

WELDING OF HIGH STRENGTH AND STAINLESS STEELS:

A STUDY ON WELD METAL STRENGTH

AND STRESS RELIEVING

by

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Submitted to the Departments of Mechanical Engineering and Ocean Engineering on May 7, 1982 in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degrees of Master of science in Mechanical Engineering and Master of science in Ocean System Management.

ABSTRACT

The approach of weld metal strength undermatching in the fabrication of high strength steel structures is presented and justified in the Part I of the study.

Analytical techniques for the evaluation of the tensile strength of undermatched butt welded joints are presented and a numerical verification of assumptions and results is performed using the finite element program A.D.I.N.A.

The applicability and effectiveness of various stress-relieving methods is examined in Part II. An analytical model for the study of stress relaxation during post-weld heat treatments is also developed.

Welding and stress relieving experiments performed on stainless steel specimens in order to test the validity of the analysis, are described in Part III of the study. The development of a microcomputer-based data acquisition system for these experiments is also covered.

Finally in Part IV a welding cost model is developed and the economic aspects of welding production are outlined, together with the cost savings possible through the application of weld metal strength undermatching.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background and General Considerations

Welding is extensively used today in the fabrication of many structures including ships, buildings, pressure vessels and aerospace vehicles and certainly provides many advantages over other fabrication techniques. Welded structures however are by no means free from problems. The local nonuniform heating during welding and the subsequent cooling cause complex thermal strains to develop that finally lead to residual stresses, distortion and all their adverse consequences (such as brittle fracture, fatigue fracture, stress corrosion cracking or even buckling).

The extent to which these effects appear is directly related to the design and fabrication parameters and to the material properties of both the base plate and the weld metal. So for example, when the material is brittle, residual stresses can reduce the fracture strength of the weldment significantly. On the other hand, when the material is ductile the effects of the residual stresses on fracture are negligible. Most of the above problems are also seriously aggravated in the case of higher strength materials which find an increasing number of applications today.

For the case of high strength steels in particular, which are examined in this study, their inherent characteristic of decreasing fracture toughness with increasing strength should also be considered. Furthermore the fracture toughness of the

weld metal is usually less than that of the base plate. This is due to the existence of both high residual stresses and various types of defects such as cracks, porosity or slag inclusions. It should also be noted that good fracture properties in high strength steels are usually obtained through heat treatments, that are drastically different from the thermal cycles encountered in the weld metal during welding. Therefore, as the strength of the steel increases, it becomes more and more difficult to obtain weld metals that match the base plate in both strength and fracture toughness, as is traditionally required by the codes.

In addition, preheating is usually required before welding of high strength steel systems, in order to avoid hydrogen-induced delayed cracking of the weldments. It is generally believed that preheating results in slower cooling rates and therefore permits more hydrogen to diffuse and in the same time leads to lower thermal stresses. However, preheating complicates the whole welding operation and increases fabrication costs.

An alternative approach that results in lower stresses in the weld metal and requires less or no preheating is to use a filler metal having yield strength lower than the one of the base plate but ample fracture toughness. This "undermatching" philosophy is successfully applied in Japan and is under serious consideration in U.S. Justification of this approach is basically the underlying objective of Part I of this study. The cost reductions realizable through undermatching are further examined in Part IV.

It should be pointed out here, however, that despite of the precautions taken residual stresses of significant magnitude and possibly distortion will usually develop during welding of high strength steels. These can sometimes be brought under acceptable limits by some kind of stress relieving operation. Uniform or localized heat treatments are frequently specified by the fabrication codes. Such treatments, however, would again complicate the welding operations and increase the production costs. Furthermore, they might be detrimental to the microstructures and therefore to the mechanical properties of the base and / or the weld metal.

The effectiveness and applicability of stress relieving heat treatments and possible alternatives are examined in Part II and III of this study.

1.2 Objectives

The basic objectives of this study are (in the order they appear in the text):

- (a) A literature survey of the past studies dealing with the applicability and justification of the undermatching philosophy in high strength steels.
- (b) An analytical evaluation of the strength of undermatched butt welded joints.
- (c) A numerical evaluation of the strength of undermatched joints using the Finite Element Method.
- (d) An evaluation of the various stress relieving methods and their effects as well as a survey of the applicable industrial codes.

- (e) The development of an analytical model for the calculation of remaining stresses after stress relieving operation.
- (f) The experimental verification of the analytical model.
- (g) The development of a welding cost model and the evaluation of the cost savings possible through weld metal strength undermatching.

Finally an important byproduct of the experimental part of this study that should be mentioned separately was:

- (h) The development of a microcomputer-based data acquisition system for welding and / or stress relieving experiments.

1.3 Organization of the study

The next several chapters of this study deal with the objectives set forth in the previous section. Specifically in Chapter II a justification of the undermatching philosophy is attempted and to this end results of various past studies (mostly by Japanese investigators) are reviewed. In Chapter III analytical techniques for the evaluation of the strength of simple undermatched butt welded joints are presented. Further in order to verify the assumptions and to confirm the results of the analysis a numerical evaluation of the strength of the same joints is performed using the finite element program ADINA.

The various stress relieving methods and the applicable codes are reviewed in Chapter IV. Special consideration is given in the assesement of the effects of thermal stress relieving treatments and the evaluation of possible alternatives. In Chapter V an one dimensional model is developed for the analysis

of stress relaxation due to heat treatments. However, since necessary creep properties were not available for high strength quenched and tempered steels further analysis was limited to 304 stainless steels.

For comparison, welding and stress relieving experiments, described in Chapter VI, were performed. Furthermore, the basic characteristics of the developed microcomputer-based data acquisition system are also presented in this chapter. Results conclusions and recommendations were summarized in Chapter VII.

In Chapter VIII a welding cost model is developed and various economic aspects of welding production are outlined. The possible cost savings through the application of weld metal strength undermatching are finally examined in Chapter IX

PART I

WELD METAL STRENGTH UNDERMATCHING

CHAPTER II

THE APPROACH OF WELD METAL STRENGTH

UNDERMATCHING-A LITERATURE SURVEY

2.1 Overmatching Versus Undermatching

In the design and fabrication of welded structures efforts are usually made, in accordance with the codes, to ensure that the weld metal has both adequate strength and toughness. When welding ordinary low-carbon steel it is not difficult to obtain weld metals that match the base metals in both strength and fracture toughness, [5], whereas for higher yield strength steels, this match becomes increasingly difficult to maintain.

This problem is particularly evident in the case of quenched and tempered steels, such as the HY-series U.S. Navy steels, whose high yield strength and excellent toughness are obtained through heat treatments. There are basically two approaches in coping with the problem.

The first is to require a weld metal with tensile strength at least equal to the specified minimum tensile properties of the base metal and toughness that can be achieved reliably by good welding practices, which is often less than that of the base metal. The second approach is to accept weld metals that slightly undermatch the base metal in strength but have adequate fracture toughness.

The overmatching approach, that has been traditionally followed by U.S. Navy codes, evolved in order to ensure that the weldment was not a "weak link" in the structure [6]. The adequacy of the approach for ordinary low-carbon steels was

proven by explosion bulge tests, by Masubuchi [5] and Pelini [3]. However, it is questionable whether an extrapolation of this philosophy is appropriate for high strength steel systems. That is, there exists little evidence that strength overmatching would guarantee adequate performance.

In contrary to U.S. specifications, some Japanese industrial standards have accepted the undermatching approach both for repairs and for initial welding of various layers in multipass welds, following extensive research efforts. Lower strength filler metals may permit reductions in the preheating temperatures required and would result in easier welding of highly restrained heavy sections. Additionally, with weld metals of lower yield strength, local plastic deformations can reduce stress concentrations in hard spots. It should also be noted, that the overall strength and ductility of an undermatched joint is usually not adversely influenced by the existence of the lower yield strength zone. Specifically as was observed by various investigators the joint strength can often reach that of the base metal, if the reduction in strength is not large and the weld size sufficiently small.

A number of researchers in different countries have studied the effects of the mechanical properties of the weld metal and the heat affected zone on the mechanical behavior of weldments in different materials ([7] to [10]). Specifically in Japan, however, the S.J. (Soft Joint) Committee of the Japan Welding Engineering Society (J.W.E.S.) has undertaken extensive research efforts, during the past decade, to determine the

mechanical behavior of undermatched welded joints and to find reasonable strength levels for the filler metal from the standpoint of both workmanship and joint performance, [11].

The initial fundamental studies of Satoh et al., [12], [13], [14] and [15], were followed by detailed performance analysis of static tensile strength, fatigue strength and brittle fracture strength of undermatched butt and fillet welds. The next sections of this chapter present in summary the results of these studies. A more extensive review was performed by the author in [16].

The analytical and numerical evaluation of the strength of an undermatched butt welded joint will be presented in the next chapter.

2.2 Tensile Strength of Undermatched Butt Welds

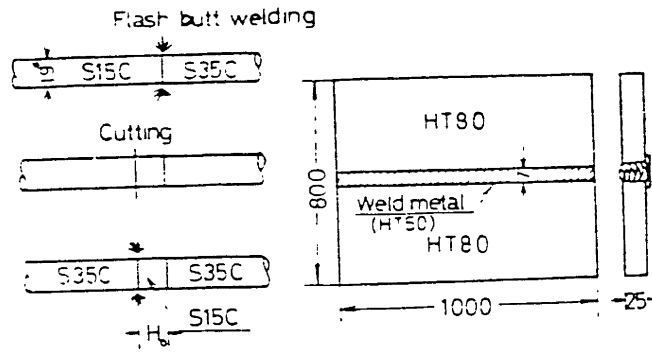
2.2.1 Fundamental Experimental Studies

The static tensile properties of welded plates, including soft interlayers and loaded either across or parallel to the weld line, were evaluated in an extensive research program completed by Satoh and Toyoda in the late 1960's and early 1970's at Osaka University, [12], [13], [14] and [15].

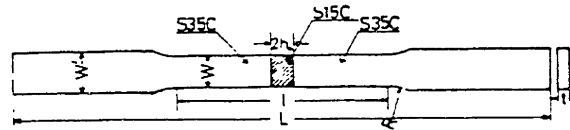
Round bar specimens of a medium carbon steel including a flash welded soft interlayer of low carbon steel were initially tested, [13]. Heterogeneity in mechanical properties along the specimen was estimated by the hardness distribution over a longitudinal section. Results of the tensile tests suggested that the strength of the joint approaches that of the base metal when the ratio of the thickness of the soft interlayer to

the diameter of the bar is sufficiently small. Tests of flat bar specimens loaded across the weld line followed [14]. The specimens, shown in figure 2.1, were prepared either by flash welding of round bars of S15C* and S35C* structural steels or by gas metal arc welding of high tensile strength, HT-80*, steel plates (minimum tensile strength of 80 Kg/mm^2), using electrodes producing weld metal with minimum tensile strength of 50 Kg/mm^2 . Results of the tensile tests given in figure 2.2 and 2.3 indicate that the ultimate tensile strength and yield stress of the joint depend on both the relative thickness X_t (the ratio of the soft interlayer thickness, H , to the plate thickness, t) and the plate width to thickness ratio (w/t). Specifically the joint strength increases as the X_t decreases and reaches the strength of the base metal when X_t is sufficiently small. Additionally figure 2.3 suggests that when the plate width to thickness ratio increases, the ultimate tensile strength of the joint increases also up to a certain definite value that depends on X_t . The plate width, W_∞ , above which the tensile strength becomes equal to the one of an infinite plate depends on both H and t . This influence was also verified by Yoshinaga [17] and Hisamitsu [18]. For $X_t < 1$, in general, W_∞ can be roughly estimated by $W_\infty = 5 t$ and is independent of H . When $X_t > 1$, however, plastic constraint in the plate thickness direction - which is the cause of the strength increase - will disappear at the mid cross-section of

* S15C, S35C and HT-80 are Japanese steel grades. Note that HT-80 has nothing to do with HY-80 (the primary U.S. Navy hull construction high strength steel)

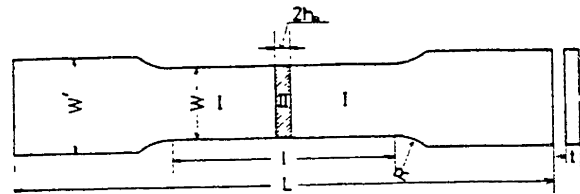


(a) Series A, B (b) Series S, T



	Dimension mm					
	l	L	W	W'	R	t
Series A	90	240	10	18	20	3
Series B	90	240	15	18	25	5

Dimensions of specimens (Series A, B)



	Dimension mm							
	l	L	W	W'	R	t	2h	
Series S	200	600	20-120	40-200	25-60	20	7	
Series T	200	500	85-100	60-140	30-50	15	7	

Dimensions of specimens (Series S, T)

Figure 2.1 : Specimen sizes and configuration

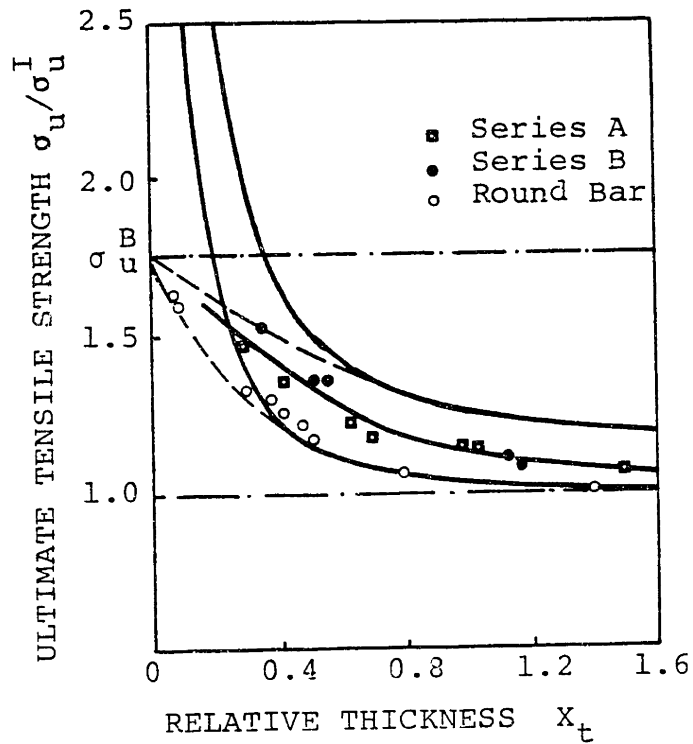


Figure 2.2 : Ultimate tensile strength vs relative thickness (Series A,B)

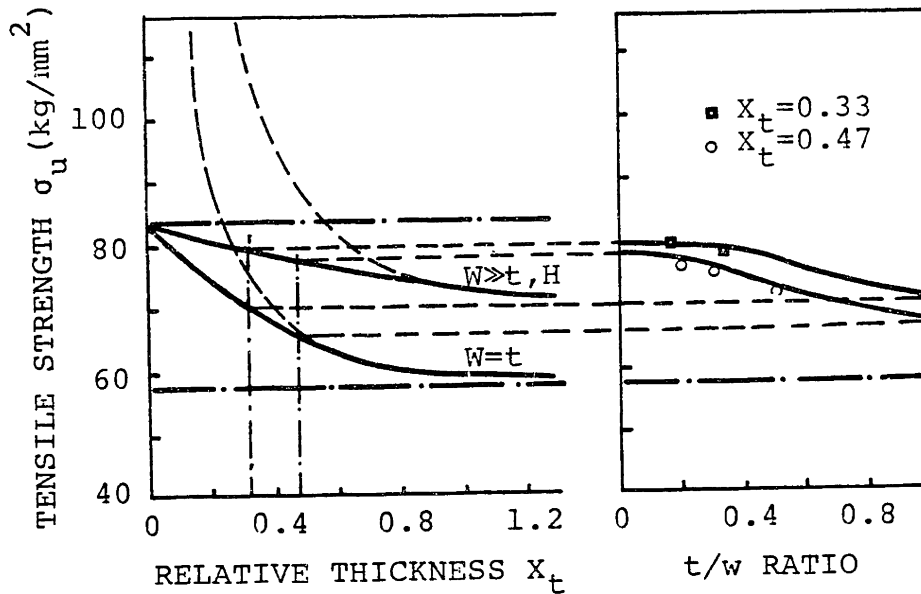


Figure 2.3 : Effect of plate width on ultimate tensile strength of welded plates (Series S,T)

the soft interlayer and the W_{∞} -value will depend only on the H-value . Experimentation and analysis showed that in this case we can roughly estimate $W_{\infty} = 5H$.

To simulate more applications , other experiments were carried out with loading parallel to the weld line, [15]. The results of these tests suggest that the strength and the ductility of the joint depend on the value of the ratio of the width of the hard zone to that of the soft zone and become almost equal to those of the hard metal when the ratio is larger than 10.

Strain distributions in the composite weldment are almost uniform along the mid cross-section of the specimen at each load level except when yielding and after the maximum load. Behavior of the axial strain around yielding seems to be influenced by the ratio of the width of the soft metal to the thickness of the plate . When this ratio is smaller than 2 ,the strain increases almost uniformly along a cross section until general yielding occurs. At that point, base metal strains are temporarily larger than those of the soft metal. When the ratio is larger than 2, nonuniform distribution of the strain occurs at average stress somewhat larger than the yield strength of soft material and continues until general yielding.

2.2.2 Performance Study

The initial experimental studies, indicated that, for the idealized joints examined, the ultimate tensile strength may be as high as that of the base metal if the average width of the weld metal is sufficiently small.

To assess the applicability of undermatching in actual structures, the S.J. committee of the Japan Welding Engineering Society carried out a performance study presented in [19],[20] and [21]. Wide plate specimens shown in figure 2.4 were prepared by shielded metal arc welding of 70 mm thick HT-80 plates with various under- or overmatching electrodes. Results indicated that for butt welded specimens with an average relative thickness $(X_t)_{av}$ between 0.2 and 0.3, the strength of the joint reached the strength of the base plate when the ultimate tensile strength of the weld metal, σ_u^W , was nearly 90% of the ultimate tensile strength of the base metal, σ_u^B . That is for (σ_u^W/σ_u^B) ratio larger than 0.9, the undermatched welded joint behaved in almost the same way as the base plate in terms of both strength and ductility.

2.3 Tensile Strength of Undermatched Fillet Welds

The S.J. Committee of the J.W.E.S. also investigated the applicability of undermatching in fillet welds. Experiments were performed with various specimens of high strength steel (U.T.S. of 84.1 Kg/mm^2) welded with undermatched electrodes (U.T.S. of 40 to 80 Kg/mm^2). Detailed presentation and results for tensile and shear tests appear in [11]. It should however be noted that the geometry and the size of the fillet is also important now, since they can be adjusted to compensate for the lower strength of the weld metal.

2.4 Fatigue Strength of Undermatched Welded Joints

Gelman and Kudrayartzev showed experimentally, [9], that the fatigue strength of bars with a soft interlayer increased

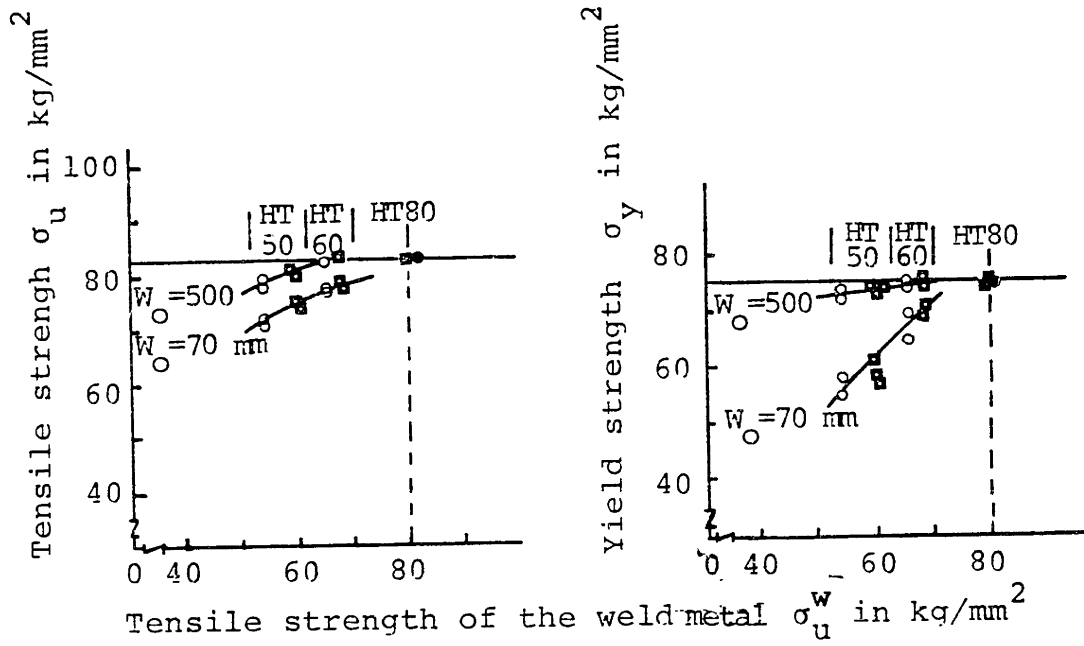


Figure 2.4(a): Results of the tensile tests

Type	W_o	L_o	t_o	W'	R
L	500	400	70	800	200
M	70	400	70	140	200

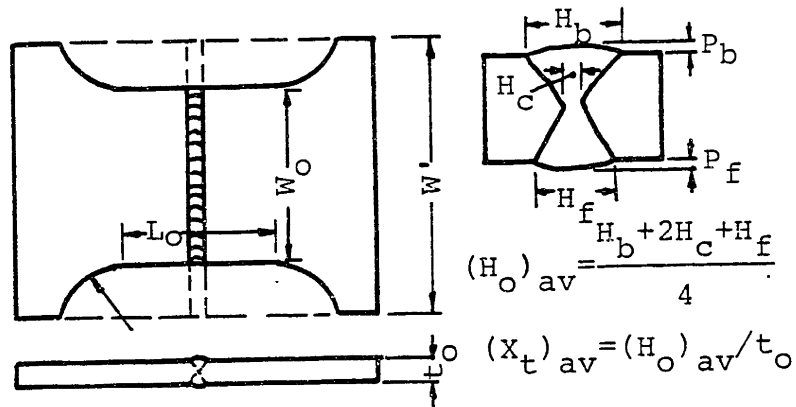


Figure 2.4(b): Specimen design and dimensions for static tensile tests

when the thickness of the interlayer decreased. In the late 1960's Satoh and Nagai, [12], investigated the fatigue strength of welded or locally work hardened round bars having hard or soft interlayers. Fatigue tests were performed with a rotating bending machine and the results indicated in general that the hard interlayer had no effect on fatigue strength, whereas for the soft interlayer the fatigue strength decreases drastically as the thickness of the interlayer increases.

To evaluate the performance of actual undermatched welded joints, the S. J. Committee of the Japan Welding Engineering Society conducted a series of fatigue tests using HT-80 specimens welded with E7016 and E11016 electrodes. The first series of specimens tested (FT, FL) is shown in Figure 2.5.

The mechanical properties of the base metal and the weld metals together with fatigue test results are shown in Table 2.1. Specimens were tested under a pulsating load between zero and 35 Kg/mm^2 , and between zero and 55 Kg/mm^2 . In the FT specimens, where tensile stress was applied transversely to the weld, fatigue cracks occurred at the toe of reinforcement and propagated in the direction of the thickness. No appreciable difference in the number of cycles to fracture appeared between the overmatched and the undermatched joints. In FL specimens, however, where tensile stresses were applied parallel to the weld, the fatigue life of the overmatched joint was somewhat longer because fatigue cracks were initiated on the surface of the weld metal. In both FL and FT specimens, the weld reinforcement had not been removed. Further tests for other

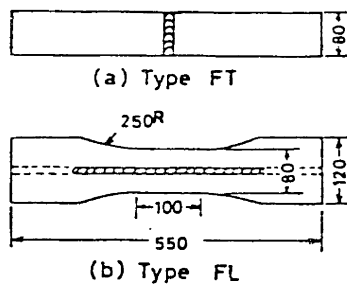


Figure 2.5 : Type FT and FL fatigue specimens [28]

Table 2.1 : Mechanical Properties of the materials used in the fatigue tests [28]

Material	Tensile Strength (Kg/mm ²)	Yield Strength (Kg/mm ²)
Base metal HT 80 ^(a)	84	79
Weld E 11016	86	74
Metal E 7016	55	-

(a): Chemical composition: C 0.10%, Mn 0.79%, Si 0.26%
P 0.004%, S 0.007%, Ni 0.83%, Cr 0.52%, Mo 0.34%

Maximum Stress applied (Kg/mm ²)	Electrode used	No. of cycle at fracture	
		Type FT (x10 ⁴)	Type FL (x10 ⁴)
35	E 11016-G	15.2	20.8
		13.2	23.1
	E 7016	13.8	16.2
		14.1	22.3
55	E 11016-G	3.72	2.62
		1.38	2.45
		3.17	
	E 7016	8.65	4.63
		6.63	5.34

geometries, as well, verified the above results and showed that in general removing the reinforcement led to improved fatigue behavior [11] as shown in Figure 2.6.

2.5 Brittle Fracture Behavior of Undermatched Welded Joints

Various studies were performed to investigate the brittle fracture strength of undermatched welded joints in high strength steels. ([22],[23] and [24]). It was generally indicated from test results that higher fracture toughness or lower transition temperature should be required for the undermatching weld metal than for the overmatching one.

Satoh and Toyoda, [23], have further shown that if T_s is the fracture transition temperature obtained from a V-notch Charpy test and ΔT_s is the difference in the fracture transition temperature, between overmatching and undermatching filler metals, required to obtain the same fracture initiation temperature, T_i , for a welded and notched wide plate, then:

$$\Delta T_s = 80 \ln (S_r)_y [1 - 65(1/T_i - 1/273)]$$

where $(S_r)_y$ is the ratio of the yield stress of the undermatching and overmatching filler metals and T_i is in degrees K° .

So if for example the $(S_r)_y = 0.8$ and $T_i = -50^\circ C$ to $-150^\circ C$ then the transition temperature required for the undermatching filler metal is $15^\circ C$ to $20^\circ C$ less than that of the overmatching one.

2.6 Residual Stresses in Undermatching Welded Joints

In low carbon steel weldments maximum tensile residual stresses in the weld metal usually reach the yield stress of

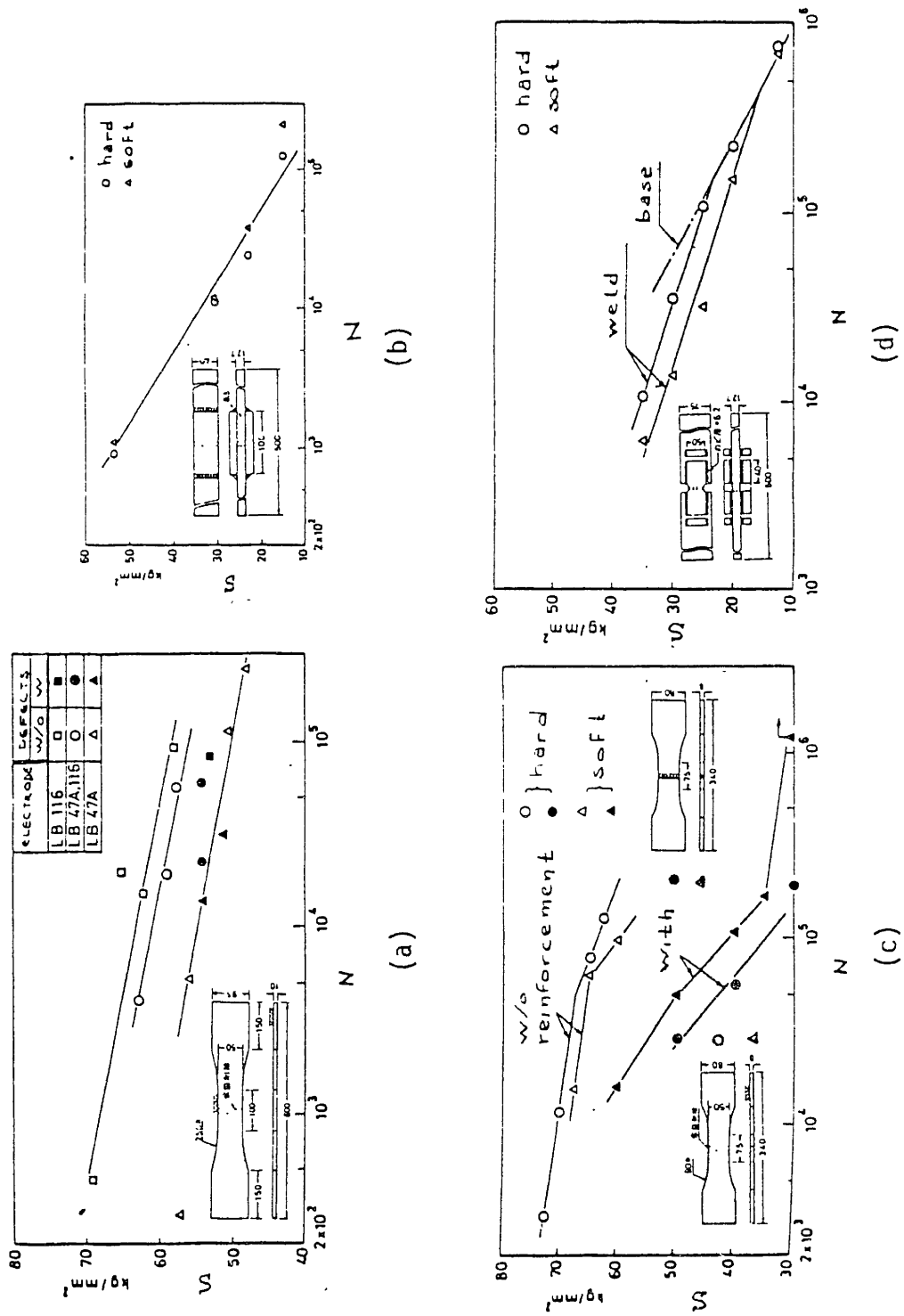


Figure 2.6 : Fatigue test results for various specimens tested by JWES [11]

the material, [1]. In high strength steel weldments, however, the experimentally obtained distribution of residual stresses has maximum peaks lower than the yield strength of the material. Additionally the width of the tensile stress zone is usually observed to be wider than what it should have been if the material behaved analogously to lower strength steels.

This behavior has been confirmed by various investigators, [25],[26],[27], and is depicted schematically in Figure 2.7 adapted from [1]. Direct analogy with lower strength steels would suggest curve (1). Analytical predictions, support (2) whereas experiments tend to indicate that (3) is correct. It is assumed in the bibliography, however, that the actual distribution lies between (2) and (3). The discrepancies are usually attributed to additional expansion during cooling, due to phase changes that occur in the higher strength steels.

Although no actual results have been reported it is believed that lower yield strength filler metals would result in lower residual stress peaks.

2.7 Structural Applications

The applicability of undermatching filler metals in structural fabrication, as established by the initial fundamental studies and joint performance tests was further verified by actual structural applications.

One of the early examples was the burst test of welded pipes 4100 mm long, 950 mm in diameter and made of 12 mm thick HT-80 steel plates. Weld metal had a measured ultimate strength of 77 Kg/mm^2 . However, as reported in [28] and [11], during the

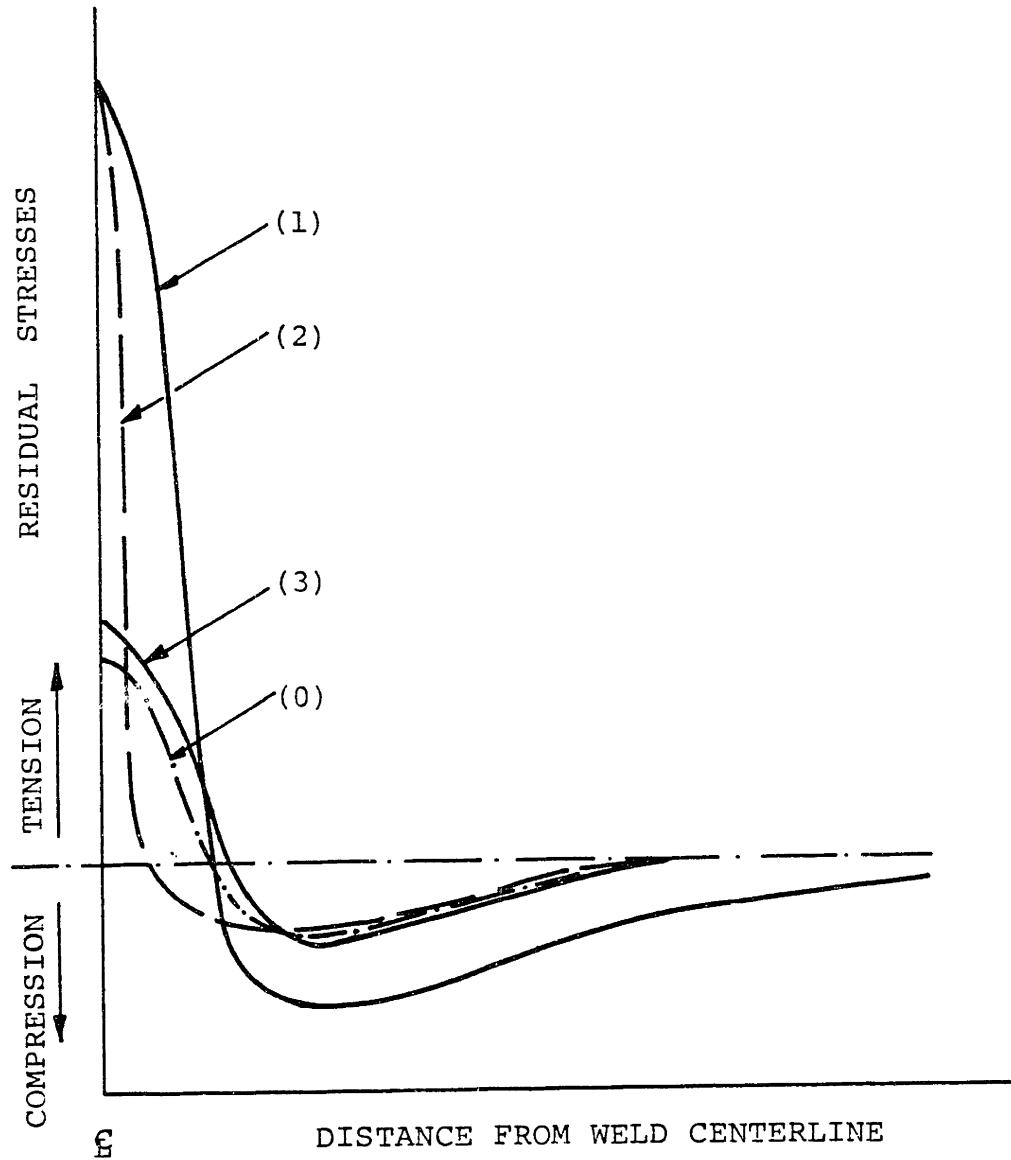


Figure 2.7 : Possible distributions of longitudinal residual stresses in butt welded plates of high strength steel.

burst test, fracture started at an internal pressure of 235 Kg/mm^2 corresponding to a circumferential stress of 90 Kg/mm^2 (just above the minimum ultimate tensile strength of the base plate, 89 Kg/mm^2). It is apparent therefore that the undermatched filler metal had no harmful influence.

Another extensive investigation of the potential applicability of undermatching in the field welding of HT-80 heavy plates was also carried out by Satoh et al, [21],[29] and [30]. Both experiments and service experience verified that the use of undermatching electrodes effectively lowered the preheating temperature, required to prevent root cracking caused by the first pass, and weld metal cracking, caused by the subsequent passes, in multipass welding of 50 mm thick sections.

Additionally not appreciable differences in tensile strength and uniform elongation between the overmatched and the undermatched welded joints was observed. Tests were performed on wide plate tension specimens, with or without notch, tested at a temperature slightly lower than the minimum service temperature experienced in the field.

CHAPTER III

ANALYTICAL AND NUMERICAL EVALUATION OF THE
STRENGTH OF UNDERMATCHED BUTT WELDED JOINTS3.1 Analytical Strength Evaluation3.1.1 General Discussion

The effect of a region of lower yield strength weld material on the mechanical behavior of a joint, depends, in general, on the type of the joint, the size of the weldment, the degree of reduction in strength, the width of the lower strength zone, the types of loading encountered and the loading directions.

Thus referring to Figure 3.1(a) we note that when tensile loading is applied to a transverse butt weld, the joint is under constant stress. When the applied stress exceeds the yield strength of the weld material, strain concentrations occur in the weld metal and result in fracture. However, the extent of the effects of the L.Y.S. zone depends on the degree of reduction in strength and the width of the zone. In the case of Figure 3.1(b), where the tensile loading is applied to a longitudinal butt weld, the joint is under constant strain and the effect of the lower yield strength material is very small as long as the zone has enough ductility and the width of the weldment is reasonably larger than that of the weld metal.

Thus, in what follows, we will only restrict ourselves in the analytical evaluation of the strength of butt welded joints, loaded in a direction perpendicular to the weld line, and later in the numerical verification of assumptions and results

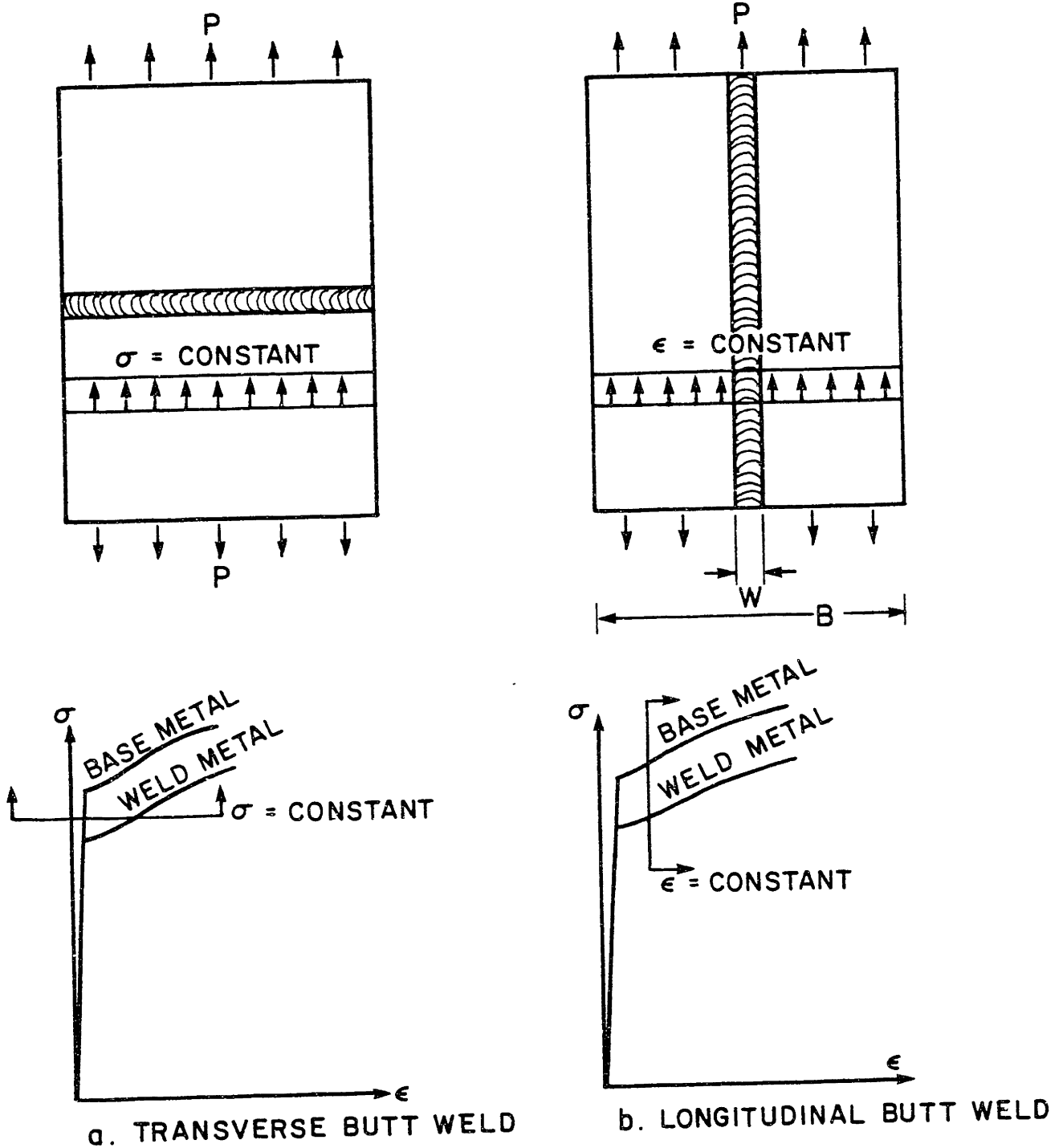


Figure 3.1 : Butt welds subjected to tensile loading,
 (a) transverse to the weld line and
 (b) parallel to the weld line.

(by the F.E.M. method).

3.1.2 Plane Strain Case-Infinite Width Plate

An idealized butt welded joint is shown in Figure 3.2. If the weld metal is of lower yield strength the plastic flow under tensile loading starts in the interlayer. Large transverse plastic flow near the base metal will be prevented and the triaxial stress state in the interlayer will be similar to the one of the neck of a tension specimen.

When the joint width W_0 is much larger than the thickness t_0 and H_0 , deformations in the direction of the width will take place in planes perpendicular to the x axis except for parts close to the ends. The case is eventually one of plane strain with $\epsilon_x = 0$.

We further assume the following:

- The joints consist only of two kinds of metals each being an isotropic and homogeneous material.
- The base metals behave like rigid bodies and do not contract in the thickness direction even when plastic flow occurs sufficiently in the soft interlayer.
- During the deformation of the neck there is no permanent volume change.
- The equivalent stress $\bar{\sigma}$ versus equivalent strain $\bar{\epsilon}$ relation of the soft interlayer is

$$\bar{\sigma} = K\bar{\epsilon}^n \quad (3-1)$$

where K and n are material constants.

