Thermal cutting analysis on grain size distribution using probabilistic FEM

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Abstract. This paper investigates the capability of probabilistic FEM to predict grain size distributions due to thermal cutting process. The application of transient heat source causes non-uniform temperature distribution across the parent metal that can lead to non-uniform expansion and contraction during heating and cooling cycle. This phenomenon will induce thermal stresses to the workpiece that can subsequently lead to unwanted cutting deformation. Therefore, prediction of temperature distribution is important in order to control the amount of heat required in the cutting process. The simulation was computed through probabilistic FEM using Monte Carlo method based on non-linear thermo-elastic-plastic numerical analysis. The probabilistic FEM was carried out by varying the input power. In this study, the simulation method had been executed by using FEM software MSC MARC. The simulation analysis was also executed using customized material input module in order to take the grain growth into consideration during the cutting process. The additional subroutine of grain growth was introduced and implemented in order to predict the grain size distribution. The material used for the simulation was stainless steel 316L with the thickness of 2 mm. Based on the results obtained, it was found out that slight differences of the results were achieved between deterministic and probabilistic methods. The small observable differences occurred due to the probabilistic method was only executed to fluctuate the input power, while the other process parameters were still unchanged. Nevertheless, the Monte Carlo method was successfully integrated into the normal simulation which then transforming it into probabilistic analysis. Thus, through probabilistic method, reliability on prediction could be increased in which the prediction would be closer to reality.

1. Introduction

A heat treatment process, where a metal plate is subjected to a large amount of concentrated heat and the applied part of the metal plate melts or vaporizes away is known as thermal cutting. Thermal cutting is an exothermal process, which means that the burning process maintains itself with less heat required. There are several types of thermal cutting processes such as flame cutting, plasma arc cutting and laser cutting [1]. Plasma arc cutting (PAC) is a cutting method that uses extremely hot plasma gas that melts and partially vaporizes workpiece material. This plasma gas jet is formed by an arc and inert gas flow. Plasma arc is concentrated with a nozzle to produce more precise and even hotter arc, that operates in the region of 10 000 – 14 000 °C. Molten material is removed by the high velocity gas jet, like in oxyfuel gas cutting. Plasma arc is generated by heating gas with an arc. This gas then becomes partially ionized and thus, being able to conduct electricity. Heating the gas rapidly as it travels along
the arc causes it to expand. Then the gas is accelerated through the nozzle towards the workpiece. Gases employed in plasma cutting comprise nitrogen, argon, oxygen, air and mixtures of nitrogen/hydrogen and argon/hydrogen [2-3].

Laser cutting is a non-contact thermal cutting process which is a state-of-the-art technology that eliminates such effects as machine vibration, mechanically induced thermal damage and tool wear [4]. It is the most extensively used for producing complex shapes and different geometries with narrow kerf in almost all categories of materials such as metals, non-metals, ceramics and composites. The cutting capability of laser primarily depends on the thermal and optical properties of the material instead of the mechanical properties [5]. The focused laser beam locally melts the material to be cut and produces a kerf when the molten material is blown away with the aid of assist gas, which flows coaxially with the laser beam.

