Practical Theories for Service
Life Prediction of Critical
Aerospace Structural Components

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MARCH 1992
ERRATA

NASA Technical Memorandum 4354

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Figures 3, 8, and 9 of NASA Technical Memorandum 4354 have been corrected. Please substitute the enclosed corrected pages 17/18 and 21/22 in the report.
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ABSTRACT

A new second-order theory was developed for predicting the service lives of aerospace structural components. The predictions based on this new theory were compared with those based on the Ko first-order theory and the classical theory of service life predictions. The new theory gives very accurate service life predictions. An equivalent constant-amplitude stress cycles method was proposed for representing the random load spectrum for crack growth calculations. This method predicts the most conservative service life. The proposed use of minimum detectable crack size, instead of proof load established crack size as an initial crack size for crack growth calculations, could give more a realistic service life.

INTRODUCTION

Service life (or the number of flights permitted within the proof load interval) of an aerospace vehicle is governed by the individual service lives of critical structural components (for example, NASA B-52 carrier aircraft air-launching-system hooks (ref. 1)). The following procedure describes the conventional method of estimating the service life of critical structural components.

First, a proof load test (which covers all critical flight maneuver loading conditions) is conducted on the critical structural components to load those components up to design-limit load levels. If the proof load test should cause destruction on certain components, then those failed components are immediately replaced, and another proof load test is repeated. If all the structural components should survive the new proof load test, then fracture mechanics is used to theoretically determine the initial "fictitious" (nonexistent) crack size, $a^p_c$, (critical or incipient crack size associated with the proof load level) at the critical stress point (the location of which is determined from stress analysis) of each structural component. Then, the service life for each structural component is estimated from the amount of crack growth permitted for the initial "fictitious" crack $a^p_c$ to grow and reach the operational limit crack size $a^o_c$ ($a^o_c > a^p_c$) which is also fictitious, and is calculated from fracture mechanics based on the operational peak load, which is much lower than the proof load. Thus, the amount of available crack growth $a^o_c - a^p_c$ will determine the number of flights available for operation until the next proof load test.

Very often the initial "fictitious" crack size $a^p_c$ established through the proof load test is much larger than the minimum observable crack size ($a_o$). Therefore, the service life predicted using the proof load established initial crack size $a^p_c$ could be too conservative and unrealistically short compared with the service life predicted using the minimum observable crack size ($a_o$) as the initial crack size in the service life calculations.

Sometimes, it might be more convenient to relate the amount of crack growth caused by random load spectrum to the number of equivalent constant-amplitude stress cycles, and then estimate the service life by simply counting the available constant-amplitude stress cycles.

A second-order theory for calculating the service life (number of remaining flights) for a given available crack growth (refs. 1–3) is presented in this report. In addition, a discussion of the previously mentioned equivalent constant-amplitude stress cycling method to estimate the service lives of aerostructural components is also presented.
NOMENCLATURE

$A$  
crack location parameter

$a$  
depth of semielliptic surface crack, in.

$a_c^0$  
operational limit crack size, in.

$a_c^p$  
initial fictitious crack size established by proof load test, in.

$a_o$  
minimum detectable crack size, in.

$a_1$  
original crack size at the end of the first flight, in.

$C$  
material constant in Walker crack growth-rate equation, $\frac{\text{in.}}{\text{cycle}}(\text{ksi/in.})^{-m}$

$c$  
half length of surface crack, in.

$E$  
complete elliptic function of the second kind

$F_1$  
number of remaining flights calculated based on the first-flight data

$F_1^*$  
number of remaining flights calculated from the equivalent constant-amplitude stress cycles method

$	ilde{F}_1$  
number of remaining flights calculated from the first-order theory

$	ilde{F}_1^*$  
number of remaining flights calculated from the second-order theory

$f$  
fraction of limit load (proof load)

$K_{IC}$  
mode I critical stress intensity factor, ksi in.

$K_{max}$  
mode I stress intensity factor associated with $\sigma_{max}$

$k$  
modulus of elliptic function

$\ell$  
number of flights

$M_K$  
flaw magnification factor

$m$  
Walker exponent associated with stress amplitude

$N$  
number of constant-amplitude stress cycles

$N_C$  
maximum number of constant-amplitude stress cycles for service life

$N_R$  
number of random stress cycles

$n$  
Walker exponent associated with stress ratio

$Q$  
surface flaw and plasticity factor

$R$  
stress ratio, $R = \frac{\sigma_{min}}{\sigma_{max}}$

SRB–DTV  
solid rocket booster drop test vehicle

$V_A$  
front hook vertical load, lb

$V_{BL}$  
left rear hook vertical load, lb

$V_{BR}$  
right rear hook vertical load, lb

$\Delta a_1$  
amount of crack growth induced by the first flight, in.