The analysis of the triaxial stress state in the neck was performed by Satoh and Toyoda,[13], in a way similar to the one

(I) Hard base metal
 (II) Soft interlayer

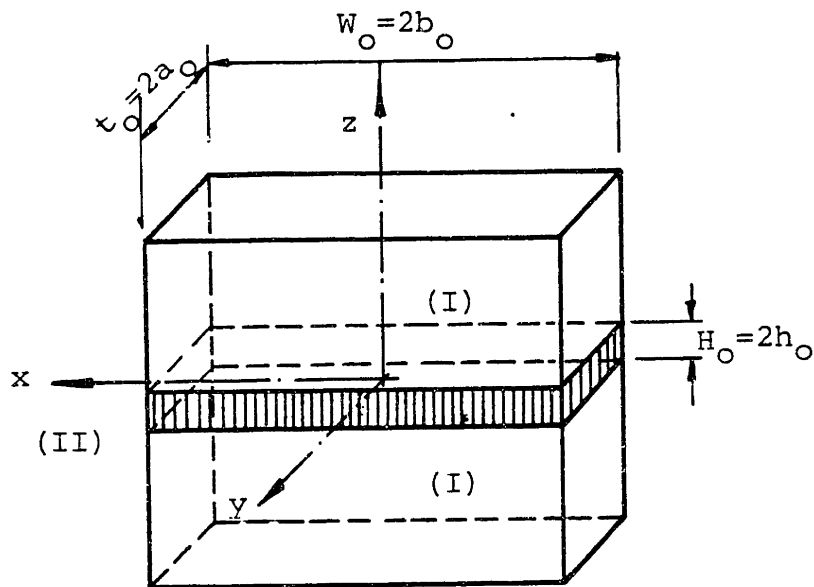
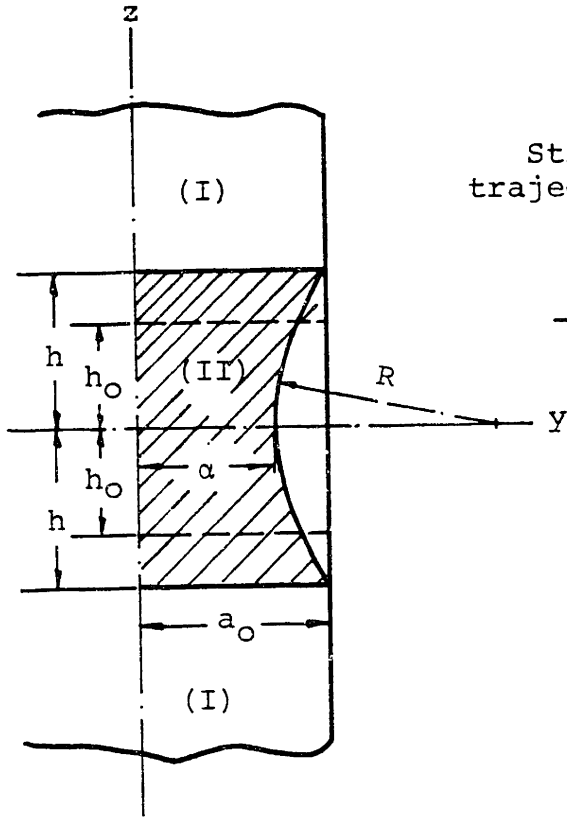


Figure 3.2 : Idealized model of two butt welded plates with a lower strength interlayer.
 (Plane strain case for $W_0 \gg t_0$)



(I) Hard base metal
(II) Soft interlayer

Figure 3.3 :
Deformation of welded joints
including a soft interlayer
(plane strain case)

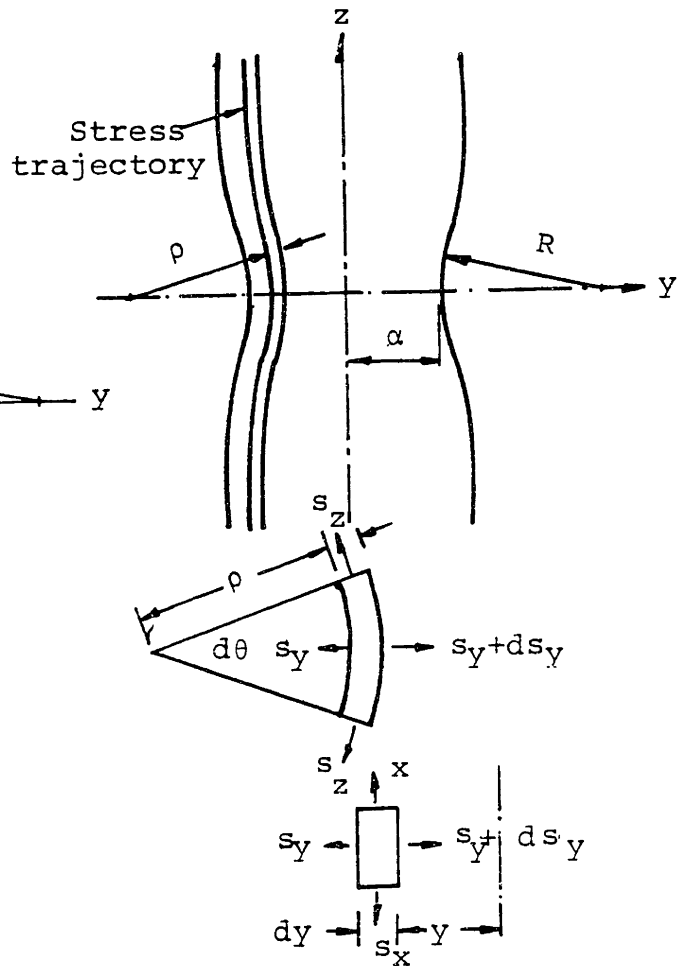


Figure 3.4 :
Deformation of the neck area.
Stress trajectories and equilibrium.
(plane strain case)

followed by Davidenkov and Spiridonova [31].

Let s_x, s_y, s_z be the true stress components at the neck, e_x, e_y, e_z the true strains and $\epsilon_x, \epsilon_y, \epsilon_z$ the corresponding engineering strains. Referring to Figure 3.4, we denote by ρ the radius of curvature of a certain stress trajectory in the yz plane. For an element at the neck having a unit length in the x -direction, the stress equilibrium in the y -direction will give:

$$-s_y \rho d\theta + (s_y + ds_y) (\rho + dy) d\theta - s_z dy d\theta = 0 \quad (3-2)$$

but since $dy/\rho \ll 1$, (2) gives:

$$ds_y = \frac{1}{\rho} (s_z - s_y) dy \quad (3-3)$$

Supposing that the material yields according to Von Mises yield condition we have :

$$(s_x - s_y)^2 + (s_y - s_z)^2 + (s_z - s_x)^2 = 2\bar{\sigma}^2 \quad (3-4)$$

where $\bar{\sigma}$ the equivalent stress. But for the plane strain state

$$e_x = 0$$

and

$$s_x = \frac{1}{2} (s_z + s_y) \quad (3-5)$$

thus, from (4) and (5), the yield condition will be:

$$s_z - s_y = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \bar{\sigma} \quad (3-6)$$

(6) in (3) gives

$$s_y = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \int_y^\alpha \bar{\sigma} \frac{dy}{\rho} \quad (3-7)$$

and then from (6)

$$s_z = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \left\{ \bar{\sigma} + \int_y^\alpha \bar{\sigma} \frac{dy}{\rho} \right\} \quad (3-8)$$

Now we use two experimental observations made by Davidenkov and Spiridonova (and also used by Bridgman [32] with no experimental basis).

- (a) the e_y and e_z strains are independent of y (same across the section).
- (b) the curvature $1/\rho$ of the stress trajectory is proportional to y that is

$$\frac{1}{\rho} = \frac{y}{\alpha R} \quad (3-9)$$

(7), (8) and (9) then give:

$$s_y = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \bar{\sigma} \frac{\alpha^2 - y^2}{2\alpha R} \quad (3-10)$$

$$s_z = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \bar{\sigma} \left(1 + \frac{\alpha^2 - y^2}{2\alpha R} \right) \quad (3-11)$$

Thus, the average axial stress at the neck will be:

$$\bar{s}_z = \frac{1}{\alpha} \int_0^\alpha s_z dy = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \bar{\sigma} \left(1 + \frac{\alpha}{R} \right) \quad (3-12)$$

But from (1)

$$\bar{\sigma} = K \bar{\epsilon}^{-n}$$

and

$$\bar{\epsilon} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \sqrt{e_x^2 + e_y^2 + e_z^2} \quad (3-13)$$

However, for plane strain $e_x = 0$ and for volume conservation $e_y = -e_z$, therefore the equivalent strain will be:

$$\bar{\epsilon} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} e_z \quad (3-14)$$

and

$$\bar{\sigma} = \left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}\right)^n K e_z^n \quad (3-15)$$

which substituted back to (12) gives:

$$\tilde{s}_z = \left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}\right)^{n+1} K \left(1 + \frac{\alpha}{3R}\right) e_z^n$$

or rewriting it in terms of nominal stress σ_z and strain ϵ_z

$$\sigma_z = \left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}\right)^{n+1} \frac{K \{\ln(1 + \epsilon_z)\}^n}{1 + \epsilon_z} \left(1 + \frac{\alpha}{3R}\right) \quad (3-16)$$

since

$$\tilde{s}_z = \sigma_z (1 + \epsilon_z)$$

and

$$e_z = \ln(1 + \epsilon_z)$$

From geometry in Figure 5, we have for the nominal strain ϵ_y

$$\epsilon_y = \frac{\alpha - \alpha_0}{\alpha_0} = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha_0} - 1$$

But $e_y = \ln(1 + \epsilon_y)$

and from volume conservation

$$e_y = -e_z$$

then

$$\frac{\alpha}{\alpha_0} = e^{-e_z} = e^{-\ln(1 + \epsilon_z)} = \frac{1}{1 + \epsilon_z} \quad (3-17)$$

Also from the geometry

$$\sqrt{R^2 - h^2} = R - (\alpha_0 - \alpha)$$

or,

$$h^2 = (\alpha_0 - \alpha) [2R - \alpha_0 + \alpha] \quad (3-18)$$

and from volume conservation:

$$\alpha_0 h_0 = (\alpha + R) h - \frac{1}{2} \left(R h \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{h}{R}\right)^2} + R^2 \sin^{-1} \frac{h}{R} \right) \quad (3-19)$$

If we now introduce:

$$X_t = \frac{h_0}{\alpha_0}, \quad Y_t = \frac{\alpha}{3R}, \quad \epsilon = \frac{1}{1 + \epsilon_z} \quad (3-20)$$

we get from eqns. (17), (18) and (19)

$$X_t = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \sqrt{(1-\epsilon) \left\{ \frac{2\epsilon}{Y_t} - 3(1-\epsilon) \right\}} \cdot \left\{ \frac{2\epsilon + 1}{3} - \frac{(1-\epsilon)^2 Y_t}{2\epsilon} \right\} \quad (3-21)$$

Equation (21) relates ϵ to Y_t for every X_t and together with

(16) gives the stress strain (σ_z vs. ϵ_z) relation for every

$X_t = h_0/\alpha_0$.

Based on equations (16) and (21) Satoh and Toyoda

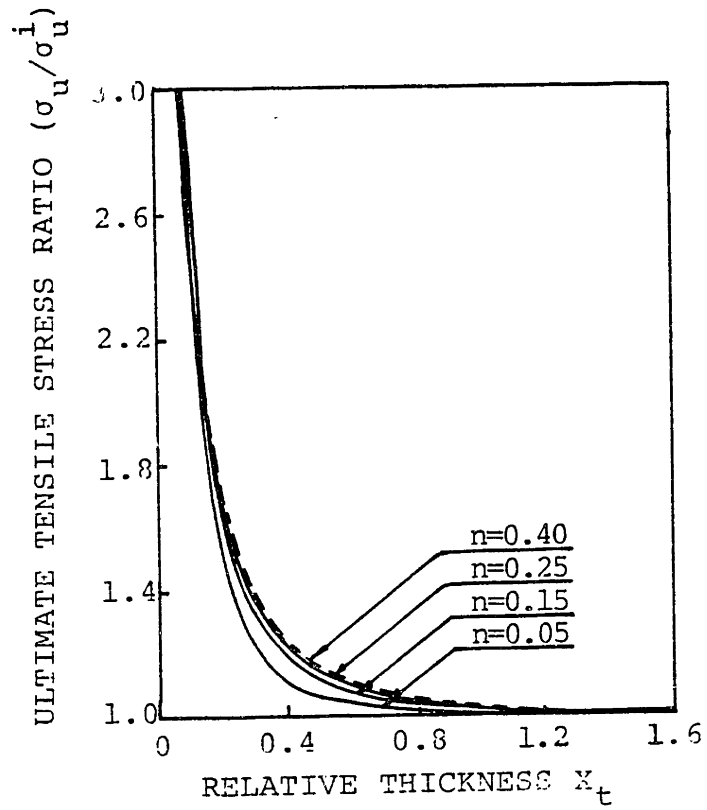


Figure 3.5 : Ultimate tensile strength in the plane state case as a function of relative thickness X_t (Assume a stress strain law : $\sigma = K \cdot \epsilon^n$), [13]

calculated different $\sigma_z - \epsilon_z$ curves and determined the effect of relative thickness on the ultimate and yield strength (Figure 3.5).

Taking into account the effect of plastic flow in the base metals, however, the results derived earlier are modified, as shown by the dotted curves of Figure 2.2 [14]. In the same figure, are shown some experimental results also by Satoh and Toyoda.

3.1.3 Axisymmetric Case

For the case of a round tensile specimen which deforms as in Figure 3.6, we will start with similar assumptions as before.

- Both base material and the soft interlayer are uniform and isotropic materials.
- Suppose (in a first approximation) that the base material is rigid.
- Suppose that the interface between the soft and the hard layer remains perpendicular to the loading direction.
- After necking the joint configuration will be as in Figure 3.6.
- Volume remains constant.
- The true stress-true strain law will be

$$s = Ke^n \quad (3-22)$$

Again based on Davidenkov's analysis and assuming that the stress trajectories will be as in Figure 3.7, we further assume that

- the tangential and radial true strains are equal, and since volume is constant we get:

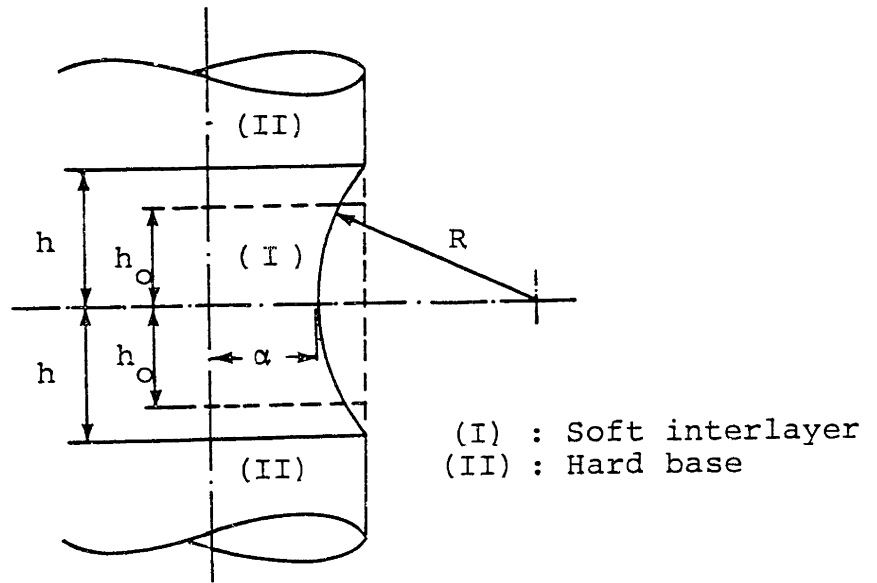


Figure 3.6 : Welded joint including soft interlayer - Axisymmetric case

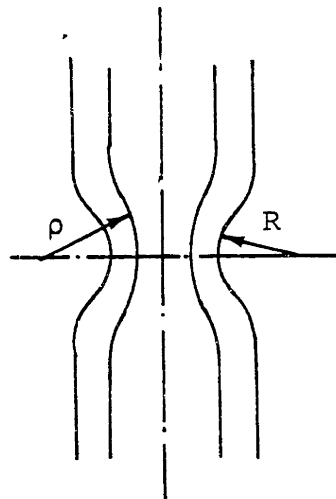


Figure 3.7 : Sketch of the stress trajectories in the neck of a round tensile specimen

$$e_r = e_\theta = -\frac{1}{2} e_z \quad (3-23)$$

and

-the curvature is linearly related to the radius or

$$\frac{1}{\rho} = \frac{r}{\alpha R} \quad (3-24)$$

We further assume that the strain does not change along the neck cross section and, thus, the differences in principal stresses are also the same, according to hypotheses of both maximum shearing stress and the octahedral shearing stress. So starting with the equilibrium equation in the radial direction and integrating along a section we get:

$$s_r = s_o \int_r^\alpha \frac{dr}{\rho} \quad (3-25)$$

where s_o denotes the difference in principal stresses. Now using (24) we get

$$s_r = \frac{s_o (\alpha^2 - r^2)}{2R\alpha} \quad (3-26)$$

whereas the axial stress will then be:

$$s_z = s_o + s_r = s_o \left\{ 1 + \frac{\alpha^2 - x^2}{2R\alpha} \right\} \quad (3-27)$$

and the average axial stress will be

$$\tilde{s}_z = s_o \left\{ 1 + \frac{\alpha}{4R} \right\} \quad (3-28)$$

If e_r, e_θ, e_z are the true strains and $\epsilon_r, \epsilon_\theta$ and ϵ_z are the engineering ones then from geometry:

$$\epsilon_r = \frac{\alpha - \alpha_0}{\alpha_0} = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha_0} - 1$$

or

$$\frac{\alpha}{\alpha_0} = 1 - \frac{\epsilon_z}{2} \quad (2-29)$$

and also from geometry

$$h_0^2 = (\alpha_0 - \alpha) (2R - \alpha_0 + \alpha) \quad (3-30)$$

whereas from volume conservation

$$(2R^2 + 2\alpha R + \alpha^2)h - \frac{h^3}{3} - (R + \alpha) \cdot$$

$$\cdot \left\{ Rh \sqrt{1 - \frac{h^2}{R^2}} + R^2 \sin^{-1} \frac{h}{R} \right\} = \alpha_0^2 h_0 \quad (3-31)$$

which after expanding in series in h/R and keeping the first terms only gives:

$$\alpha h^3 + 3\alpha^2 Rh - 3\alpha_0^2 R h_0 = 0 \quad (3-32)$$

introducing now

$$x \equiv \frac{h}{R} \quad \text{and} \quad y \equiv \frac{\alpha_0}{R}, \quad X = \frac{h_0}{\alpha_0}$$

we rewrite eqns. (30) and (32) as

$$x^2 = y\epsilon_z \left(1 - \frac{y\epsilon_z}{4} \right) \quad (3-33)$$

and

$$yx \left(1 - \frac{\epsilon_z}{2}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{3} yx^3 \left(1 - \frac{\epsilon_z}{2}\right) = y^3 x \quad (3-34)$$

and also

$$x = \left(1 - \frac{\epsilon_z}{2}\right)^2 \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_z}{y} - \frac{\epsilon_z^2}{4}} + \frac{1}{3} \left(1 - \frac{\epsilon_z}{2}\right) \cdot y \cdot \left(\sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_z}{y} - \frac{\epsilon_z^2}{4}}\right)^3 \quad (3-35)$$

Introducing

$$y \equiv \frac{\alpha}{4R} = \frac{y}{4} \left(1 - \frac{\epsilon_z}{2}\right)$$

(35) gives

$$x = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \frac{\epsilon_z}{2}\right)^2 \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_z \left(1 - \frac{\epsilon_z}{2}\right)}{y} - \epsilon_z^2} + \frac{1}{6} y \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_z \left(1 - \frac{\epsilon_z}{2}\right)}{y} - \epsilon_z^2} \right\}^3 \quad (3-36)$$

Now rewriting (28) using (22)

$$\tilde{s}_z = Ke^n \left(1 + \frac{\alpha}{4R}\right) \quad (3-37)$$

where plugging the nominal stress and engineering strain we finally get:

$$\sigma_z = K \{\ln (1 + \epsilon_z)\}^n \left(1 + \frac{\alpha}{4R}\right) \left(1 - \frac{\epsilon_z}{2}\right)^2$$

or

$$\sigma_z = K \{\ln (1 + \epsilon_z)\}^n (1 + Y) \left(1 - \frac{\epsilon_z}{2}\right)^2 \quad (3-38)$$

(38) together with (36) relate σ_z and ϵ_z for every value of $X = (h_o/\alpha_o)$

Satoh and Toyoda used the above relations in predicting the stress-strain curves of Figure 3.8 and the relation of ultimate tensile strength and relative thickness of Figure 3.9 [14]. More results can be found in other papers reviewed in [16] and [11].

Although the assumption of rigid base plate is justifiable in the plane strain case, it is not realistic in the axisymmetric case. Analysis taking into account the yielding of the base material was also performed by Satoh and Doi and results appear in [11].

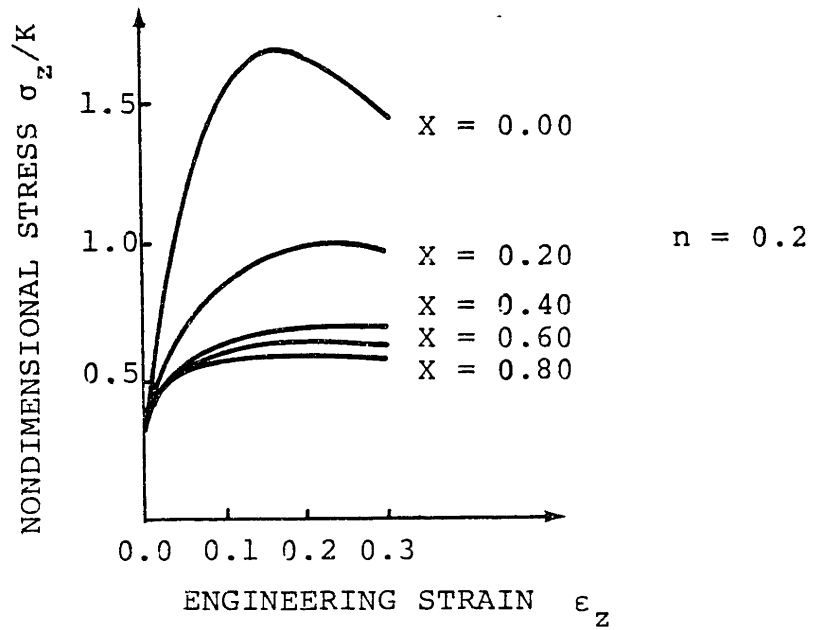


Figure 3.8 : Families of axial nominal stress vs engineering strain curves.
(K and n are the stress - strain law constants)

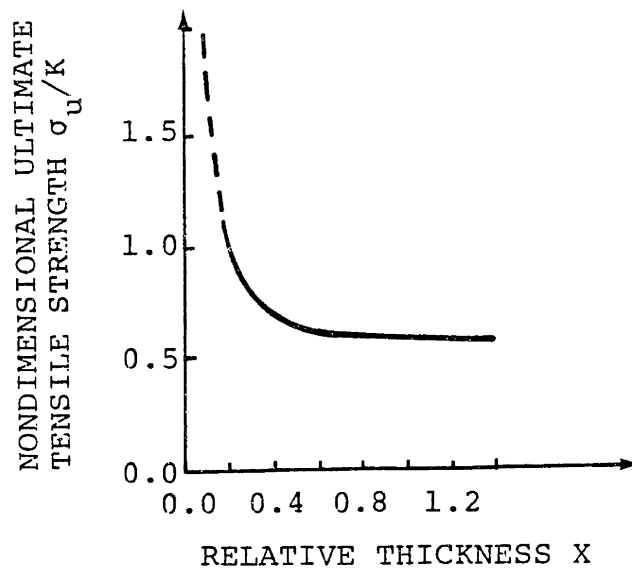


Figure 3.9 : Ultimate tensile strength as a function of relative thickness X

3.2 Numerical Strength Evaluation by the Finite Element Method

3.2.1 General Approach

Although experimental results seem to verify the analytical predictions an attempt was made in this study to confirm the assumptions and results of theoretical analysis using the finite element program ADINA , [4].

Both two dimensional plane strain and axisymmetric analysis was performed corresponding to the wide plate and round bar idealized geometries treated by other researchers.

To investigate the stress strain state at large deformations a nonlinear incremental analysis, using the Updated Lagrangian formulation, [33], was employed.

An elastic-plastic material model was used, assuming linear strain hardening and Von-Mises yield condition. The bilinear stress strain law for the model is shown in Figure 8.10, and the mechanical properties of base metal and interlayer are given in Table 8.1 .

With ADINA the material model #8 was mainly employed. However, to test the improvement of convergence, material model #10 (thermo-elastic-plastic and creep) was occasionally used at reference temperature. The latter model incorporates an option of optimizing the time step subdivision, taking into account the convergence characteristics of the iterative calculations [4].

The ultimate strength value was not incorporated into the model but was implied in a way discussed later.

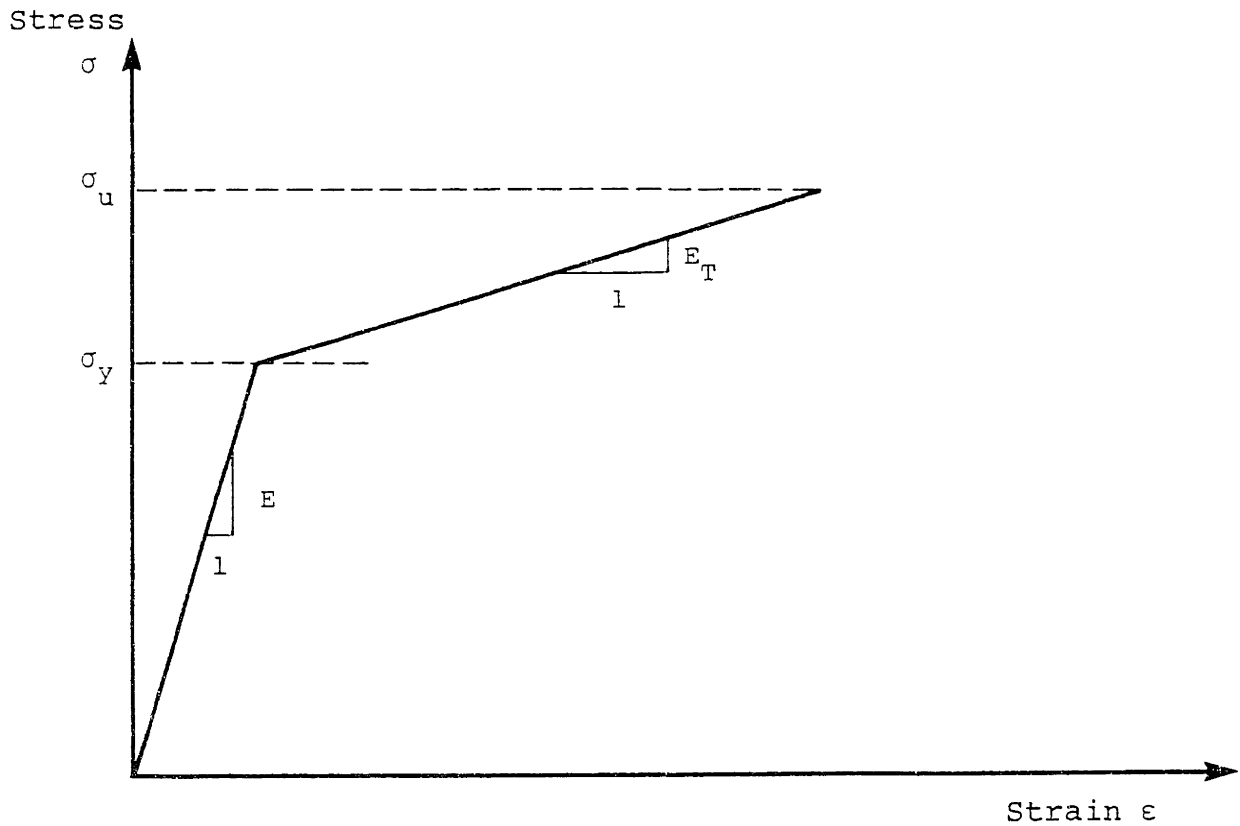


Figure 3.10 : Bilinear stress-strain law used in the model

Table 3.1 : Mechanical properties of the base and filler metal

	E Kg/mm ²	E_T Kg/mm ²	ν	σ_y Kg/mm ²	σ_u Kg/mm ²
HT-80 (base metal)	$2.1 \cdot 10^4$	$1/12 \cdot 10^3$	0.3	78.0	84.1
HT-50 (soft interlayer)	"	"	"	48.8	58.3

3.2.2 Simulation of the Tensile Tests

For the simulation of the tensile tests, a prescribed loading formulation was preferred, because it was found better than a prescribed displacement one in equilibrium iterating in the plane strain model.

The time dependence of the loading had to be such as to ensure that for each time increment the respective strain increments were small enough. Thus an initial estimate of the loading that causes yielding was required in order to adjust the time increments.

So it was initially assumed that:

$$\sigma_2 = 0 \quad \text{in the plane strain state}$$

and

$$\sigma_r = \sigma_\theta = 0 \quad \text{in the axisymmetric case}$$

Thus for the plane strain case where

$$\epsilon_3 = \frac{1}{E} (\sigma_3 - \nu (\sigma_2 + \sigma_1)) = 0$$

we get:

$$\sigma_3 = \nu (\sigma_2 + \sigma_1)$$

And assuming

$$\sigma_2 = 0$$

we get

$$\sigma_3 = \nu \sigma_1$$

Substituting in the Von Mises yield condition

$$(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2 = 2\sigma_{yp}^2$$

we get:

$$\sigma_1^2 [1 + \nu^2 - \nu] = \sigma_{yp}^2$$

Hence the loading at yield must now be

$$\sigma_1^2 = \sigma_{yp}^2 / [1 + \nu^2 - \nu]$$

which for steel ($\nu = 0.3$) becomes

$$\sigma_2^1 = \sigma_{yp}^2 / 0.79$$

or

$$\sigma_1 = 1.125 \sigma_{yp}$$

where σ_{yp} the yield stress in simple tension.

For the axisymmetric case the estimate of the load at yield simply is equal to the yield stress in simple tension.

This for the base metal and soft interlayer materials in Table 3.1, the estimates of load at yield were :

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} P_{(I)} \approx 87.75 \text{ Kg/mm}^2 \quad \text{and} \\ P_{(II)} \approx 54.9 \text{ Kg/mm}^2 \quad \text{in plane strain and} \end{array} \right.$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} P_{(I)} \approx 78 \text{ Kg/mm}^2 \quad \text{and} \\ P_{(II)} \approx 48.8 \text{ Kg/mm}^2 \quad \text{in the axisymmetric case.} \end{array} \right.$$

The respective loading histories are given in Figure 3.11 and 3.12

To investigate the effect of the different parameters [Length (L), plate thickness (t_0), layer thickness (H_0)] various configurations, shown in Table 3.2, were examined. Several element meshes were used and some of them are shown in Figure 3.13, 3.14, and 3.15.

To minimize the bandwidth of the resulting stiffness matrices, the numbering scheme shown in the above figures was used.

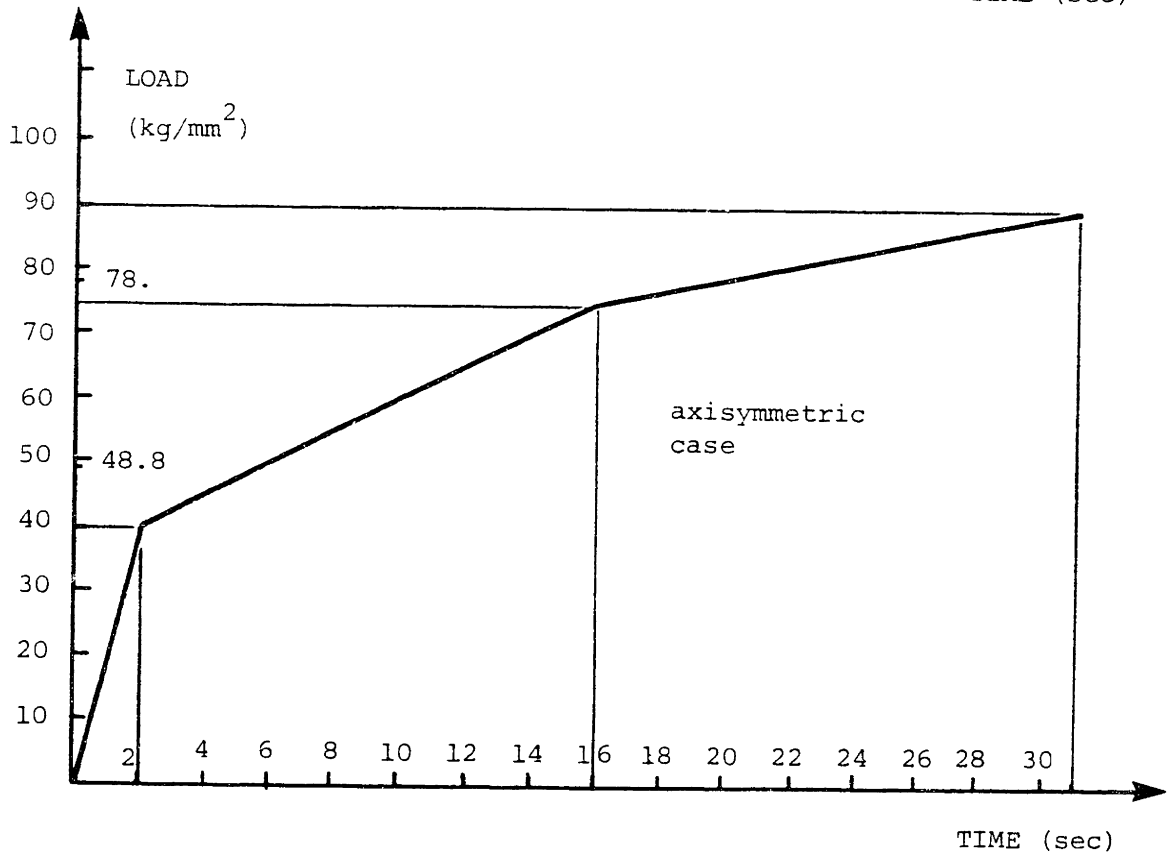
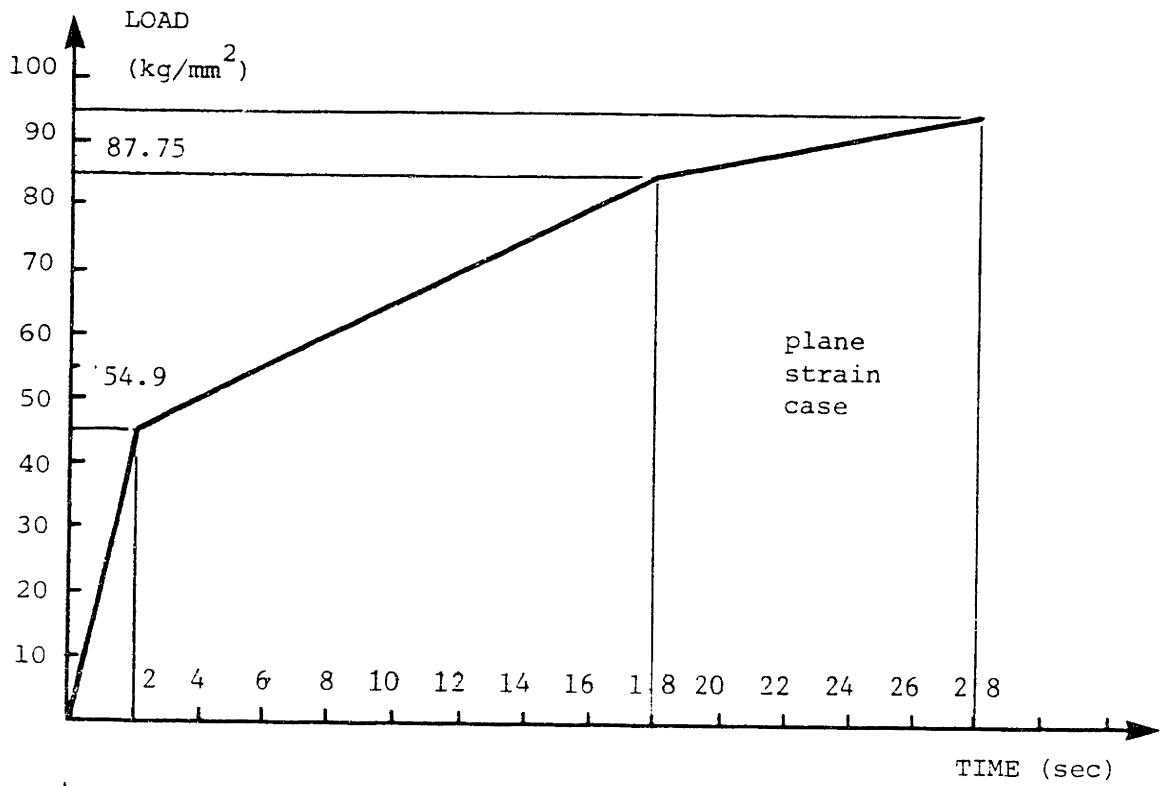


Figure 3.11 and 3.12 : Applied load history for the plane strain and axisymmetric case.

Table 3.2 : Dimensions of specimens modeled.

	Half length $L/2$ (mm)	Half plate Thickness $a_o = t_o/2$	Half interlayer Thickness $h_o = H_o/2$	Relative Thickness $X_t = h_o/a_o$
A1	200.	12.0	0.0	0.000
A2	200.	12.0	1.0	0.083
A3	200.	12.0	2.0	0.167
A4	200.	12.0	3.0	0.250
A5	200.	12.0	4.0	0.333
B1	200.	6.0	0.0	0.000
B2	200.	6.0	2.0	0.333
B3	200.	6.0	3.0	0.500
C1	200.	3.0	1.0	0.333
C2	200.	3.0	3.0	1.000
D1	100.	5.0	0.75	0.150
D2	100.	5.0	1.0	0.200
D3	100.	5.0	2.0	0.400
D4	100.	5.0	4.0	0.800

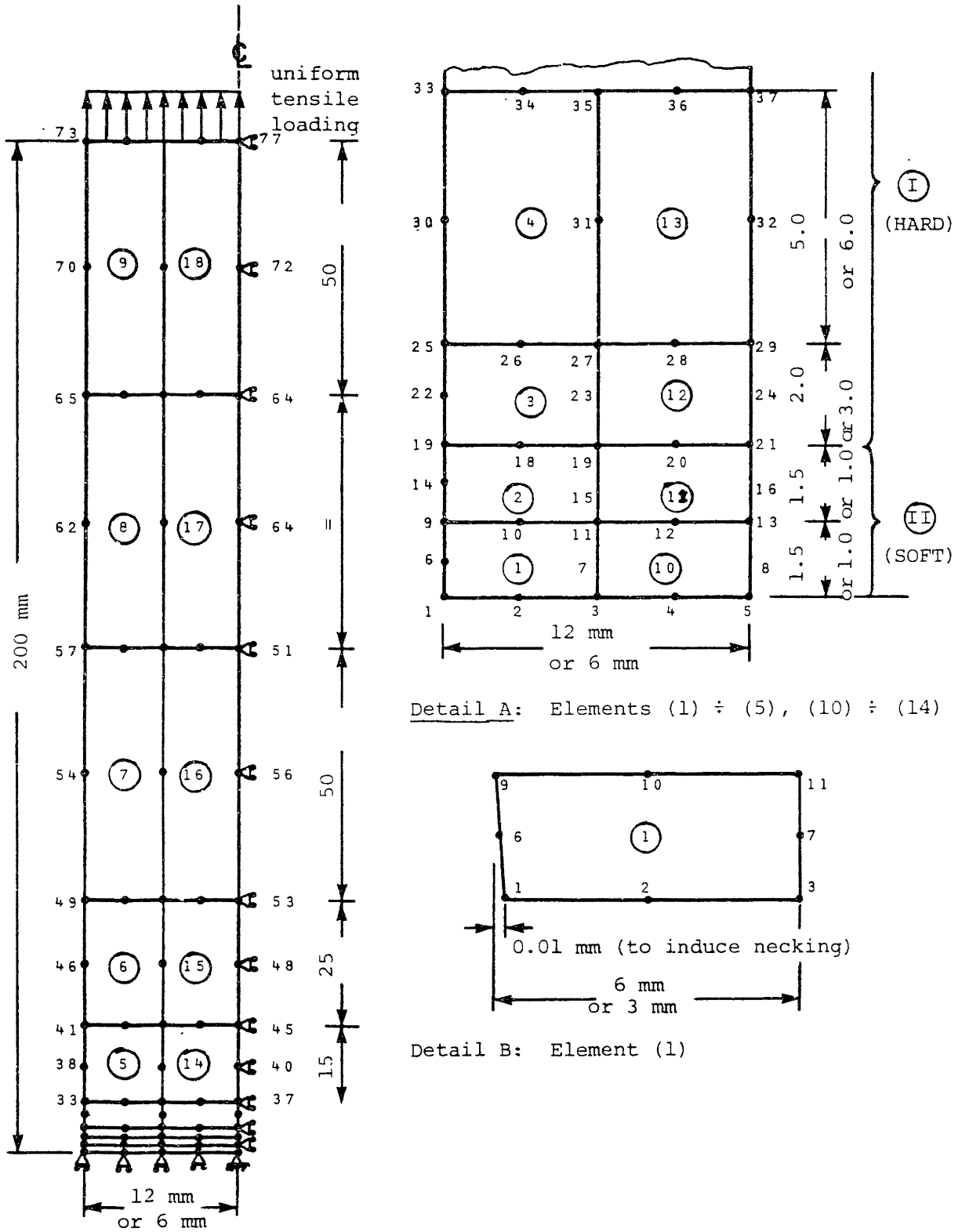


Figure 3.13 : Element mesh for undermatching joint.
 Long specimen, plane strain case.
 (Only a quarter of the specimen was modeled)

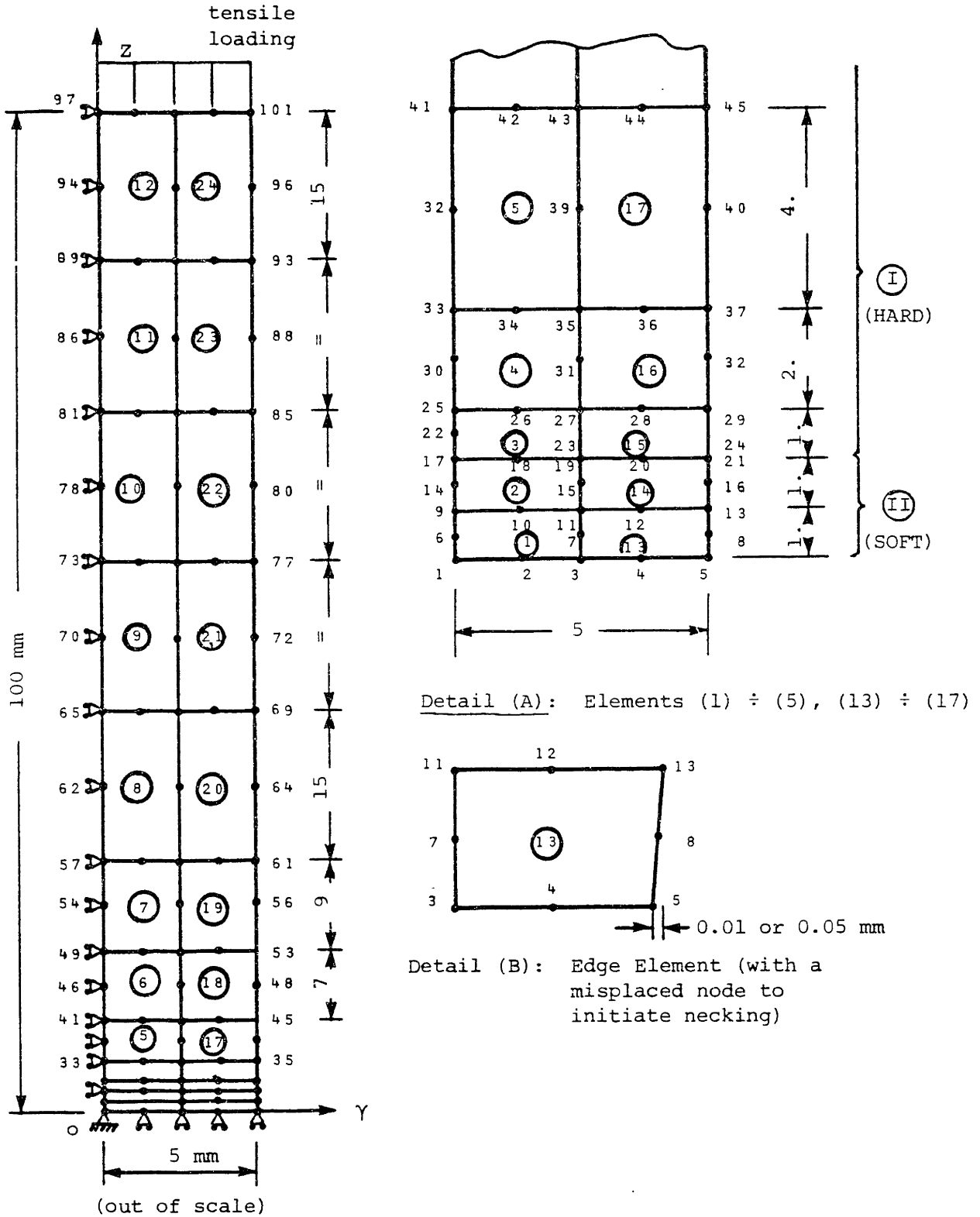


Figure 3.14 : Dense element mesh for undermatching joint. Short specimen. (Only a quarter of a specimen was modeled)

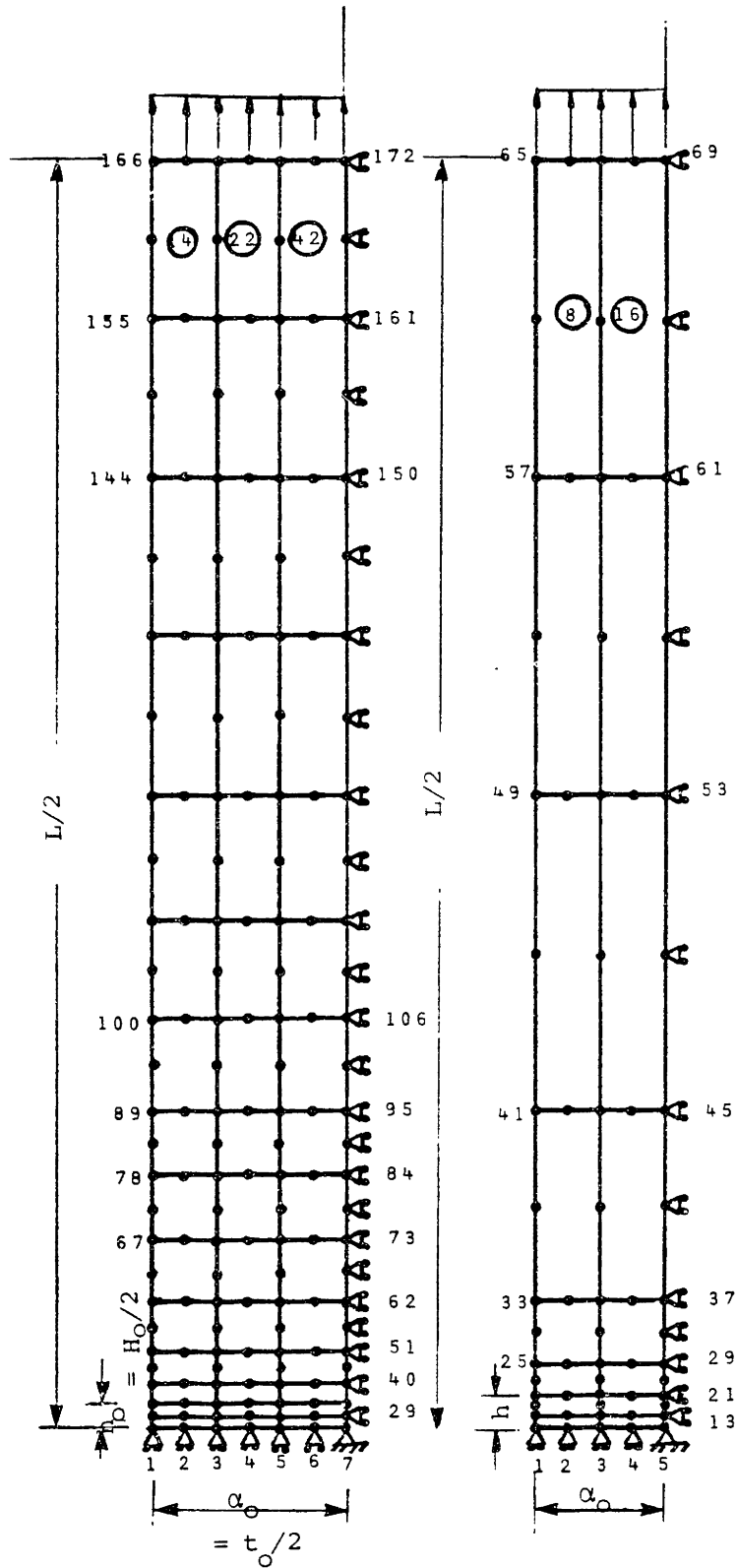


Figure 3.15 : Other element meshes used .