Numerous numerical methods have been applied to perform thermal analysis. In [6], prediction of temperature distribution due to thermal cutting had been carried out on Inconel 718. The finite element analysis was computed based on thermo-mechanical analysis using temperature-dependent material properties. The results showed that the predicted temperature distribution well agreed to the experimental measurement. It was found out that the temperature trend in the specimen with 1 mm thickness was slightly lower than that of specimen with 2 mm thickness. Referring to the explanation in [7], arc-welding process is based on the same principles as arc-cutting process. A welding process normally adds up filler material to the base metal, whereas some materials are removed from the base metal in cutting process. RN Lidam et al. [8] conducted a simulation study on multipass welded welding distortion of combined joint types induced by gas metal arc welding (GMAW) process. The simulation had been executed using SYSWELD based on thermo-mechanical-metallurgical analysis. The plasticity criterion was calculated based on isotropic strain hardening owing to non-cyclic loading in which the mechanical calculations were computed according to metallurgical history primarily following the constitutive equation proposed by Leblond. The outcomes uncovered that the angular distortions predicted using 2D and 3D analyses showed reasonable agreement. It was also found out that 2D analysis required shorter computational time as compared to 3D analysis. A research on residual stress field induced in pipe girth weld of 316 stainless steel had been carried out by J. G. Mullins et al. [9]. The residual stresses were simulated based on thermo-elastic-plastic mechanical analysis. Three different hardening models had been employed in the finite element analysis comprising isotropic, kinematic and mixed hardening models. The isotropic, kinematic and mixed hardening models were computed according to flow curves at different temperatures, bilinear-Ziegler rule and Lemaitre-Chaboche model respectively. By comparing the simulation results with the experimental verifications, the results revealed that the axial stresses were well predicted by means of isotropic hardening model. In addition, the hoop stresses calculated via isotropic hardening model were also in good agreement with the experimental measurements. The best predictions of hoop stresses were achieved through mixed hardening model. However, the predictions through kinematic hardening model had underestimated both magnitudes of stresses.

Even though all criteria have been taken into consideration in numerical simulation, but generally the FEA is deterministic by nature and hence is limited to describe typical characteristics of a system [10]. Different sources of uncertainty come up in the study of complex phenomena such as human error, dynamic loading, inherent randomness of the material and lack of data. The classic FEM has been integrated with other methodologies to develop a novel type of analysis in order to probe the systems with random variations and/or uncertainty in parameters. It has been known as a stochastic finite element method (SFEM) [11], a random finite element method (RFEM) [12] as well as a probabilistic finite element method (PFEM) [13]. Furthermore, to characterize the stochastic nature into a system, random fields are implemented in the classic FEM to describe and establish different stochastic scenarios. The effects of the random variations are evaluated by computing the statistical information of the response variables and evaluating the probability of an outcome of the system. A research on optimization of cutting parameters using probabilistic FEM had been performed by Miloš Madić et al. [14]. In this research, artificial neural network (ANN) based mathematical model using Monte Carlo method was established in order to connect the parameters in CO\textsubscript{2} laser cutting of 304 stainless steel consisting of laser power, cutting speed, assist gas pressure and focus position, as well
as kerf taper angle. Monte Carlo method was an approach which manipulating random numbers in simulation algorithm. The Monte Carlo method could be regarded as a general mathematical tool for solving various problems. As compared to experiment, statistical results showed that the kerf taper angle could be calculated through ANN model within good accuracy. The optimum laser cutting parameters which minimized the kerf taper angle could be defined by implementing the Monte Carlo method. It was observed that concentrating the laser beam on around 2/3 of material thickness through low assist gas pressure (9 bar) at combination of high cutting speed (3 m/min) and low laser power (1.6 kW) resulted in acceptable kerf taper angle. By applying the Monte Carlo simulation, the optimization was resolved via the generation of random numbers $r_{i,j}$ which distributed uniformly in the range between 0 and 1. In order to meet the limitations of the laser cutting parameter values, the random numbers $r_{i,j}$ were manipulated to produce random numbers $q_{i,j}$ which uniformly distributed into the range of interest for each of the laser cutting parameter $[q_{i}^{min}, q_{i}^{max}]$. This was achieved using the following equation:

$$q_{i,j} = q_{i}^{min} + r_{i,j} \cdot (q_{i}^{max} - q_{i}^{min})$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)