$\Delta N_\ell$  
number of equivalent constant-amplitude stress cycles consumed during the $\ell$th flight
\( \delta a_i \)  & crack growth increment induced by the \( i \)th half cycle, in.  
\( \sigma^* \)  & proof load established stress at the critical stress point, ksi  
\( \sigma_j \)  & tensile stress at stress point \( j \)  
\( \sigma_{max} \)  & maximum stress of a stress cycle, ksi  
\( \sigma_{min} \)  & minimum stress of a stress cycle, ksi  
\( \sigma_s \)  & mean stress (or static stress) of a stress cycle, ksi  
\( \sigma_U \)  & ultimate stress, ksi  
\( \sigma_Y \)  & yield stress, ksi  
\( \tau \)  & ultimate shear stress, ksi  
\( \phi \)  & angular coordinate for semielliptic surface crack, rad  
\( (\cdot)_i \)  & quantity associated with \( i \)th half stress cycle  

**SERVICE LIFE**

**Conventional Method**

If \( \Delta a_1 \) is the amount of crack growth induced by the first flight, then the conventional method predicts the number of remaining flights \( F_1 \) (service life) based on the following equation (refs. 1–3).

\[
F_1 = \frac{a_c^p - a_c^o}{\Delta a_1} \tag{1}
\]

where \( a_c^p \) and \( a_c^o \) are calculated respectively from (refs. 1–3)

\[
a_c^p = \frac{Q}{\pi} \left[ \frac{K_{IC}}{AM_K \sigma^*} \right]^2 \tag{2}
\]

\[
a_c^o = \frac{Q}{\pi} \left[ \frac{K_{IC}}{AM_K f \sigma^*} \right]^2 \tag{3}
\]

where \( \sigma^* \) and \( f \sigma^* \) (\( f < 1 \)) are respectively, the proof load induced stress (limit stress) and the operational peak stress at the critical stress point; \( A \) is the crack location parameter (\( A = 1.00 \) for the through thickness crack, \( A = 1.12 \) for both the surface and the edge cracks)(refs. 1–3); \( M_K \) is the flaw magnification factor (\( M_K = 1.0 \) for very shallow surface cracks, \( M_K = 1.6 \) when the depth of the crack approaches the thickness of the plate); \( K_{IC} \) is the critical stress intensity factor, and \( Q \) is the surface flow shape and plasticity factor of a surface crack. If the surface crack is semielliptic in shape, then \( Q \) is expressed as (see fig. 1 and refs. 1–3):

\[
Q = [E(k)]^2 - 0.212 \left( \frac{\sigma^*}{\sigma_Y} \right)^2 \tag{4}
\]

where \( \sigma_Y \) is the yield stress, and \( E(k) \) is the complete elliptic function of the second kind defined as

\[
E(k) = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \sqrt{1 - k^2 \sin^2 \phi} \, d\phi \tag{5}
\]
where $\phi$ is the angular coordinate for a semielliptic surface crack (see fig. 1) and the modulus $k$ of the elliptic function is defined as

$$k = \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{a}{c}\right)^2}$$  \hspace{1cm} (6)

where $a$ and $c$ are respectively the depth and the half length of a semielliptic surface crack.

Before flight, the actual amount of crack growth $\Delta a_1$ (eq. (1)) for the first flight is unknown. The way to estimate $\Delta a_1$, before the actual flight, is to perform transient dynamic analysis of the flight vehicle under specified severe maneuvers such as landing, braking, ground turns, flight in severe buffet and turbulence, etc. Actual ground maneuvering of the aircraft can be conducted (for example, taxi runs on straight or curved paths) and generate an actual loading spectrum for each critical component for a short period. Then, the loading spectrum is expanded (extrapolated) to cover the duration of one flight. For large flexible aircraft, such as the B-52 carrier airplane, the ground maneuver could produce a more severe loading spectrum than that of the actual steady flight. If equation (1) predicts a sufficient number of flights available based on $\Delta a_1$, calculated from the ground maneuver, one may feel confident to actually conduct one flight to obtain the actual value of $\Delta a_1$.