In all cases, 8 node quadratic isoparametric elements were employed. Using symmetry only a quarter of the plate's cross section had to be considered. Rigid body motion was prevented by fixing the center node.

Another important characteristic of the analysis was that, in order to induce necking, we had to incorporate a geometric imperfection. This was actually realized by slightly misplacing (e.g. 0.01 mm for a specimen half thickness of 12 mm) the end node of the middle cross section, as shown in Figures 3.13 and 3.14.

The material model used does not incorporate an ultimate tensile strength value. Therefore, during loading the finite element solution will give stress states not actually possible. Therefore, the load at fracture can be approximated as the one where the maximum observed equivalent stress, in either the base plate or the interlayer, is larger or equal to the ultimate tensile strength of the material in hand.

3.2.3 Results and Conclusions

The previously outlined procedure for the calculation of ultimate tensile strength of the joint is highlighted in Figure 3.16, where the maximum observed equivalent stress is plotted versus the applied tensile load for two different values of relative thickness. From the plot, we can easily estimate that the values of the applied load are

at yield of the interlayer:	55 Kg/mm^2	always
at yield of the base metal:	68 Kg/mm^2	for $x_t = 0.2$
	74 Kg/mm^2	for $x_t = 0.4$

at fracture (of interlayer): 78 Kg/mm² for $X_t = 0.2$
 85 Kg/mm² for $X_t = 0.4$

Obviously fracture occurs first (and thus only) in the interlayer. The base metal yields at substantially higher load than the interlayer and thus confirms the assumption of the theoretical analysis that the base plate is rigid. Similar results were obtained also for the other investigated cases and some are given in Figure 3.17.

The applied load at fracture for different relative thickness $X_t = h_o/\alpha_o$ is shown in Figure 3.18. Similarly the load at yield of both the base plate and the interlayer is shown in Figure 3.19. The results of Figure 3.18, show a very good correlation with the theoretical ones for an infinite plate obtained by Satoh and Toyoda and confirm the fact that for decreasing X_t ($X_t < 0.5$) the ultimate tensile strength of the joint is substantially higher than the U.T.S. of the interlayer (close to the U.T.S. of the base metal).

To estimate the yield strength of the overall joint, the applied load versus the elongation of a gauge length was plotted. The load at yield of the joint can then be approximated as the one that causes a sudden increase in the elongation. However, due to the arbitrariness of this gauge length (this is not an ordinary tensile specimen) no quantitative results are shown. The general trend, for all gauge lengths, was again increasing yield strength for decreasing X_t ($X_t < 1$). The relation between the applied load and the observed end displacements (gauge length equal to the specimen length) is shown in Figures 3.20 and 3.21

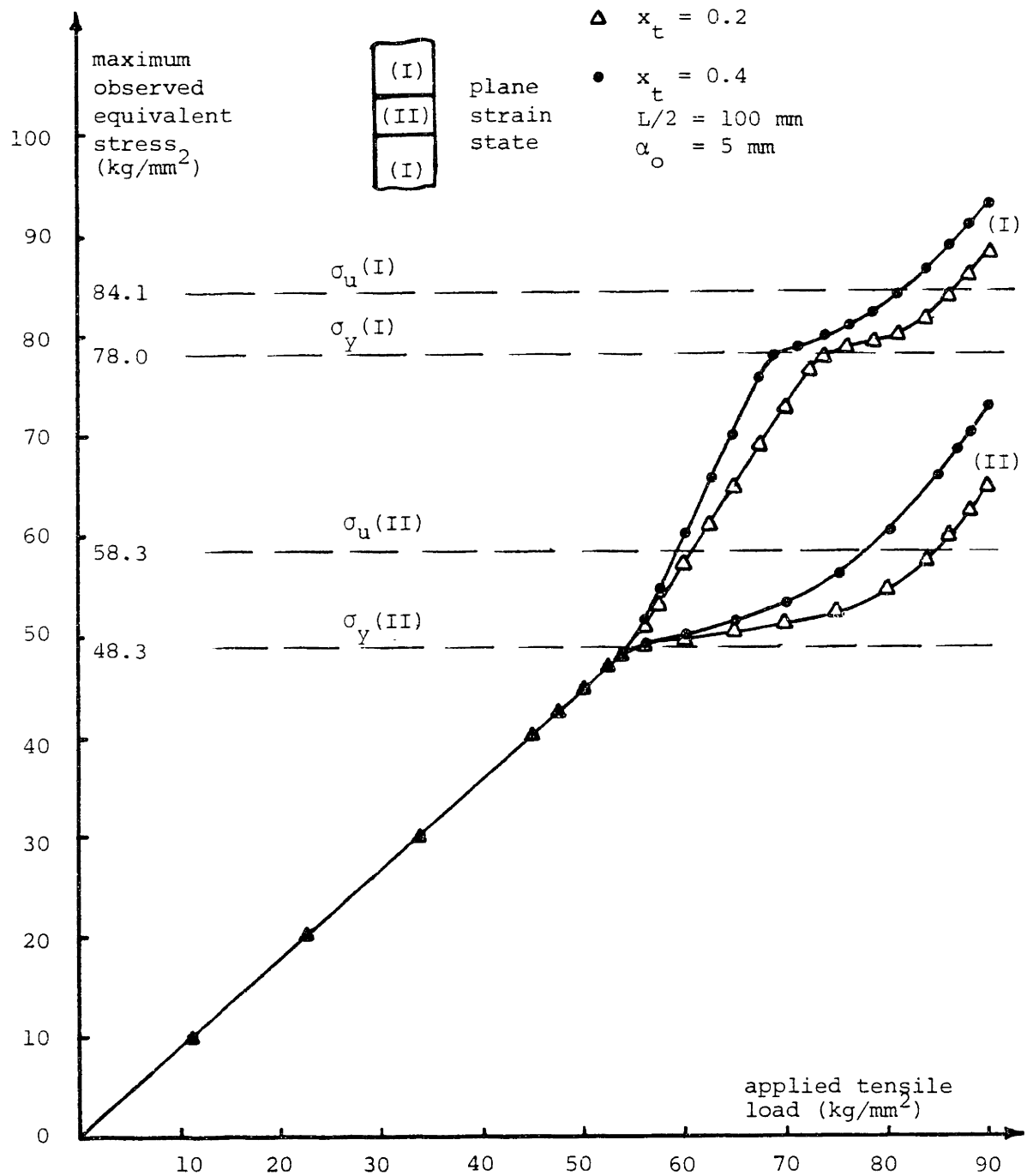


Figure 3.16 : Maximum observed equivalent stress versus applied tensile load. Short specimen , plane strain case.

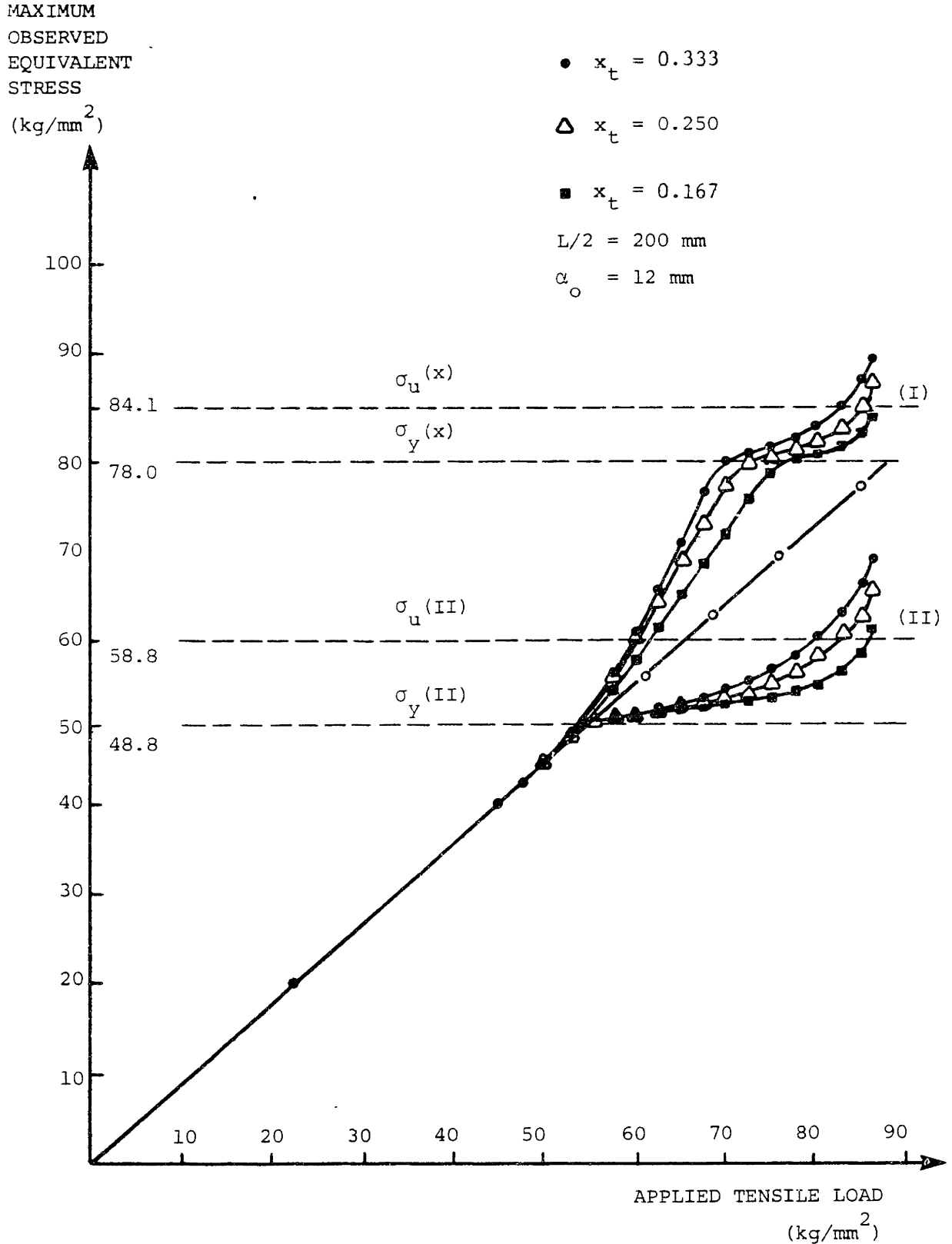
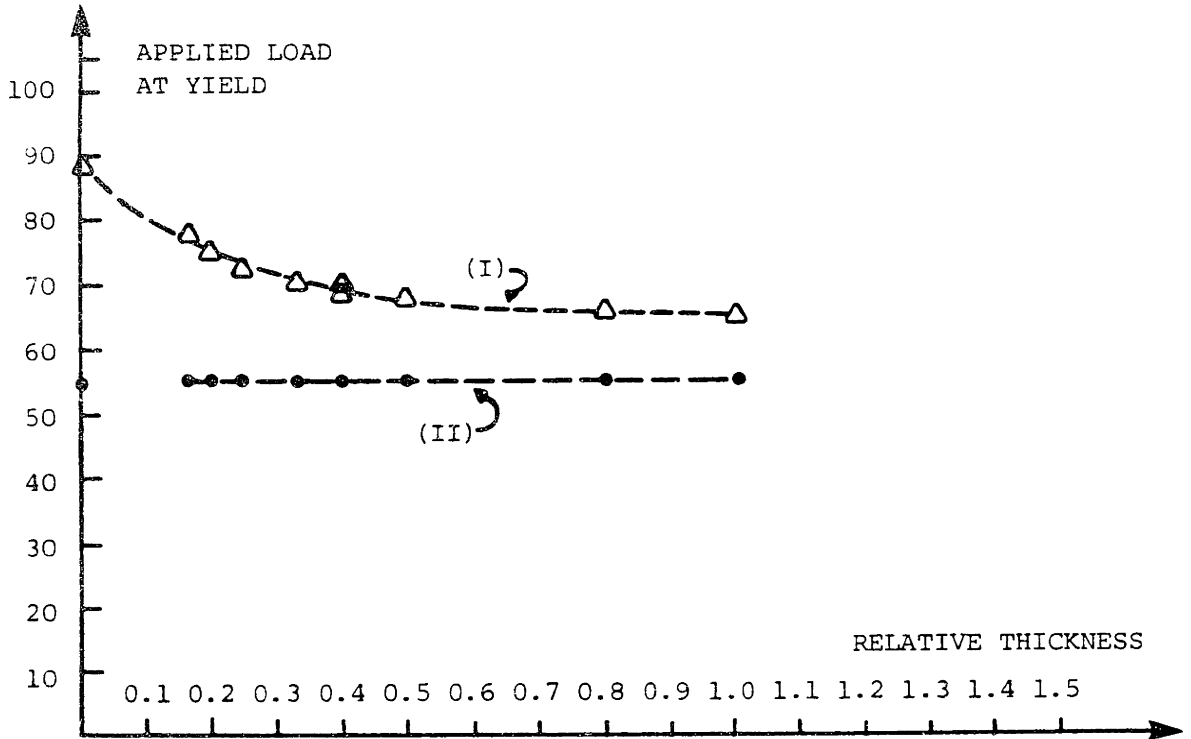
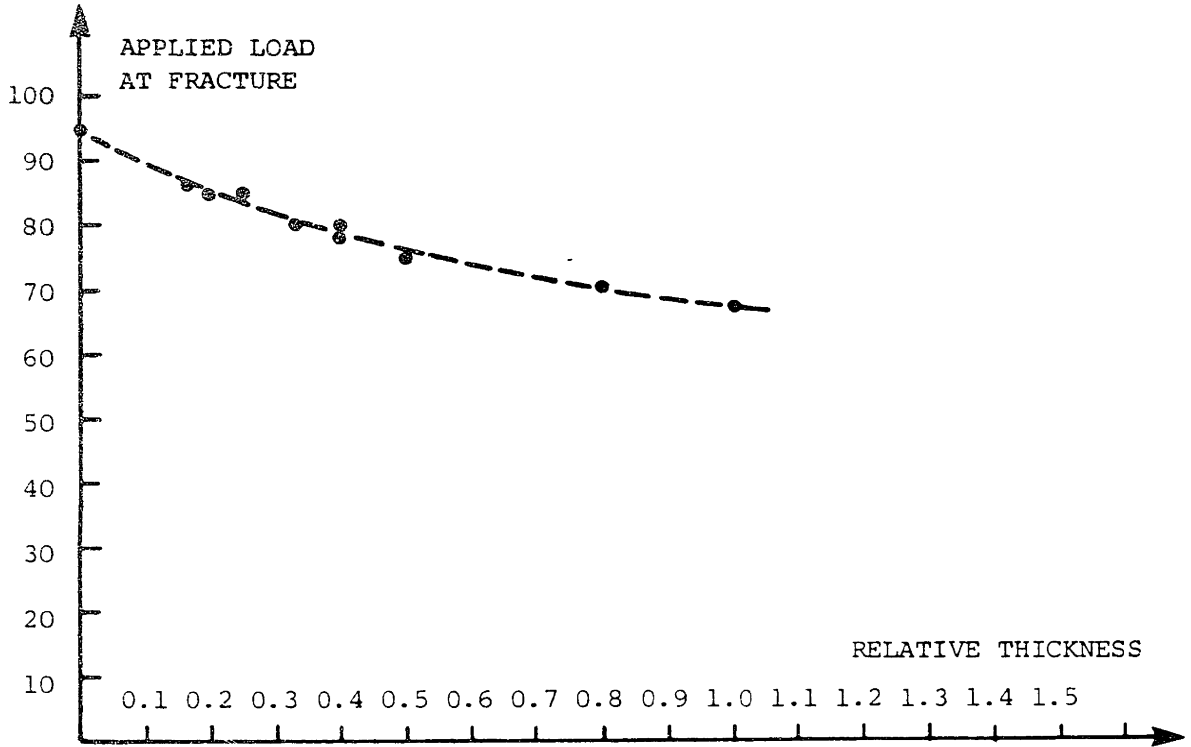


Figure 3.17 : Maximum observed equivalent stress vs applied load. Long specimen ,plane strain.



Figures 3.18 and 3.19 : Applied tensile load at fracture and yield.

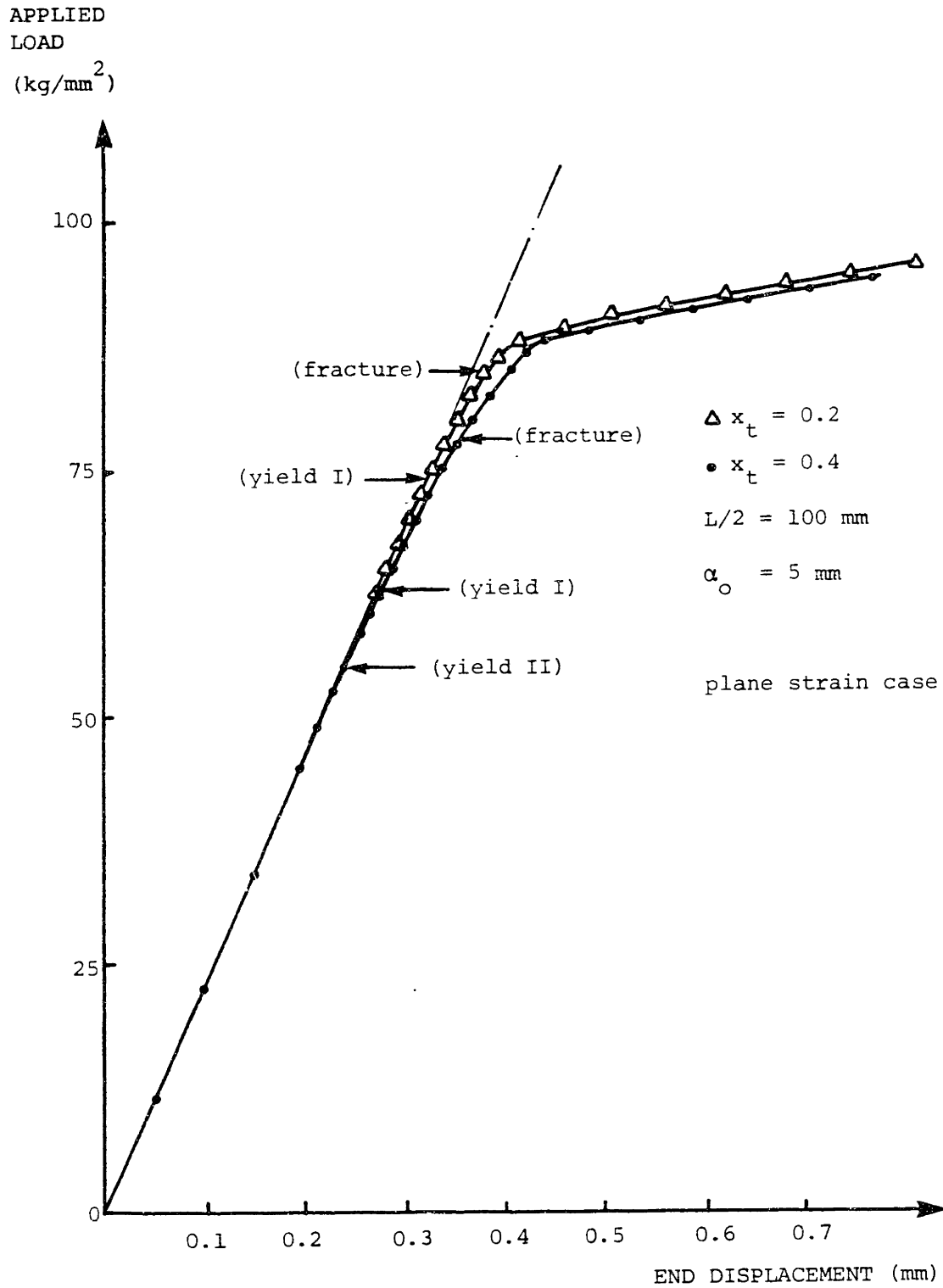


Figure 3.20 : Applied tensile load versus end displacement of the joint. Short specimen plane strain case.

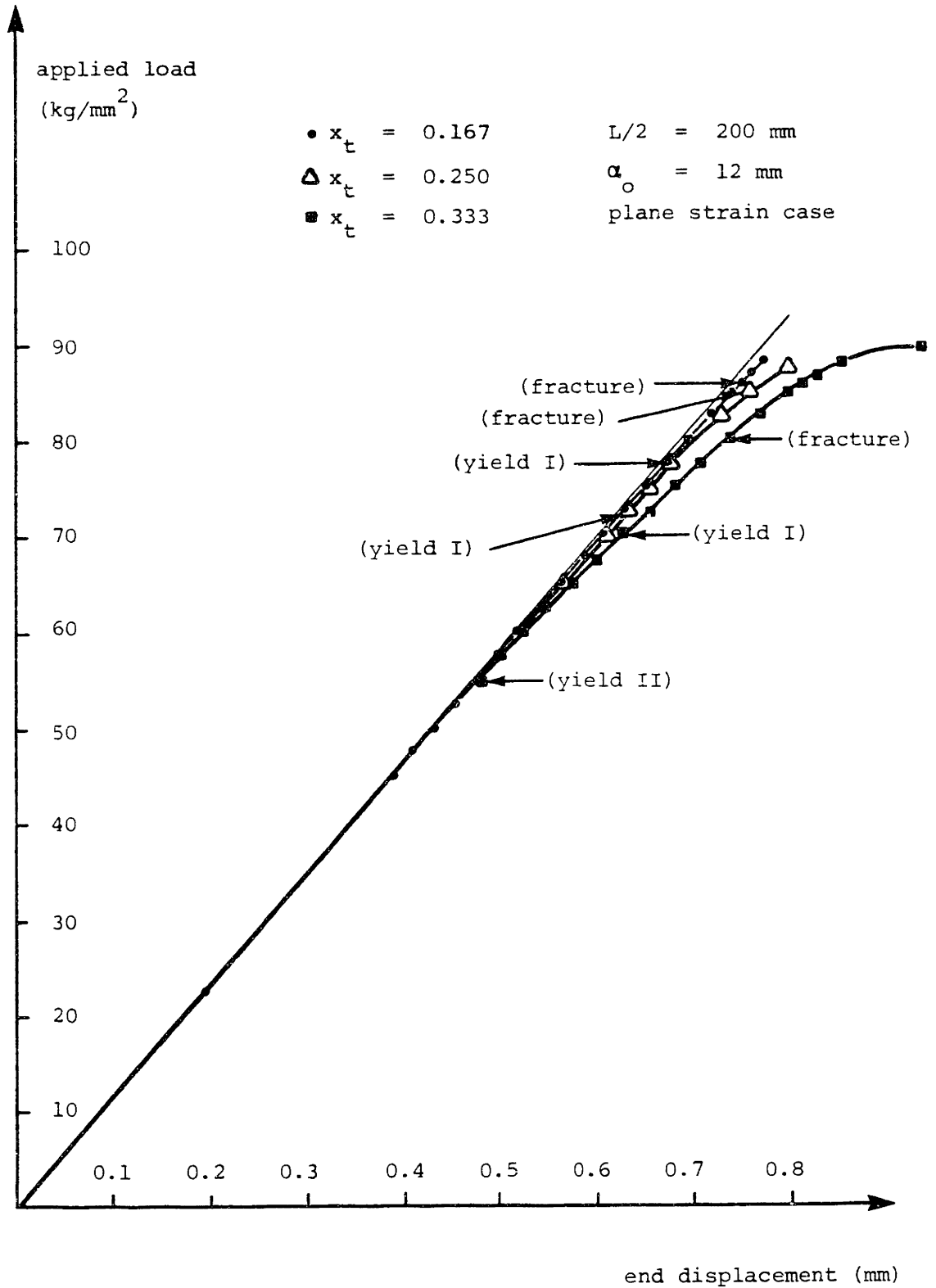


Figure 3.21 : Applied load versus end displacement.
Long specimen.

for some of the analyzed cases. It should be noted here, however, that those curves correspond to the idealized model used and thus have no physical meaning for loads over the load at fracture.

Further analysis of the obtained results showed that indeed the assumptions of rigid base metal are more or less justifiable. This is because, for most of the specimens the transverse deformation of the skin nodes of the base metal was two orders of magnitude less than the respective of the interlayer, before the yield of the base metal, and one order of magnitude less, well after yield (close to fracture).

Also, with good approximation, the interface between the layers remained perpendicular to the center line (loading direction) (at least before the yielding of base metal). The linear dependence between the curvature and the thickness was not checked since the element mesh was not very fine.

Since most of the assumptions and results of the theoretical analysis of the idealized joints were verified by the finite element modeling it appears that the simulation of more realistic joint geometries would be easily accomplished. However, due to the lack of sufficient funds such a study was not undertaken here.

PART II

STRESS RELIEVING

CHAPTER IV

STRESS RELIEVING TREATMENTS

4.1 Residual Stresses due to Welding

The local non uniform heating and subsequent cooling, which takes place during any welding process, causes complex thermal strains and stresses to develop that finally lead to residual stresses, distortion and all their adverse consequences.

Residual stresses and distortion must be a major cause of concern to the designer since they usually are detrimental --directly or indirectly-- to the integrity and the service behavior of a welded structure. High tensile residual stresses in the region near the weld might promote brittle fracture, change the fatigue strength or aid, under suitable environmental conditions, stress corrosion cracking. Compressive residual stresses, combined with initial distortion may reduce the buckling strength of the structure whereas excessive distortion might directly prevent the structure from performing its intended task.

Three sources of welding residual stresses are usually identified in the literature, [1], [34]. One is the difference in shrinkage of differently heated and cooled areas of a welded joint. The weld metal, originally subjected to the highest temperatures, tends upon cooling to contract more than all other areas. This is hindered by the other parts of the joint, thus resulting in the formation of high longitudinal stresses in the weld metal, and equilibrating compressive stresses in the rest of the base material. The residual stress peaks often are as

high as the weld metal yield stress.

A schematic representation of the temperature and longitudinal stress changes during welding is given in Figure 4.1 adapted from [1]. Similarly residual stresses develop in the weld in the transverse direction, but are quite smaller in magnitude (Figure 4.2).

A second source of residual stresses is the uneven cooling in the thickness direction of the weld. The surface layers cool more rapidly than the interior ones, especially in thick plates. This gives rise to thermal stresses which can lead to nonuniform plastic deformations and thus to residual stresses, compressive at the surface and tensile ones in the interior.

Finally, residual stresses can arise from the phase transformations that might occur during cooling. Such transformations are accompanied by an increase in specific volume of the material being transformed. This expansion is hindered by the cooler material and thus causes residual stresses.

In analysing residual stresses various investigators have followed a number of different approaches. A brief presentation of these methodologies is given by Masubuchi and the author in [35], together with results of recent studies at M.I.T. A more extensive discussion on the subject can be found in [1], a recent book by Masubuchi. Specifically for high strength HY steels, results of analytical and experimental studies at M.I.T. are presented in [36] and [37] by Papazoglou.

The adverse effects of residual stresses and distortion can,

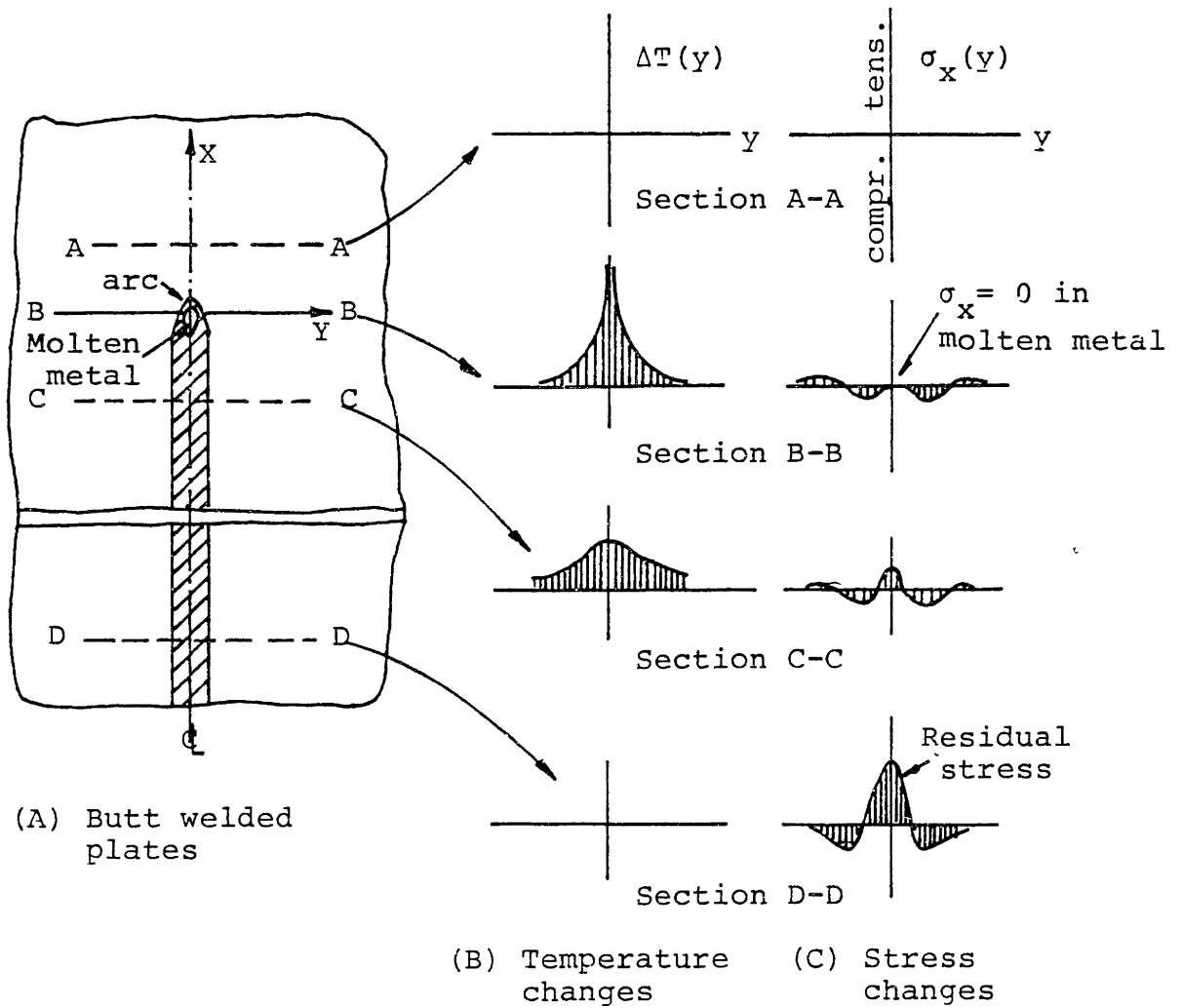


Figure 4.1 : Schematic representation of changes of temperature and longitudinal stresses during welding.

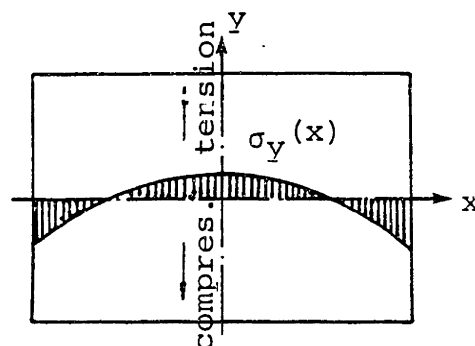


Figure 4.2 : Typical distribution of transverse residual stresses in butt welded plates.

sometimes, be kept under acceptable limits by selecting proper design and fabrication parameters and suitable material properties. Such design parameters include the geometry of the structure, the plate thickness and the joint types that are used. Fabrication parameters include the type of the welding processes employed, the actual procedure parameters, welding sequence, etc. As for the effect of the material properties, the designer must be concerned with both the base and the filler metal selection, as was already pointed out in the previous chapters.

Nevertheless, despite the precautions taken, residual stresses and distortion do usually develop during the fabrication of a welded structure. These can often be brought under acceptable limits by some kind of stress relieving process. Post weld heat treatment is frequently specified by the codes since it can reduce the level of residual stresses and also change the microstructure. However, the latter effect is sometimes a disadvantage and this is why mechanical and vibrational stress relieving methods are often also used.

The various stress relieving treatments will be presented in the next few sections of this chapter. The underlining mechanisms will be examined and the problems associated with their application will be highlighted.

4.2 Thermal Methods for Stress Relieving

4.2.1 Post-Weld heat treatments in general

Heat treatment can be defined as any process whereby metals are better adapted to desired conditions or properties in predictably varying degrees by means of controlled heating and

cooling in their solid state without alteration of their chemical composition, [38]. A vast variety of such treatments exists each applicable to specific materials and for specific purposes. An in depth presentation of these processes is given by A.S.M. in [39]. Some necessary definitions, however, follow.

Lower critical Temperature (for steels): the temperature at which perlite begins to transform into austenite. Shown in the iron equilibrium diagram by the line A_1 (A_{C1} for heating, A_{R1} for cooling)

Upper critical Temperature: the temperature at which the steel becomes composed entirely of austenite. Shown as A_3 in the equilibrium diagram. (A_{C3} for heating and A_{R3} for cooling) it defines together with A_1 temperature the critical range or the transformation range for the particular alloy.

Annealing is the process of applying alternate heating and cooling cycles to induce softening of the metal, to alter physical or mechanical properties and / or to produce a specific microstructure. For ferrous alloys full annealing involves heating to just above the upper critical temperature for hypoeutectoid steels and just above the lower critical temperature for hypereutectoid ones, followed by slow furnace cooling to under 1000°F (537°C). This results in the softest pearlitic structure and thus to a steel with reduced hardness and tensile properties but improved ductility.

During recrystallization annealing the sites of high residual stress concentrations begin to rearrange themselves into new stress-free grains, at a temperature which is

determined by the purity of the metal, the grain size and the amount of cold work. During recovery annealing, which is performed at a temperature between ambient and recrystallization temperature, the residual stresses are partially relieved but the tensile strength does not decrease, as with recrystallization.

Solution annealing is the heating of a multi-phase alloy into a temperature range where only one homogeneous phase exists at equilibrium, holding at this temperature until the desired degree of homogeneity is achieved and then rapidly cooling to retain the elements in solution until they can be precipitated in the required manner.

Age or Precipitation Hardening refers to the processing of an alloy wherein precipitation of the hardening phase occurs over a period of time, at room or higher temperature, after solution annealing.

Normalizing involves heating of the steel well above the upper critical temperature A_{C_3} followed by still-air cooling to room temperature to obtain the "normal" pearlitic structure in that steel. This treatment refines the grain size and leads to increased yield strength and better fracture resistance.

Quenching involves heating the material to a certain temperature and then subjecting it to a controlled cooling rate by immersing it in a fluid or by air blast. It is rarely applied after welding. In steels, quenching from above the upper critical temperature gives rise to microstructures of higher strength than those obtained by normalizing. However, to improve fracture toughness it is always followed by tempering.

Tempering is a treatment that involves heating of the material to a temperature below that of transformation but high enough to cause some metallurgical changes. The higher the tempering temperature, or the longer the time at that temperature, the softer and more ductile the steel gets.

4.2.2 Stress Relieving Heat Treatments

Stress relieving basically involves heating of the part to a subcritical temperature, below A_{C_1} , holding it at that temperature to ensure uniformity, and slow cooling to room temperature, usually in air, to prevent the reintroduction of stresses. The stress relieving temperatures usually are of the order of 1100°F to 1300°F (590°C to 700°C), where the yield strength has drastically decreased and creep occurs. The welding residual stresses can no longer be supported. Thus the stress distribution will be uniform and at a very low level. Up to A_{C_1} , the higher the stress-relieving temperature, the more completely the stress is removed, as shown in Figure 4.3 (adapted from [40]).

Full relief of the residual stresses can only be ensured through an annealing treatment. This, however, would be more costly and time consuming and would cause more problems due to the higher temperatures.

Stress relieving is always followed by some dimensional changes. Even warpage and distortion can result when the residual stresses are high enough. It may therefore be necessary to straighten the part and some times to stress relieve again to reduce the straightening stresses.