A lot of researches on grain growth predictions have been conducted beforehand due to welding processes [15,16,17]. In [18], the effects of cooling rates on grain growth had been observed in stainless steel material. The cooling rates were predicted through phenomenological model and finite element analysis, while the verification had been performed by measuring the secondary dendrite arm spacing (SDAS) which obtained from the microstructure of welded samples. The SDAS was measured using a scanning electron microscopy (SEM). Good agreement had been achieved between predicted results and experimental verifications. It could be seen that a reduction in cooling rate would lead to increasing grain size. Referring to research in [19], the major factors that influencing the grain growth in heat affected zone (HAZ) of stainless steel consisting of duration at elevated temperature, peak temperature and cooling rate. It was also found out that the grain size at the region experiencing higher peak temperature would have greater size as compared to the grain at the region experiencing lower peak temperature. The grain growth throughout the welding process could be occurring from the temperature of 900°C to the peak temperature during the heating cycle and continuing to 900°C during the cooling cycle. Besides, the grain growth in stainless steel material was influenced by thermal cycle, migration of grain boundary as well as particle precipitation.

2. Simulation Method and Procedure

2.1. Geometrical Modelling
A schematic illustration of solid FE model used in the simulation is displayed in Figure 1. The dimensions of the model are 100mm x 100mm x 2mm which are referring to the width, length and thickness of the model respectively.

![Figure 1. Geometrical model utilized for simulation](image-url)
The cutting trajectory is represented by the yellow arrow in which the direction of cutting is determined by the arrow direction. The type of element used for this model is three-dimensional hexahedral element.

2.2. Material Modelling

In thermal cutting simulation, stainless steel 316 material had been used for analysing the temperature distribution. In simulation, all the computations were executed based on analysis using temperature-dependent material properties as shown in Figure 2. During cutting process, the workpiece was exposing to high working temperature which could be beyond its melting temperature especially at the focal cutting region and the heat would also be spreading over the heat affected zone (HAZ) area and dissipating into the base metal and the environment. Thus, due to this phenomenon, the magnitudes of values of material properties would change according to the temperature variations. Hence, the temperature-dependent material properties were very important since they would reflect the real situations that occurred to the workpiece during the cutting process.

![Figure 2. Temperature-dependent mechanical and physical properties](image)

If the simulation executed using constant material properties, it will merely consider the material behaviour at room temperature which in turn can lead to incorrect prediction. However, the other two
material properties which are mass density and Poisson’s ratio were assumed to be 7850 kg/m$^3$ and 0.3 respectively that were not dependent on temperatures.

In this study, the temperature analysis was carried out using non-linear thermo-elastic-plastic analysis in which mechanical analysis was also taken into consideration. Based on mechanical analysis, the total deformation was computed through the combination of elastic and plastic strains as expressed by Equation (2).

$$\varepsilon_{total} = \varepsilon^e + \varepsilon^p \quad (2)$$

When the stress in the specimen was below the yield stress of the material, the material behaves elastically and the stress in the specimen was proportional to the strain. However, when the stress in the specimen was greater than the yield stress, the material was no longer exhibiting elastic behaviour and thus, the stress-strain relationship became non-linear. The yield stress of a material is a measured stress level that separates the elastic and plastic behaviour of the material. The magnitudes of the yield stresses were generally obtained from the mechanical properties as defined through the Modulus of Elasticity and flow curve. However, the stresses in a structure are usually multiaxial. A measurement of yielding for the multiaxial state of stress is known as yield condition. In this analysis, for the application of isotropic material, von Mises criterion was selected to describe the yield condition which is commonly used for ductile materials particularly due to its suitability in characterizing metallic behaviour. The von Mises criterion states that yield occurs when the effective (or equivalent) stress, $\sigma$, equals the yield stress, $\sigma_y$. The von Mises criterion can be described as expressed by Equation (3), where $\sigma_1$, $\sigma_2$, and $\sigma_3$ are the principal stresses that will be coupled with the strain hardening rule.