**Calculation of Crack Growth**

The crack growth caused by the random stress cycling of the first flight may be calculated by using the half-cycle theory (refs. 1–3). The half-cycle theory states that the damage, or crack growth, caused by each half cycle (either increasing or decreasing load) of the random load spectrum is assumed to equal one half of the damage caused by a full cycle of the constant-amplitude load spectrum of the same loading magnitude. Thus, the total damage done by the random load spectrum will be the summation of the microdamages caused by the individual half waves of different loading magnitudes. Figure 3 gives graphical illustrations of the half-cycle theory (refs. 1–3).

Thus, the crack growth $\Delta a_1$ caused by the first flight may be calculated as

$$\Delta a_1 = a_1 - a_1^p = \sum_{i=1}^{2N_R} \delta a_i$$  \hspace{1cm} (7)

where $a_1$ is the crack size at the end of the first flight; $N_R$ is the total number of random cycles induced by the first flight; and $\delta a_i$ is the crack growth increment induced by the $i$th half cycle, calculated from (refs. 1–3)

$$\delta a_i = \frac{C}{2} [(K_{max})^i]^m (1 - R_i)^n$$  \hspace{1cm} (8)

which is obtained from the Walker equation (refs. 1–3)

$$\frac{da}{dN} = C(K_{max})^m (1 - R)^n$$  \hspace{1cm} (9)

by setting $da = \delta a_i, dN = \frac{1}{2}, K_{max} = (K_{max})^i$ and $R = R_i$ for the $i$th half cycle of random load spectrum. In equations (8) and (9), $C, m,$ and $n$ are the material constants and $(K_{max})^i$ and $R^i$ are,
respectively, the maximum stress intensity factor and the stress ratio associated with the \( i \)th half cycle and are given by

\[
(K_{max})_i = AM_K(\sigma_{max})_i \sqrt{\frac{\pi a_{i-1}}{Q}}
\]  

(10)

\[
R_i = \frac{(\sigma_{min})_i}{(\sigma_{max})_i}
\]  

(11)

where \((\sigma_{max})_i\) and \((\sigma_{min})_i\) are respectively, the maximum and the minimum stresses of the \( i \)th half cycle (see random stress cycles in fig. 2(a)); \( a_{i-1} \) is the crack size at the end of the \((i-1)\)th half cycle.

"Minimum-Crack" Method

The proof load established initial crack sizes \((a^p_c)\) are used only for establishing a "baseline" for the aircraft structural component already in service. If the critical stress-point areas can be easily inspected, then the minimum detectable crack size \(a_o\) could be used as an initial crack size. Certainly aircraft with zero flight hours can use \(a_o\) as an initial crack size with no reliance on proof load requirement.

If the minimum detectable surface crack size \(a_o\) (crack depth) turned out to be much smaller than the proof load established initial crack size \(a^p_c\) of certain critical structural components (for example, the B-52 hooks which are inspectable) then one can use \(a_o\) instead of \(a^p_c\) as an initial "fictitious" crack size for the crack growth calculations. Thus, equation (1) may be modified as

\[
F_1 = \frac{a^p_c - a_o}{\Delta a_1}
\]  

(12)

where \(\Delta a_1\) is much smaller than \(\Delta a_1\) appearing in equation (1) because of smaller initial crack size.

If equation (12) is used in the calculations of service life, the initial crack size \(a_o\) for all subsequent flights will remain the same provided interflight crack detection inspection is conducted. Clearly equation (12) will give much longer service life than does equation (1).

SECOND-ORDER THEORY

The conventional equation (eq. (1)) for service life prediction is based on the assumption that the amount of crack growth during each flight for all subsequent flights remains the same as the crack growth \(\Delta a_1\), caused by the first flight. In reality, the amount of crack growth during each flight will increase steadily with the number of flights accumulated because the initial crack size for the subsequent flight will increase gradually. The new equation for service life prediction will account for the nonuniform crack growth effect. If \(\Delta a_\ell\) is the amount of crack growth induced by the random load spectrum of the \(\ell\)th \((\ell = 1, 2, 3, \ldots)\) flight, and if \(\Delta N_\ell\) is the number of cycles of an equivalent constant-amplitude load spectrum which also induce a crack growth equal to \(\Delta a_\ell\), then the Walker equation (eq. (9)) may be used to relate \(\Delta N_\ell\) to \(\Delta a_\ell\) as

\[
\Delta a_\ell = C \left(AM_K\sigma_{max} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{Q}} \right)^m (1 - R)^n(a_{\ell-1})^{\frac{n}{m}} \Delta N_\ell
\]  