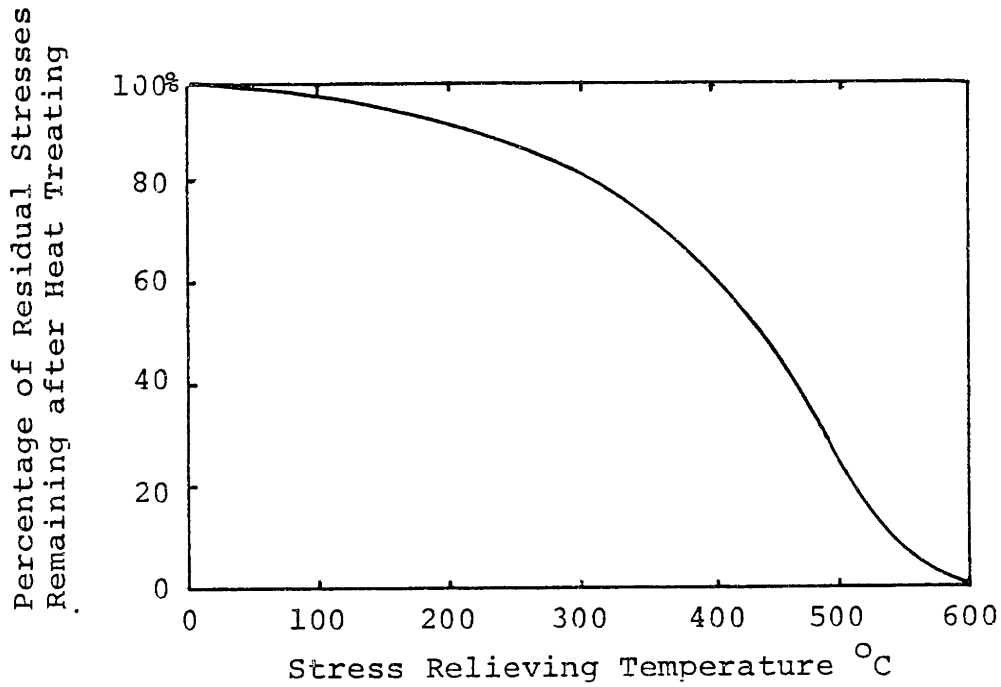


Figure 4.3 : Effect of stress relieving temperature in mild steel weldments.

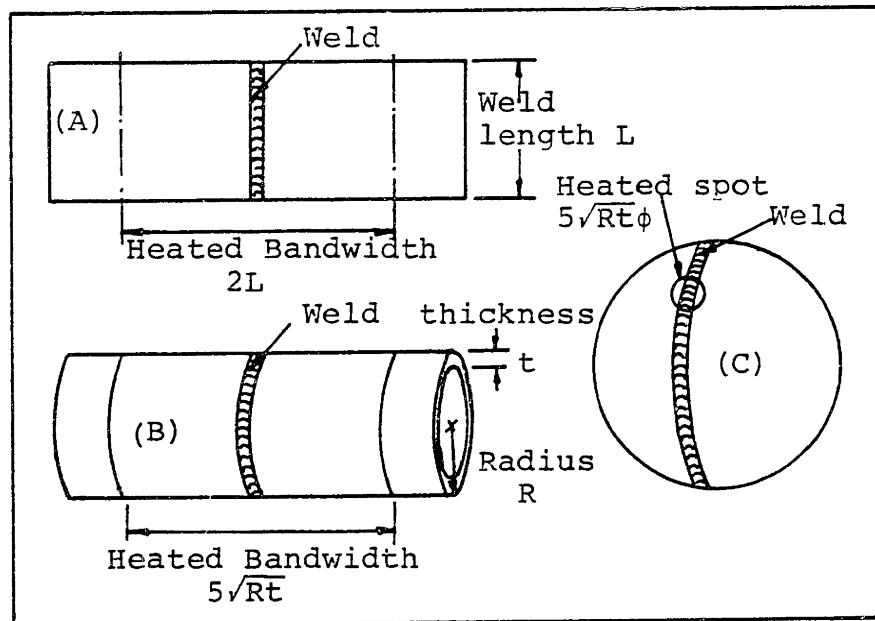


Figure 4.4 : Bandwidth of heated zone necessary for stress relief in: (A) Flat plate, (B) Cylinder, and (C) Sphere

4.2.3 Heat Treating Ovens and Localized Heating Equipment and Procedures

The size and shape of the fabrication and the type of the material determine, in most cases, the best method for applying a stress relieving heat treatment. However, there are three main requirements that must be in general fulfilled by the heat treating method:

- (a) It should be able to produce the required temperature.
- (b) The temperature should be controllable within specified limits (e.g. $\pm 20^{\circ}$ to 40° F for steels), (10° to 20° C).
- (c) It should be possible to achieve a uniform and even heating and cooling rate throughout the thicker section to be treated. This requirement is especially important for the case of joints of complex geometry and variable thickness.

Post weld heat treatments at high temperatures can be ideally performed by placing the structure in a fixed furnace where temperature uniformity and controllability are excellent in most cases. Furnaces for stress relieving are usually of the batch type and can be heated by various methods utilizing either gas or oil flames, or electrical energy. The most recent types are of low thermal mass with insulation of ceramic fiber and mineral wool, instead of brick, which was conventionally used. Such construction reduces the erection and operation costs. High velocity gas burners give excellent temperature distribution and improved heat transfer. However, the final selection of heating mode, largely depends on fuel costs and availability.

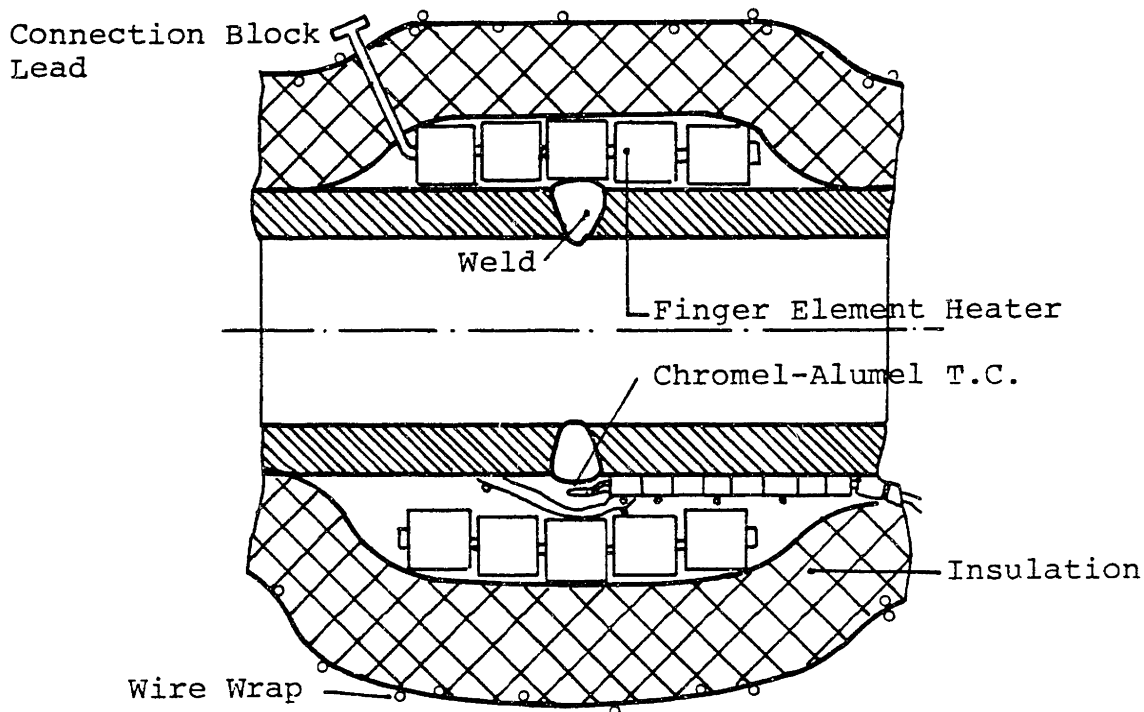
More details on furnaces can be found in [38],[39] and [43].

However, in many instances postweld heat treatment of a complete fabrication is not possible due to the size of the structure or because heat treatment has to be applied in the field. Such cases arise when stress relieving closing welds in pressure vessels, or joints between prefabricated (and stress relieved) sections of pipework. Also repair maintenance welding might necessitate localized stress relieving.

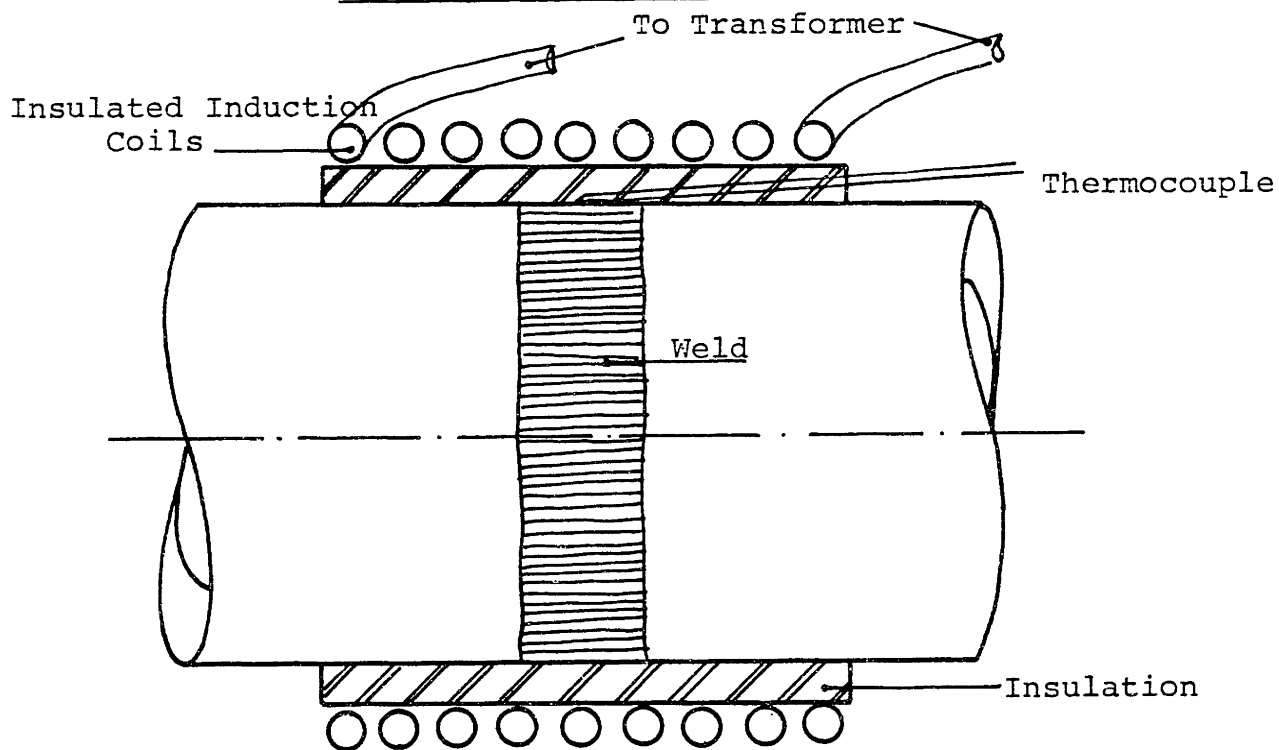
Such a treatment can be performed in a temporary furnace erected around the structure, or by localized heating of an area around the weld zone. Appropriate insulation should always be applied. An extensive presentation of the localized heat treating methods is given in [39] by A.S.M. and in [41] by A.W.S. Some discussion on their applicability and relative advantages follows.

Electric resistance heaters, (Figure 4.5), direct the Joule heat, which is produced in the resistance elements, to the part by proper placement and insulation. The four commonly used heater types are: finger element heaters, braided heaters, flexible ceramic pads, and wrap-around heaters. The achieved temperature can be adjusted quickly and easily and can be maintained even through a welding operation. Uneven heat input can be obtained if required. However, the elements have a relatively short life and may short circuit with the part.

In induction heating, (Figure 4.5), alternating current is applied to coils wrapped around the parts to be heated and thus induces magnetic fields and currents inside the part. The low mains frequency (50 or 60 Hz) is used for heaters of power



(A) RESISTANCE HEATING



(B) INDUCTION HEATING

Figure 4.5 : Localized heat treating equipment.

up to about 25 KVA whereas medium frequency (1000 to 10,000 Hz) is used for powers between 20 and 400 KVA. The coils have a long life and the achieved temperature is very uniform and can be controlled within a very accurate range. However, the initial cost is high, the portability of equipment low and uneven heat input is difficult to achieve. Furthermore the heater has to be turned off during welding. More details about the process are given in [42] by Müller.

Manual flame heating by gas torches is convenient low cost method particularly suited for field work. However, minimal precision and repeatability can be achieved and if not performed by a very experienced operator it is likely to damage the weldment.

Exothermic heating employs a consumable heat source. Such a process is the thermite reaction between Fe_2O_3 and Al. Exothermic packages that can produce the required holding temperatures are marketed. No capital investment cost or operator during heating is required and the equipment is very portable. However, there is no possibility for adjustments after ignition and limited flexibility in meeting code requirements regarding heating and cooling rates and holding time.

Finally gas flame generated infrared heating and radiant heating by quartz lamps utilize radiation as the principle mechanism for heat transfer. The former method uses relatively economical fuel and can be readily controlled. The latter has an extremely fast response time (4000°F in one second) and fast cool down due to minimal thermal mass and large efficiency.

No combustion takes place and no heat is wasted. However, the cost is high and a separate "furnace" has to be fabricated for each different part configuration.

4.2.4 Requirements and Specifications for Localized Heat Treatments

For local stress relieving heat treatments it is absolutely necessary to ensure that the temperature distribution during the heat treatment does not induce new thermal stresses which exceed the material yield stress and can lead to the development of new residual stresses on cooling. This imposes strict requirements on the level and uniformity of temperature, on the heating and cooling rates, and width of the heating zone. The latter largely determines the existing temperature gradient through the thickness (between the heated and unheated surfaces). Most of these requirements are usually specified by the applicable codes (e.g. ASME Pressure Vessel Codes, Section VIII).

For butt welded plates it was experimentally proven by Cotterell in [44], that satisfactory relief of residual stresses can be expected if uniform heat input is applied over a bandwidth of twice the length of the weld, as shown in Figure 4.4(A).

For circumferential welds in cylinders and pipes of diameter R and thickness t , it was shown by Burdekin in [45], that relief of residual stresses can be achieved if uniform heat input is applied over a circumferential band width of $5\sqrt{Rt}$ (Figure 4.4(B)). This is also what BS 1515 and 5500 (British Standards) suggest. However Shifrin and Rich, in [46], had clearly shown that satisfactory through thickness gradients

can be achieved with a minimum heated band width of five times the wall thickness, $(5t)$, irrespective of the technique used for heating (resistance or induction). ASME codes on the other hand require that "the width of the heated band on each side of the greatest width of the finished weld shall be not less than two times the weld metal thickness". This again results in a bandwidth of approximately $5t$ which is generally much smaller than what specified by the British standards. Further both standards require that temperature gradients beyond the heated zone should be not harmful, although no clear definition of "harmful" is given. British codes also suggest that the full heat treatment temperature range be achieved for a distance of $3t$ on each side of the weld seam and a minimum of half the soak temperature be achieved at the edges of heated zone.

For welded spherical vessels it has been shown theoretically by Cotterel, [47], that local stress relief heat treatment is possible by slowly moving a heated spot (cap) of diameter $5\sqrt{Rt}$ or by heating a circumferential band of the same width. (Figure 4.4(C)).

For complex junctions of branches in pipes or pressure vessels it is necessary to ensure that the heating of a weld will not induce substantial thermal gradients around the junction. Therefore exact thermal stress analysis might be needed and additional background heating of the vessel as a whole might be required.

4.3 Effects of Stress Relieving Heat Treatments

4.3.1 Effect of Treatment on the Mechanical Properties

Stress relieving heat treatments are usually very effective in reducing the high residual stresses present in a weldment. However, they also have an effect on the microstructure and the properties of both the base plate and the weld metal since they are carried out at relatively high temperatures. These effects vary with the material under consideration.

During the last decade, the desirability of post weld heat treatments and their effects were extensively investigated by the Working Group on Thermal Stress Relief of the Commission X of the International Institute of Welding. Information from the series of documents that were produced, (References [48] to [51]) is presented in this section.

Specifically for non work-hardened base metal of C-Mn and microalloyed steels, it was generally concluded that tensile properties are impaired to a significant extent, especially at higher temperatures. Resistance to brittle fracture is affected but not drastically. Temperature is a more important factor than soaking time. For low alloy and creep resistant steels, which are used in a normalized and tempered or quenched and tempered condition, the effect of stress relieving treatments on the properties will depend on the temperature. The effect will be minimal if the treatment is carried out at a temperature lower than that of initial tempering. Additional tempering will result however, if higher temperature treatment is performed. This is usually beneficial for the resistance to brittle fracture

but detrimental for other properties, such as creep resistance, and usually is not recommended by the codes.

For the case of work hardened base material, on the other hand, the heat treatments usually restore the base properties and prevent strain aging and are therefore beneficial.

The effect of stress relieving heat treatments on the properties of the heat affected zone (H.A.Z.) will not only depend on the type of steel but also on the microstructural state of the H.A.Z. Therefore welding procedure and conditions, heat input, plate thickness and distance to the fusion line are important parameters. For C-Mn steels the heat treatment will in general soften the H.A.Z. structures, except if carbide precipitation occurs. The yield strength of the H.A.Z. will usually be higher than that of the base material after the same treatment. Heat treatments are in most cases also beneficial to the resistance to brittle fracture for these steels. For low alloy steels the main problem is to retain satisfactory toughness in the H.A.Z. The effect of treatment is usually strongly dependent on the type of steel and the exact metallurgical changes associated with the welding and heat treating tempering. The problem of stress relief cracking that is known to occur in the H.A.Z. of some steels will be examined in detail in the next section.

Although not much work has been done on the effect of heat treatments on the properties of weld metal, it appears that tensile properties diminish considerably on tempering. Again temperature seems to be more important than the soaking time .

As in the base metal, embrittlement can occur and some instances of stress relief cracking have been reported.

4.3.2 Stress-Relief Cracking

Stress-relief cracking is defined as "intergranular cracking in the heat affected zone or weld metal that occurs during the exposure of welded assemblies to elevated temperatures produced by post weld heat treatments or high-temperature service", [52]. It has also been referred to in the literature as "post-weld-heat cracking" or "reheat cracking" and in general is caused when some relief of stresses by creep occurs. This form of cracking became a problem with the austenitic stainless steels in the 1950's and with the low-alloy constructional steels in the 1960's. It also occurs to ferritic creep-resisting steels and nickel base alloys and is generally related to precipitation hardening. Non-precipitation hardening materials such as plain carbon steels and certain nickel alloys are not susceptible to reheat cracking.

The cracks can be positively identified by metallographic examination due to their characteristic branching intergranular morphology, along the coarse-grain region of the heat-affected zone, [53]. Cracking usually occurs at high temperature when creep ductility is insufficient to accommodate the strains required for the relief of applied or residual stresses. When residual stresses are high, as in thicker and restrained sections reheat cracking is most likely to occur.

Stress relief treatments are required for almost all pressure vessels and piping systems fabricated today, and this

is why stress-relief cracking caused considerable concern. Extensive investigations of the cracking mechanism and of possible remedies have been undertaken all over the world, and are in detail reviewed by Meitzner in [53] and Dhooge, et al., in [54]. In 1970 I.I.W. established, in Commission X, a Working Group on "Reheat Cracking" to collect and assimilate information on the subject; (References [55] to [60]).

In an effort to develop a simple, reliable specimen that includes all the pertinent variables related to cracking, such as high stresses, triaxiality, thermal history and microstructure, a large number of tests are used today. These tests are extensively reviewed by Dhooge, et al. in [54] and are either:

- (a) Tests on complete weldments.
- (b) Tests on specimens containing a weld.
- (c) Tests on specimens containing a thermally simulated H.A.Z.

In (a) and (b) weld/H.A.Z. thermal cycles and microstructures are produced by an actual welding operation, whereas in (c) the H.A.Z. microstructure is created by subjecting base metal coupons to a simulated H.A.Z. thermal history, as in a Gleeble. In both cases the specimens are then reheated and tested at temperatures typical of stress relief treatments.

Tests have shown that there is definite influence of chemical composition on stress relief cracking susceptibility. Japanese researchers have used regression analysis to derive two predictive formulae. [61], [62].

- (a) $\Delta G = \text{Cr } \% + 3.3 \text{ Mo } \% + 8.1 \text{ V } \% - 2.0$ (by Nakamura, et al.)
- and

$$(b) P_{SR} = Cr \% + Cu \% + 2.Mo \% + 10 V \% + 7 Nb \% + 5Ti \% - 2$$

(by Ito and Nakanishi)

Positive values of the ΔG or P_{SR} parameters would indicate susceptibility to stress relief cracking. However, other investigators have shown that such formulae were not general enough to be used conclusively, [63].

It has also been established by these studies that martensitic or lower bainitic microstructures are more prone to S.R. cracking than the upper bainitic or ferritic-perlitic ones. Thus risk of cracking can be reduced by the choice of welding heat inputs or preheat levels ensuring lower cooling rates in the H.A.Z. The same holds for proper choice of consumables and the use of a temper bead in the last welding pass.

4.3.3 Stress Relieving of HY-130 Steels

The very high residual stresses that develop during welding of HY-130* steels make stress relief treatments very attractive. Substantial reduction of stresses was shown to occur, in both the base and weld metal at temperatures between 950° F (510° C) and 1050° F (566° C). This is evidenced in Figure 4.6 and 4.7 , adapted from [64]. However, a severe degradation of notch toughness may also occur at these temperatures. This embrittlement, which phenomenologically is similar to temper embrittlement, is believed to be influenced by the soaking

* Also referred to as 5 Ni-Cr-Mo-V, HY-130(T), HY-130/150 in different stages of its development. (Appendix A).

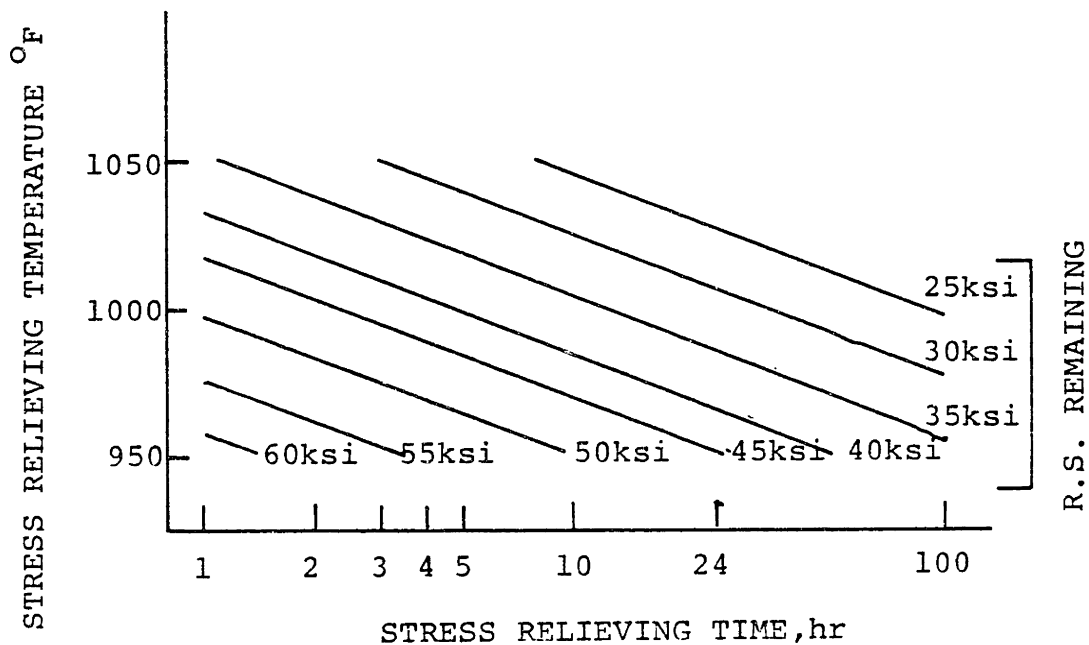


Figure 4.6 : Estimated residual stress after stress relief.

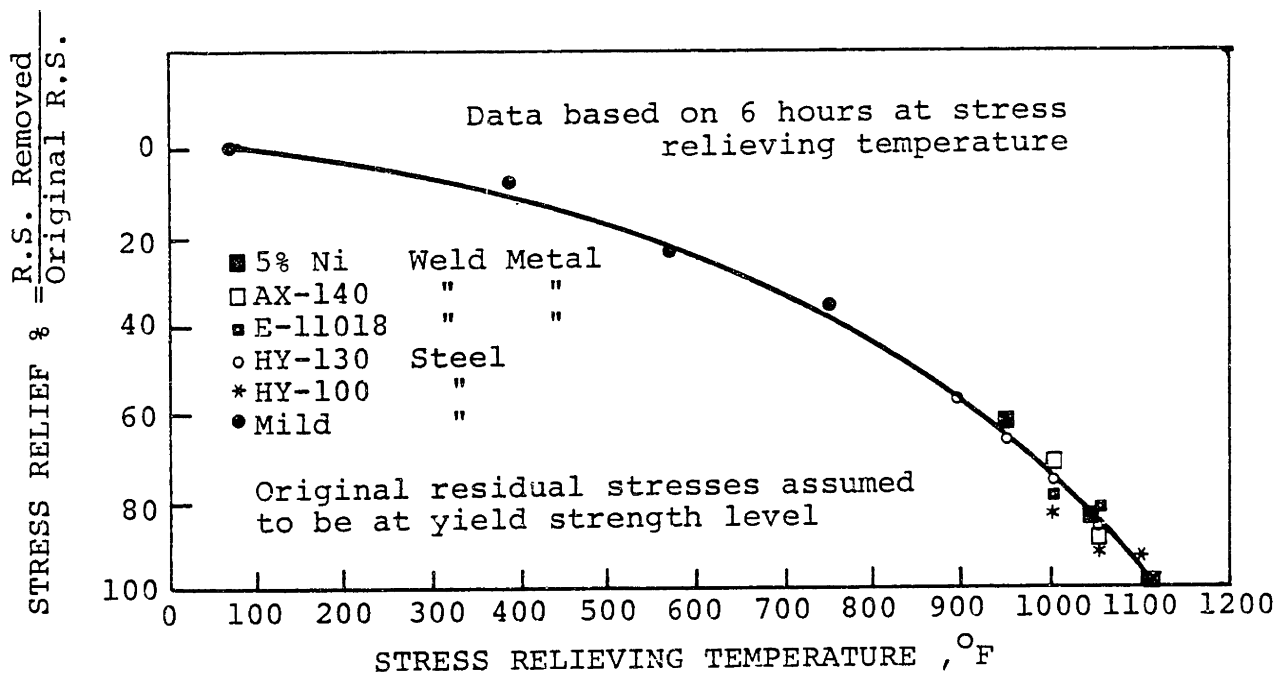


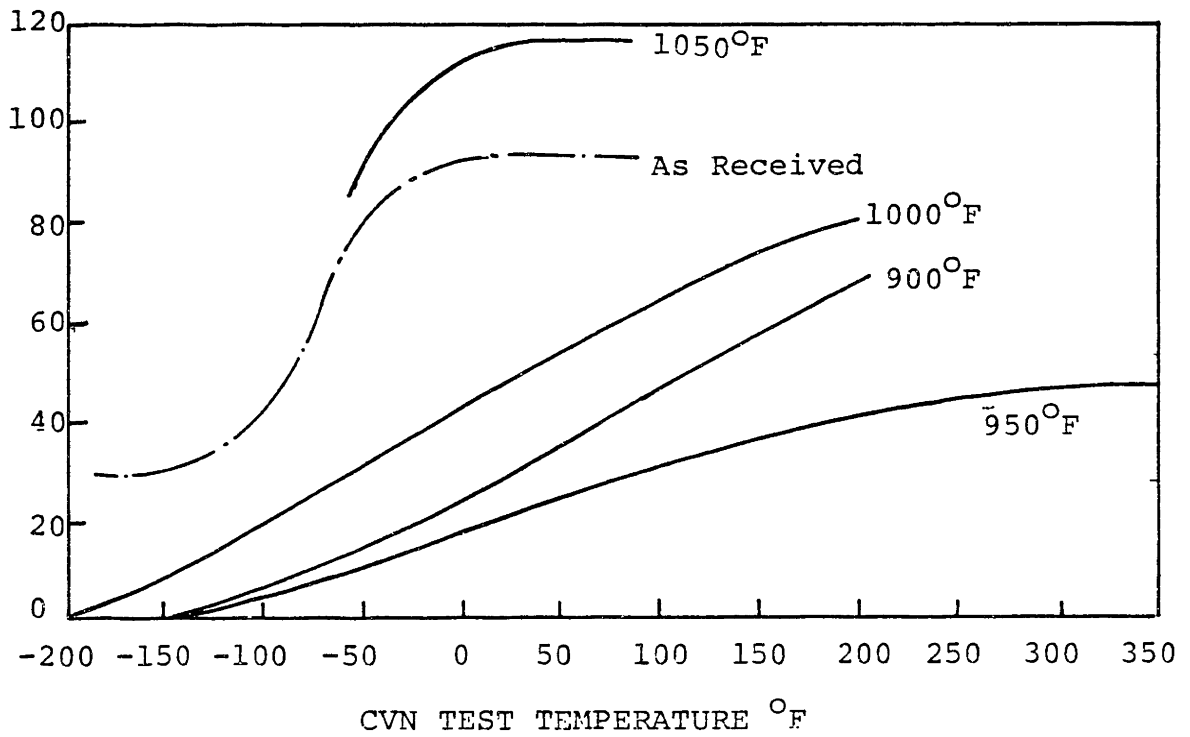
Figure 4.7 : Comparison of relaxation properties.

temperature, the time at temperature, the cooling rates, the plastic strain, the exact alloy composition and prior heat treatment.

Extensive investigation on the subject was performed by the U.S. steel Corporation and the U.S.Navy (N.S.R.D.C. Materials Laboratory). Results by Rosenstein, [65], indicated that stress relief cycles are cumulative in nature, by comparing the tensile and Charpy properties resulting from consequent heat treatments of short duration and one single treatment of long duration, both having the same soaking times.

Furthermore it was observed that the degradation of notch toughness was maximum when stress relieving at 950° F (510° C) and minimum when at 1050° F (566° C), as evidenced in Figure 4.8. However, investigations of the effects of stress relieving on the weld metal, [64], [65], have shown that the higher temperatures may substantially reduce the yield and tensile strength of the weld metal and thus may cause undermatching. Therefore the most practical temperature range for effective stress relieving of HY-130 weldments is between 1000° F (538° C) and 1025° F (552° C).

Additionally, it was established that the degradation of toughness at 950° F (510° C) occurs during both soaking and cooling. The isothermal degradation was shown to be directly dependent upon time at temperature. The degradation during cooling, on the other hand, is inversely related to the cooling rate and does not depend on the soaking time. Therefore, cooling embrittlement constitutes the major portion of



(Specimens stress-relieved for 100 hours at indicated temperature and air cooled to roomtemperature)

Figure 4.8 : Effect of stress-relief temperature on toughness of HY-130 steels.

degradation after short times at temperature and only a minor one after long soaking periods.

It was also shown that stress relief at the tempering temperature of 1050° F (566° C) results in softening at temperature (accompanied by increased toughness) and embrittlement on cooling. Therefore, the resulting properties will depend both on the cooling rate and the soaking time.

The toughness degradation due to stress-relief can in general be recovered by retempering to a lower strength level. It should also be finally noted that the fundamental difference between stress relief embrittlement and temper embrittlement is the presence of strain due to creep at high temperature or due to previous plastic deformation, [66].

4.3.4 Stress Relieving of Austenitic Stainless Steels

Austenitic stainless steels have to be heated to about 1650° F (900° C) to attain adequate stress relief because of their good creep resistance. Only partial stress relief can be attained at temperatures lower than 1600° F (870° C). Best stress-relieving results can be achieved by slow cooling. Quenching or rapid cooling in general reintroduce high residual stresses.

Additionally, an optimal stress relieving temperature is usually difficult to select, since the heat treatments that would provide adequate stress relief can be detrimental for the corrosion resistance and the ones that are not harmful to corrosion resistance may not provide adequate stress relief.

The major metallurgical effects of a stress relieving treatment are:

- (a) When heating between 900 and 1500° F (480 to 815° C), chromium carbides might precipitate in the grain boundaries of wholly austenitic unstabilized grades and can promote intergranular corrosion.
- (b) When heating between 1000 and 1700° F (540 to 925° C), hard sigma phase may result decreasing both corrosion resistance and ductility.
- (c) When slow cooling the above nondesirable effects have more time to take place.
- (d) When heating between 1500° F and 1700° F (815 to 925° C), improvements in the corrosion resistance and mechanical properties can result due to coalescence of chromium carbide

precipitates or sigma phase.

- (e) Heating above the annealing temperature at 1750 to 2050^o F (955 to 1120^o C) fully softens the steel and causes all the grain-boundary precipitates to redissolve.

In the final selection of a proper stress relieving treatment due consideration must be given not only to the material itself, however, but also to the fabrication parameters and to the operating environment. Table 4.1, by A.S.M., adapted from [39], summarises the suggested stress-relieving treatments for various applications and environments.

Table 4.1 Stress-relieving treatments for austenitic stainless steels

Application or desired characteristics	Suggested thermal treatment (a)	
	Extra-low-carbon grades, such as 304L and 316L	Stabilized grades, such as 318, 321 and 347
Severe stress corrosion.....	A,B	(b)
Moderate stress corrosion.....	A,B,C	C(b)
Mild stress corrosion.....	A,B,C,E,F	C,F
Remove peak stresses only.....	F	F
No stress corrosion.....	None required	None required
Intergranular corrosion.....	A,C(c)	C
Stress relief after severe forming.....	A,C	C
Relief between forming operations.....	B,A,C	C(d)
Structural soundness(e).....	A,C,B	C
Dimensional stability.....	G	G

(a) Thermal treatments are listed in order of decreasing preference.

A : anneal at 1950 to 2050° F (1065 to 1120° C), slow cool.

B : stress relieve at 1650° F (900° C), slow cool.

C : anneal at 1950 to 2050° F (1065 to 1120° C), quench(f) or cool rapidly.

D : stress relieve at 1650° F (900° C), quench or cool rapidly.

E : stress relieve at 900 to 1200° F (480 to 650° C), slow cool.

F : stress relieve at below 900° F (480° C), slow cool.

G : stress relieve at 400 to 900° F (205 to 480° C), slow cool (usual time, 4h per inch of section).

(b) To allow the optimum stress-relieving treatment, the use of stabilized or extra-low-carbon grades is recommended.

(c) In most instances, no heat treatment is required, but where fabrication procedures may have sensitized the stainless steel the heat treatments noted may be employed.

(d) Treatment A,B or D also may be used, if followed by treatment C when forming is completed.

(e) Where severe fabricating stresses coupled with high service loading may cause cracking. Also, after welding heavy sections.

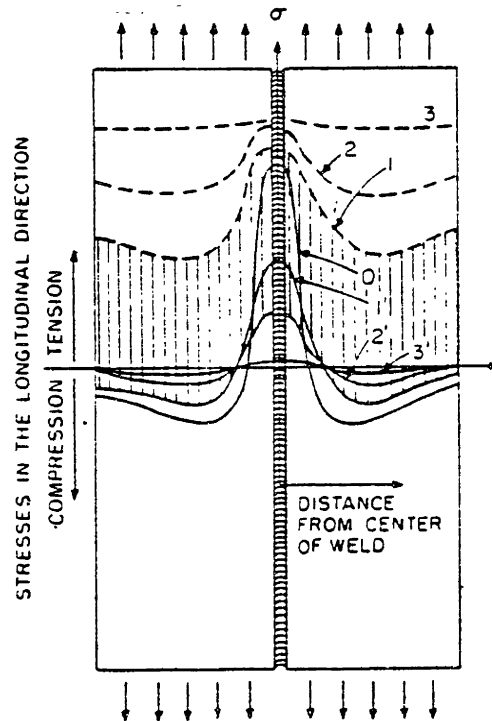
4.4 Alternative Methods of Stress Relieving

4.4.1 Mechanical Overstressing

When any of the undesirable metallurgical effects of thermal treatments cannot be tolerated, it is possible to stress relieve by mechanical means. Specifically, referring to Figure 4.9, adapted from [1], if tensile loading is applied parallel to the weld line, yielding will be caused in the highly stressed weld metal. The adjacent plate material, however, will be stressed further into tension, as depicted by curve(1). Further increase in loading will even out the stress distribution across the plate, as in curve (2). If the applied load increases further, yielding will take place across the entire cross-section, as in curve (3). If the plate is then unloaded the remaining stress will be very low and more or less uniform (curve 3'). So overloading of the structure can greatly reduce the level of residual stress peaks.

In addition, if any cracks or defects exist, the first application of loading will cause localized yielding at their tips. Subsequent unloading will produce a pattern of compressive residual stresses around these defects and other points of stress concentration.

Therefore after the first successful overstressing of a structure appreciable assurance is usually provided against both brittle fracture and fatigue fracture, [1],[40]. Obviously, however, no improvement of the basic fracture toughness of the HAZ microstructures is to be expected through mechanical treatments. This should be contrasted with the metallurgical



- Curve 0: Residual stresses in the as welded condition
 Curve 1: Stress distribution at $\sigma = \sigma_1$
 Curve 2: " " " $\sigma = \sigma_2, (\sigma_2 > \sigma_1)$
 Curve 3: " " " $\sigma = \sigma_3, (\sigma_3 > \sigma_2)$
 Curve 4: Residual stresses after $\sigma = \sigma_1$ is applied and then released
 Curve 5: " " " $\sigma = \sigma_2$ " " " " "
 Curve 6: " " " $\sigma = \sigma_3$ " " " " "

Figure 4.9 : Schematic distributions of stresses in a butt weld when uniform tensile loads are applied and of residual stresses after the loads are released.

benefits often resulting from thermal stress relieving treatments.

4.4.2 Vibratory Stress Relief (V.S.R.)

It has been reported by various investigators that reductions of residual stresses occurred and dimensional stability during subsequent machining was ensured when a welded structure was vibrated. The technique, employing eccentric weight type vibrators attached to various positions on the structure, is currently in industrial use with some degree of success. However, evidence on the capability of the method to effectively and repeatedly relieve residual stresses is rather contradictory at this point. It still remains much to be understood as to how and even whether the method actually works. Numerous studies have been undertaken in this direction during the past forty years. A survey of most of the published results appears in [68] by Dawson and Moffat and in [69] by Brogden.

Early work by Mc Goldrick and Saunders, [70], postulated that occurrence of plasticity at some time during the treatment was required for successful stress relief, and that in order to achieve the necessary amplitudes, the structure should be vibrated at a frequency very close to resonance. Relief of residual stresses at this time was inferred from the reduction of warpage. Buhler and Pfalzgraf, in the early 1960's, were among the first to attempt to directly measure residual stresses after vibratory treatment, [71]. Their results were not encouraging however, because they restricted the applied cyclic stresses below the fatigue limit of the materials used. The same

concern for fatigue damage was shared by other investigators as well. Nevertheless, more recent studies concluded that for any stress relief to occur during vibration, the fatigue limit of the material has to be exceeded and fatigue damage must therefore occur, although this is likely to be small, [68].

Substantial relief of residual stresses by vibration was reported in latter investigations. Specifically Sagalevich and Meister claimed 50% reduction in welding deformations of wagon bodies [68] and Zubchencho and Gruzđ reported 67% decrease in residual stress peaks in welded truck frames [72]. In 1968 Wozney and Crawmer reported in [73] a 33% reduction of residual stresses by cyclic bending of residually stressed Almen strips. Furthermore they used a derived cyclic stress strain curve of the material (similar to the one in Figure 4.10) to predict successfully the residual stress reduction. In 1972 Weiss, et al. reported in [74] a substantial reduction of residual stresses in plain carbon steel weldments vibrated on a laboratory shaker.

In an effort to analyze the mechanism of the reduction of residual stresses, Kazimirov et al. presented in [75] a rigorous derivation of the stresses and strains caused in a flat plate by a pulsating load and their interaction with existing residual stresses. Makhnenko and Pivtorak used a finite difference approach to show that the presence of residual stresses did not affect the condition of resonance in a beam. Additionally they proved that the vibration amplitude would be decreased when high residual stresses exist in the structure and concluded that in order to appreciably redistribute residual stresses, it would

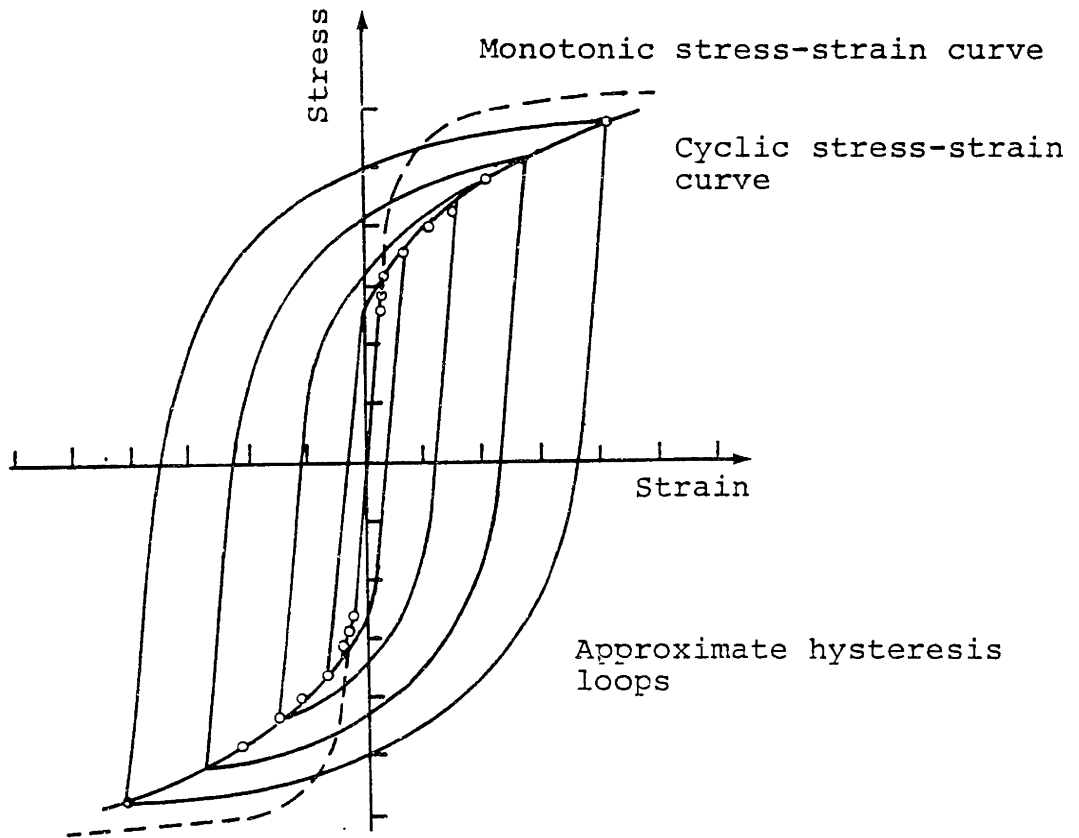


Figure 4.10 : Monotonic and cyclic stress strain curves for SAE 4340 steel. Data points represent tips of stable hysteresis loops .

be necessary to apply cyclic additional strains at least of the same order of magnitude as the residual strains themselves. Experimental investigations by Mryka led to similar conclusions, [77]. In 1979, Sagalevich, et al., showed by energy methods that it is possible to completely eliminate the residual stresses in welded beams by a rational combination of static and vibrational loading. Satisfactory agreement between calculated data and experimental results was observed, [78].