Figure 3 demonstrates the von Mises yield surface in three-dimensional stress space.

$$\bar{\sigma} = \left[ (\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2 \right]^{1/2} / \sqrt{2} \quad (3)$$

In order to take hardening effects into account, the computational analysis was executed corresponding to the information on material data that characterize the plastic behaviour of the material in the form of flow curves. In addition, these quantities can vary with parameters such as temperature and strain rate. Referring to Figure 4, the slope of the total stress versus plastic strain curve is defined as the workhardening slope (H) of the material in which the workhardening slope is a function of plastic strain. The material data of flow stresses for the material utilized in this simulation were as exhibited in Figure 5. When it came to a state which was not defined by the available flow curves, the decision was being made through interpolation.
2.3. Heat Source Modelling

In cutting simulation, one of the most important steps is to model the heat source that can reflect the real process. Suitable heat source model must be selected in accordance with the thermal cutting process. Hence, for the thermal cutting process, a volumetric conical heat source model was employed to replicate the real heat source. The 3D conical heat source model used in the simulation was defined by C. S. Wu et al. [20] which was obtained through derivation from heat intensity distribution equation of thermal energy conservation. The Equation (4) was the model equation produced as a result of derivation which could characterize the through thickness decay of heat intensity distribution of the thermal arc. The subsequent Equation (5) was part of the preceding equation which determined the decrease of maximum heat source intensity throughout the thickness of working material. In these equations, $Q_o$ represents the power input, $r$ denotes the radial coordinate, $z$ refers to the $z$-coordinate and $r_o$ defines the distribution parameter of the heat intensity. Whereas, $z_e$ and $r_e$ represent the $z$-coordinate and radius of the top surface of the heat source model respectively. Similarly, the $z$-coordinate and radius of the heat source model at the bottom surface are defined by $z_i$ and $r_i$ correspondingly. The configuration of the conical heat source model is illustrated in Figure 6.
\[ q(r, z) = \frac{9Q_0e^3}{\pi(e^3-1)} \cdot \frac{1}{(xe-x_i)(r_e^2+r_e-r_i^2)} \cdot \exp\left( -\frac{3r^2}{r_0^2} \right) \] (4)

\[ r_o(z) = r_i + (r_e - r_i) \cdot \frac{z-z_i}{xe-x_i} \] (5)

2.4. Grain Growth Modelling

When metals and alloys are subjected to thermal process, the grain growth can occur as a result of induced kinetic energy [21]. Normally, the grain growth is also involving the effect of impurity and precipitation. Precipitation is a diffusion process that is dependent on time and temperature. In thermal cutting as well as welding processes, since the heating cycle is normally too fast, the grain growth during heating could be ignored. Thus, the grain growth is considered and computed during the cooling cycle. The following general equation can be used to calculate the grain growth:

\[ \frac{\partial \bar{g}}{\partial t} = M_o^* \exp \left[ \frac{-Q_{app}}{RT(t)} \left( \frac{1}{\bar{g}} - \frac{1}{\bar{g}_{lim}} \right) \right] \] (6)

Where,

- \( M_o^* \) = Modified kinetic constant (\( \mu m^{1/n}s^{-1} \))
- \( Q_{app} \) = Activation energy (kJ mol\(^{-1}\))
- \( R \) = Gas constant (8.314 J K\(^{-1}\) mol\(^{-1}\))
- \( T \) = Absolute temperature (K)
- \( \bar{g} \) = Average/initial grain size (\( \mu m \))
- \( \bar{g}_{lim} \) = Limiting grain size (\( \mu m \))
- \( n \) = Time exponent

In this study, during the cooling cycle, two mechanisms have been considered which are free grain growth and grain growth in the presence of growing precipitates. The free grain growth is considered due to there is no precipitates at high temperature near to solidus temperature, meanwhile below the temperature of approximately 1200°C to 900°C, the presence of precipitates especially Chromium Carbides in austenitic stainless steel are taken into account.
2.5. Boundary Conditions