(13)
in which the following expression was used

\[ K_{\text{max}} = AM_K \sigma_{\text{max}} \sqrt{\frac{\pi a_{\ell-1}}{Q}} \]  

(14)

where \( a_{\ell-1} \) is the crack size at the end of the \((\ell-1)\)th flight.

For simplicity, if we assume that the equivalent constant-amplitude load spectra for all flights are identical (that is, \( \sigma_{\text{max}}, R, \) and \( \Delta N_{\ell} \) remain the same), then equation (13) could be used to establish the following crack growth ratios and expand them in terms of \( \frac{\Delta a_1}{a_c} \) up to second-order terms assuming that \( \frac{\Delta a_1}{a_c} \) is small (i.e., \( \frac{\Delta a_1}{a_c} \ll 1 \):}

\[
\frac{\Delta a_1}{\Delta a_1} = \left( \frac{\Delta a_1}{\Delta a_1} \right) \frac{m}{2} = 1
\]

(15)

\[
\frac{\Delta a_2}{\Delta a_1} = \left( \frac{a_1^p}{a_1^p} \right) \frac{m}{2} = \left( \frac{a_1^p + \Delta a_1}{a_1^p} \right) \frac{m}{2}
\]

\[
= 1 + \left( \frac{m \Delta a_1}{2 a_c^p} \right) \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{m \Delta a_1}{2 a_c^p} \right) \right] + 1^2 \left( 1 - \frac{1}{m} \right) \left( \frac{m \Delta a_1}{2 a_c^p} \right)^2 + \ldots
\]

(16)

\[
\frac{\Delta a_3}{\Delta a_1} = \left( \frac{a_2^p}{a_2^p} \right) \frac{m}{2} = \left( \frac{a_2^p + \Delta a_1 + \Delta a_2}{a_2^p} \right) \frac{m}{2}
\]

\[
= 1 + 2 \left( \frac{m \Delta a_1}{2 a_c^p} \right) \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{m \Delta a_1}{2 a_c^p} \right) \right] + 2^2 \left( 1 - \frac{1}{m} \right) \left( \frac{m \Delta a_1}{2 a_c^p} \right)^2 + \ldots
\]

(17)

\[
\frac{\Delta a_4}{\Delta a_1} = \left( \frac{a_3^p}{a_3^p} \right) \frac{m}{2} = \left( \frac{a_3^p + \Delta a_1 + \Delta a_2 + \Delta a_3}{a_3^p} \right) \frac{m}{2}
\]

\[
= 1 + 3 \left( \frac{m \Delta a_1}{2 a_c^p} \right) \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{m \Delta a_1}{2 a_c^p} \right) \right] + 3^2 \left( 1 - \frac{1}{m} \right) \left( \frac{m \Delta a_1}{2 a_c^p} \right)^2 + \ldots
\]

(18)

\[
\vdots
\]

\[
\frac{\Delta a_\ell}{\Delta a_1} = \left( \frac{a_{\ell-1}^p}{a_{\ell-1}^p} \right) \frac{m}{2} = \left( \frac{a_{\ell-1}^p + \Delta a_1 + \Delta a_2 + \Delta a_3 + \ldots + \Delta a_{\ell-1}}{a_{\ell-1}^p} \right) \frac{m}{2}
\]

\[
= 1 + (\ell - 1) \left( \frac{m \Delta a_1}{2 a_c^p} \right) \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{m \Delta a_1}{2 a_c^p} \right) \right] + (\ell - 1)^2 \left( 1 - \frac{1}{m} \right) \left( \frac{m \Delta a_1}{2 a_c^p} \right)^2 + \ldots
\]

(19)
If the available crack growth $a^o_c - a^p_c$ can allow $\bar{F}_1$ number of flights, then one can write:

\[
\frac{a^o_c - a^p_c}{\Delta a_1} = \frac{\bar{F}_1 \text{ terms}}{\Delta a_1} = \frac{\Delta a_1 + \Delta a_2 + \Delta a_3 + \ldots + \Delta a_\ell + \ldots + \Delta a_{\bar{F}_1}}{\Delta a_1} 
\]

(20)

where the left-hand side of this equation is $F_1$ according to equation (1).