Despite these encouraging studies, however, other extensive investigations, such as one completed at Battelle Memorial Institute by Cheever gave rather inconclusive final results [79]. Additionally there is no clear consensus in the literature regarding the exact mechanism of the stress reduction. Further examination of vibratory stress relief treatments was considered to be outside the scope of this study. The next chapters will only deal with thermal stress relief treatments.

4.4.3 Explosive Stress Relieving

The impact from explosive contact charges was shown to be capable to redistribute (rather than to relieve) welding residual stresses. Important parameters in such a treatment are the intensity and distribution of the explosive load. Some results on the optimal selection of these parameters are given in [80]. However, since the method is rarely used it will not be examined any further in this study.

4.5 Fabrication Techniques to Reduce Residual Stresses and to Eliminate Postweld Treatments

There are cases in welding fabrication, where even a

modification of the residual stress patterns is beneficial. For example, it is the tensile residual stresses usually developed in the inner surface of welded stainless steel pipes that promote intergranular stress corrosion cracking in boiling water reactor installations. The various fabrication methods that were developed to solve this problem are effective exactly because they limit and change these tensile stresses to compressive, [81].

Specifically in the heat sink welding technique the first two welding passes are made conventionally with an inert gas back purge. Then the inside of the pipe is cooled with flowing or stagnant water or water spray while the remaining weld passes are completed. Since the inside surface is kept relatively cool during most of the welding passes the circumferential shrinkage is less than with a conventional weld. In addition, when the outer weld layers shrink axially while cooling, they tend to induce compressive axial stresses on the already cool inside surface. Results of investigations in G.E. by Chrenko appear in Figure 4.11. The axial residual stress patterns on the inside diameter of 304 stainless steel pipes were measured by X-ray diffraction for conventional and heat sink welding, [82].

Beneficial compressive stresses can also be induced in the inner surface of pipes that have been already welded. One method developed by I.H.I. in Japan the induction heating stress improvement (I.H.S.I.). In this case the interior of the pipe is cooled with water, while heat is applied to the outside near the weld. The resulting temperature gradient (between 400° C

and 500° C) causes yield in compression at the outside surface and in tension at the inside. When the outside heating is removed compressive stresses are induced on the interior. Some experimental results appear in Figure 4.12 again adapted from [82].

Another technique that is usually employed in order to avoid postweld heat treatment is buttering. The joint preparations are first buttered, inspected, heat treated and remachined before final butt welding. Detailed description of the technique is given by Lochhead in [83].

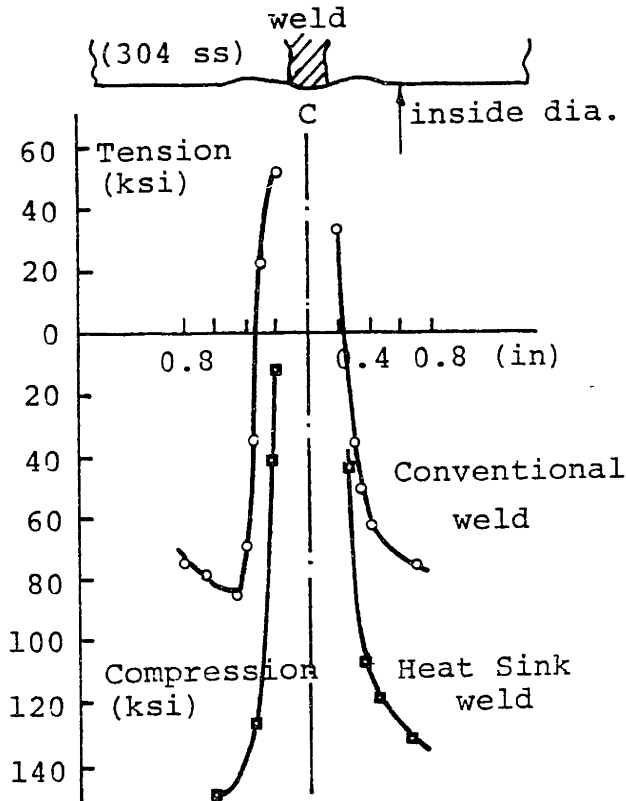


Figure 4.11 :
Axial residual stresses at
the inner surface of a 10 in.
dia. schedule 80 type 304
stainless steel pipe for
both conventional and heat
sink welding.
(adapted from [82])

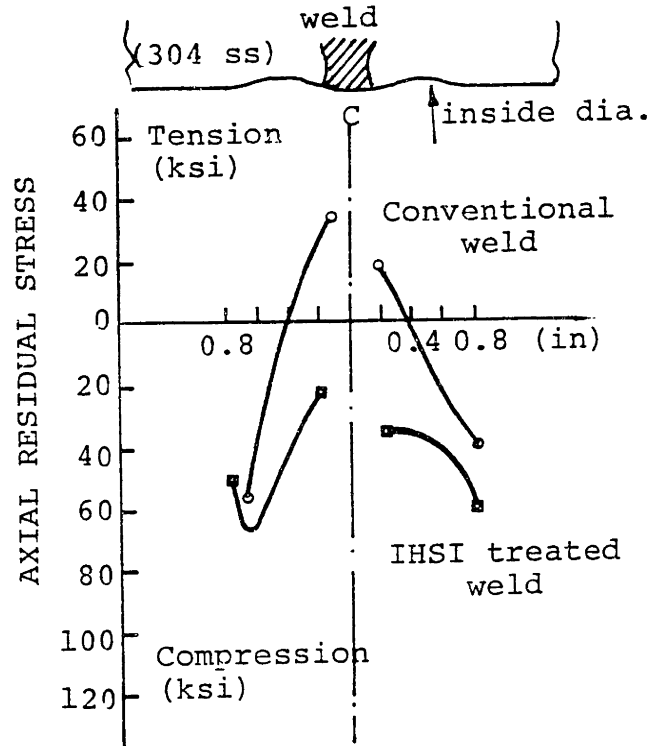


Figure 4.12 :
Axial residual stresses at
the inner surface of a 16 in.
dia. schedule 80 type 304
stainless steel pipe for
conventional welding and
subsequent induction heating
stress improvement, (IHSI).
(adapted from [82])

Note : Residual stresses were measured by X-ray diffraction.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS OF RESIDUAL STRESS RELAXATION DUE TO HEAT TREATMENTS

5.1 General Considerations

Stress relieving heat treatments are usually applied in order to reduce residual stresses and to induce metallurgical benefits. The metallurgical changes, positive or negative, have been briefly dealt with in the previous chapter, and are not the main concern of this study. The reduction of residual stresses, however, will be further examined now.

Residual stress changes can arise during all three stages of a heat treatment. Specifically, referring to Figure 5.1, during the heating part of the process residual stresses decrease due to the temperature dependence of the mechanical properties, mainly through a reduction of the yield strength with temperature. During the holding (or soaking) period the temperature is kept constant and residual stresses are reduced due to creep. Experimental evidence suggests that the major portion of this stress reduction occurs in the first part of this stage. This is clearly shown in Figure 5.2 depicting load versus time for constant-strain relaxation tests performed on HY-130 steel, and matching weld metals, by N.S.R.D.C., [64]. Finally, during the cool-down period, residual stresses increase due to the temperature dependence of the mechanical properties, but hopefully (when the treatment is successful) not to their initial levels.

To judge the effectiveness of a stress relief treatment, with regards to the accomplished reduction of residual stresses,

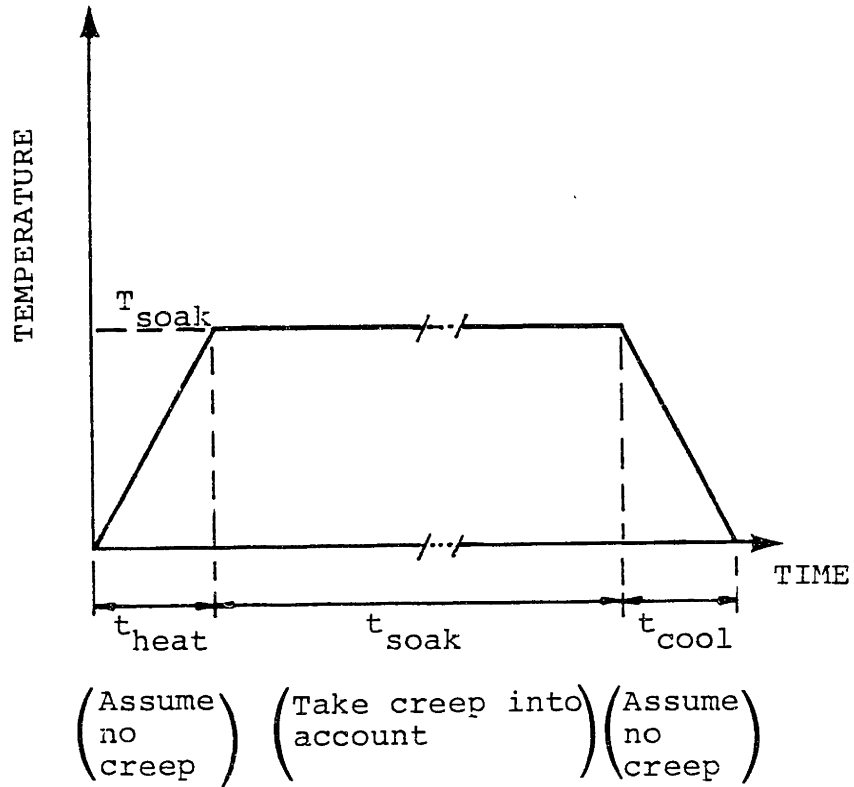


Figure 5.1 : Stress relieving temperature history

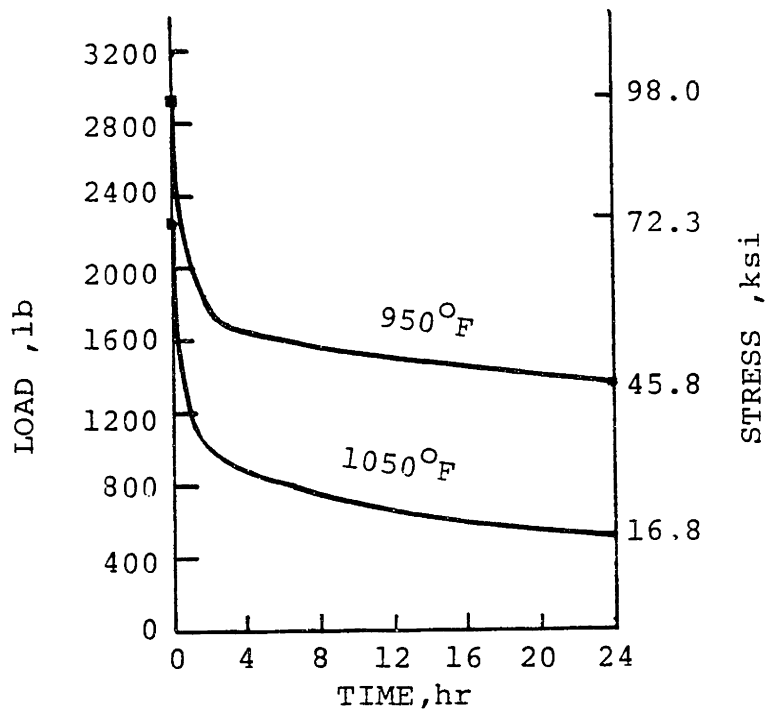


Figure 5.2 : Load vs. time from constant-strain relaxation tests on HY-130 steels and matching weld metals

it should be necessary to measure the maximum residual stresses before and after the treatment. The difference would be a realistic measure of performance. An acceptable alternative, however, to the time-consuming, costly and usually destructive residual stress measurements, would be a proper analytical model. Furthermore, such a model would be very helpful in determining an optimal lower temperature heat treatment, where a properly selected heating pattern would most effectively reduce stresses, while keeping the metallurgical changes minimal.

In that direction, various approaches have been followed in the literature by several investigators. Very simple uniform residual stress distributions are usually assumed for the weld metal, so that the unidimensional stress-strain curves can be directly employed. Such analytical results are obtained and experimentally verified by Tanaka in [84] and [85]. For more complex cases and two-or three-dimensional stress states numerical models have been proposed to handle the thermal-elastic-plastic and creep analysis required. Ueda and Fukuda present in [86], [87] a finite element model capable of calculating welding residual stresses and stress relief due to creep. Fujita, et al., develop in [88] a thermo-visco-elastic-plastic model to study the mechanism of stress relief annealing. In [89] finally, Cameron and Pemberton present a numerical model of the thermal stress relief in thin shells of revolution.

For the purposes of this study, it was decided that the analysis of the thermal stress relieving operation be accomplished using an one-dimensional model, similar to that

successfully employed in the past at M.I.T. for the prediction of residual stresses in long, thin, butt or edge welded plates, [90],[1]. The program was modified so as to calculate residual stresses, not only after welding, but also after any specified heat treatment. These modifications will be presented in the next few sections of this chapter.

5.2 The One-Dimensional Model

5.2.1 Assumptions

The fundamental assumptions incorporated in this model are:

- (a) The plate is infinite and very thin (Referring to Figure 5.3, $L \rightarrow \infty$, $h \rightarrow 0$)
- (b) The welding arc is modeled as a line heat source and there is no temperature gradient through the thickness of the plate. (Two-dimensional temperature distribution).
- (c) Furthermore the temperature distribution is stationary if viewed from a system moving with the heat source. (Quasi stationary state [1]).
- (d) Stress is non-zero only in the direction parallel to the weld centerline. (One-dimensional stress distribution).
- (e) These stresses are a function of the transverse distance from the weld centerline only.

Additional assumptions for the analysis of thermal stress relief treatment were made as follows:

- (f) Any arbitrary temperature distribution and history would be input to the modified program. However, for the purposes of this study uniform temperature distribution was assumed over the entire plate, changing with time as in Figure 5.1.

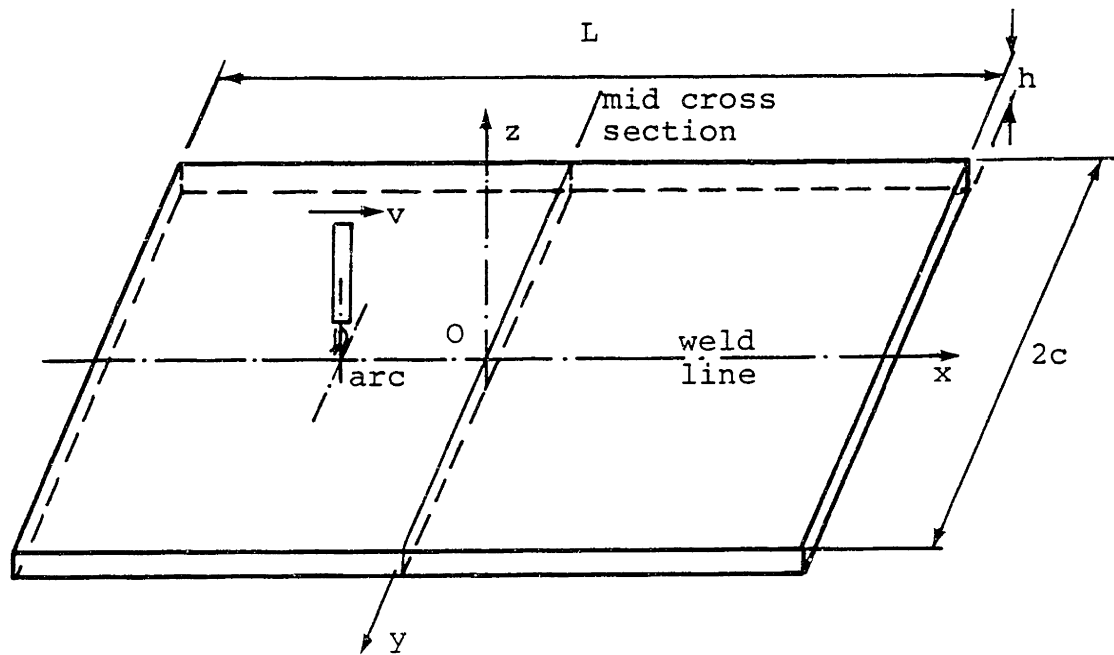


Figure 5.3 : Weldment configuration (Butt welding of plates)

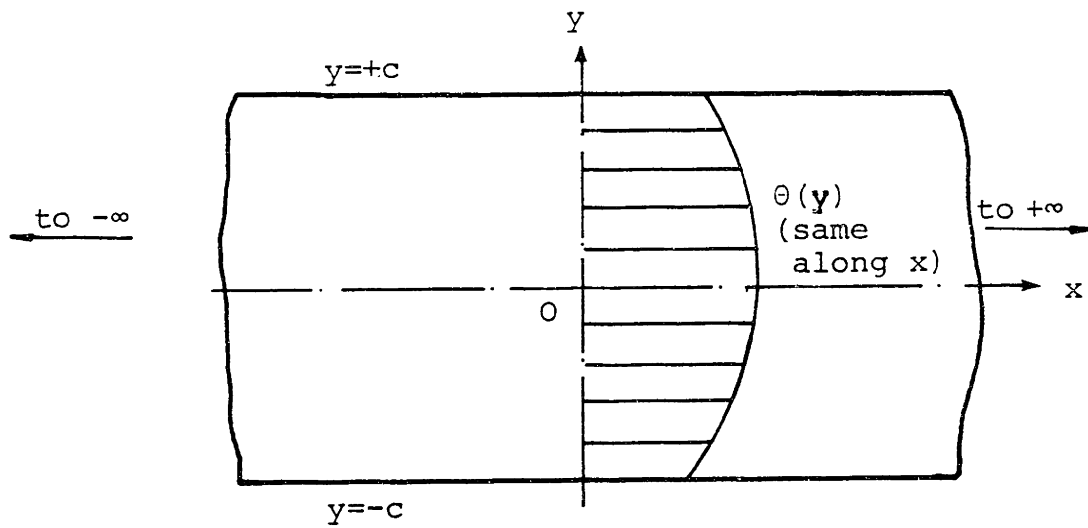


Figure 5.4 : Thin infinite strip with temperature distribution across the width

- (g) Due to the relatively fast heating and cooling rates it was assumed that no creep occurs during these periods.
- (h) During the holding or soaking period at the stress relieving temperature, residual stresses can only decrease due to creep. In other words, if creep is not included in the model, no change in stresses will take place during this period.

5.2.2 Temperature Distribution

During welding the non uniform and changing with time temperature distribution is estimated in the one dimensional program by the well-known Rosenthal solution. Specifically, as proved in [91], the exact solution for a line heat source moving along an infinite plate is:

$$\theta - \theta_0 = \frac{Q}{2\pi\lambda h} \cdot e^{-\frac{v}{2\kappa} \xi} \cdot K_0\left(\frac{vr}{2\kappa}\right) \quad (5-1)$$

where : θ = Temperature at point (x,y) at time t

θ_0 = Initial temperature

h = Plate thickness

λ = Thermal conductivity

κ = Thermal diffusivity ($\kappa = \frac{\lambda}{\rho c_p}$)

ρ = Density

c_p = Specific heat

Q = Total heat input

v = Welding speed

$K_0(x)$ = Modified Bessel function of second kind and zero order

The moving coordinates ξ and r are:

$$\xi = x - vt \quad (5-2)$$

and

$$r = (\xi^2 + y^2)^{1/2} \quad (5-3)$$

The total heat input, Q , is

$$Q = V \cdot I \cdot n_a \quad (5-4)$$

where : V = Arc voltage

I = Arc current

n_a = Arc efficiency

During heat treatment in a furnace the temperature distribution can be assumed to be uniform along the entire plate. For the case of a localized treatment, however, by flame heating for example the temperature distribution can be calculated modifying the solution for a point heat source moving on an semi-infinite body. Specifically the point heat source (three-dimensional) solution is : ([91],[1]).

$$\theta - \theta_o = \frac{Q}{2\pi\lambda} \cdot e^{-\frac{v}{2k}\xi} \cdot \frac{e^{-\frac{v}{2k}R}}{R} \quad (5-5)$$

where : $R = (\xi^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{1/2} \quad (5-6)$

and all the other variables same as in (5-1).

The boundary conditions that have to be satisfied on the surfaces of a finite plate are

$$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial n} = 0$$

where : n the normal to the surface.

Therefore the solution has to be modified including infinite

series of images of the heat source with respect to the boundaries as depicted in Figure 5.5, adapted from [128].

The Rosenthal solutions, two- or three-dimensional, assume that the material is isotropic ($\lambda_x = \lambda_y$) and that properties are independent of temperature. The latter assumption is by no means realistic for the welding or heat treating temperatures and an iterative scheme, described in section 5.4, has to be incorporated in the model to account for that.

Finally, it should be noted that equation 5.1 was also modified to account for heat losses due to radiation and convection from the surfaces of the plate, becoming:

$$\theta - \theta_o = \frac{Q}{2\pi\lambda h} \cdot e^{-\frac{v}{2\kappa} \xi} \cdot K_o \left(r \sqrt{\left(\frac{v}{2\kappa}\right)^2 + \frac{H}{\lambda T}} \right) \quad (5-7a)$$

where : H = Average surface heat loss coefficient .

Furthermore, for a plate of finite breadth c, equation (5-1) has to be modified using an infinite number of images of the heat source. Thus it becomes in general :

$$\theta - \theta_o = \frac{Q}{2\pi\lambda h} \cdot e^{-\frac{v}{2\kappa} \xi} \cdot \sum_{-\infty}^{+\infty} K_o \left(r_m \cdot \sqrt{\left(\frac{v}{2\kappa}\right)^2 + \frac{H}{\lambda T}} \right) \quad (5-7b)$$

where : $r_m = (\xi^2 + (y \pm 2mc)^2)^{1/2}$ for the mth image source.

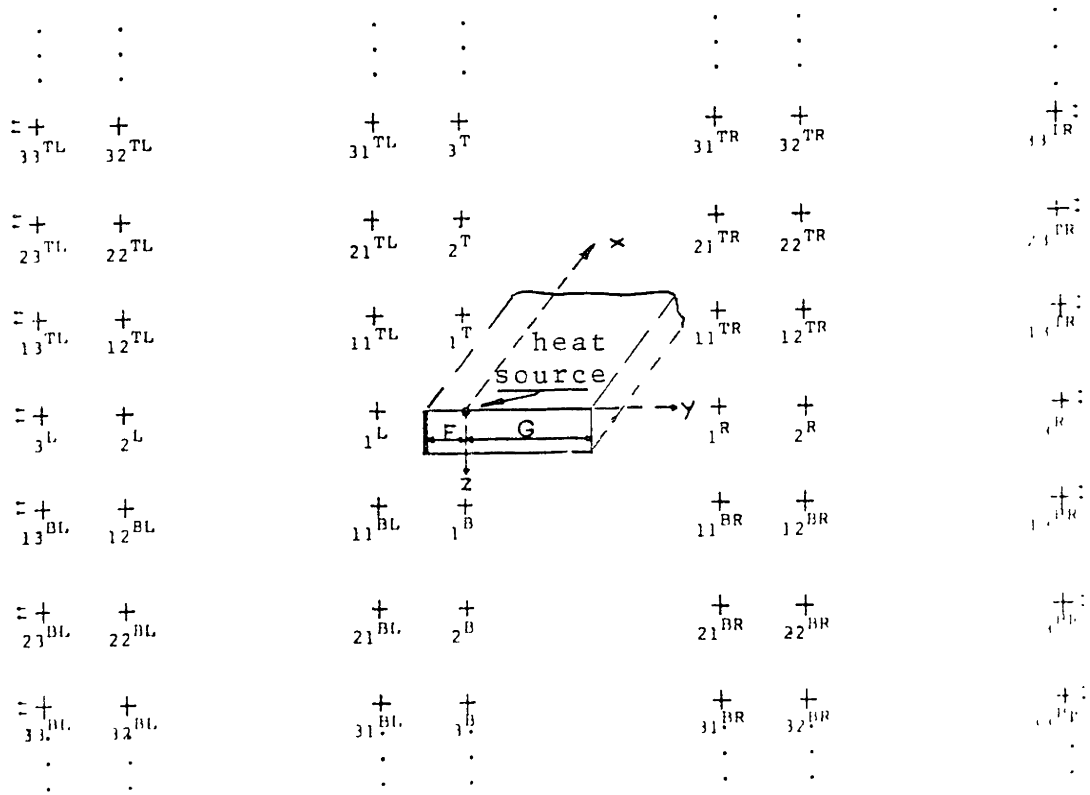


Figure 5.5 : Arrangement of heat source images for a finite width and thickness plate.

5.2.3 Stress Analysis

To calculate the transient and residual stresses during and after welding and subsequent heat treatments the method of successive elastic solutions is employed. The procedure, outlined by Mentelson in [92], was first used in the solution of welding problems by Tall, [93],[94], and later by Masubuchi, [95].

To analyse the stress state at the center cross section of the plate (Figure 5.3) due to an arbitrary, and changing with time, temperature distribution, $\theta(y,t)$, it is assumed that at time t the section is a part of an infinitely long plate subject to the same temperature distribution over its entire length, as in Figure 5.4. This temperature profile will remain the same during the current time increment, Δt .

The only non-zero stress and strain are assumed to be $\sigma_x = \sigma_x(y)$ and $\epsilon_x = \epsilon_x(y)$.

Compatibility equations for one dimension reduce to,

$$\frac{d^2 \epsilon_x}{dy^2} = 0 \quad (5-8)$$

or

$$\epsilon_x = c_1 + c_2 y \quad (5-9)$$

where : c_1 and c_2 are constants to be determined. The above equation essentially states that plane sections will always remain plane.

Considering an incremental approach, at the end of a time interval Δt the following will hold along the cross section.

$$\epsilon_x = \frac{\sigma_x}{E} + \alpha \cdot \Delta \theta + \epsilon_x^{in} + \Delta \epsilon_x^{in} \quad (5-10)$$

or

$$\sigma_x = E(\epsilon_x - \alpha \cdot \Delta\theta - \epsilon_x^{\text{in}} - \Delta\epsilon_x^{\text{in}}) \quad (5-11)$$

where :

- σ_x/E = Elastic part of strain, ϵ_x^{el}
- $\alpha \cdot \Delta\theta$ = Thermal strain, ϵ_x^{th}
- $\Delta\theta$ = $\theta - \theta_0$
- ϵ_x^{in} = Accumulated (during the previous time increments) inelastic strain = $\epsilon_x^{\text{pl}} + \epsilon_x^{\text{c}}$
- ϵ_x^{pl} = Plastic strain
- ϵ_x^{c} = Creep strain
- $\Delta\epsilon_x^{\text{in}}$ = Change in inelastic strain during the time increment Δt

From global equilibrium (no external forces and moments acting on the plate).

$$\int_{-c}^{+c} \sigma_x \, dy = 0 \quad (5-12a)$$

$$\int_{-c}^{+c} \sigma_x \, y \, dy = 0 \quad (5-12b)$$

Substituting Eqns. (5.9) and (5.11) into (5.12), a set of linear equations is obtained for the determination of the unknown coefficients c_1 and c_2 . Solving this system and substituting back into Eqn. (5.9) the following expression is obtained for the total strain:

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon_x(y) = & (A_1 - yA_2) \int_{-c}^{+c} E(\alpha \cdot \Delta\theta + \epsilon_x^{\text{in}} + \Delta\epsilon_x^{\text{in}}) \, dy \\ & - (A_2 - yA_3) \int_{-c}^{+c} E(\alpha \cdot \Delta\theta + \epsilon_x^{\text{in}} + \Delta\epsilon_x^{\text{in}}) y \, dy \quad (5-13) \end{aligned}$$

where :

$$A_1 = \left[\int_{-c}^{+c} E y^2 dy \right] / B$$

$$A_2 = \left[\int_{-c}^{+c} E y dy \right] / B$$

$$A_3 = \left[\int_{-c}^{+c} E dy \right] / B$$

(5-14)

and

$$B = \left[\int_{-c}^{+c} E dy \right] \cdot \left[\int_{-c}^{+c} E y^2 dy \right] - \left[\int_{-c}^{+c} E y dy \right]^2$$

Equations (5.13) and (5.14) are not enough to solve the problem. What is still needed is a stress-strain law and a relation between stress and creep strain increments.

To proceed further the assumption was made that creep will only take place during the soaking stage of the temperature history. Thus during this period the accumulated plastic strain, ϵ_x^{pl} , will remain constant. The heating and cooling stages where no creep occurs, are treated in exactly the same way as the welding problem.

5.2.4 The Method of Successive Elastic Solutions

(A) During welding, when creep does not occur :

$$\epsilon^{in}(y) = \epsilon^{pl}(y) \quad (5-15)$$

At each time step the total strain is first calculated along the cross section from (5-13) assuming that no plastic strain exists.

$$\epsilon^{pl}(y) = 0 \quad (5-16)$$

The mechanical strain, ϵ^m , then is:

$$\epsilon^m(y) = \epsilon_x(y) - \epsilon^{th}(y) = \epsilon_x(y) - \alpha \cdot \Delta\theta(y) \quad (5-17)$$

Now assuming a bilinear stress-strain law, a first approximation of the plastic strain along the cross section can be obtained, as in Figure 5.6. This value can be used again in (5.13) to obtain a second approximation of the total strain and the process can be repeated until convergence is reached.

Further details of this iterative procedure, which can also be applied during the heating and cooling stages of a heat treatment, can be found in [90] and [92]. It should be noted, however, that during the calculation of the total strains, at each time step, the accumulated plastic strains from previous time steps should be included to account for possible elastic unloading or reverse yielding.

(B) During the holding period, when creep is taken into account, this procedure has to be slightly modified:

At the start of the first time increment the inelastic strain is:

$$\epsilon_x^{in}(y) = \epsilon_x^{pl}(y) \quad (5-18)$$

where : ϵ_x^{pl} is the total accumulated plastic strain up to that instant (due to welding and heating).

As mentioned before ϵ_x^{pl} will remain constant during the whole soaking period.

To get a first approximation of the total strain, ϵ_x ,

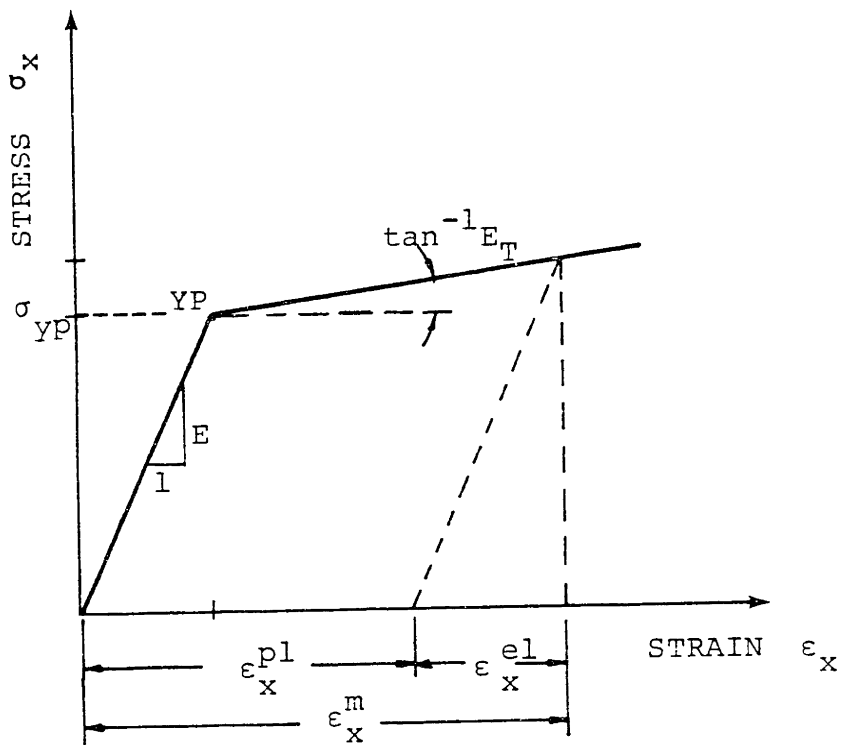


Figure 5.6 : Bilinear stress strain law used in 1-D model

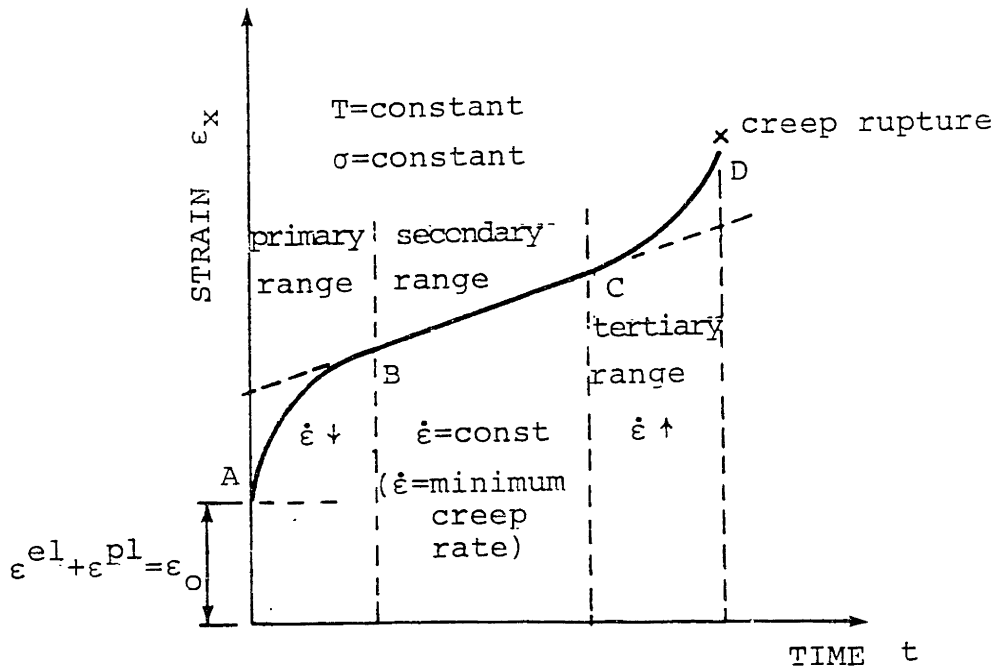


Figure 5.7 : Uniaxial creep curve

after Δt , from equation (5.13) it is now assumed that:

$$\Delta \epsilon_x^{\text{in}} = \Delta \epsilon_x^{\text{C}} = 0 \quad (5-19)$$

This first approximation of the total strain, ϵ_x , is then substituted in equation (5-11) to obtain a first approximation of stress σ_x . Using this stress approximation and the appropriate creep law (section 5.2.5) a second approximation for the creep strain increment, $\Delta \epsilon_x^{\text{C}} = \Delta \epsilon_x^{\text{in}}$, is obtained. This value is now again substituted in equation (5-13) for a new approximation of the total strain ϵ_x and the process is repeated until convergence is reached.

At the start of the second and any subsequent time increment the total strains will be equal to the initial plastic strain plus the accumulated creep strain during the previous time increments:

$$\epsilon_x^{\text{in}}(y) = \epsilon_x^{\text{pl}}(y) + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \Delta \epsilon_x^{\text{C}}(y) \quad (5-20)$$

Assuming again that $\Delta \epsilon_x^{\text{C}}$ is zero during this time step the process outlined above can be repeated.

5.3 Creep Laws

5.3.1 Introduction

Creep, the time dependent deformation and fracture of materials, is probably the most general type of material behavior. A typical experimental uniaxial creep curve is shown in Figure 5.7 showing increasing with time strain for constant stress and temperature. At $t=0$ the instantaneous response ϵ_0 is either elastic or elasto-plastic depending on the magnitude of stress. The strain rate $\dot{\epsilon} = d\epsilon/dt$ is decreasing, in the primary range, reaching a minimum constant value, in the secondary range, and steeply increasing in the final tertiary range, where creep rupture occurs.

The current state of the art requires that plasticity and creep constitutive equations be formulated largely on independent bases. However, elevated-temperature deformation is, essentially, the result of time-dependent processes where both plastic and creep behaviors are present simultaneously. Prior creep deformations influence subsequent plastic behavior and vice versa. Only limited information is available on these mutual interactions as outlined by Pugh, et al., in [96] and by Corum, et al., in [97]. Some recent studies, as [104] by Newman, et al., attempt to treat plasticity and creep with a single model. However, for the purposes of this study the two behaviors were modeled separately as already noted in the previous section.

5.3.2 Uniaxial Creep Laws for the Materials Used in this Study

Very limited information is available in the literature on the creep behavior of high-strength, quenched and tempered

steels, as HY-80 and HY-130. Only some data on the minimum creep rate and creep rupture time are reported by Domis [100], and are presented in Appendix A, as adapted from [101].

For stainless steels, on the other hand, numerous studies have been performed to investigate their elevated-temperature inelastic behavior. Creep data for 304 austenitic stainless steel appear in Appendix A. Furthermore, it is reported by Clinard, et al., in [102], and Corum, et al., in [97], that the uniaxial creep behavior of stainless steels during the primary and secondary stage can be very well modeled by an equation of the form:

$$\epsilon^C(\sigma, t, T) = f(\sigma, T) \left[1 - e^{-r(\sigma, T)t} \right] + g(\sigma, T) \cdot t \quad (5-21)$$

initially proposed by Garofalo, et al., in [103],

where : ϵ^C = Uniaxial creep strain

σ = Applied uniaxial stress

T = Test temperature

t = Time

The functions $f(\sigma, T)$, $r(\sigma, T)$ and $g(\sigma, T)$ can be deduced from creep test data by curve fitting. Clinard et al., [102], report for 304 stainless steels, the following representation at $T = 1100^\circ \text{ F}$ (594° C).

$$\begin{aligned} f(\sigma) &= 5.436 \times 10^{-5} \sigma^{1.843} \\ r(\sigma) &= 5.929 \times 10^{-5} \exp(0.2029\sigma) \\ g(\sigma) &= 6.73 \times 10^{-9} \left[\sinh(0.1479\sigma) \right]^{3.0} \end{aligned} \quad (5-22)$$

where : σ is expressed in Ksi, t in hours and the creep strain

ϵ^c in in./in.

Existing data are not enough to support a creep law for compressive stresses that is different from the creep law in tension. Therefore creep response to constant uniaxial compression is usually assumed identical to that in tension (actually a reflection of it with respect to the time axis)

The creep strains predicted from equation 5-21 at various stress levels are plotted versus time in Figures 5.8a and 5.8b.

5.3.3 Multiaxial Creep Models

A "flow rule" for the case of multiaxial stress can be developed based on the experimentally verified assumptions that (a) the material is isotropic and incompressible (b) the creep strains are indifferent to hydrostatic states of stress and (c) the principal directions of stress and creep strain should coincide. (As detailed in references [96] to [99]).

Such a flow rule that would also reduce to the uniaxial creep law is of the form:

$$\dot{\epsilon}_{ij}^c = \frac{3}{2} \frac{\dot{\bar{\epsilon}}(\bar{\sigma}, t, T)}{\bar{\sigma}} \sigma'_{ij} \quad (5-23)$$

where : $\dot{\epsilon}_{ij}^c, \sigma'_{ij}$ = The components of creep strain and deviatoric stress tensors respectively.

$\bar{\epsilon}, \bar{\sigma}$ = The effective strain and stress

$$\bar{\epsilon}^2 = \frac{2}{3} \epsilon_{ij}^c \cdot \epsilon_{ij}^c$$

$$\bar{\sigma}^2 = \frac{3}{2} \sigma'_{ij} \cdot \sigma'_{ij}$$

and $\dot{\bar{\epsilon}}(\bar{\sigma}, t, T)$ = The uniaxial creep law with axial stress and strain variables replaced by their

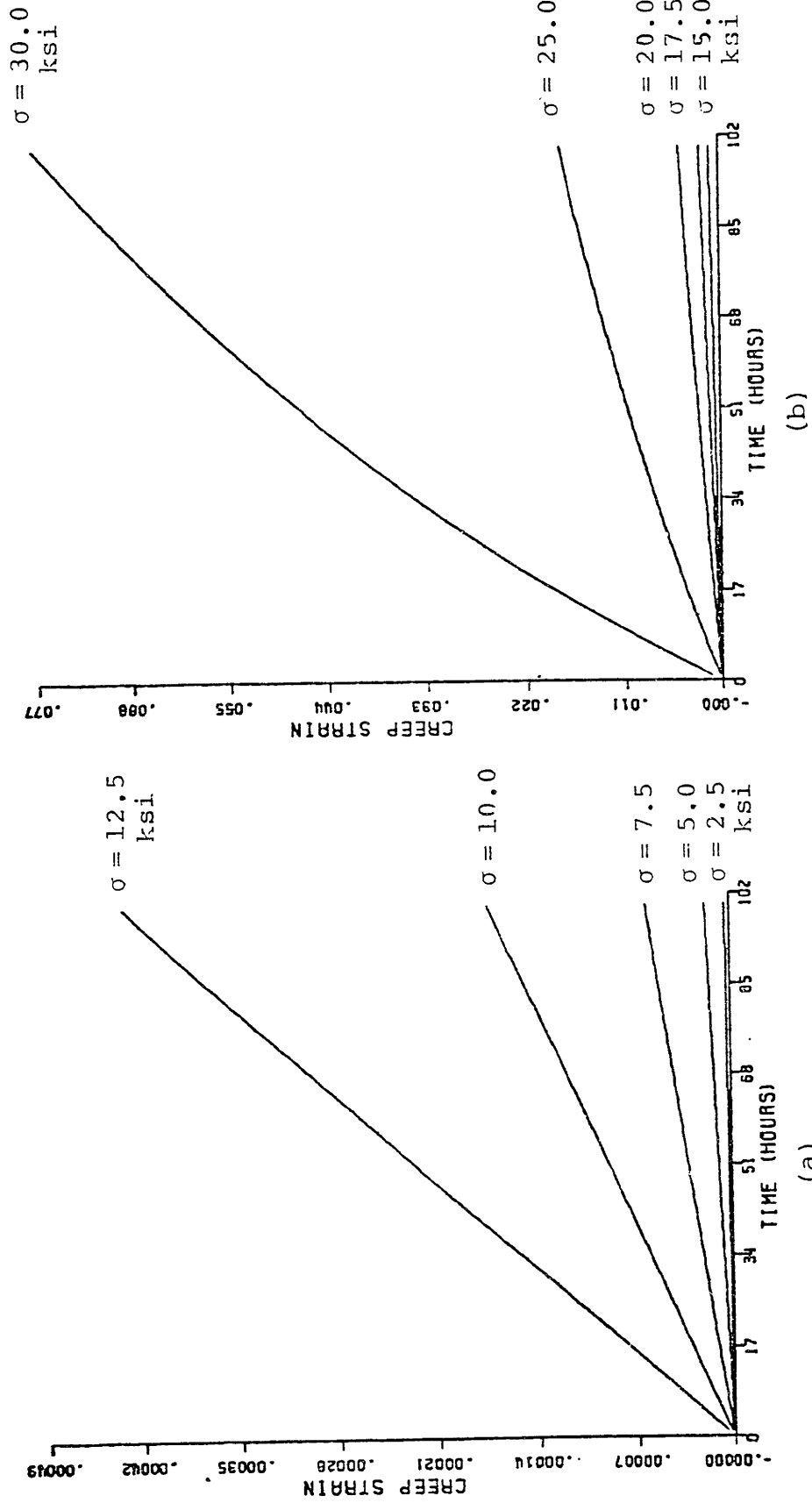


Figure 5.8 : Uniaxial creep law for type 304 stainless steel at 1100°F

effective counterparts.