There were two types of boundary conditions involved in the cutting simulation consisting of thermal and mechanical boundary conditions. The thermal boundary conditions were defined by heat input of volumetric heat flux as described previously, as well as heat losses due to convection and radiation as expressed by Equation (7) and Equation (8) respectively.

\[ q_{\text{conv}} = h_{\text{conv}}(T_s - T_\infty) \]  
\[ q_{\text{rad}} = \sigma\varepsilon(T_s^4 - T_\infty^4) \]

In the above equations, \( h_{\text{conv}} \) is convective heat transfer coefficient, \( \sigma \) refers to Stefan Boltzmann’s constant and \( \varepsilon \) represents thermal emissivity, while \( T_s \) and \( T_\infty \) are surface temperature and ambient temperature respectively. Whereas the mechanical boundary condition was defined by fixation on the model nodes to prevent body motion.

2.6. Monte Carlo Simulation

Monte Carlo simulation is a method that takes variability of the inputs into account. The simulation analysis could involve numerous of recalculations before it is complete. Through this method, it could be able to produce distributions of possible outcome values. In this study, to perform the probabilistic analysis, the heat input power of the heat source was fluctuated within a certain range while the other processes parameters had been maintained. To ensure it happened, the input power would be varied by using Gaussian random variables. Thus, in order to support this process, a source of random numbers should be produced. There are a lot of random number generators available, but the most extensively used is linear congruential generator (LCG) which is defined by the following formula [22,23]:

\[ x_{i+1} = (a \cdot x_i + c) \mod M, \quad i \geq 0 \]  

where \( M \) is the modulus, \( a \) and \( c \) are the multiplier and increment respectively while \( x_0 \) is the seed or start value. Through this method, a sequence of pseudo-random integer numbers \( \{x_i\} \) could be generated. Furthermore, in order to produce a random number \( X_i \) in the range between 0 and 1, the random number \( x_i \) generated previously should be divided by \( M \) as shown below:

\[ X_i = \frac{x_i}{M}, \quad i \geq 1 \]

However, the random number \( X_i \) produced previously was uniformly distributed, U \((0,1)\). For this typical simulation, the Gaussian or normal random variable, N \((0,1)\) is preferable. Hence, Box-Muller method [24,25,26] could be employed as a tool to transform the uniform random variable into the Gaussian random variable. Through this method, the transformation could be implemented by converting a pair of uniform random variables \((X_1, X_2)\) into a pair of Gaussian random variables \((Y_1, Y_2)\) via the subsequent equations:

\[ Y_1 = \sqrt{-2\ln(X_1)}\cos(2\pi X_2) \]  
\[ Y_2 = \sqrt{-2\ln(X_1)}\sin(2\pi X_2) \]

For verification of the probabilistic method, the variation of the input power generated by the algorithm had been computed using general Fortran 77 program. This programming language was employed due to MSC MARC is built based on the same platform. In the cutting simulation, it was executed by using 200 values of different input powers for the variation instead of a single constant value. Therefore, the Fortran program was tested to generate a sequence of 200 random numbers. The
program outputs are exhibited in Figure 7. From the red bell curve as shown in the figure, it could be proven that the random input powers were generated according to normal distribution.

![Power Distribution](image)

**Figure 7.** Distribution of random variables

In this study, both simulations of deterministic and probabilistic analyses were carried out using the process parameters as follows:

| Parameters          | Types of analyses            |
|---------------------|------------------------------|
|                     | Normal (Deterministic) | Monte Carlo (Probabilistic) |
| Input power, P (W)  | 2000                        | $\mu = 2000, \sigma = 100$ |
| Cutting speed, v (mm/s) | 7.5                           | 7.5                           |
| Heat source model   | 3D conical                  | 3D conical                  |

3. Results and Discussion

After the simulations were completed, the postprocessing analyses could be implemented in which the grain size distribution caused by the thermal cutting process could be observed. Figure 8 displays the predicted result of grain size distribution at the final time after the cutting process was finished (20 seconds). The grain size distributions induced by both simulation methods were almost similar. The maximum grain sizes produced by deterministic and probabilistic were 48.36 $\mu$m and 49.09 $\mu$m respectively.
Figure 8. Grain size distribution after the thermal cutting process was finished