Substitution of equations (15)-(19) into equation (20) yields:

\[
F_1 = \underbrace{1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + \ldots + 1}_{\text{terms}} + \underbrace{0 + 1 + 2 + \ldots + (\ell - 1) + \ldots + (\bar{F}_1 - 1)}_{\text{terms}} \left( \frac{m \Delta a_1}{2 a^p_c} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{m \Delta a_1}{2 a^p_c} \right) \right) 
\]

(21)

which becomes, after summations of numbers:

\[
F_1 = \tilde{F}_1 + \frac{1}{2} \tilde{F}_1 (\bar{F}_1 - 1) \left( \frac{m \Delta a_1}{2 a^p_c} \right) \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{m \Delta a_1}{2 a^p_c} \right) \right] 
\]

(22)

After grouping terms and rearrangement, equation (22) may be written in the following standard form of cubic equation:

\[
\tilde{F}_1^3 + p \tilde{F}_1^2 + q \tilde{F}_1 + r \approx 0 
\]

(23)

where

\[
p \equiv \frac{3}{2(m-1)} \left( 1 - \frac{3}{2} m + 2 \frac{a^p_c}{\Delta a_1} \right) 
\]

(24)

\[
q \equiv \frac{1}{2} \left\{ 1 + \frac{3}{m-1} \left[ \frac{m}{2} - 2 \frac{a^p_c}{\Delta a_1} + \frac{8}{m} \left( \frac{a^p_c}{\Delta a_1} \right)^2 \right] \right\} 
\]

(25)

\[
r \equiv - \frac{12 F_1}{m(m-1)} \left( \frac{a^p_c}{\Delta a_1} \right)^2 
\]

(26)

The real root of equation (23) is then given by

\[
\tilde{F}_1 = B + D - \frac{p}{3} 
\]

(27)
where

$$B = \frac{D}{I} = \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{\beta}{2}} \pm \sqrt{\frac{\beta^2}{4} + \frac{\alpha^3}{27}} \right\}$$ \tag{28}

where

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{3} (3q - p^2) \tag{29}$$

$$\beta = \frac{1}{27} (2p^3 - 9pq + 27r) \tag{30}$$

In equation (21), if the second-order terms are neglected, then the number of flights $\tilde{F}_1$ predicted based on the first-order expansion will be

$$\tilde{F}_1 = \frac{2a_c}{m\Delta a_1} \left( \sqrt{1 + \frac{m\Delta a_1}{a_c} F_1} - 1 \right) \tag{31}$$

which has already been published in references 1 and 2.

EQUIVALENT CONSTANT-AMPLITUDE STRESS CYCLES

In this section, we attempt to consider the crack growth $\Delta a_1$, (see eq. (7)) caused by random stress cycling as if it were caused by equivalent constant-amplitude stress cycling (see fig. 2(b)). If the constant-amplitude load spectrum is cycling about the mean (static) stress $\sigma_s$, then the maximum stress $\sigma_{max}$ and the minimum stress $\sigma_{min}$ of the equivalent constant-amplitude stress cycle is related through

$$\sigma_{min} = 2\sigma_s - \sigma_{max} \tag{32}$$

If $\sigma_{max}$ is a fraction of the limit stress $\sigma^*$ (proof load induced stress), namely,

$$\sigma_{max} = f\sigma^*; \quad f < 1 \tag{33}$$

then one can write

$$K_{max} = AM_K f\sigma^* \sqrt{\frac{\pi a}{Q}} \tag{34}$$

$$R = \frac{\sigma_{min}}{\sigma_{max}} = \frac{2\sigma_s}{f\sigma^*} - 1 \tag{35}$$

If the initial crack size is $a_c^p$, then the number of the equivalent constant-amplitude stress cycles, $N$, required to extend the initial crack size $a_c^p$ up to an arbitrary size “a” could be obtained by integrating equation (9) as

$$N = \frac{a^{1 - \frac{m}{2}} - (a_c^p)^{1 - \frac{m}{2}}}{\left(1 - \frac{m}{2}\right) C \left[ AM_K f\sigma^* \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{Q}} \right]^{\frac{m}{2}} \left[ 2 \left(1 - \frac{\sigma_s}{f\sigma^*} \right) \right]^n} \tag{36}$$
From equation (36), the number of equivalent constant-amplitude stress cycles \(N_c\) available for operation, and the number of equivalent constant-amplitude stress cycles consumed by the first flight, \(N_1\), to cause the same damage \(\Delta a_1\) as does the random stress cycling, may be obtained by setting \(a = a_c^p\) and \(a = a_1\) respectively.

