well. Model parameters N_c and μ'_{N_c} are fit following the procedure given in Sec. II B 2. However, only the parameter N_c , which is important to understand the tough-brittle transition, is listed in the legends.

Figure 5(a) corresponds to the most localized load sharing, with the least fiber strength variability, among the cases shown in Fig. 5. In this case, the Curtin [20] model fits the empirical strength distributions of variously sized simulation cells within a relatively narrow range $64 \le N_c \le 96$. As the load sharing becomes less localized with decreasing γ , the strength distributions approach the corresponding ELS distributions. Thus, for $\gamma = 3$, good fits are obtained using $N_c \ll N$, for both ρ considered. For $\gamma \approx 2$, good fits are obtained only with $N_c \lesssim N$.

In Fig. 6, the same empirical distributions as those in Fig. 5 are fit to the tight cluster growth model, in Weibull probability coordinates. Again, it is seen that in all the cases, good fits are obtained with the tight cluster growth model. The parameter, M, is fit for each γ , and ρ ; its value is listed in the legends.

The weakest-link strength distributions corresponding to different N collapse onto a single master curve only in Fig. 6(a) for $\gamma = 3$, $\rho = 10$, with M = 25. For all the other cases shown, the classical collapse of the weakest-link distributions into a common master curve [6,14] is not observed.

Both the Curtin [20] and tight cluster growth models are thus able to fit the empirical strength distributions very well. This is true not only in the probability range of interest but also in lower the tail of the distribution (not shown). It is known that the predictions of the two models agree for Hedgepeth load sharing, which corresponds to $\gamma = 3$ [30]. The present result extends this conclusion to less localized load-sharing rules, viz., $\gamma \leq 3$, also.

The parameter M of the tight cluster growth model is always smaller than N_c of the Curtin [20] model. This is to be expected since M is the size of the initiating cluster leading up to fracture, while N_c is the size of the propagating cluster. However, M is significantly smaller than N only in Figs. 5(a)-5(c) and Figs. 6(a)-6(c). In Figs. 5(d)-5(f) and



FIG. 5. Empirical strength distributions of $\gamma \in \{3, 2, 1\}$, $\rho \in \{10, 1\}$ load-sharing bundles plotted on Gaussian probability coordinates and fit with the Curtin [20] model. Each plot shows the empirical strength distribution of $N \in \{2^{14}, 2^{16}, 2^{18}, 2^{20}\}$ composites with yellow, blue, red, and black dots. The model fitting parameter, N_c , is listed in the legends.

Figs. 6(d)–6(f), $M \approx N_c$. In the latter cases, the weakest-link product of Eq. (14) in the tight cluster growth model also converges after just one factor, j = 1. These observations suggest that with decreasing γ and ρ , fracture development in the tight cluster growth model approaches that of the Curtin [20] model.

C. Tough-brittle transition

 N_c/N in the Curtin [20] model represents the fraction of fibers from which brittle fracture develops. Figure 7 shows

the variation of N_c/N with system size, N on log-log scale for $\rho = 10$ and $\rho = 1$. The points denote the values of N_c/N . Lines obtained by least-squares fitting are also shown. N_c/N shows a decreasing trend for $2.1 \le \gamma \le 3$ in Fig. 7(a), which corresponds to $\rho = 10$, implying that the size of cluster of fiber breaks from which brittle fracture initiates scales slower than the system size. This suggests that brittle fracture, i.e., catastrophic crack growth from a localized N_c -fiber break nucleus will occur for $2.1 \le \gamma \le 3$, as the system size, $N \uparrow \infty$. For $\gamma = 2.05$, neither a clear decreasing nor a clear increasing trend is seen. It is therefore, not possible to decide whether



FIG. 6. Empirical strength distributions of $\gamma \in \{3, 2.5, 2\}$, $\rho \in \{10, 1\}$ load-sharing bundles plotted on Weibull probability coordinates, and fit with the tight cluster growth model. Each plot shows the empirical strength distribution of $N \in \{2^{14}, 2^{16}, 2^{18}, 2^{20}\}$ composites with yellow, blue, red, and black dots, respectively. The model fitting parameter *M* is listed in the legends.

the $\gamma = 2.05$, $\rho = 10$ specimen will fail by the tough or brittle mode. For $\gamma = 2$, however, N_c/N shows an increasing trend with N, implying that the size of the cluster of fiber breaks from which brittle fracture initiates grows faster than the system size. This indicates the tough fracture mode, with $N_c/N \uparrow 1$ with increasing N. The Curtin [20] model thus predicts a tough-brittle transition for $\rho = 10$ for some $\gamma \in$ [2.0, 2.1]. Similar considerations, applied to Fig. 7(b), corresponding to $\rho = 1$, reveals a tough-brittle transition at some $\gamma \in [2.1, 2.2]$. Interestingly, this transitional parameter value range includes that ($\gamma \approx 2.17$) obtained by Hidalgo *et al.* [7] and Roy *et al.* [10], assuming no interaction between the fiber breaks for fiber Weibull exponent $\rho = 2$.