However, in the simplified one-dimensional model such a flow rule is not needed since a uniaxial stress state is assumed.

5.3.4 Creep Under Variable Loading

For the complete description of the time dependent behavior of the material, a "hardening rule" is needed in order to predict the creep response when the stress levels are changing. The two most commonly used rules, time hardening and strain hardening, are schematically shown in Figure 5.9. When the applied uniaxial stress is $\sigma = \sigma_1$ the creep response follows the constant-stress creep curve (σ_1). At time t_1 , when the applied stress increases to $\sigma = \sigma_2$ the time hardening rule would predict that the creep response follows the (σ_2) curve beginning at point T. The strain hardening formulation, on the other hand, would indicate that the response also follows the curve (σ_2), but beginning at point S.

The two different hardening rules also result in different formulations for the creep strain rate in a variable stress situation. Specifically, if time hardening is assumed, the creep strain rate is a function of stress time and temperature; if strain hardening is postulated, however, the creep strain rate becomes a function of stress, strain and temperature [99].

Experimental evidence tend to support a strain hardening formulation for the case of 304 and 316 stainless steels. Additionally, if stress reversals occur, auxiliary strain hardening rules have to be introduced in order to avoid unrealistic predictions. These auxiliary rules in detail presented by Corum, in [97], would for example indicate that

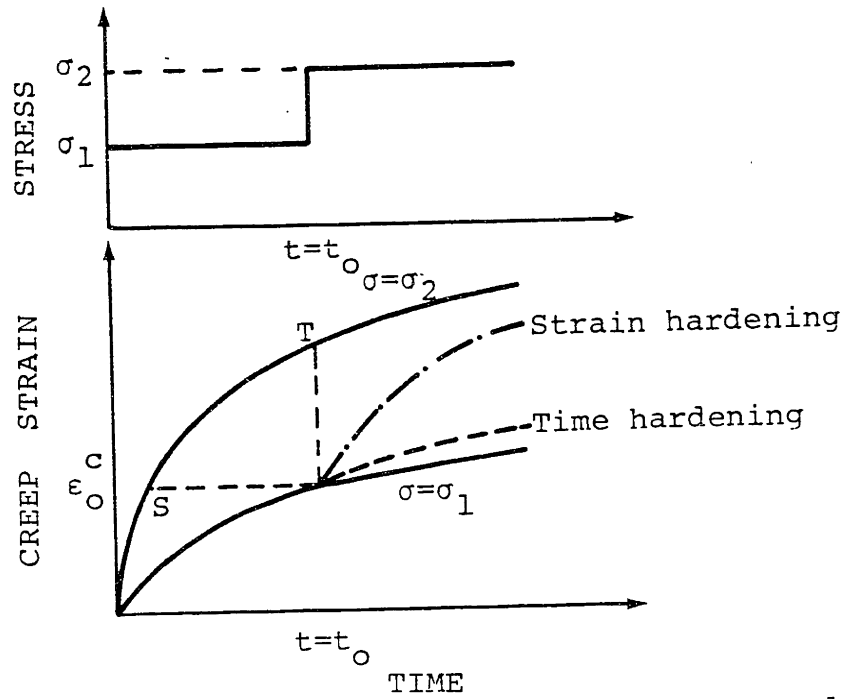


Figure 5.9 : Strain-hardening and time-hardening models of creep response under a stepwise varying load

the creep response produced by the first application of compressive stress starts at zero strain hardening as in the case of a virgin specimen. It should be pointed out, however, that these rules are strictly correct only in step changes of stress that are of long duration. In our problem where small changes of stress take place at each infinitesimal time step, it was decided, for computational efficiency, to adopt time-hardening. The reason for that will become evident in section 5.4.3.

5.4 Notes on the Computer Implementation

5.4.1 Temperature Distribution

A special iterative scheme has to be used in order to account for the temperature dependence of the material properties. The procedure starts by assuming a temperature θ_A and using it for a first estimate of ρ and λ . Substituting these values back to equation (5-1) would give a first approximation of the temperatures $\theta(y)$ along the cross section. These can now be used for a better estimation of the properties (ρ and λ) which again can be substituted in (5-1) for a new approximation of $\theta(y)$. This process, shown in Figure 5.10, can then be continued until convergence is attained.

5.4.2 Stress Analysis

A non-dimensional form of the equations is used in the program. Specifically we define the non-dimensional stress and strains:

$$s = \frac{\sigma_x}{\sigma_0}, \quad e_x = \frac{\epsilon_x}{\epsilon_0}, \quad \tau = \frac{\alpha \Delta\theta}{\epsilon_0}$$

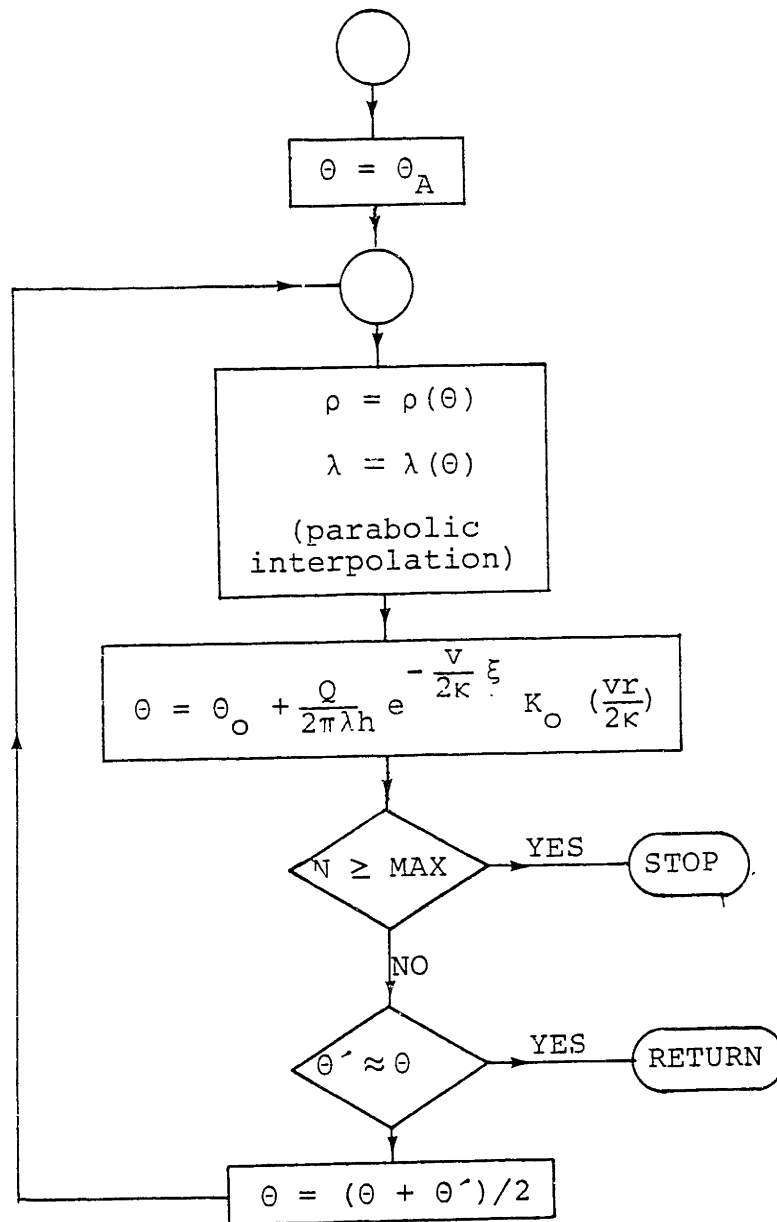


Figure 5.10: Iterative scheme to take into account the variation of properties with temperature.

$$e_x^{el} = \frac{\epsilon_x^{el}}{\epsilon_0}, \quad e_x^{pl} = \frac{e_x^{pl}}{\epsilon_0}, \quad e^c = \frac{e^c}{\epsilon_0} \quad (5-24)$$

and the non-dimensional transverse distance and Young's modulus:

$$\eta = \frac{Y}{c} \quad \text{and} \quad H = \frac{E}{E_0} \quad (5-25)$$

where : σ_0 = Yield stress at reference temperature

ϵ_0 = Yield strain at reference temperature

E_0 = Young's modulus at reference temperature

Now equations (5-8) to (5-12) can be expressed in non-dimensional form and the total strain will be given by :

$$e_x(\eta) = (A_1 - \eta A_2) \int_{-1}^{+1} H(\tau + e_x^{in} + \Delta e_x^{in}) d\eta - (A_2 - \eta A_3) \int_{-1}^{+1} H(\tau + e_x^{in} + \Delta e_x^{in}) \eta d\eta \quad (5-26)$$

where: $e_x^{in} = e_x^{el} + e_x^{pl} + e_x^c \quad (5-27)$

$$A_1 = \left[\int_{-1}^{+1} H \eta^2 d\eta \right] / B$$

$$A_2 = \left[\int_{-1}^{+1} H \eta d\eta \right] / B$$

$$A_3 = \left[\int_{-1}^{+1} H d\eta \right] / B$$

$$B = \left[\int_{-1}^{+1} H d\eta \right] \left[\int_{-1}^{+1} H \eta^2 d\eta \right] - \left[\int_{-1}^{+1} H \eta d\eta \right]^2 \quad (5-28)$$

The integrals are evaluated numerically and the equations can be simplified even further in specific cases.

For bead on plate welding where the temperature distribution and the resulting strains and stresses are symmetric around the weld line, equation (5-26) yields :

$$e_x(\eta) = \frac{\int_0^1 H(\tau + e_x^{in} + \Delta e_x^{in}) d\eta}{\int_0^1 H d\eta} \quad (5-29)$$

For edge welding along the side of a plate of breadth c equation (5-26) still holds, but with the integration limits from 0 to +1.

During heat treating at a constant temperature equation (5-26) can be further simplified. If we assume a symmetric previous distribution of strains and stresses, we readily get from (5-29):

$$e_x = \tau + \int_0^1 (e_x^{in} + \Delta e_x^{in}) d\eta \quad (5-30)$$

Whereas for any nonsymmetric distribution of stresses we can get after some algebra from (5-26) that:

$$e_x = \tau + (12\eta - 6) \int_0^1 (e_x^{in} + \Delta e_x^{in}) \eta d\eta + (4 - 6\eta) \int_0^1 (e_x^{in} + \Delta e_x^{in}) d\eta \quad (5-31)$$

For butt welding of plates the solution for edge welding is used ahead of the arc and the solution for bead on plate welding behind the arc (where the weld puddle is solidified).

All the above integrations are performed numerically in the program and more details on the integration scheme that was used are given in Appendix B. A listing of the FORTRAN code can be found in Appendix C.

5.4.3 Creep Analysis

Equation (5-21) is the form of creep law employed in the numerical model developed in this study for the analysis of stress relieving of 304 stainless steel. Specifically the creep strain increment $\Delta \epsilon_x^C(y)$ accumulated between time t and $t + \Delta t$ (at each point along the cross section) is :

$$\Delta \epsilon_x^C(y) = \epsilon_x^C \left[\sigma_x(y), (t + \Delta t), T(y) \right] - \epsilon_x^C \left[\sigma_x(y), t, T(y) \right] \quad (5-32)$$

where : $T(y)$ = The temperature distribution and
 $\sigma_x(y)$ = The current approximation of the stress distribution

In equation (5-32) the creep strain rate $\Delta \epsilon_x^C(y) / \Delta t$ is a function of stress, time and temperature. That is, time hardening was assumed in order to avoid the added computations of solving (5-21) for time, as a strain hardening formulation would require. Nevertheless, however, the latter would not necessarily guarantee better results due to the small size of the time steps. It should be again noted here that both temperature and stress at each point change stepwise. That is, they are assumed to remain constant at each point for the duration of each time increment, (as in the "time increment-initial strain" method described in [96]).

5.4.4 A Sample Case

In what follows a sample case is presented. Specifically butt welding of two plates and subsequent stress relieving heat treatment at 1100°F (594°C) are analysed. The welding conditions were assumed the same as in the edge welding case of the next Chapter (Table 6.6).

Predicted temperatures strains and stresses during welding are plotted in Figures 5.11, 5.12 and 5.13 respectively. The assumed temperature history during stress relieving (uniform heating) is shown in Figure 5.14. The variation of stresses throughout the treatment is followed in Figure 5.15 and a comparison of the residual stresses before and after stress relieving can be found in Figure 5.16.

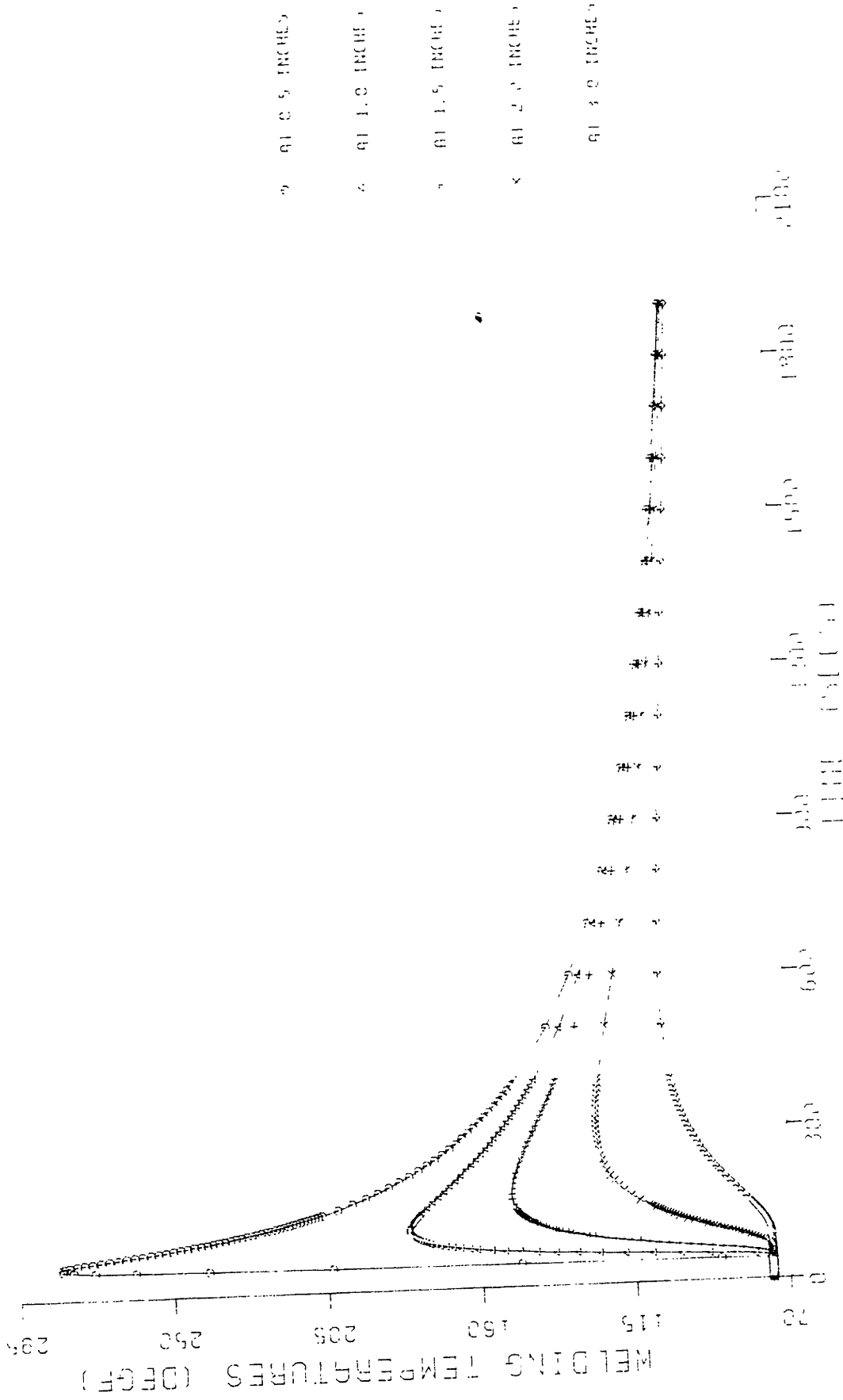


Figure 5.11 : Temperature history during butt welding, as predicted by the one dimensional program (304 stainless steel).

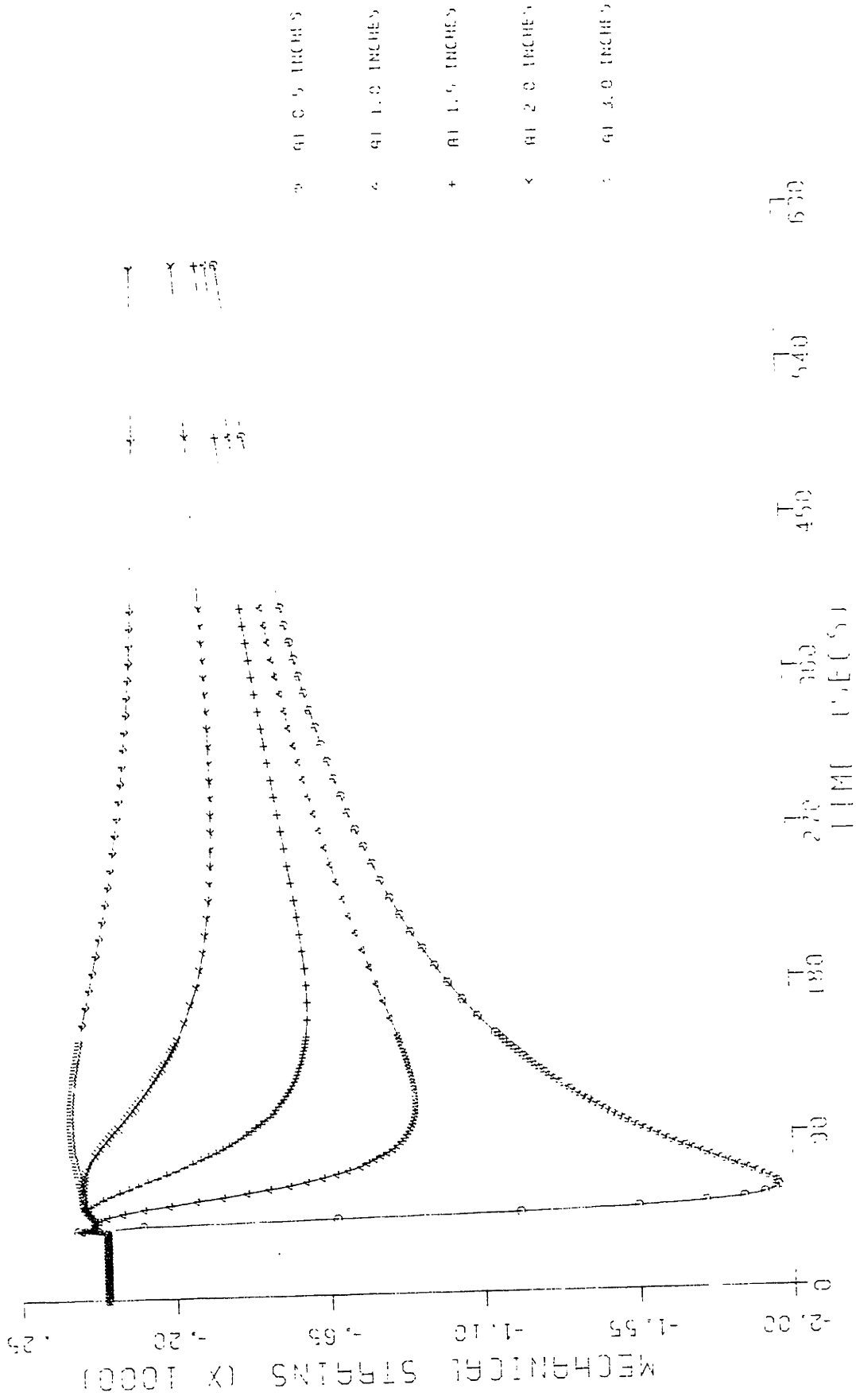


Figure 5.12 : Mechanical strains during butt welding as predicted by the one-dimensional program (304 stainless steel).

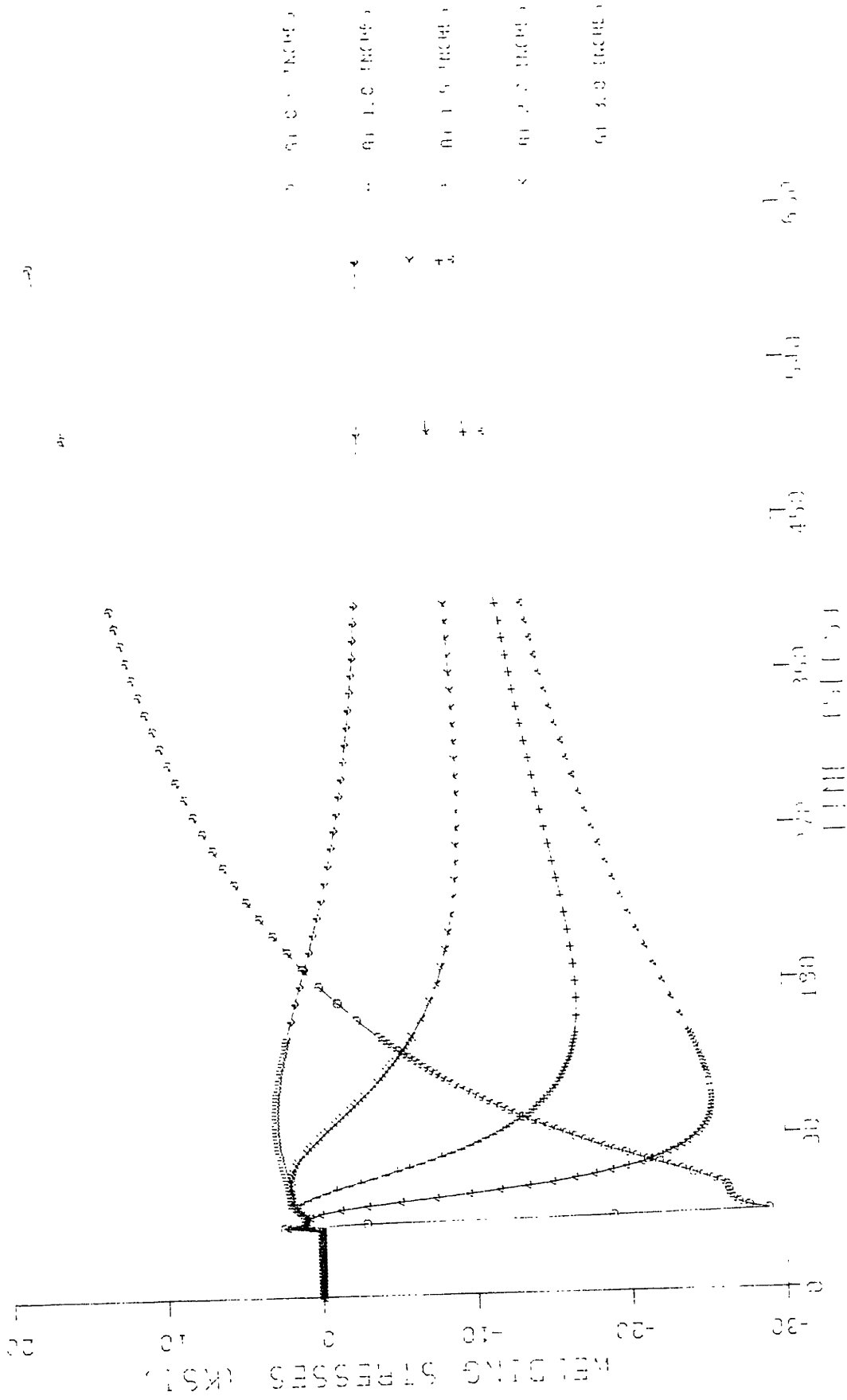


Figure 5.13 : Stresses during butt welding, as predicted by the one-dimensional program (304 stainless steel).

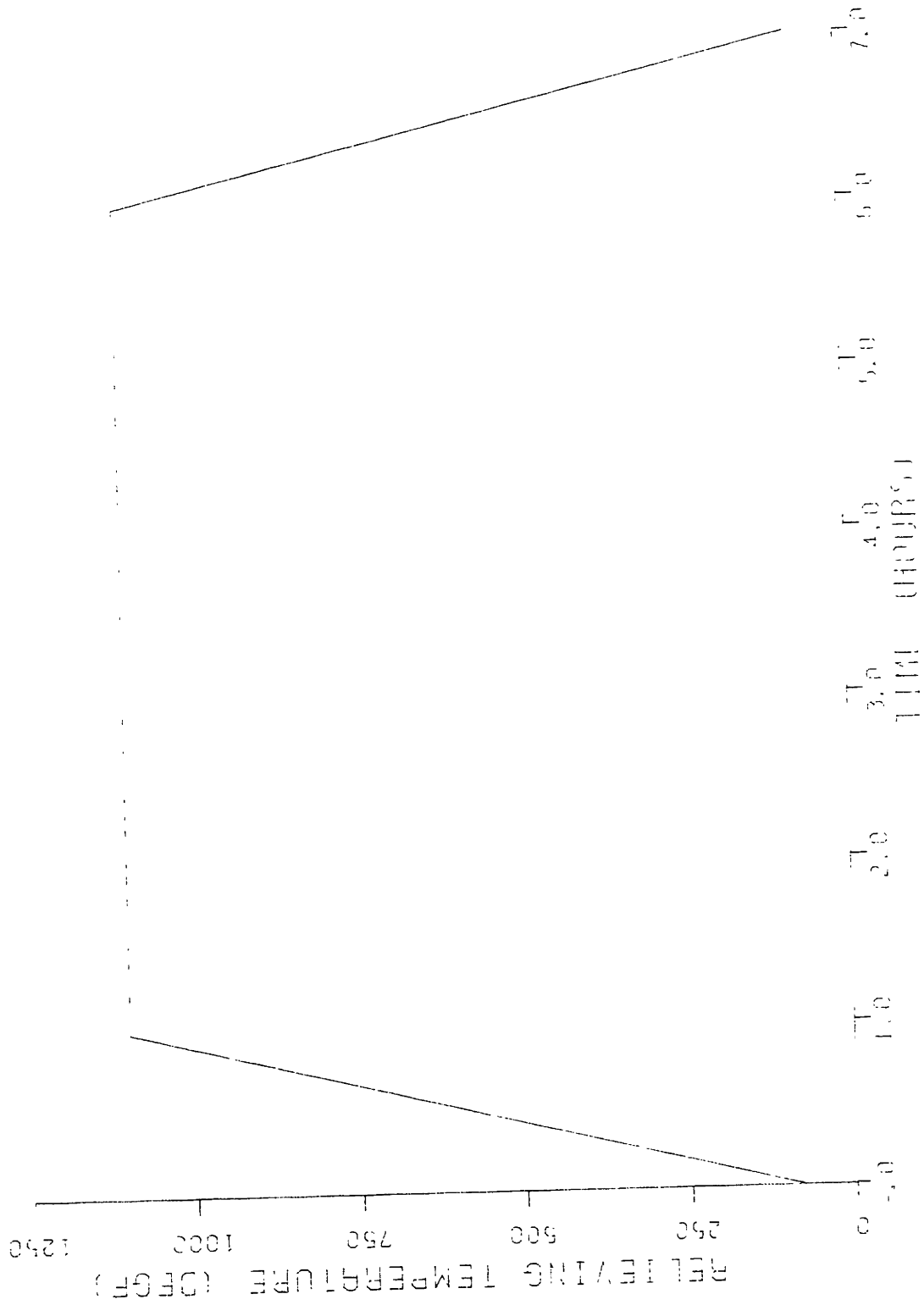


Figure 5.14 : Stress relieving temperature history, uniform along the entire plate at each time step.

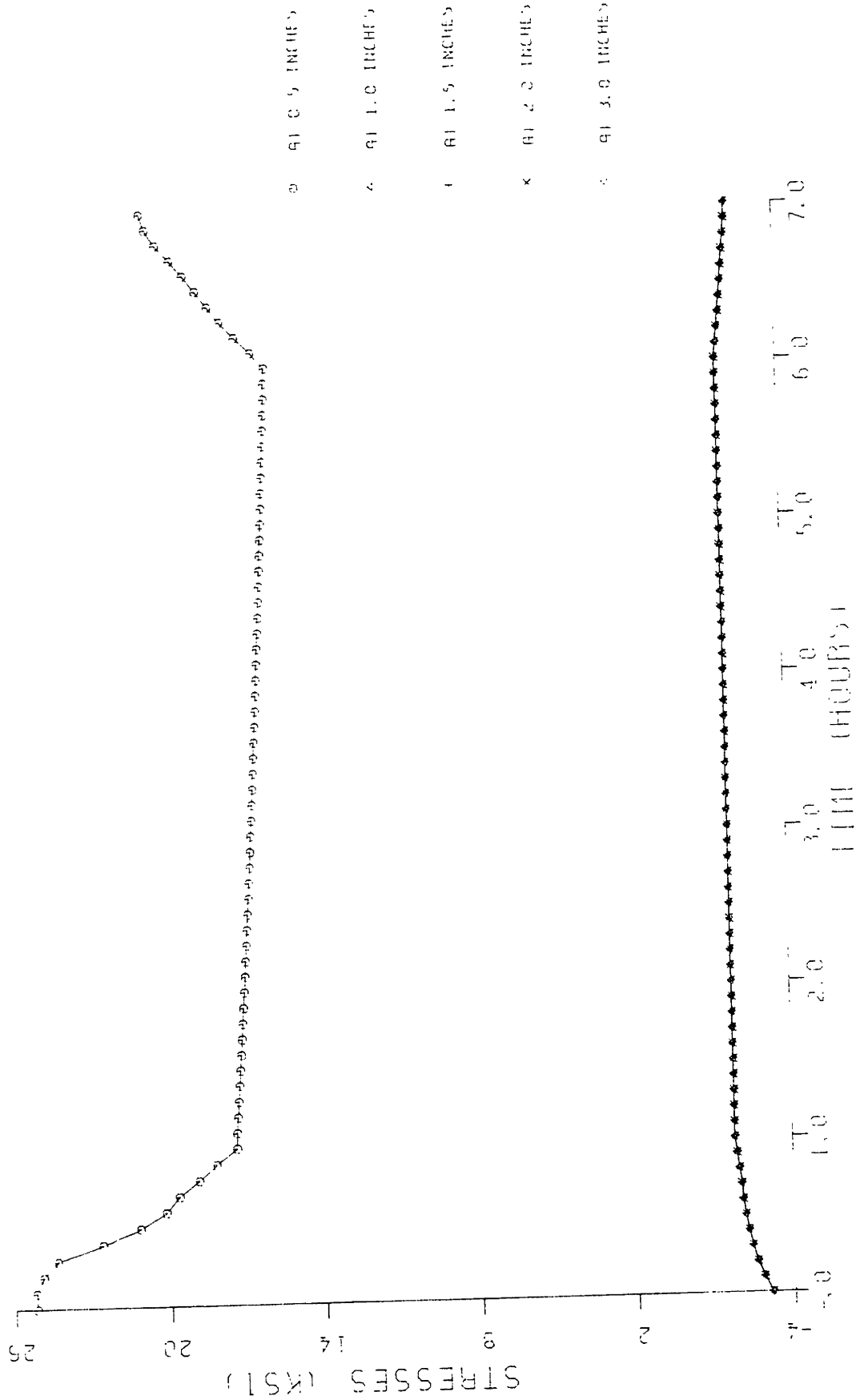


Figure 5.15 : Variation of stresses during heating, soaking and cooling (304 stainless steel)

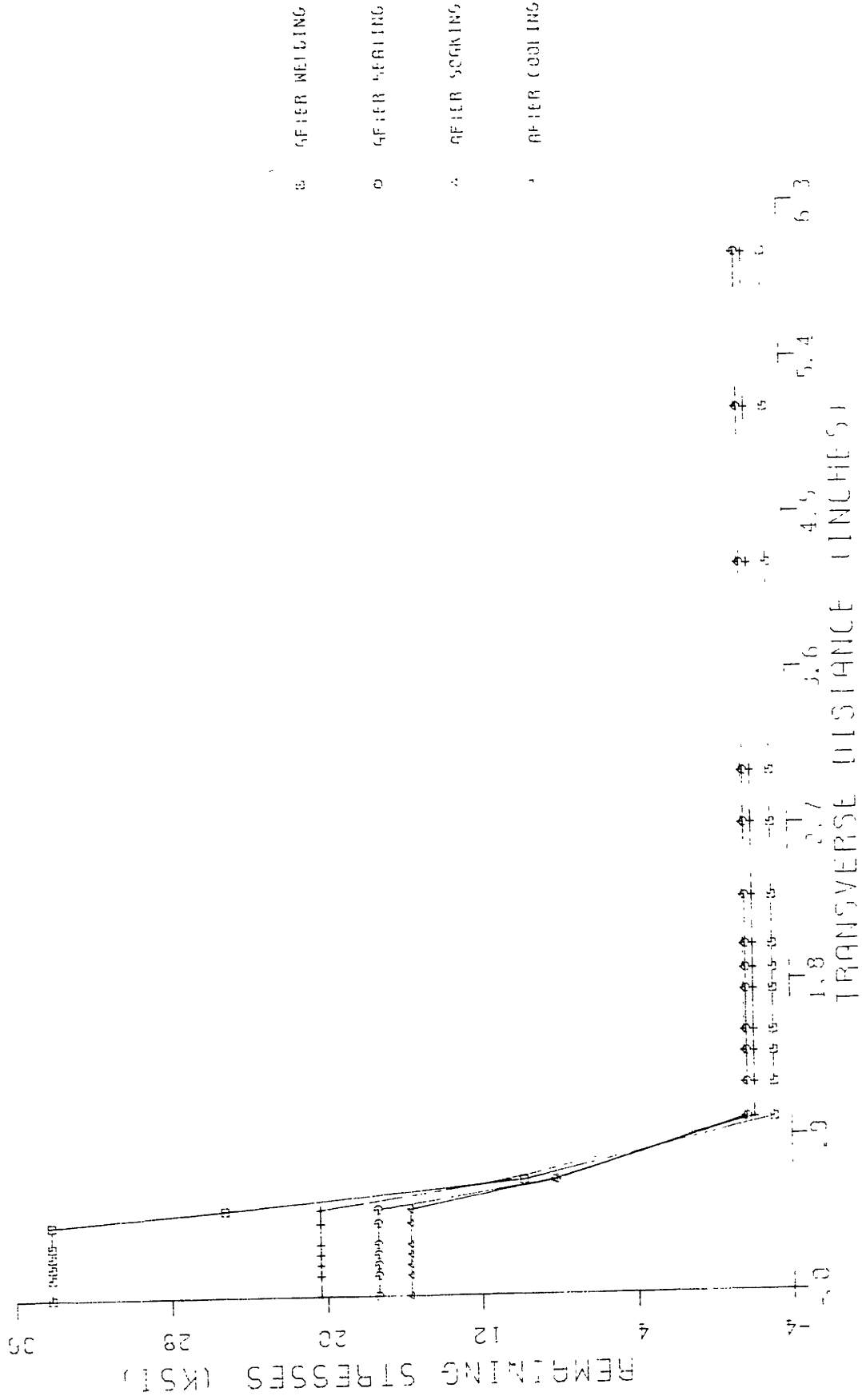


Figure 5.16 : Remaining stresses distribution along the plate after welding, heating, soaking and cooling (304 stainless steel)

PART III

EXPERIMENTS AND COMPUTER AIDED DATA ACQUISITION

CHAPTER VI

EXPERIMENTS AND COMPUTER-AIDED DATA ACQUISITION

6.1 General Description of Experiments

To verify the analytical results, experiments were performed with 304 stainless steel plates. All plates were edge welded and all but one were subsequently stress relieved in a furnace at different holding temperatures. The plates were finally sectioned and residual stresses were measured by stress relaxation.

Temperatures and strains at various locations on the plates were monitored throughout welding and stress-relieving operations. For this purpose a microprocessor-based data acquisition system was interfaced with the minicomputer (MINC-23) that performed the data reduction, processing and plotting.

The geometry and the dimensions of the specimens are given in Table 6.1 together with a brief description of the experiments performed on each of them. Exact welding conditions and stress relieving parameters are given in the next sections of this chapter.

6.2 Specimen Instrumentation (Strain Gages and Thermocouples)

The temperature and strain changes during welding and subsequent heat treatment were measured by thermocouples and electrical-resistance strain gages attached on the plates. The thermocouple and strain gage locations are depicted in Figure 6.1. The total number of strain gages and their configuration is given in Table 6.2 for all specimens.

Thermocouples were of Chromel-Alumel type (ANSI symbol K)

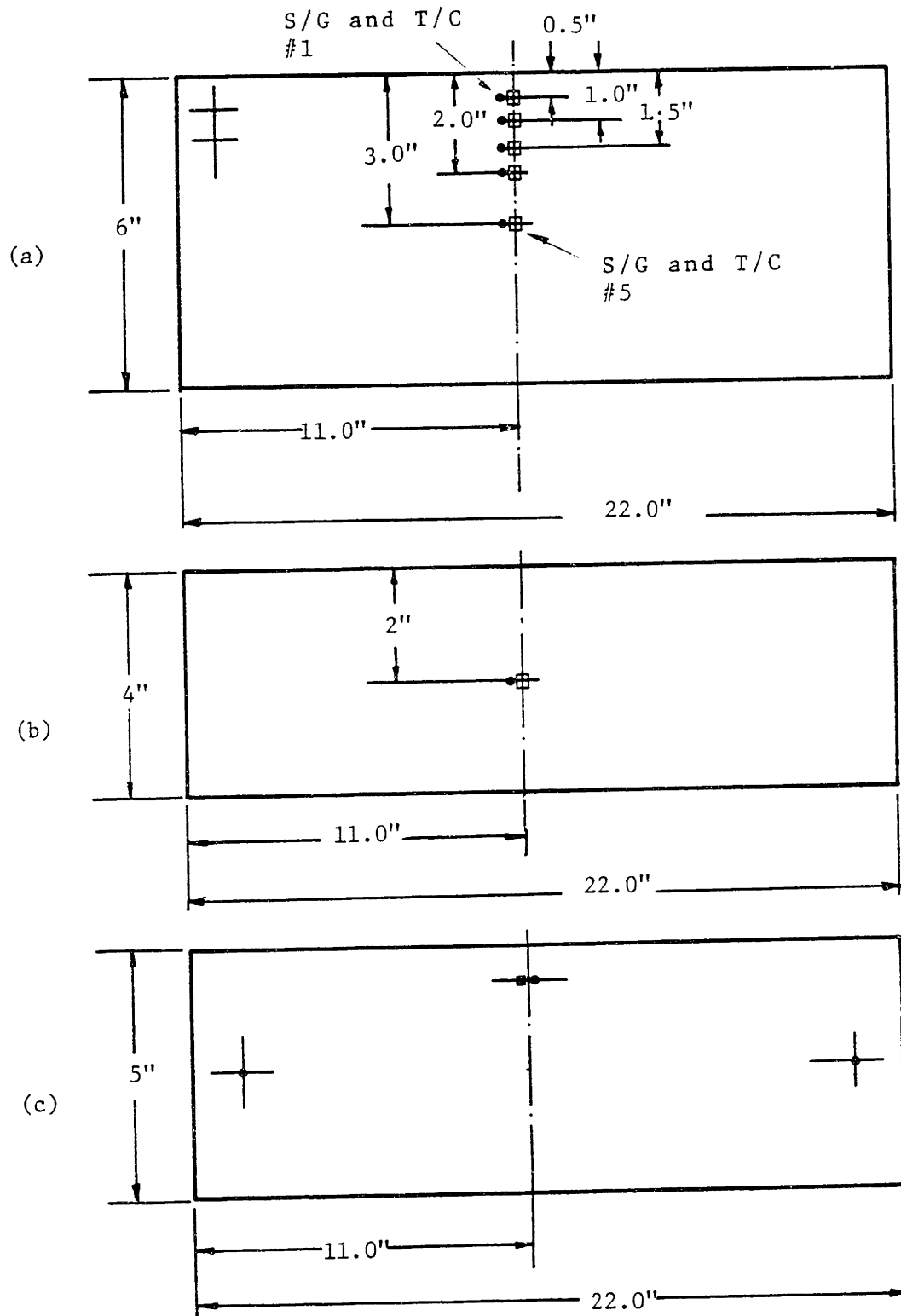


Figure 6.1 : Specimen geometry and instrumentation

Note : □ Strain gage locations
 ■• Thermocouple locations

Table 6.1: Specimen Dimensions and Experiments Description

Specimen Number	Dimensions inches (mm)	Experiments Performed
1	22 x 6 x 3/8 (555.8x152.4x9.5)	Instrumented, edge welded (one pass), stress relieved (oven), cut.
2	as above	Instrumented, edge welded (one pass), strain gages added, cut.
3	as above	Instrumented, edge welded (one pass), stress relieved, cut.
4	as above	Instrumented, edge welded (one pass), stress relieved, reinstrumented, cut.
5	22 x 4 x 3/8 (555.8x101.6x9.5)	Instrumented, bead on plate welded (multiple passes). Test of data aquisition system.
6	22 x 5 x 3/8 (555.8x127.0x9.5)	Instrumented (T/C only), stress relieved to test oven heating uniformity.
7 to 9	as above	Welded -edge and bead on plate- to determine welding conditions (multiple passes).

Table 6.2: Arrangement of Strain Gages and Thermocouples

Specimen No	Strain Gages		Thermocouples		Arrangement as in
	Number	Configuration	Number	Configuration	
1	5	A	5	C	Fig 6.1 (a)
2	5 ⁽¹⁾	A	5	C	Fig 6.1 (a)
3	10	B	5	C	Fig 6.1 (a)
4	10 ⁽²⁾	B	5	C	Fig 6.1 (a)
5	1	A	1	C	Fig 6.1 (b)
6	0	-	3+1	C+D	Fig 6.1 (c)

Key: (A): Single gages in the longitudinal direction on the one side of the plate only.

(B): Single gages in the longitudinal direction on both sides of the plate.

(C): Thermocouples located at the surface of the specimen on one side only.

(D): Thermocouples burried at the mid-thickness of the plate.

Notes: (1): 5 more gages were added before cutting in the transverse direction.

(2): 10 new gages were installed before cutting in both longitudinal and transverse direction.