If every flight after the first flight consumes the same number of equivalent constant-amplitude stress cycles as does the first flight, then the service life \(F_1^*\) may be calculated from

\[
F_1^* = \frac{N_c}{N_1} = \frac{(a_c^p)^{1-\frac{m}{2}} - (a_c^p)^{1-\frac{m}{2}}}{a_1^{1-\frac{m}{2}} - (a_c^p)^{1-\frac{m}{2}}}
\]

(37)

where equation (36) is used, and \(a_1 = a_c^p + \Delta a_1\) is to be calculated from equation (7).

When the random load spectrum is converted into an equivalent constant-amplitude load spectrum, for service life estimates one can merely count the number of the equivalent constant-amplitude stress cycles. If \(N_1\) is consumed for the first flight, then \(N_1\) is used to calculate the remaining flights (eq. (37)) with accuracy, because the amount of the equivalent constant-amplitude stress cycles consumed for each of the subsequent flights is theoretically identical.

**NUMERICAL EXAMPLE**

The numerical example chosen for the calculations of service life of aerospace structural components is the NASA B-52 carrier aircraft air-launching system (pylon) hooks as shown in figures 4 and 5. Figure 5 also shows the locations of the critical stress points and the stress–hook–load relationships determined from stress analysis (ref. 4). Through one front hook and two rear hooks of the pylon of the B-52 aircraft, a winged Pegasus® rocket (approximately 44,629 lb) will be carried to high altitude (approximately 40,000 ft) to release it for firing into orbit. The B-52 aircraft was used earlier to carry heavy stores such as the X-15 air-launched rocket plane (57,250 lb) and the space shuttle solid rocket booster drop test vehicle (SRB–DTV, 49,000 lb). The data accumulated for those vehicles may be used to estimate the “preflight” service lives of the three hooks when the store is the Pegasus rocket, because of weight proximity.

**Input Numerical Values**

Assuming that the surface cracks (initial and after growth) are semicircular in shape (that is, \(\frac{a}{2c} = \frac{1}{2}\)), and that the stress level at the critical stress point of each hook reached the yield point (the hooks are designed to carry yielding zones), then from figure 1 one obtains \(Q = 2.265\) for \(\frac{a}{2c} = \frac{1}{2}\). In the crack growth calculations \(A = 1.12\) and \(M_K = 1.0\) were used. Other numerical values used in the crack growth calculations are given in table 1.

® Pegasus is a registered trademark of Orbital Sciences Corp., Fairfax, Virginia.
Table 1. Material properties for B-52 pylon hooks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Part name</th>
<th>Material</th>
<th>$\sigma_U$, ksi</th>
<th>$\sigma_Y$, ksi</th>
<th>$\tau$, ksi</th>
<th>$K_{IC}$, ksi $\sqrt{\text{in.}}$</th>
<th>$C$, $\frac{\text{ksi $\sqrt{\text{in.}}$}}{\text{cycle}}$</th>
<th>$m$</th>
<th>$n$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Front hook</td>
<td>Inconel 718® alloy</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>$9.220 \times 10^{-12}$</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>2.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Left rear hook</td>
<td>AMAX MP35N* alloy</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>$2.944 \times 10^{-11}$</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>1.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Right rear hook</td>
<td>AMAX MP35N* alloy</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>$2.944 \times 10^{-11}$</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>1.69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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*AMAX MP35N is a trademark of SPS Technologies, Inc., Jenkintown, Pennsylvania.