Figure 9 shows the comparison of grain size distributions through thickness at the middle length of the plate. From the cross sections, different grain size distributions could be obviously seen between both methods due to different temperature distributions. In order to see better comparison, the results produced at particular node which was Node 7851 has been chosen as shown in Figure 9 as well. The node was selected owing to its location which was in the region affected by the transient heat input.
Figure 9. Cross sections of grain size distributions at 50 mm from the starting point (in the middle) obtained from probabilistic (upper) and deterministic (lower) methods.

Figure 10. Grain growth during the thermal cutting process.
Figure 10 displays the grain growth at the chosen node induced through both simulation methods. By comparison, the final grain size produced by probabilistic method was slightly lower. The grain growth was dependent on the thermal cycle.

![Thermal Cycle](image)

**Figure 11.** Temperature history at Node 7851

**Table 2.** Temperature distributions at Node 7851 between 6.0 and 8.0 seconds

| Time, s | Temperature, °C Probabilistic | Temperature, °C Deterministic |
|--------|-------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 6.0    | 34.1934                       | 34.1379                      |
| 6.1    | 30.3226                       | 30.0667                      |
| 6.2    | 29.7903                       | 29.1721                      |
| 6.3    | 64.8705                       | 64.1524                      |
| 6.4    | 222.808                       | 217.599                      |
| 6.5    | 538.16                        | 534.246                      |
| 6.6    | 989.793                       | 950.039                      |
| 6.7    | 1190.01                       | 1178.3                       |
| 6.8    | 1178.82                       | 1176.29                      |
| 6.9    | 1074.38                       | 1077.44                      |
| 7.0    | 963.501                       | 967.173                      |
| 7.1    | 892.93                        | 898.364                      |
| 7.2    | 835.921                       | 845.478                      |
| 7.3    | 789.109                       | 800.912                      |
| 7.4    | 753.46                        | 759.156                      |
| 7.5    | 724.039                       | 724.636                      |
| 7.6    | 697.035                       | 694.947                      |
| 7.7    | 671.368                       | 668.092                      |
| 7.8    | 647.949                       | 644.124                      |
| 7.9    | 626.745                       | 622.68                       |
| 8.0    | 607.337                       | 603.232                      |
The temperature history at the chosen node is exhibited in Figure 11. However, due to small difference, both thermal cycles seemed very similar. Thus, the numerical values of temperature distributions produced by both methods were displayed in Table 2 from 6 to 8 seconds. The range of time between 6 and 8 seconds was crucial in determining the grain growth. Based on the results listed in Table 2, the difference could be clearly seen between probabilistic and deterministic methods.

4. Conclusions
From the analysis of the results, it was found that slight differences in grain size distributions had been produced between probabilistic and deterministic methods. Even though the differences were not very significant, but more importantly the Monte Carlo or probabilistic method could be successfully implemented and produced different prediction from the deterministic analysis. In this research, the probabilistic method was just employed to variate the input power while the other parameters were still maintained and thus producing minor changes in the predicted results. More significant difference in results could be obtained through probabilistic method by varying more than one parameter. In addition, the capability of Monte Carlo method is dependent on the output random numbers. The random number generator used in this study was one of the simple generators that could be incorporated into the normal deterministic FEM analysis. Therefore, the effectiveness of probabilistic analysis is dependent on the type of random number generator. The probabilistic analysis had the capability to produce better prediction due to it could replicate nearly to the real process as compared to the deterministic analysis. In the real process, the supply of input power is normally fluctuated in certain range and quite impossible to maintain at certain value. Hence, probabilistic method is one of the simulation approaches that can be executed to obtain the prediction that is close to the reality.

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