Table 6.3: Strain Gage Characteristics

Type	:	WK-09-062AP-350
Temperature Range	:	
		Continous use: -452°F (-269°C) to 550°F ($+290^{\circ}\text{C}$)
		Short term exposure: up to 700°F ($+370^{\circ}\text{C}$)
Strain limits	:	
		Room temperature $\pm 1.5\%$
		-320°F (-195°C) $\pm 1.0\%$
		$+400^{\circ}\text{F}$ ($+205^{\circ}\text{C}$) $\pm 3.0\%$
Fatigue life	:	10^5 cycles at ± 2000 $\mu\text{in./in.}$ ($\mu\text{m/m}$)
		10^7 cycles at ± 2200 $\mu\text{in./in.}$ ($\mu\text{m/m}$)
Resistance	:	$350.0 \pm 0.3\%$
Gage factor	:	$2.01 \pm 1.0\%$ (at 75°F)

recommended for use up to 2300^oF (1260^oC).

Strain gages used were all of the same type, WK-09-062AP-350, made by Micro-Measurements. They are fully encapsulated single-element, K-alloy gages with general characteristics summarized in Table 6.3. The temperature - induced apparent strain, ϵ_{app} , for these gages and the variation of the gage factor, S_g , is plotted versus temperature in Figure 6.2. Gage resistances at the time of instalation were measured and summarized in Table 6.4.

During stress relieving at 1100^oF (593^oC) the strain gages of specimen #4 were destroyed and were replaced before cutting with gages of the same type, at the same positions, but oriented both in the longitudinal and transverse direction. In that way both the longitudinal and transverse strain relaxation during cutting could be measured. For the same reason five strain gages were added on the specimen #2 before cutting.

6.3 Welding and Stress Relieving Operations

6.3.1 Welding Equipment

Welding of the specimens was performed in the Ocean Engineering Welding Laboratory at M.I.T. with equipment shown in photo 6.1 and basically consisting of:

(a) Welding Power Supply: Deltaweld 650 made by the Miller Electric Manufacturing Company. This is a solid-state, direct current, constant potential welding power source suited for 100% duty cycle up to 650 Amperes.

(b) Gas Metal Arc Welding Torch: An Air-cooled, concentric Barrel model AM50-C by Airco, was mounted on a Machine Head

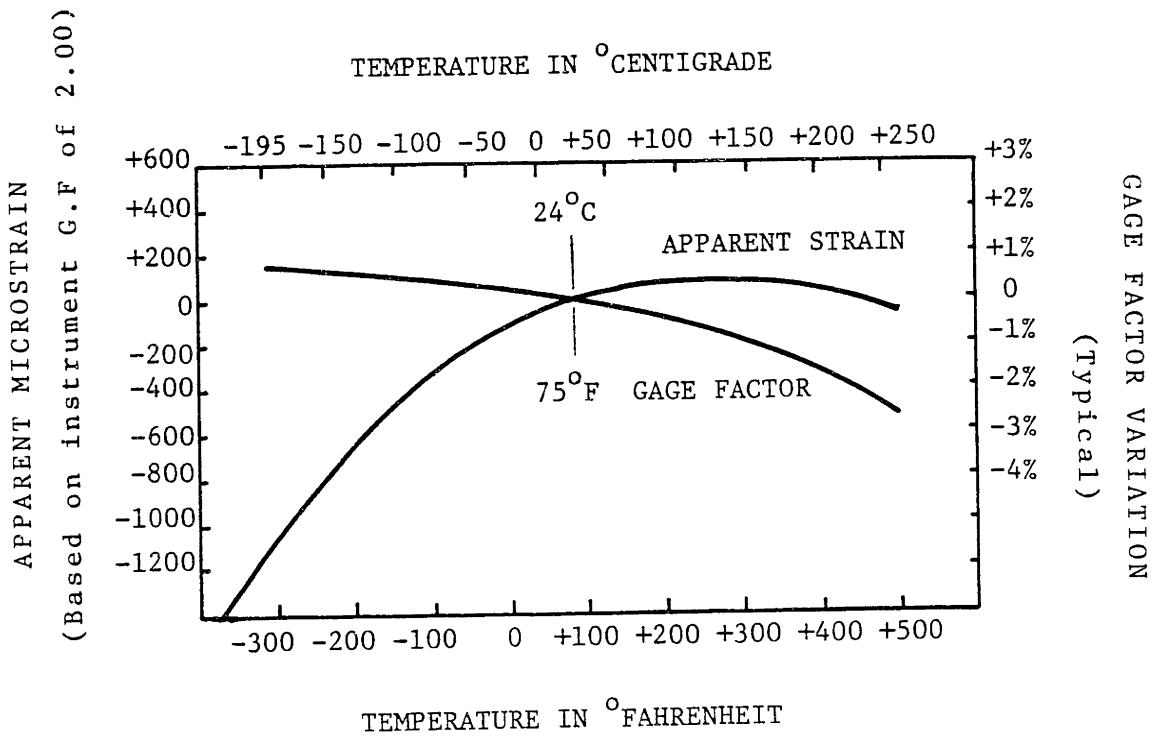


Figure 6.2 : Temperature induced apparent strain for strain gages type WK-09-062AP-350, Lot #K14FE01 (Tested on 304 stainless steel by Micro-Measurements).

Table 6.4 : Measured gage resistance (in ohms)

Gage Plate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
#1	349.6	349.9	349.7	349.7	349.5					
#2	349.5	349.7	349.5	349.2	349.8					
#3	349.2	349.4	349.7	349.8	349.6	349.7	349.4	349.1	349.7	350.1
#4	349.9	350.1	349.6	349.6	350.3	349.5	349.1	349.2	349.4	349.5
#5	349.5									

Resistance to ground for all gages > 20k

Table 6.5 : Stainless steel welding wire typical welding parameters

Process	Wire Diameter	Operating Current Range (amps)	Operating Voltage Range	Shielding Gas
Pulsed power	.035	40-200	16-27	A+2%O ₂
	.045	50-300	18-32	
	1/16	70-300	19-33	
Spray transfer	.035	125-300	18-32	A+2%O ₂
	.045	155-450	20-34	
	1/16	210-500	26-36	
Dip transfer	.035	55-200	15-23	90%He+7-1/2%A+2-1/2%CO ₂
	.045	75-200	16-24	

NOTE : Ranges subject to change due to variances in welding conditions.

Positioner also by Airco (Stock No 2354-01-91). The positioner and torch assembly was bolted on a Jetline Travel Carriage moving on a Jetline horizontal side beam, at a controllable speed.

(c) Wire feeder: Wire was fed to the torch at controllable speed by a Miller Model S-54D, digitally controlled feeder. The wire feed wheels and guides were suited for use with 0.035 inches diameter wire.

(d) Voltage Controller: Weld arc voltage was controlled by a Miller Digital Voltage Controller Model DVC DW-1.

(e) Spot-Continuous Control Panel: A Miller Model CS-4 panel allowed selection of either spot or continuous welding and control of pre- and post- flow time and burnback time.

Exact specifications for all the equipment used can be found in the respective owners' manuals. However there was no calibration chart for the multi-turn weld-travel-speed dial on the Jetline carriage and thus time-distance checks had to be performed.

6.3.2 Welding Process and Consumables

Straight polarity (electrode negative), dip transfer, Gas Metal Arc (G.M.A.), welding was performed on all the specimens.

The wire used was type 308 stainless steel wire, 0.035 inches (0.89 mm) in diameter (AWS specifications A 5.9 and ASME SFA 5.9).

To make dip transfer possible a 90% He - $7\frac{1}{2}$ % Ar - $2\frac{1}{2}$ % CO₂ shielding gas mixture was used.

6.3.3 Welding Conditions

Some typical welding parameters for stainless steels are given by Airco in Table 6.5 [116]. Specifically for 304 stainless steels, however, experiments were performed utilizing dip transfer by Koreisha for bead on plate welding, [117], and by the author for edge welding. Figure 6.3 gives the maximum possible wire feed speed (for satisfactory welds) versus arc voltage at various tested weld travel speeds.

The finally chosen welding conditions, summarized in Table 6.6, were tested to ensure that the strain gages closest to the weld line will not encounter temperatures above 550^oF during welding.

The exact variations of arc voltage and arc current are shown in Figures 6.4 (a) and (b). Current was measured across a shunt resistance (50 mV / 500 A) inserted in the circuit next to the torch. Arc voltage was measured between the torch and the specimen. The short circuiting is evidenced by the voltage drops and the immediately following current peaks.

6.3.4 Stress Relieving Equipment and Conditions

A "Lucifer" furnace, model # HDL-7021H, was used for the stress relieving of specimens #1, #3, #4, and #6. The furnace was electrically heated up to 2300^oF consuming 13KW at 440 Volts (3 phases). The temperature in the furnace was controlled by a "Guardman" type on-off controller.

The stress relieving conditions are shown in Table 6.7. Exact records of the temperature during stress relieving will be given in the next chapter.

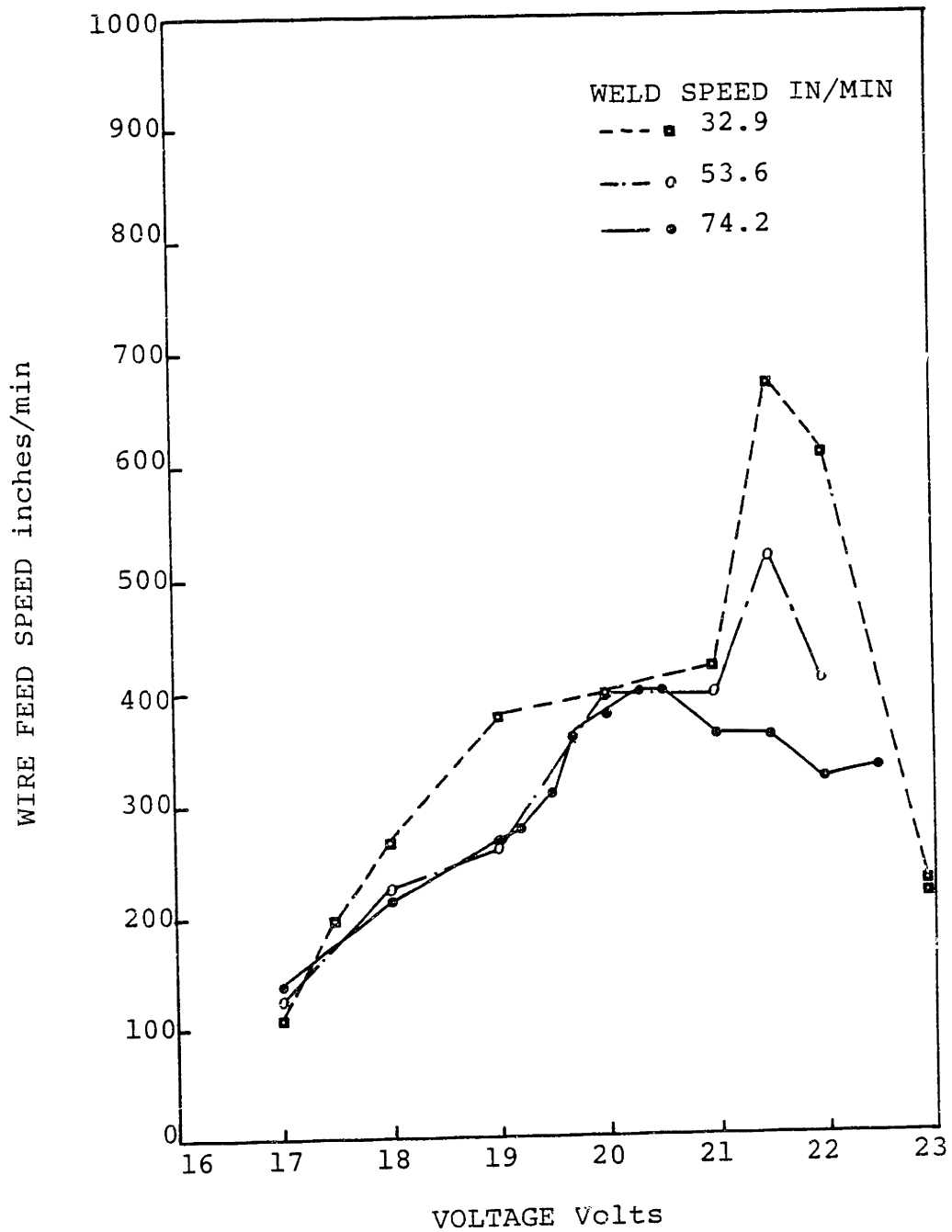


Figure 6.3 : Maximum wire feed speed vs. arc voltage for satisfactory welds at different weld travel speeds.

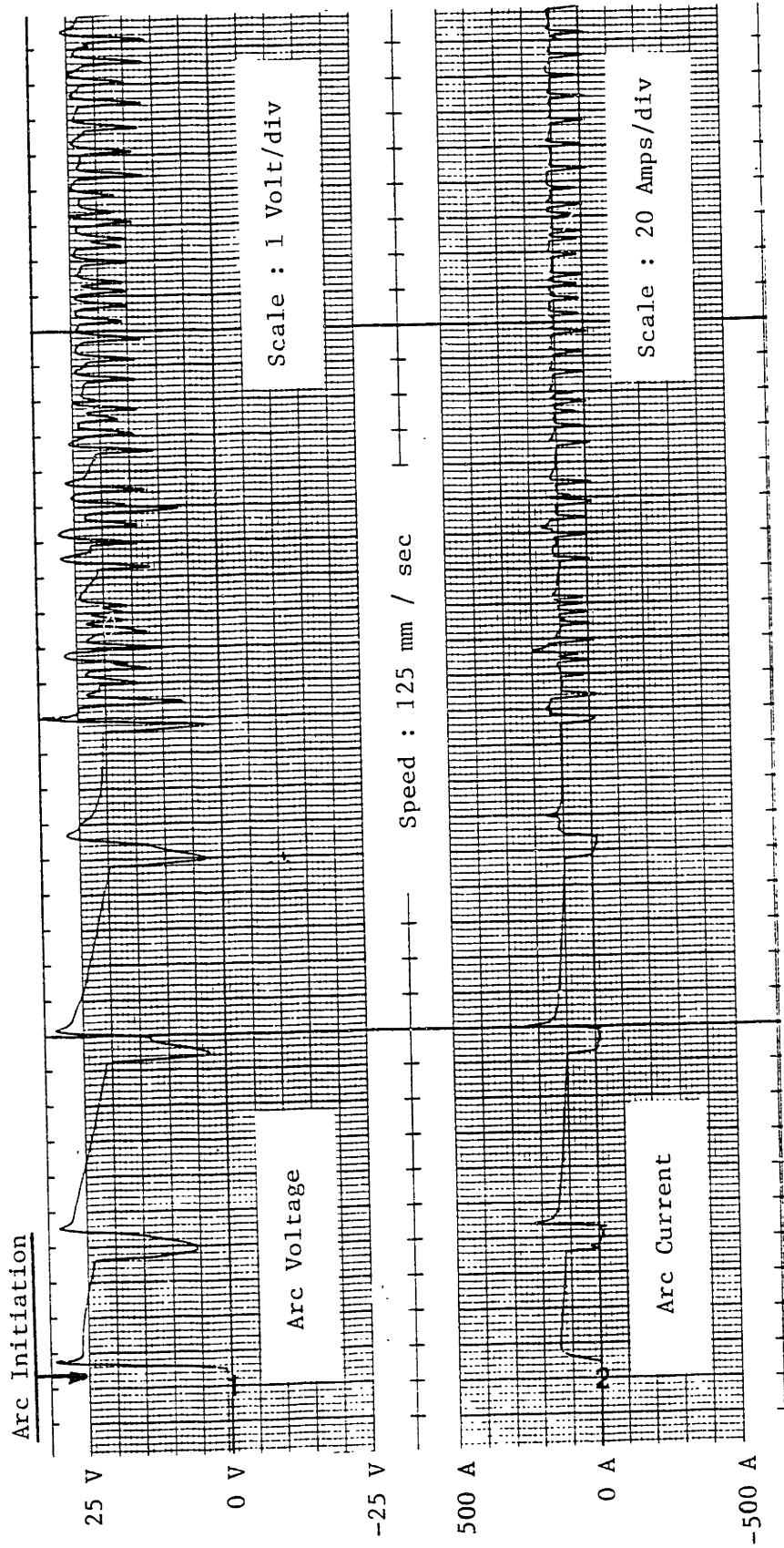


Figure 6.4 : Arc voltage and current variations during short circuiting of welding of 304 stainless steels (Measured during welding of specimen #1)

Table 6.6 : Selected Welding Conditions (Same for specimens #1 through #6)

Arc Voltage	
set at	23 Volts
Arc Current	
measured off the Amp-meter	90 Amperes (approx)
Wire feed Speed	
set at	175 in/min
Weld travel Speed	
set dial at	700
	(equivalent to 15.96 in/min)

Table 6.7 : Stress Relieving Conditions

Specimen Number	Holding Temperature °F (°C)	Time in Furnace hr
1	500°F (260°C)	6
2	not stress relieved	-
3	approx. 370°F (188°C)	4
4	1100°F (593°C)	7
6	500°F (260°C)	2
	370°F (188°C)	

6.4 Computer Aided Data Acquisition System

6.4.1 General System Configuration

In the past, light-writing oscillographs -"visicorders"- were almost exclusively used as data recording devices during welding experiments at M.I.T. However, the relative simplicity of operation and low cost of such systems should be contrasted with the significant manual data reduction effort required in order to decipher the various traces from endless rolls of photo-sensitive paper. These considerations coupled with the availability of compact and powerfull microcomputers led to the decision to develop a computer-aided data aquisition system. Such a system would not only be used for recording strains, temperatures or welding conditions during experiments but could possibly be the first necessary element in real-time welding process control applications.

The finally configured system, that will be in more detail described in the next few sections of this chapter, basically consisted of:

- (a) A MINC-23 Laboratory Data Processing System by Digital Equipment Corporation including a 16-channel analog to digital converter module and a programmable clock module.
- (b) A 9000 Data Acquisition System by Daytronic Corporation, including thermocouple and strain gage conditioners, scanner slave modules and a microprocessor based computer interface module.

The system is versatile enough permitting operation under

three different configurations:

- (a) Sampling of the Daytronic signal conditioners directly from the MINC A/D converter module.
- (b) Sampling of the signal conditioners from the Daytronic computer interface module and serial data transfer to the computer (or an independent terminal) via an RS-232-C (or 20-mA current loop), serial ASCII, full duplex, communications link.
- (c) Sampling as in (b) but parallel data transfer via a IEEE-488 instrument interface bus.

Furthermore the modular nature of the system makes expansion or modification a straight forward procedure.

In what follows a description of the system is given and the specifics pertaining to our application are covered. An in depth treatment of all the related issues is considered outside the scope of this study and will be given by the author in [118]. Further details and background information can be found in the literature (for example in Osborne [119] or Tocci [120] for an introduction to microprocessors/microcomputers and in Artwick [121] or Lipovski [122] for a relatively more detailed treatment of interfacing issues).

6.4.2 System Elements Description

(A) MINC-23 Hardware

The microcomputer used, built by D.E.C., basically consisted of:

- (a) An MNC-chasis, housing the following modules:
 - KDF11-AB Central Processing Unit based on the 16-bit

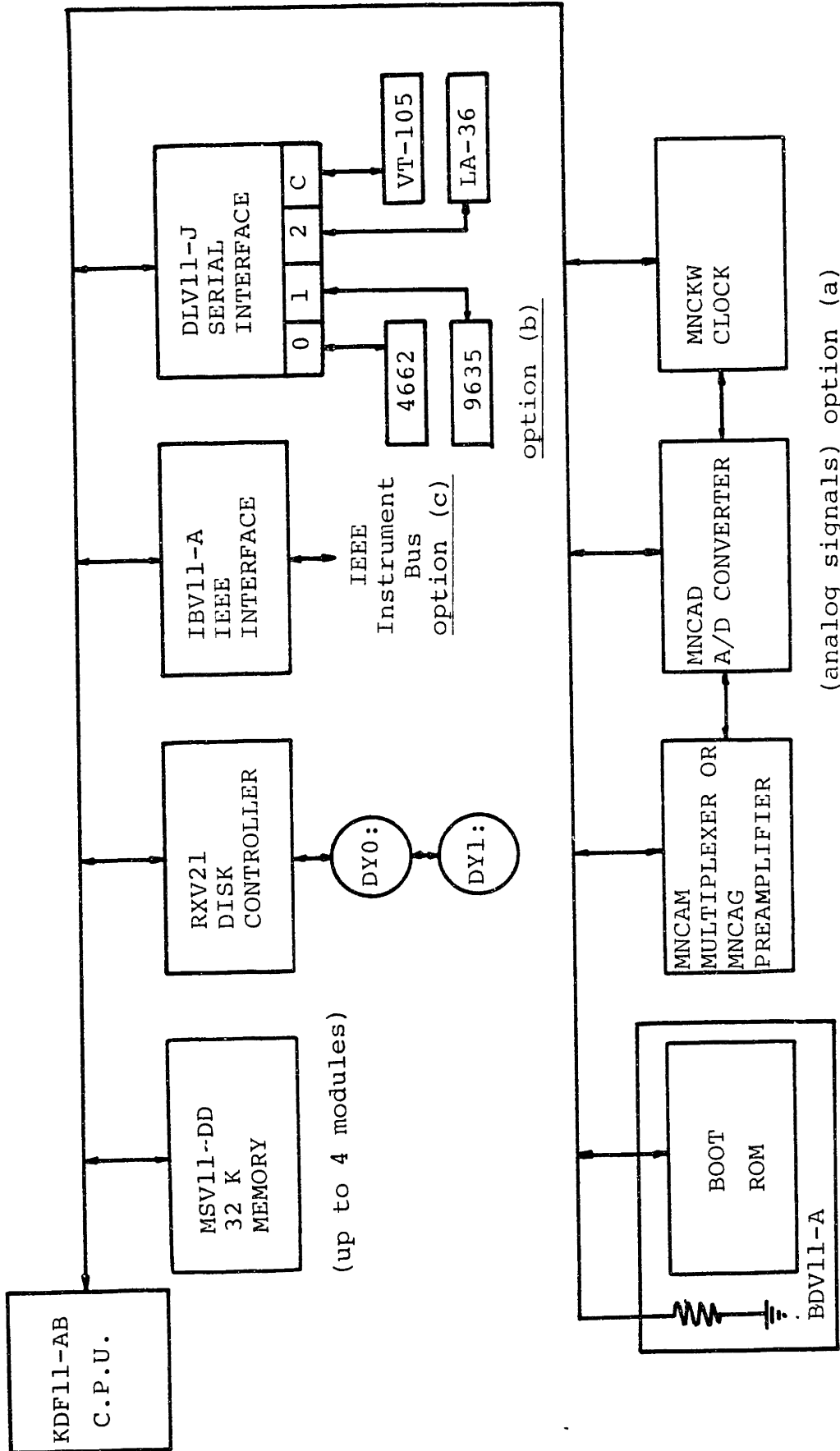
- LSI 11/23 microprocessor
- MSV11-DD 32K word Memory Single Road (Up to four MSV11-DD can operate with LSI 11/23 microprocessor)
 - BDV11-A Bootstrap/Diagnostic ROM module
 - IBV11-A IEEE-488 Instrument Bus Interface
 - DLV11-J 4-Line Asynchronous Serial Interface
 - RXV21 Disk Controller Interface
 - MNCAD 16 channel Analog/Digital Converter module
 - MNCKW Real Time programmable clock module
- (b) An RX02 1.0 M byte dual, double density, Floppy Disc Subsystem
- (c) A VT-105 Alphanumeric and Graphic Display Terminal
- (d) An LA-36 DECWriter II terminal and
- (e) A 4662 Tektronix Interactive Digital Plotter.

The actual system configuration as described above is outlined in figure 6.5.

(B) MINC-23 Software

The system software included

- (a) The RT-11 Operating System (Version 4.0)
- (b) FORTRAN IV programming language and
- (c) FORTRAN Enhancement Package FEP-11 containing the following groups of FORTRAN callable subroutines
 - REAL-11/MNC providing real-time control of all MNC-series modules
 - IBS, the IEEE Instrument Bus Subroutines Package
 - SSP, the Scientific Subroutine Package
 - LSP, the Laboratory Subroutine Package and



(analog signals) option (a)

Figure 6.5 : MINC-23 System Configuration and possible communication options

-FDT, the FORTRAN Debugging Technique Package

(C) Daytronic 9000 data acquisition system

The basic system components housed in a 9020 Daytronic Mainframe are:

- (a) One 9110AK, Type k (Chromel-Alumel) Single Thermocouple Conditioner
- (b) One 9610TC, Thermocouple Scanner Slave, capable of multiplexing ten thermocouple inputs into a single 9110AK conditioner
- (c) Five 9170 Strain Gage Conditioners for full or half bridge transducer inputs and 5 or 10V D.C. bridge excitation
- (d) Ten 9178A X-12 Strain Gage Conditioners with 6V A.C. (3.28 KHz) bridge excitation, modified to accept quarter bridge transducer inputs (single gages)
- (e) Two 9610 scanner slaves each capable to "call" up to ten signal sources
- (f) One 9635 Computer Interface Module, based on the Intel 8086 16 bit microprocessor and capable of:
 - Setting-up and calibrating up to 398 data channels, with calibration data stored in a battery protected memory
 - Scanning of analog, digital and logic data channels at a rate of 1500 ÷ 1800 channels per second depending on the microprocessor workload.
 - Automatic digital zeroing and scaling of the analog channels
 - Operator-to-computer communications via a front-panel keyboard

-Random access servicing of the external computer's requests for input data, via an RS-232-C, or 20mA current loop, communications link (or optionally via an IEEE instruments bus)

The system configuration is outlined in Figure 6.6 . Detailed specifications, circuit schematics and operating instructions are given in the system manuals, [124].

6.5 Data Acquisition System Set-up and Operation

6.5.1 Sampling and Interfacing Considerations

As was outlined in section 6.4.1, system operation under three different configurations is possible. However, for the experiments of this study only the second configuration was used, since it would require minimal modification of both systems. Discussion for the rest of this chapter will only refer to this configuration and details on the other two will be given by the author in [118].

Specifically, referring to Figure 6.6, during operation the 9635 Computer Interface module scans continuously at high speed (1500 ÷ 1800 channels per second) a number of operator selected channels (T/C or S/G signal conditioners in our case), and writes the measurements, properly scaled, into the DATA RAM, an internal buffer memory. Via an RS-232-C full duplex port, the external computer (MINC-23) can "read" the contents of the DATA RAM by simply prompting commands in ASCII. These writing and reading operations are completely transparent to each other.

From the computer's point of view the 9635 emulates a standard RS-232-C/ASCII data terminal (D.T.E.) responding

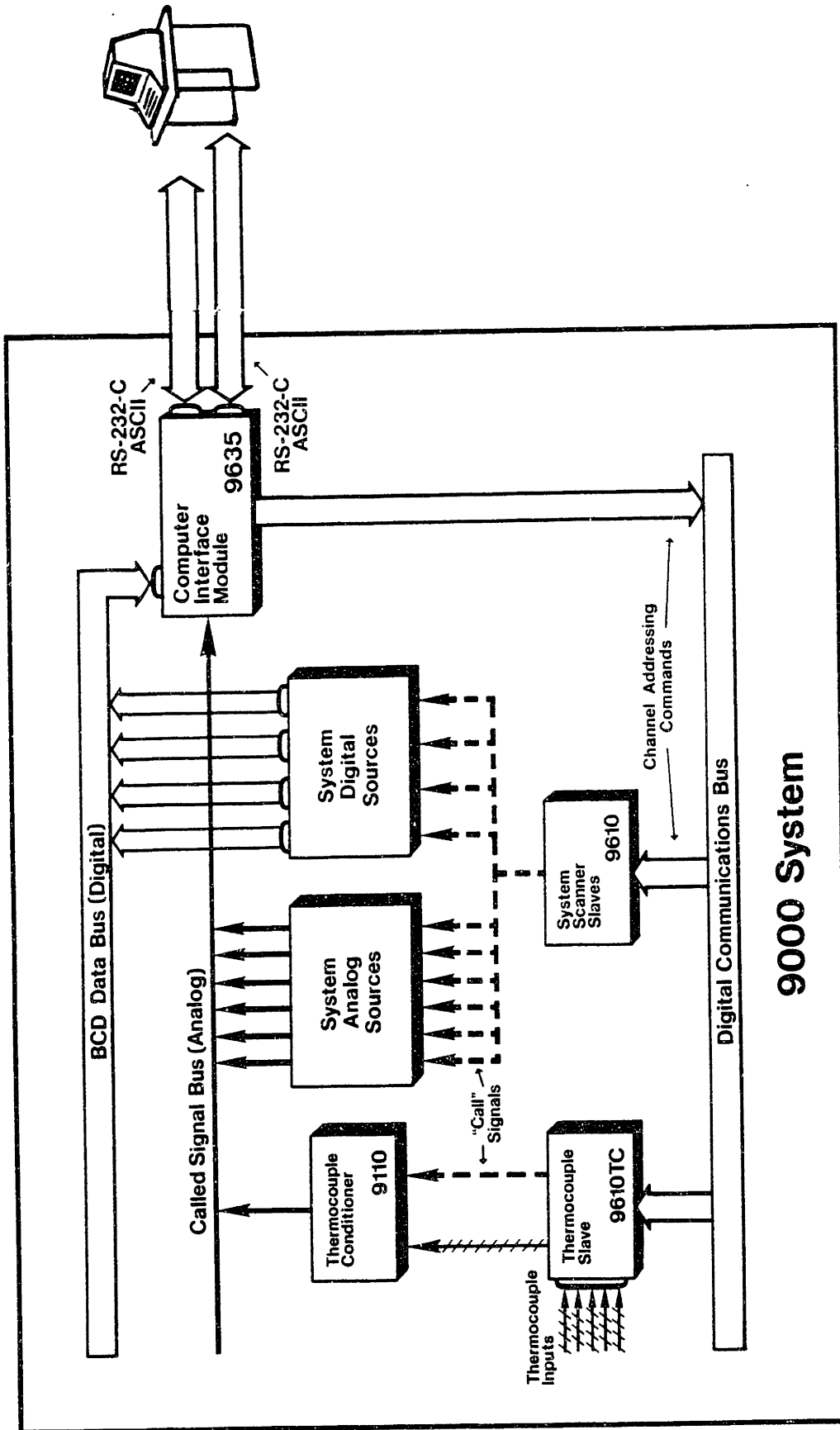


Figure 6.6 : Daytronic 9000 system configuration and possible communication options

"instantly" to simple interrogation and control commands. The response time, by default set to 384 milliseconds, is controllable to prevent problems when I/O buffer is not provided. In the MINC-23 computer the four SLU ports, connected to the DLV11-J interface channels, are used for serial I/O (Figure 6.5).

Both systems are flexible enough permitting communication at various baud rates (bits per second) and different parity and stop bit schemes. The maximum (for DLV11-J) receive/transmit speed of 9600 baud was selected and the character format was set to:

- 1 start bit
- 8 data bits
- 1 stop bit
- No parity

It should be noted here that serial data transmission and subsequent data processing take certain amount of time, orders of magnitude greater than the sampling period in the A/D of 9635. This would cause severe cross-channel time-skew problems in the measurements. Therefore in order to take full advantage of the actually very high scanning rates, the "LOC" command available in the 9635 software was used. This option permits the computer to instantly freeze the contents of the DATA RAM - that is, in effect to "take a snapshot", of the monitored channels - and then take whatever time it needs to serially transfer or process the "effectively simultaneous" measurements.

The actual required pin-to-pin connections between the 9635, SLU port #1, and DLV11-J are shown in Figure 6.7 together

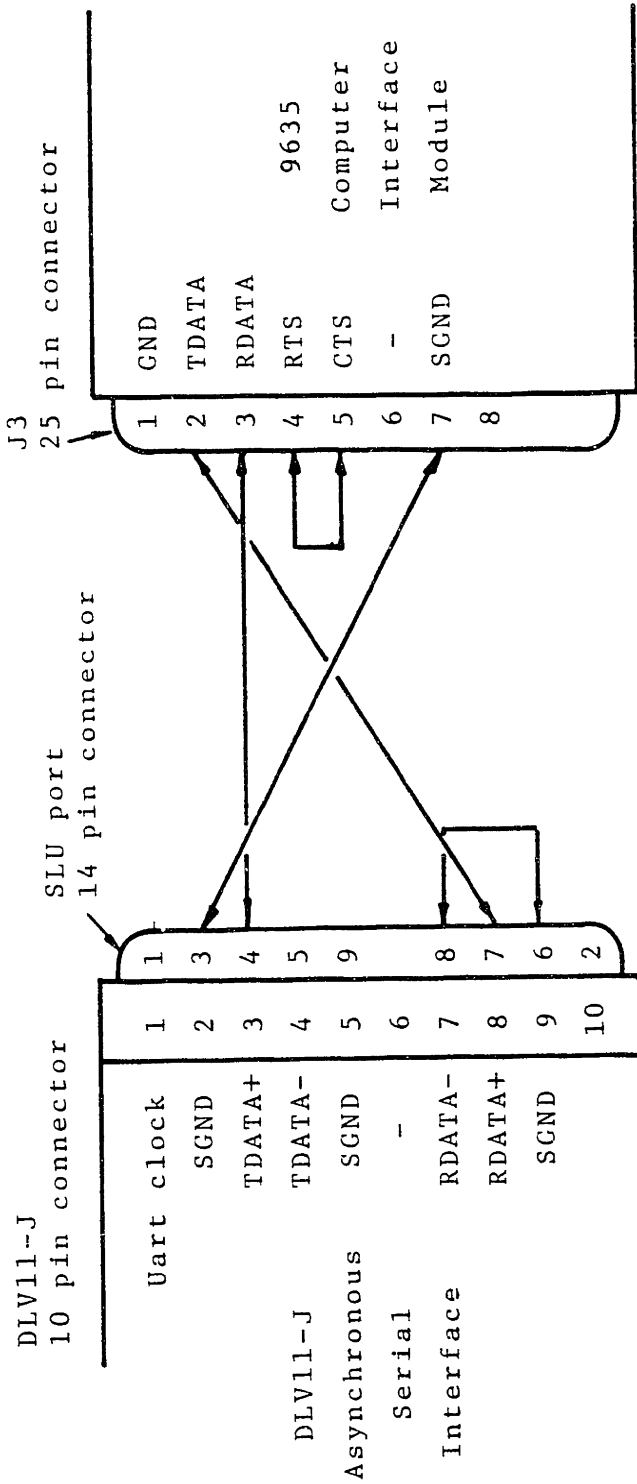


Figure 6.7 : Interconnections between the two systems

Note: GND : Protective ground

SGND : Signal ground (common reference)

TDATA: Transmit data

RDATA: Receive data

RTS : Request to send

CTS : Clear to send

with a brief description of the various signals. Although an RTS/CTS (Request To Send/ Clear To Send) "handshake" protocol can be implemented with the 9635, this was not necessary for the MINC-23 and therefore pins 4 and 5 of 9635 output connector were simply tied to each other, [124].

6.5.2 Data Acquisition Programs

Listings of the data acquisition programs used in this study are given in Appendix D. For serial character input and output through the DLV11-J interface the D.E.C. provided subroutines CIN and COUT (written in MACRO-11) had to be slightly modified for our application. Necessary details on the LSI-11/23 instruction set and addressing modes can be found in [125].

6.5.3 Calibration Procedures

(a) 9110AK Thermocouple Conditioners:

The modules are self-zeroed requiring only span adjustment (in $^{\circ}\text{C}$ or $^{\circ}\text{F}$) and give a linear analog output for temperatures in the range -148 to $+2300^{\circ}\text{F}$ (-100 to $+1260^{\circ}\text{C}$).

(b) 9178 Strain Gage Conditioners:

Shunt calibration was performed on all the strain gage conditioners. However, in order to verify the accuracy of the measurements an actual "deadweight" calibration was performed with one of the specimens.

During shunt calibration one fixed resistor is shunted across one arm of the strain gage bridge as in Figure 6.8 and produces an electrical unbalance equivalent to that caused by a particular value of strain on the active arm of the bridge. It is proven in experimental stress analysis texts, (Dally and

Riley [126]), that this value of equivalent strain input, for the one-active-arm bridge of Figure 6.8 is:

$$\epsilon_{cal} = \frac{R_2}{S_g (R_2 + R_c)} \quad (6-1)$$

where R_2 = The arm's initial resistance
 R_c = The shunted calibration resistance
 S_g = The gage factor

For the 350 Ohm strain gages used in this study and for the originally installed 59 K Ohm calibration resistor the equivalent strain value is:

$$\epsilon_{cal} = 2948.6 \mu \text{ strain}$$

In the 9635 module this value would be used as the upper limit of the linear range (0-5000 millivolts) of the strain gage conditioner output [124].

The computer simulation, however, using the one dimensional program, showed that the expected maximum strains during welding and subsequent stress relieving might be higher than this value. Therefore it was decided to replace the calibration resistor, R_c . Precision metal film resistors of 34 K Ohm value were installed on all 9178A x 12 strain gage conditioners resulting in an equivalent strain value of :

$$\epsilon_{cal} = 5094.6 \mu \text{ strain}$$

A value of 2.0 was used for the gage factor S_g in the above calculations. The slightly different actual value and its variation with temperature would be taken into account during

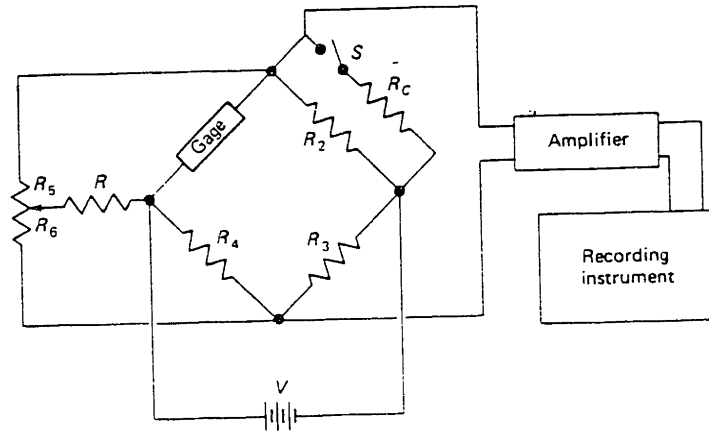


Figure 6.8 : Strain gage bridge configuration

- R_g : gage resistance
 R_2, R_3, R_4 : bridge completion resistors
 R, R_5, R_6 : balancing resistors
 R_c : calibration resistor
 V : excitation voltage

data reduction (Section 6.7.1) (Calibration and previous zero balancing was performed with all the gages at room temperature).

To verify the accuracy of shunt calibration a test was performed with specimen #1. The plate was simply supported on two "knife" edges along the two 6 inch sides and loaded with various loads. Strains measured in all 5 strain gages were off by 2% to 3% from the values calculated by simple beam theory.

6.5.4 Necessary System Modifications

A number of modifications were necessary in order to set-up and interface the two systems for our application. Specifically:

(a) In the DLV11-J card wire-wrapped jumpers were used to configure all channels for 8 data bits, no parity and one stop bit. Baud rates were set at 1200, 9600, 300 and 9600 for channels #0, #1, #2 and #3 respectively. (DLV11-J operation is covered in [123]).

(b) Extra software was prepared and stored on two 2k x 8 EPROM chips (type 2516JL) for use with the 9635 computer interface module. This would cause the line feed (LF) and carriage return (CR) characters to be transmitted only once, in the end of a DATA-RAM DUMP operation (DMP), [124].

(c) External bridge completion circuits for the 9170 strain gage conditioners were built and crammed in the housing of the 14 pin input connectors. 350 Ohm precision metal film resistors by Micro-Measurements (type S-350-01) were used.

(d) The initially installed 59 K Ohm calibration resistors in the 9178A modules were replaced with 34 K Ohm precision metal

film resistors.

(e) Through the 9020 mainframe patch wiring card, pins 12 of all 9178A strain gage conditioners were interconnected to ensure synchronization of the 3.28 KHz excitation oscillators.

6.6 System Performance Evaluation

6.6.1 System Limitations

The installation, software development and testing of a data acquisition system from scratch could very well be viewed as a challenge to Marphy's Laws. However, apart from the trivial-but nevertheless time consuming - troubleshooting problems, some limitations in the system performance - at least in its current configuration - should be noted here:

- (a) Scanning speed, probably the most important characteristic of such a system, was limited due to the relatively slow transmission and processing of serial data.
- (b) The reliability of the 9635 computer interface was rather low. The module, which was introduced in the market less than a year ago, undoubtedly needs further development both in hardware and software.
- (c) The 9110A/9610TC thermocouple conditioner and slave combination could not give any meaningful temperature readings during dip transfer welding. This was most probably due to the "noisy" and unstable (short-circuiting) nature of the arc during dip transfer since it also happened during the unstable arc-initiation phase of spray-transfer welding tests performed with the same set-up on HY-130 specimens [128].

6.6.2 Suggestions for Further Improvement and Expansion

Various possibilities exist for improvement and/or expansion of the data acquisition system. Specifically:

- (a) Subroutines CIN and COUT could possibly be modified or "fine tuned" to reduce further the serial data processing time in the MINC-23 computer.
- (b) The new version of the RT-11 software could be installed. This version now directly supports the serial input/output ports and the new thermocouple conditioner MNC module.
- (c) Slow serial data transfer could be avoided by sampling the the Daytronic (or other) signal conditioning modules directly from the A/D module of MINC-23 (MNCAD). This would bypass the 9635 computer interface module, but would necessitate installation of more thermocouple conditioners or of a dual multiplexer (MNCAM) module in the MINC.
- (d) The IEEE instrument bus interface could be used for parallel data transfer but the 9635 would have to be factory modified.
- (e) More modules could be added in both parts of the system. For example L.V.D.T. conditioners (type 9130) could be added on the 9020 Daytronic mainframe for welding distortion measurements. Or on the other end preamplifier (MNCAG), and/or multiplexer (MNCAM) modules could be plugged in the MINC-23 to make possible sampling of other analog inputs from the MNCAD A/D module.
- (f) Finally in order to close a control loop, for a welding process control application, analog or digital output

modules could be installed in both parts of the system.

(MNCAA D/A converter and MNCDO digital output modules on the MINC, or 9316 control logic input, 9317 control logic output and 9410 analog control modules in the 9000 Daytronic system)

6.7 Data Reduction

6.7.1 Compensation for Temperature - Induced Apparent Strain and Gage Factor Variation

Higher than room temperatures are encountered on all specimens during welding or stress relieving. Therefore compensation for temperature-induced apparent strain and gage factor variation is necessary.

Apparent strain is caused by two concurrent and algebraically additive effects: (a) Change in the gage resistance due to the temperature dependence of the electrical resistivity of the gage material and (b) Differential thermal expansion between the grid material and the test piece or the substrate material to which the gage is bonded. The metallurgical properties of certain strain gage alloys are such that these alloys can be processed to minimize the apparent strain over a wide temperature range when bonded to specific materials.