Using the numerical values given in Table 1, and the proof hook loads $V_A = 36,500$ lb, $V_{BL} = V_{BR} = 57,819$ lb, the initial crack sizes $a_c^P$ and the operational limit crack sizes $a_c^O$ (for $f = 0.6$) may be calculated respectively from equations (2) and (3) as:

Table 2. Proof and operational limit crack sizes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Part name</th>
<th>Proof hook load, lb</th>
<th>$a_c^P$, in.</th>
<th>$a_c^O$, in. ($f = 0.6$)</th>
<th>$\frac{\Delta a_c}{a_c^P}$ ($f = 0.6$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Front hook, $V_A$</td>
<td>36,500</td>
<td>0.1247</td>
<td>0.3465</td>
<td>0.01814</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Left rear hook, $V_{BL}$</td>
<td>57,819</td>
<td>0.0774</td>
<td>0.2151</td>
<td>0.00761</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Right rear hook, $V_{BR}$</td>
<td>57,819</td>
<td>0.0774</td>
<td>0.2151</td>
<td>0.00761</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$f = 0.6$ was the average operational peak load level for the case of SRB-DTV.

The present-day crack detection techniques could detect a surface crack approximately 0.02 in. long. Thus, if the surface crack is semicircular in shape, then the minimum detectable crack depth is approximately 0.01 in. Clearly, this value is far less than the proof load established initial crack sizes listed in Table 2. In the service life calculation using the “Minimum-Crack” method, the initial crack size $a_o$ will be taken as $a_o = 0.01$ in.

**Crack Growth Ratios**

Figure 6 shows crack growth ratio $\frac{\Delta a_c}{\Delta a_1}$ plotted as a function of the number of flights $\ell$ for the front hook using the first- and the second-order theories. The first-order theory (eq. (31)) gives linear increase of $\frac{\Delta a_c}{\Delta a_1}$ with increasing $\ell$. However, the second-order theory (eq. (23)) gives nonlinear curve with lower values of $\frac{\Delta a_c}{\Delta a_1}$ in the region $1 < \ell < 41$, beyond that the second-order theory predicts much higher values of $\frac{\Delta a_c}{\Delta a_1}$ than the first-order theory. The conventional theory gives a simple horizontal line $\frac{\Delta a_c}{\Delta a_1} = 1$. 

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Figure 7 shows similar plots for the rear hook. Unlike the front hook, the second-order curve does not intersect with the first-order curve until $\ell \approx 120$ because of different values of $m$ and $\frac{\Delta a_1}{d_c}$.

**Remaining Flights**

Table 3 lists the numbers of remaining flights $\bar{F}_1$ and $\bar{F}_1$, for the front and rear hooks, calculated respectively from the first- and the second-order theories, compared with the corresponding number of flights $F_1$ based on the conventional method (assuming equal amount of crack growth for all subsequent flights (ref. 1)). It is clear that the conventional theory exceedingly overpredicts the predicted service life. Values in table 3 are plotted in figures 8 and 9 respectively for the front and rear hooks for easy visualization of the curves for $F_1$, $\bar{F}_1$, and $\bar{F}_1$.

Table 3. Number of remaining flights calculated from first- and second-order theories compared to the conventional method.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Front hook</th>
<th>Rear hook</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$F_1$</td>
<td>$\bar{F}_1$</td>
<td>$\bar{F}_1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>150</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>250</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>350</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>450</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>550</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>600</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>650</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>700</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>750</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>800</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>850</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>900</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>950</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the given values of $m$ and $\frac{\Delta a_1}{d_c}$ for the B-52 front and rear hooks (tables 1 and 2), the predicted service life for the two hooks based on the conventional theory and the first- and the second-order theories are presented in table 4:
Table 4. B-52 hooks service lives based on conventional, first- and second-order theories.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$F_1$</th>
<th>$F'_1$</th>
<th>$F''_1$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Front hook</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rear hook</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Clearly the conventional theory gives too optimistic a service life prediction. The service life of the front hook is somewhat shorter than that of the rear hook.

Figures 10 and 11 show the crack growth curves for the front and rear hooks, respectively, based on the equivalent constant-amplitude stress cycle method. In each figure, the upper curve is the plot of equation (37) (that is, initial crack size is the proof load established crack size $a^p_C$). The lower curve is the plot of equation (37) with $a^p_C$ replaced with $a_0$ as an initial crack size. Using $a_0$ as an initial crack size instead of $a^p_C$, the service lives of the hooks are greatly enhanced. Table 5 summarizes the results of the equivalent constant-amplitude stress cycle method. Predictions from the conventional theory are also shown for comparison.