In the tight cluster growth model, M/N denotes the fraction of fibers from which brittle fracture may develop. The



FIG. 7. The scaling of the fraction of the Curtin [20] model bundle size, N_c/N , with system size N for various γ for (a) $\rho = 10$ and (b) $\rho = 1$ composites.

variation of M/N with system size, N on log-log scale for $\rho = 10$, and $\rho = 1$ are shown in Fig. 8. Again, the points denote the calculated values of M/N, and the lines are obtained by linear least-squares fitting the points. For $\rho = 10$, a decreasing trend of M/N with N can be seen in Fig. 8(a) for $2.05 \leq \gamma \leq 3$, which indicates the brittle failure mode. The M/N corresponding to $\gamma = 2$, however, shows an increasing trend with N, which again points to the tough mode. The tough-brittle transition must therefore occur over the interval $\gamma \in [2, 2.05]$. In Fig. 8(b), for $\rho = 1$, the $\gamma = 2.1$ and 2.05 lines are nearly horizontal. The scatter of the data points about their least-squares lines is also significant. Therefore, the fracture mode in these cases is ambiguous. For $\gamma = 2$, however, a positive slope, and therefore the tough mode is clearly indicated.

Table I summarizes the γ^* range over which the toughbrittle transition is predicted by cluster analysis, by the Curtin [20] model, and by the tight cluster growth model.





FIG. 8. The scaling of the fraction of the tight cluster growth model bundle size, M/N, with system size N for various γ for (a) $\rho = 10$ and (b) $\rho = 1$ composites.

Regardless of the method, the γ^* range is wider for the smaller Weibull exponent, $\rho = 1$, than for $\rho = 10$. Also, for fixed ρ , the latter two methods, based on analyzing the strength distribution provide tighter bounds on the transitional γ^* . It seems plausible that the γ^* ranges can be further narrowed if fracture simulations could be performed on even larger

TABLE I. Ranges of the power-law load-sharing exponent, γ^* , over which the tough-brittle transition is predicted to occur by the three approaches. ρ denotes the Weibull exponent of the fiber strengths.

	$\rho = 10$	$\rho = 1$
Cluster analysis	$\gamma^* \in [2.0, 2.1]$	$\gamma^* \in [2.0, 2.5]$
Curtin [20] model	$\gamma^* \in [2.0, 2.1]$	$\gamma^* \in [2.0, 2.2]$
Tight cluster growth model	$\gamma^* \in [2.00, 2.05]$	$\gamma^* \in [2.0, 2.2]$



FIG. 9. Empirical strength distributions obtained from Monte Carlo simulations with load-sharing exponent $\gamma \in \{0, 1, 1.5, 2\}$. The first row corresponds to $\rho = 10$ and the second row to $\rho = 1$. The first and second columns correspond to system sizes $N = 2^{14}$ and 2^{20} , respectively.

system sizes, $N > 2^{20}$. It is speculated that for large-enough $N, \gamma^* \downarrow 2$, for all Weibull exponents ρ .

to $\gamma = 0, 1$, and 1.5 are observed to overlap. The distribution corresponding to $\gamma = 2$ is also to seen to approach that for $\gamma = 0$ with increasing N but not to overlap.

D. The load-sharing regime $0 \leq \gamma \leq 2$

It was noted in connection with Eq. (4) that the regime $0 \le \gamma \le 2$ cannot be realized in physical elastic composites, because the load redistribution in this regime also depends on system size, *N*. In this regime, the increasing trend of $N_c/N \uparrow 1$ and $M/N \uparrow 1$ with system size *N*, observed for $\gamma = 2$ in Figs. 7 and 8 can be expected to hold. Thus, for sufficiently large *N*, the strength distributions of these composites will be given by Eq. (7), derived for ELS bundles [13].

The convergence of the $0 < \gamma \leq 2$ empirical strength distributions toward the $\gamma = 0$ ELS distribution can be directly demonstrated. Figure 9 shows these distributions for $N \in$ $\{2^{14}, 2^{20}\}$ composites with $\gamma \in \{0, 1, 1.5, 2\}$. The first row corresponds to $\rho = 10$ and the second row to $\rho = 1$. The first column corresponds to the small system size $N = 2^{14}$, while the second corresponds to the larger size $N = 2^{20}$. The variability of the composite strengths in the second column is clearly much smaller than that in the first column. Empirical distributions corresponding to all the four γ are seen distinctly in the first column. In the second column, corresponding to the larger system size, the empirical distributions corresponding

IV. CONCLUSION

The influence of load sharing on the fracture mode of unidirectional composites in a transverse plane by fiber breakage has been studied through Monte Carlo fracture simulations over a range of load-sharing exponent, γ , and fiber strength variability. Interactions, which ensure traction-free fiber breaks, are accounted for in the fracture simulations. The pattern of fiber breaks just before catastrophic crack propagation begins has been interpreted using cluster analysis. The empirical strength distributions given by the simulations have been interpreted using two stochastic models of composite failure, viz., the Curtin [20] model, and the tight cluster growth model [9,22,30]. All the approaches point to a toughbrittle transition near $\gamma = 2$. On the one hand, for $\gamma \gtrsim 2$, brittle fracture ensues from a critical cluster of fiber breaks, which becomes increasingly localized with increasing system size. On the other hand, for $\gamma \lesssim 2$, the size of the critical cluster grows faster than the system size, which will result in the tough fracture mode for sufficiently large systems.

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