Table 5. B-52 hooks service lives based on the equivalent constant-amplitude stress cycles method, ($f = 0.6$).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Initial crack size</th>
<th>Stress cycles</th>
<th>Remaining flights</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$N_1$</td>
<td>$N_C$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Front hook</td>
<td>67.08</td>
<td>67.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rear hook</td>
<td>14.88</td>
<td>14.88</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notice that the number of equivalent constant-amplitude stress cycles for cycling at 60 percent ($f = 0.6$) of limit stress consumed during each flight ($N_1$) are relatively low and are independent of the initial crack size. For the initial crack size of $a^p_C$, the equivalent constant-amplitude stress cycles method predicts the most conservative service life as compared with other theories (tables 4 and 5).

Accuracies of Expansions

To check the accuracies of the first- and the second-order theories, values of the crack growth rate $\Delta a_2/\Delta a_1$ (eq. (16)) were calculated from the exact expression for $\Delta a_2/\Delta a_1$ (before expansion of eq. (16)), and from the first- and the second-order expansions (eq. (16)). The results are tabulated in table 6.
Table 6. Accuracy of expansion for $\frac{\Delta a_2}{\Delta a_1}$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$\frac{\Delta a_2}{\Delta a_1}$</th>
<th>Front hook</th>
<th>Rear hook</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exact expression</td>
<td>1.032887789</td>
<td>1.012357255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1 + \left(1 + \frac{\Delta a_1}{a_c^p}\right)^{\frac{m}{2}})</td>
<td>1.032887789*</td>
<td>1.012357255*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First-order expansion</td>
<td>[1.032887789]</td>
<td>[1.012357255]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second-order expansion (eq. (16))</td>
<td>[1.032887789]</td>
<td>[1.012357255]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*accurate digits

This table shows that the second-order expansion gives very accurate values for $\frac{\Delta a_2}{\Delta a_1}$, thus, the service life predicted from the second-order theory is quite reliable.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The second-order theory for predicting the service life of aerospace structural components was presented. The service life predicted from the second-order theory was compared with those predicted from the previously developed first-order theory and the conventional method (constant amount of crack growth for all subsequent flights) of service life predictions. The second-order theory (based on the second-order expansion of the crack growth rate) could give reasonably accurate values of crack growth rate compared with the exact values.

The new equivalent constant-amplitude stress cycles method was proposed. This method gave the most conservative service life predictions. The use of minimum detectable crack size, instead of proof load established crack size as an initial crack size, could give a more realistically longer service life.

Dryden Flight Research Facility
National Aeronautics and Space Administration
Edwards, California, August 18, 1991
REFERENCES


Figure 1. Surface flaw shape and plasticity factor for semielliptic surface crack.
Figure 2. Random stress cycles and equivalent constant-amplitude stress cycles.

(a) Random stress cycles.

(b) Constant-amplitude stress cycles.
Figure 3. Graphic evaluation of crack increments for random stress cycles using half-cycle method.
Figure 4. B-52 aircraft pylon carrying winged Pegasus rocket.
Critical stress points in B-52 pylon front and rear hooks.

Front hook

\[ \sigma_1 = 7.3522 \times 10^{-3} V_A \]

\[ \sigma_2 = 5.8442 \times 10^{-3} V_{BL} \]

\[ \sigma_3 = 5.8442 \times 10^{-3} V_{BR} \]

Rear hook

\[ \sigma_2 \text{ or } \sigma_3 \]

28.75°

26.25°

Figure 5.
Figure 6. Crack growth ratio as a function of number of flights based on the first- and second-order theories; front hook.

Figure 7. Crack growth ratio as a function of number of flights based on the first- and second-order theories; rear hook.
Figure 8. Comparison of number of remaining flights predicted from conventional theory and the first- and second-order theories; front hook.

Figure 9. Comparison of number of remaining flights predicted from conventional theory and the first- and second-order theories; rear hook.
Figure 10. Comparison of service lives of front hook based on different initial crack sizes.

Figure 11. Comparison of service lives of rear hook based on different initial crack sizes.
A new second-order theory was developed for predicting the service lives of aerospace structural components. The predictions based on this new theory were compared with those based on the Ko first-order theory and the classical theory of service life predictions. The new theory gives very accurate service life predictions. An equivalent constant-amplitude stress cycles method was proposed for representing the random load spectrum for crack growth calculations. This method predicts the most conservative service life. The proposed use of minimum detectable crack size, instead of proof load established crack size as an initial crack size for crack growth calculations, could give a more realistic service life.