Such "self-temperature-compensated" strain gages are the ones used in this study (M-M type WK-09-062AP-350) with apparent strain versus temperature variation presented in Figure 6.2. A regression-fitted (least-squares) polynomial expression was also provided by M-M for the apparent strain:

$$\epsilon_{app}(T) = -81.4 + 1.39T - 4.63 \times 10^{-3} T^2 + 8.57 \times 10^{-6} T^3 - 9.33 \times 10^{-9} T^4 \quad (6-2)$$

where : T = Temperature in degrees F and
 ϵ_{app} In microstrain (microinches/inch or
micrometres/metre)

The strain gage factor, S_g , defined as

$$S_g = \frac{\Delta R}{R} \cdot \frac{1}{\epsilon_a} \quad (6-3)$$

where : ϵ_a = Applied strain
 ΔR = Change in gage resistance due to ϵ_a
 R = Initial resistance

also changes slightly with temperature. For the gages used the percent variation is also presented in Figure 6.2. For use in the data reduction programs the curve was approximated by three linear segments as follows:

$$\Delta S_g(T) = \begin{cases} 0.17 - 0.69 T/200 & \text{for } 0 < T < 200^\circ\text{F} \\ -0.52 - 1.18 (T-200)/200 & \text{for } 200^\circ\text{F} < T < 400^\circ\text{F} \\ -1.70 - 1.03 (T-400)/100 & \text{for } 400^\circ\text{F} < T < 500^\circ\text{F} \end{cases} \quad (6-4)$$

The actual gage factor at temperature T would then be:

$$S_g(T) = S_g(T_0) \left(1 + \frac{\Delta S_g(T)}{100} \right) \quad (6-5)$$

where $S_g(T_0)$ = The room temperature gage factor

In order to correct simultaneously for apparent strain and gage factor errors the following procedure is proposed by Micro-Measurements in [127]:

- (a) Perform balance and calibration with the gage at room temperature employing the gage factor used by Micro-

Measurements in determining the apparent strain data ($S_g^* = 2.0$)
 (b) Get the strain gage reading, $\hat{\hat{\epsilon}}(T)$, at temperature T ($T \neq T_{\text{room}}$)

(c) Correct for apparent strain :

$$\hat{\epsilon}(T) = \hat{\hat{\epsilon}}(T) - \epsilon_{\text{app}}(T) \quad (6-5)$$

where : $\hat{\hat{\epsilon}}(T)$ = The strain gage reading at temperature T

$\hat{\epsilon}(T)$ = Semicorrected strain

$\epsilon_{\text{app}}(T)$ = Apparent strain at temperature T

(d) Correct for gage factor variation

$$\epsilon(T) = \hat{\epsilon}(T) \frac{S_g^*}{S_g(T)} \quad (6-6)$$

Listings of the data reduction programs where the above presented compensation procedure is implemented are given in Appendix D.

6.7.2 Residual Stress Measurements

The residual stresses after welding (specimen #2) and after stress relieving (specimens #1 and #4) were measured by sectioning the plates and removing a narrow center strip carrying the strain gages. This stress relaxation technique for residual stress measurements is based upon the principle that "strains created during unloading are elastic even if the material has previously undergone plastic deformation", [1]. This fact is illustrated, for one dimension, in Figure 5.6. If the removed center strip of the plate is small enough then it can be safely assumed that residual stresses no longer exist and the measured strain changes $\bar{\epsilon}_x$, $\bar{\epsilon}_y$ and $\bar{\gamma}_{xy}$ are

$$\begin{aligned}
 \bar{\epsilon}_x &= -\epsilon_x^{el} \\
 \bar{\epsilon}_y &= -\epsilon_y^{el} \\
 \bar{\gamma}_{xy} &= -\gamma_{xy}^{el}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{6-7}$$

The residual stresses therefore are

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sigma_x &= -\frac{E}{1-\nu^2} (\bar{\epsilon}_x + \nu \bar{\epsilon}_y) \\
 \sigma_y &= -\frac{E}{1-\nu^2} (\bar{\epsilon}_y + \nu \bar{\epsilon}_x) \\
 \tau_{xy} &= -G \bar{\gamma}_{xy}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{6-8}$$

where : E = The Young's modulus

ν = The Poisson's ratio and

G = The coefficient of rigidity

The actually calculated residual stresses at various distances from the weld line in all three sectioned specimens are presented in the next chapter.

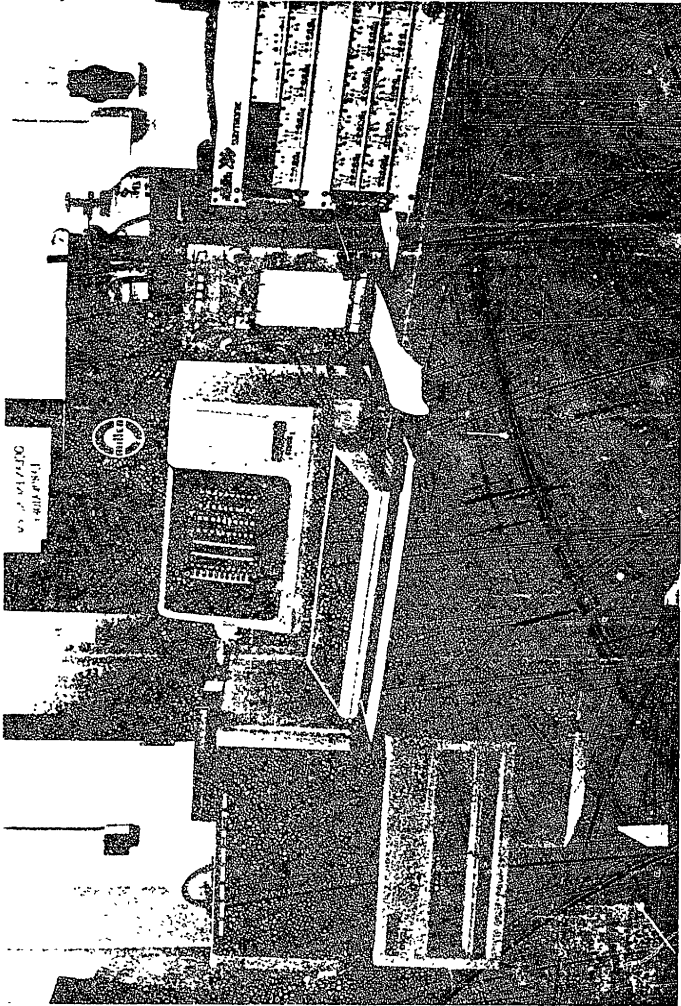
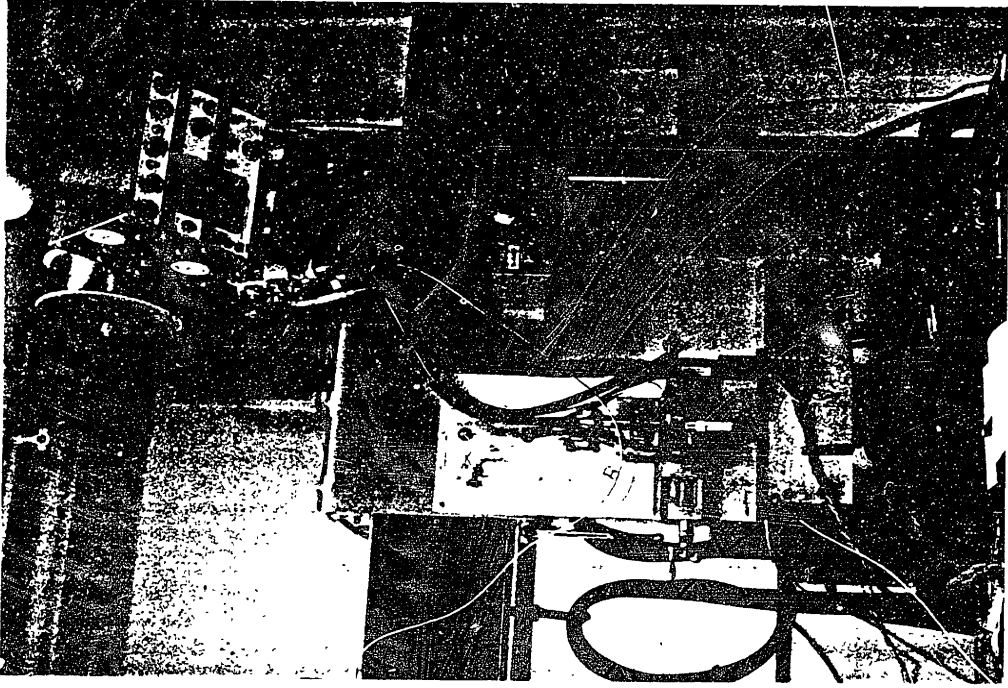


Photo 6.1 (above): The Data Acquisition System

Photo 6.2 (right): Welding Equipment

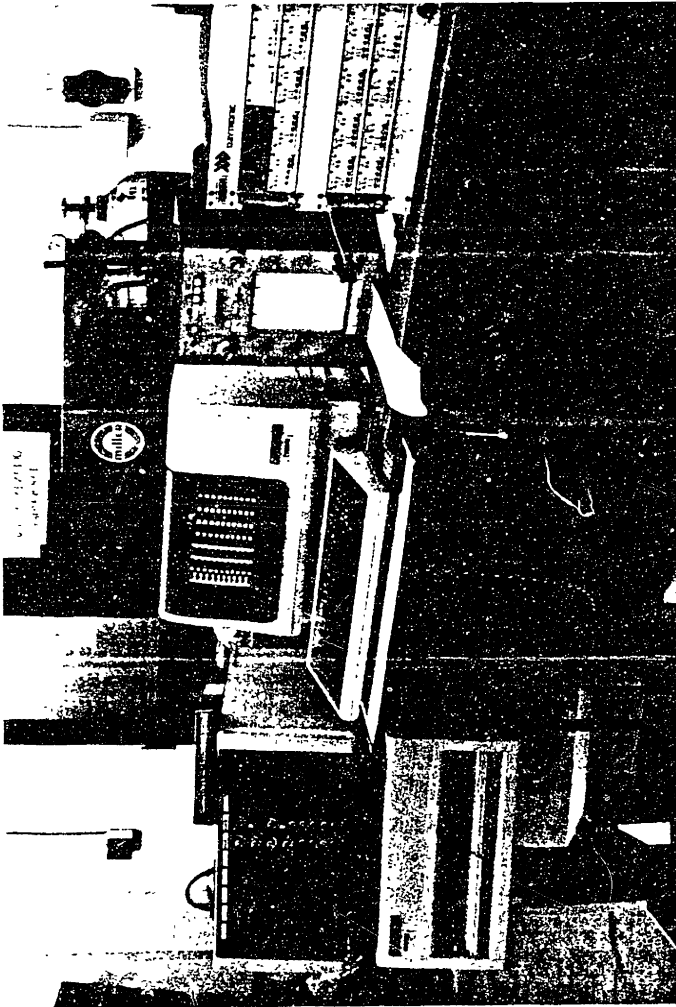
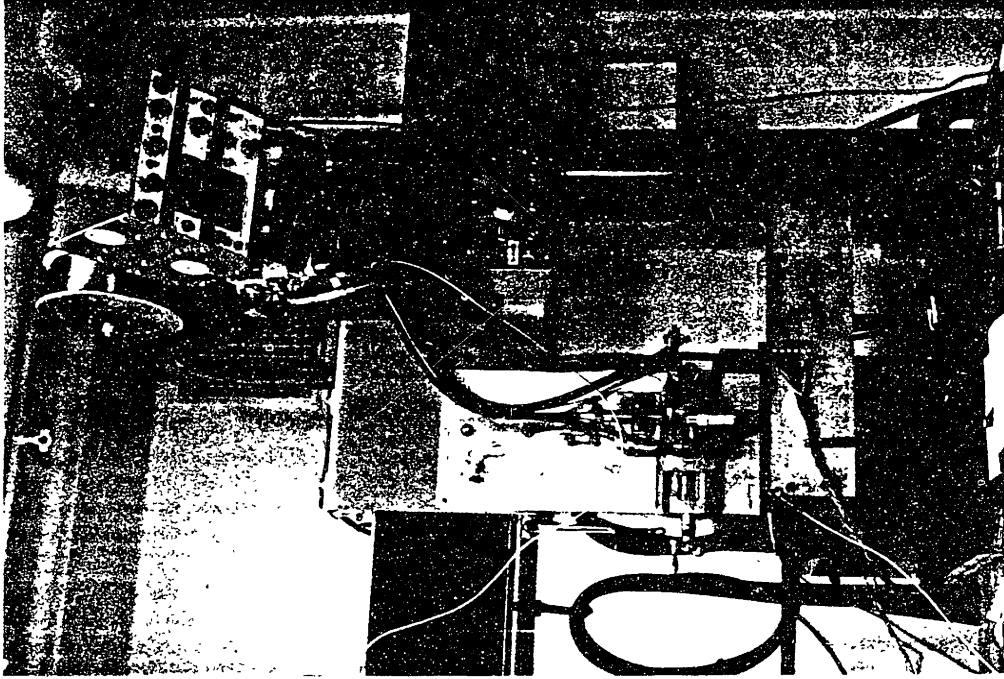


Photo 6.1 (above): The Data Acquisition System

Photo 6.2 (right): Welding Equipment

CHAPTER VII

RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

7.1 Experimental Results

Results of all the experiments will be presented and discussed in this section. Edge welding was performed on all the instrumented specimens using the same welding conditions (described in Table 6.6). The resulting temperature distributions are plotted in Figures 7.1, 7.4, 7.7 and 7.12 and are - not surprisingly - very similar for all four specimens. As was already discussed in the previous chapter, the short-circuiting nature of dip transfer welding introduced a significant amount of noise in the thermocouple readings during welding. Thus, for clarity, it was decided not to plot the very first part of the temperature history.

The strain gage readings taken during the welding experiments are plotted in Figures 7.2, 7.5, 7.8, 7.9, 7.13 and 7.14 for all four specimens. Noise problems with the strain gage conditioners were not encountered. It should be noted here that the observed slightly different strain readings on the two sides of specimens #3 and #4 are due to bending caused by the initial deviation of the plate from the straight-line path of the welding arc. On the back side of specimens #3 and #4 only the four strain gages closest to the weld line were monitored due to problems with one strain gage conditioner.

The strain gage readings were further corrected for temperature-induced apparent strain and gage factor variations in the way presented in section 6.7.1. Compensated strains for

all specimens are plotted in Figures 7.3, 7.6, 7.10, 7.11, 7.15 and 7.16

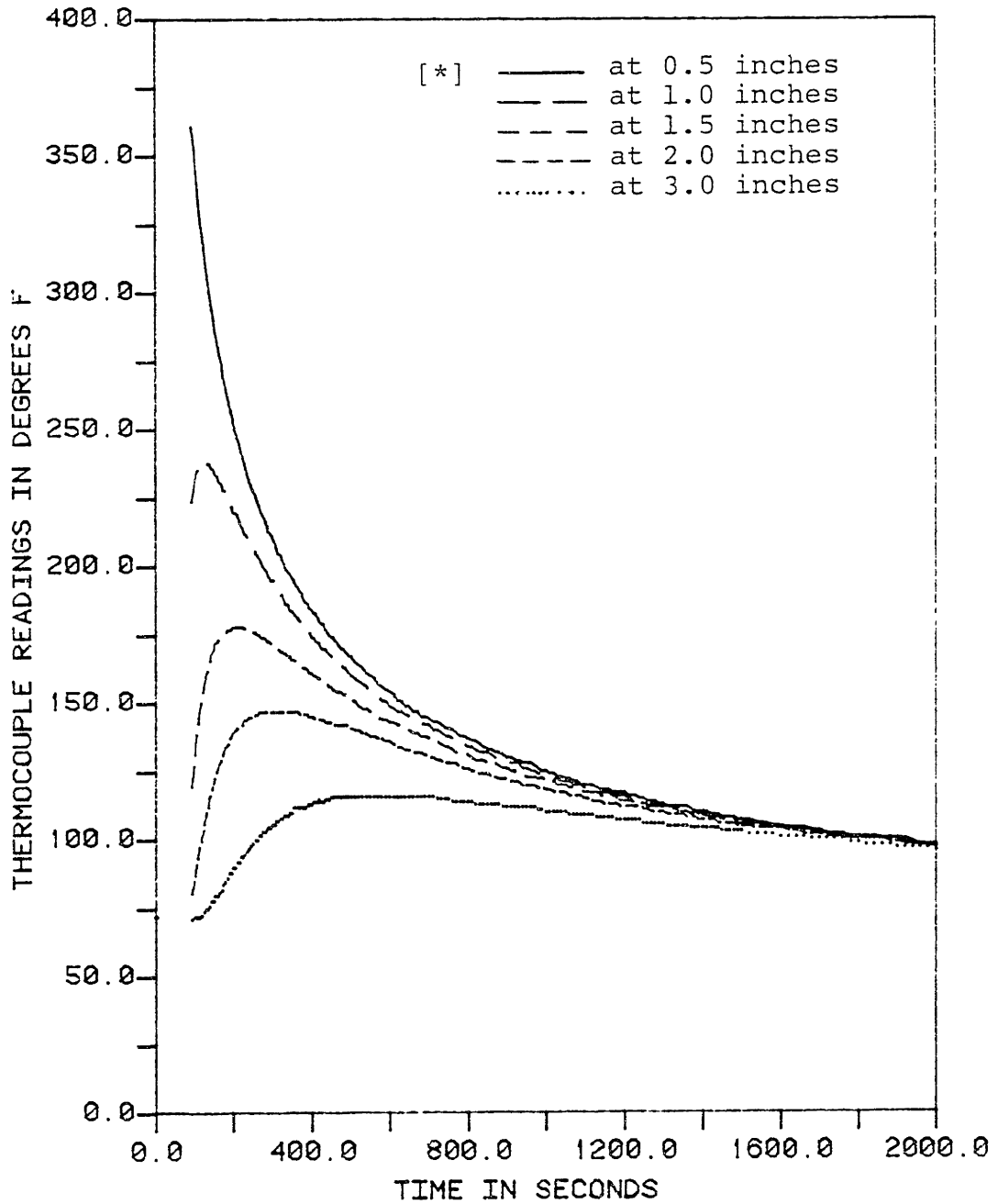
Stress relieving heat treatments were performed on specimens #1, #3 and #4 in an electric furnace at various holding temperatures. Thermocouple and strain gage readings were continuously taken in all cases. The thermocouple readings are plotted versus time in Figures 7.17, 7.20 and 7.25. The noisy readings above 1000°F are due to the fact that the glass insulation of the thermocouple wires was almost destroyed since it was subject to very high temperatures caused by radiant heating from the "red-hot" furnace elements.

Uncompensated strain gage readings for specimens #1 and #3 are plotted in Figures 7.18, 7.21 and 7.22 whereas corrected strains are given in Figures 7.19, 7.23 and 7.24. Strain gage readings for specimen #1, however, should be viewed with some reservation, since the gages were not covered and thus were subject to radiant heating from the furnace elements. In specimen #3 gages were covered with "fiberfrax" insulation and always encountered temperatures inside their permissible range. Strain gages in specimen #4 were destroyed when the plate reached temperatures between 550°F and 600°F . New gages had to be installed before cutting.

Specimens #1, #2 and #4 were cut in order to calculate the distribution of residual stresses after welding and stress relieving. The strain gage readings before and after cutting are summarized in Table 7.1. The residual stresses, calculated in the way presented in section 6.7.2, are also given in the

same Table and are plotted in Figure 7.26(a) and (b) (Longitudinal and transverse respectively).

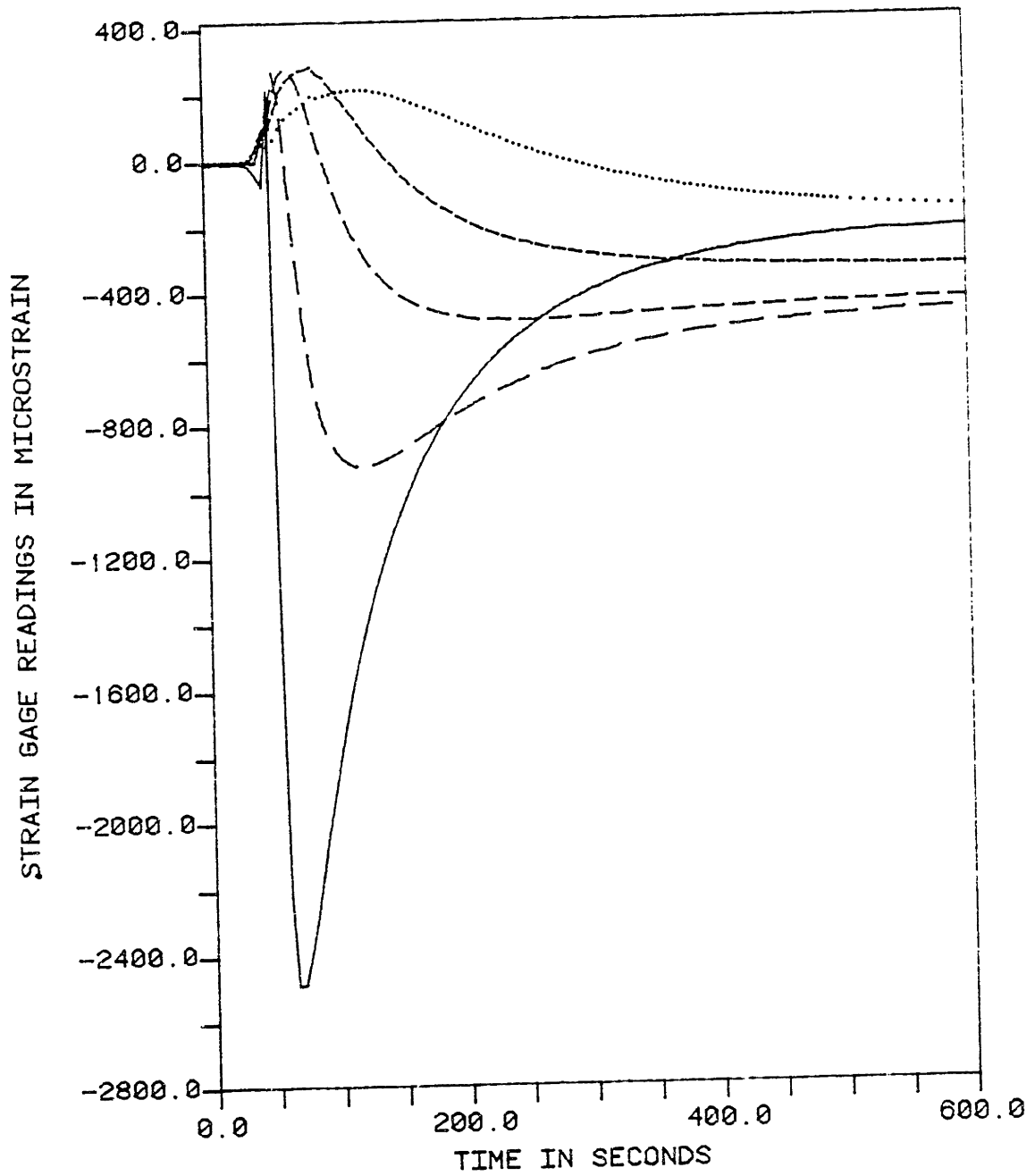
Finally it should be mentioned that specimen #5 was heated at various temperatures in order to investigate the uniformity of the heating attainable in the furnace. It was noticed that a gradient of 5 to 45^oF existed across the length of the specimen, depending on the level and the rate of increase of temperatures. More "fiberfrax" insulation around the door reduced slightly these gradients. Further more it was noticed that there existed almost no temperature gradient through the thickness of the specimen. This was evidenced by the identical measured temperatures on the surface and halfway through the thickness (where thermocouple #3 was embeded).



WELDING OF SPECIMEN #1

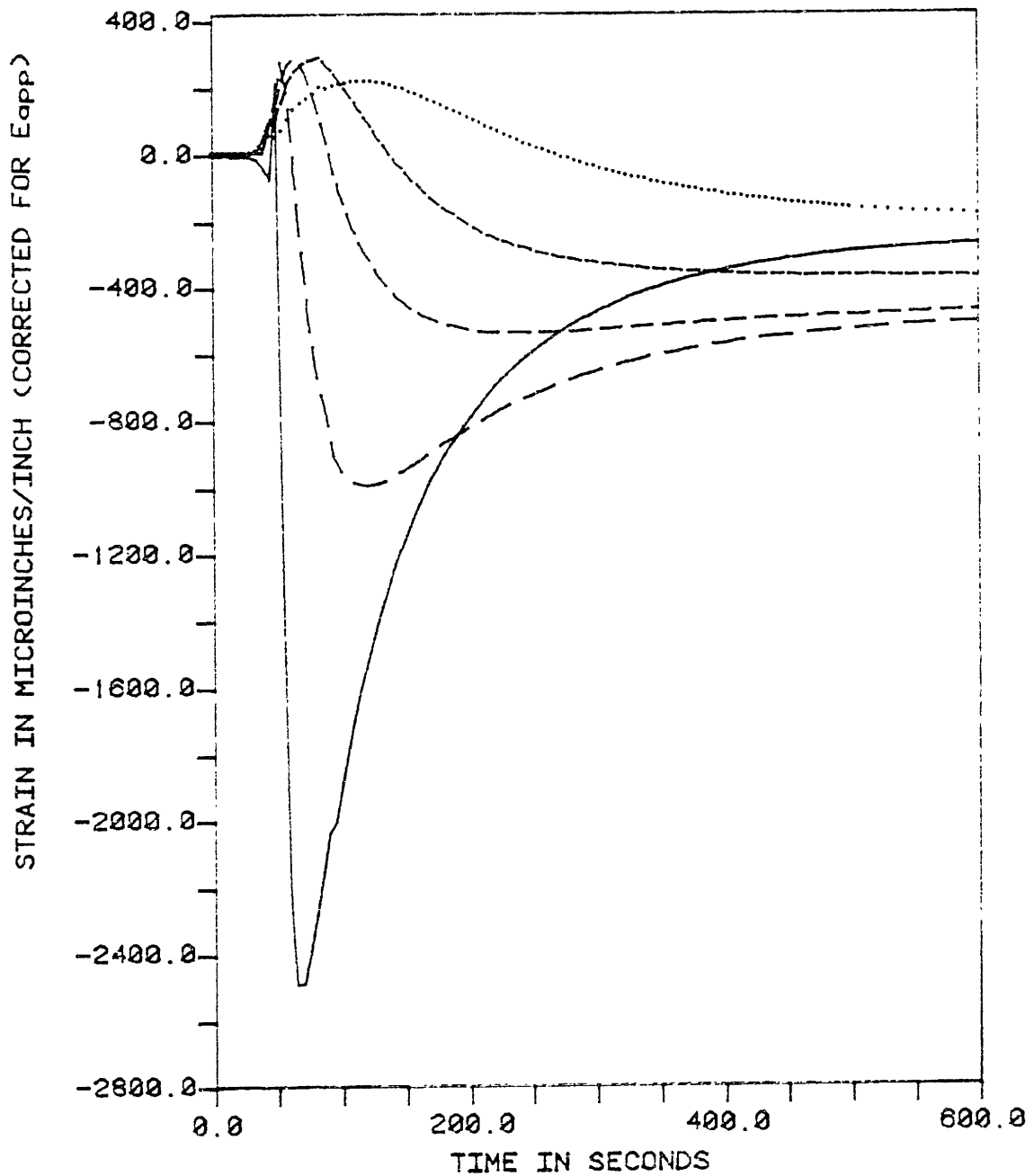
Figure 7.1 : Thermocouple readings during welding of specimen #1.

[*]. Note : The key to the curves of Figure 7.1 also holds for Figures 7.2 to 7.25



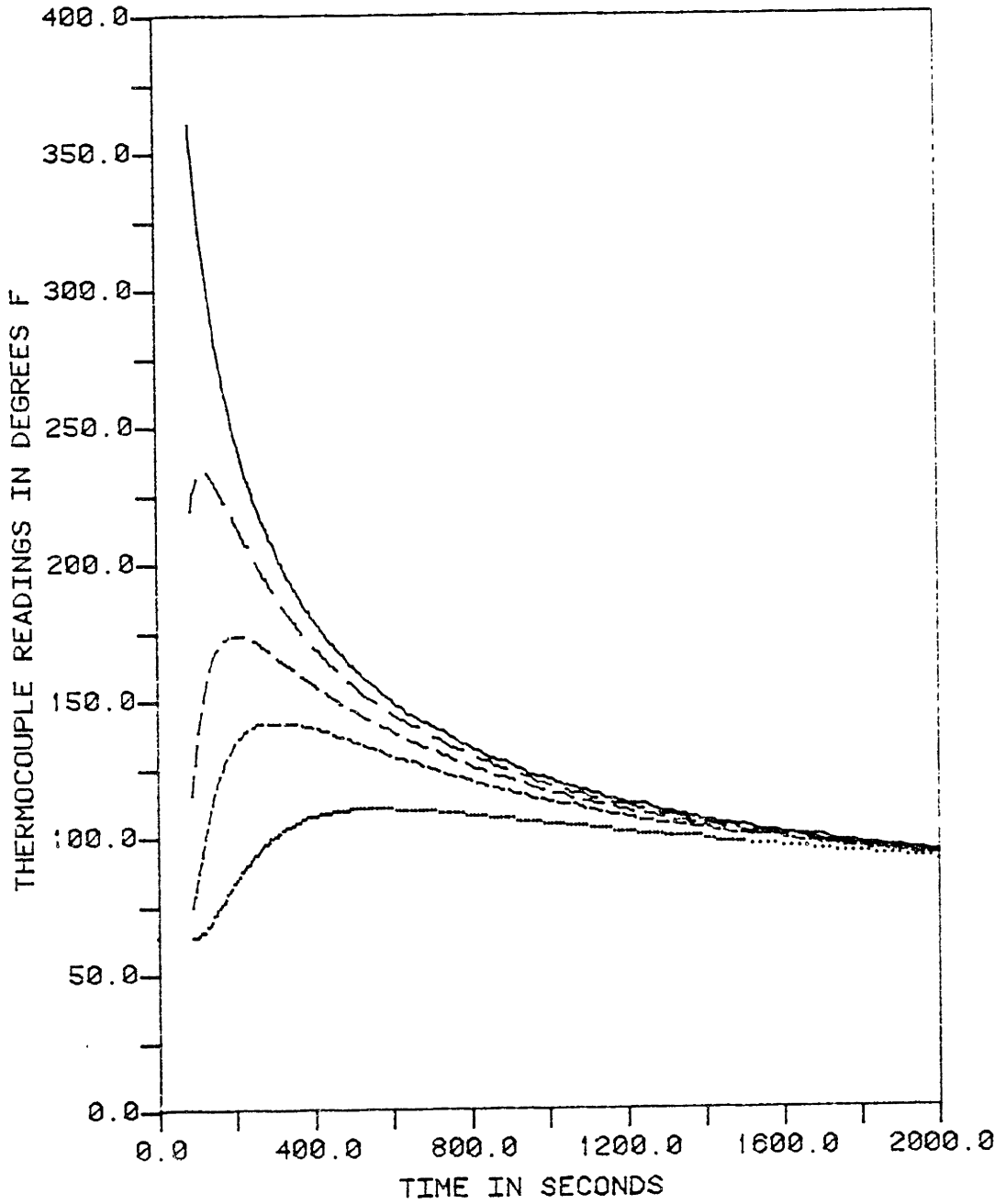
WELDING OF SPECIMEN #1

Figure 7.2 : Uncompensated strain gage readings during welding of specimen #1.



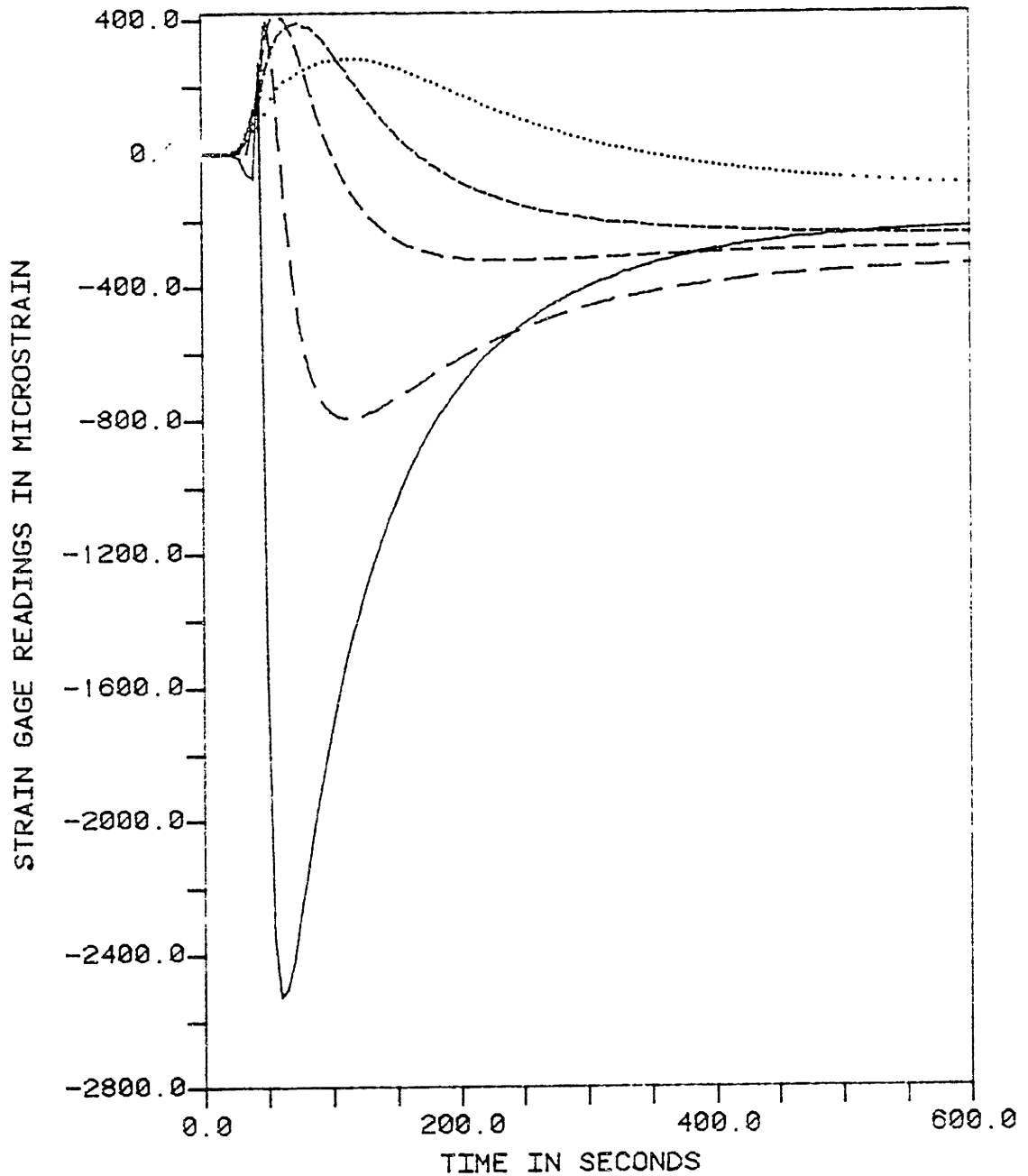
WELDING OF SPECIMEN #1

Figure 7.3 : Strains during welding of specimen #1
(corrected for temperature induced
apparent strain and gage factor
variations)



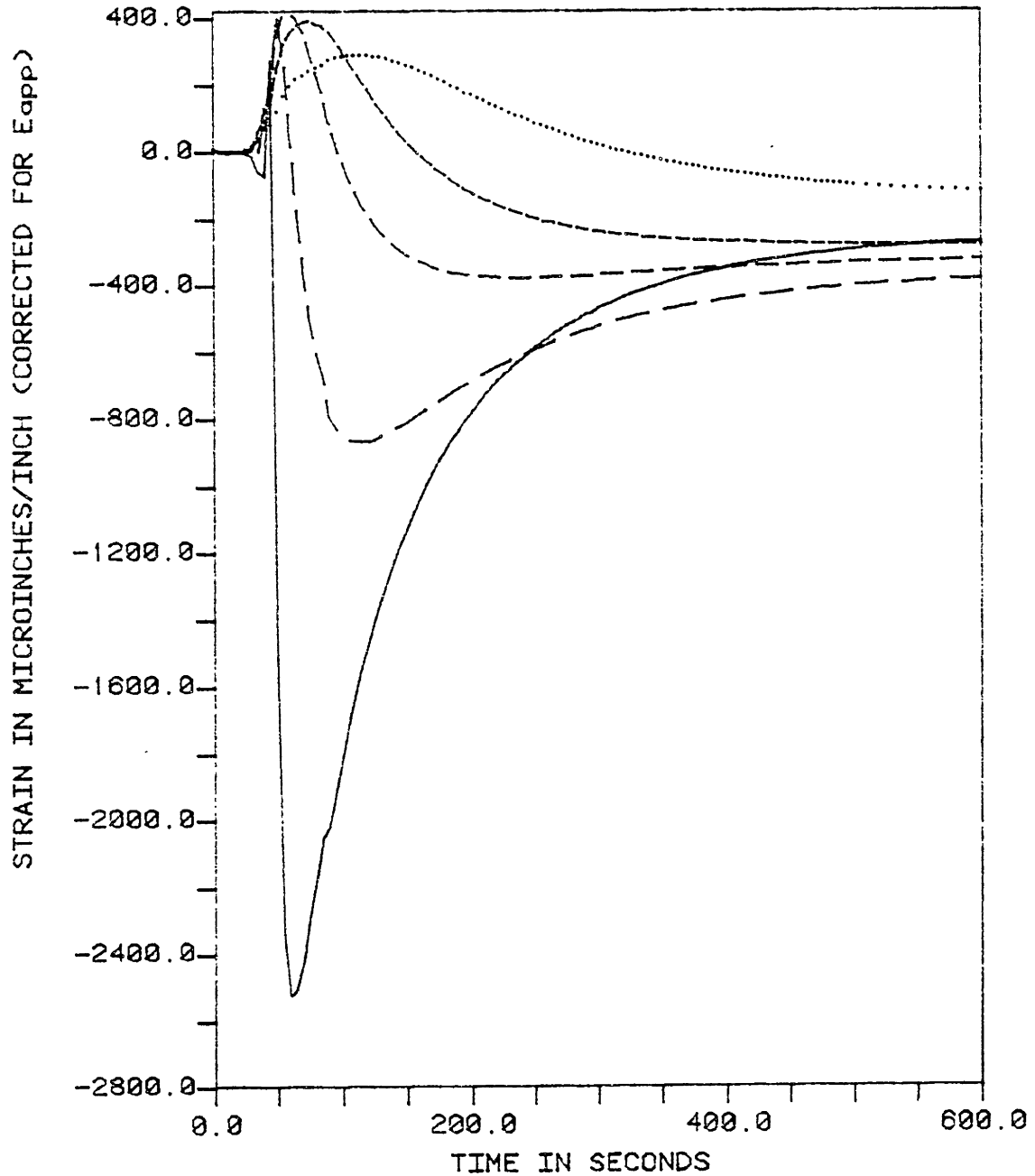
WELDING OF SPECIMEN #2

Figure 7.4 : Thermocouple readings during welding of specimen #2.



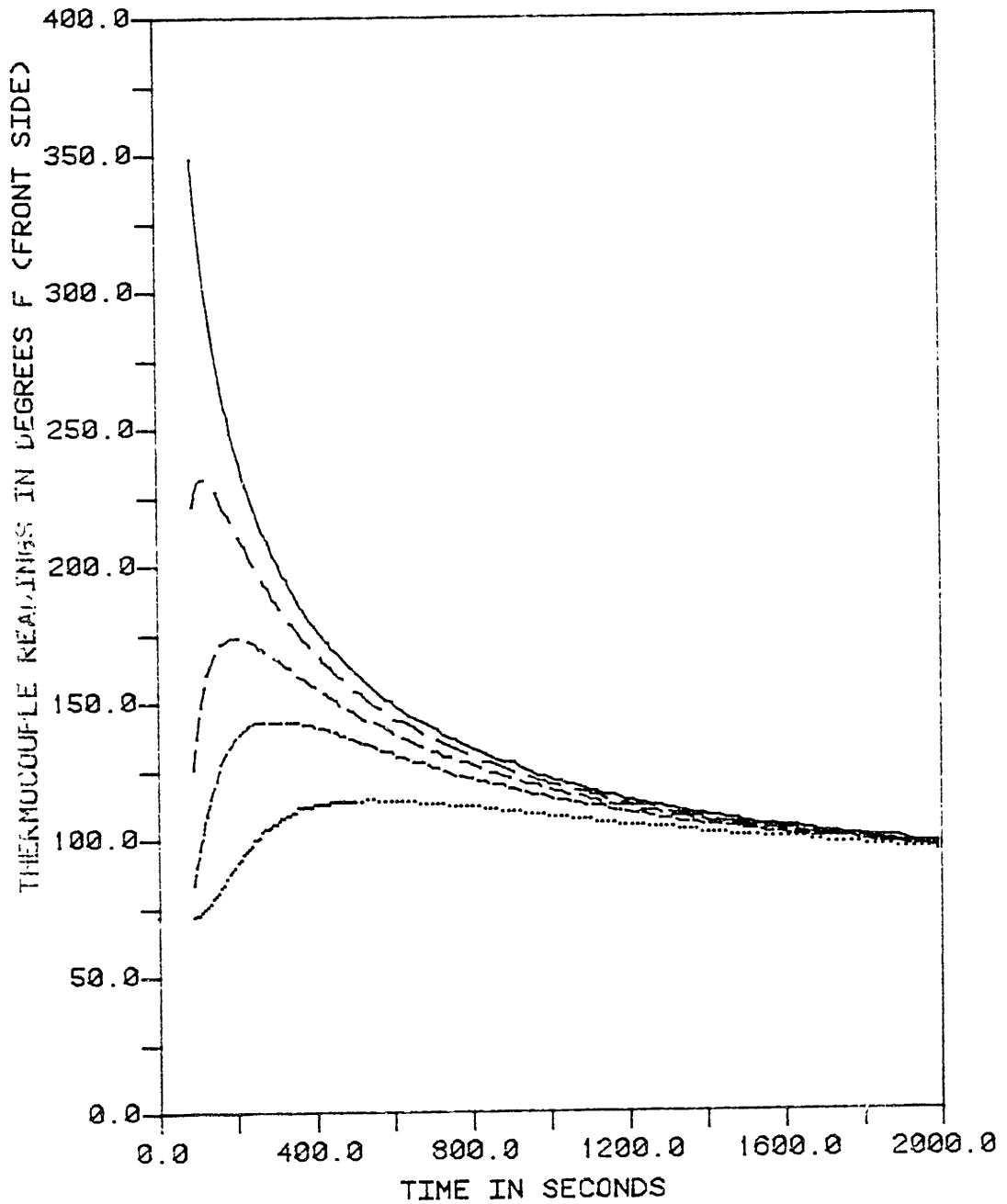
WELDING OF SPECIMEN #2

Figure 7.5 : Uncompensated strain gage readings during welding of specimen #2



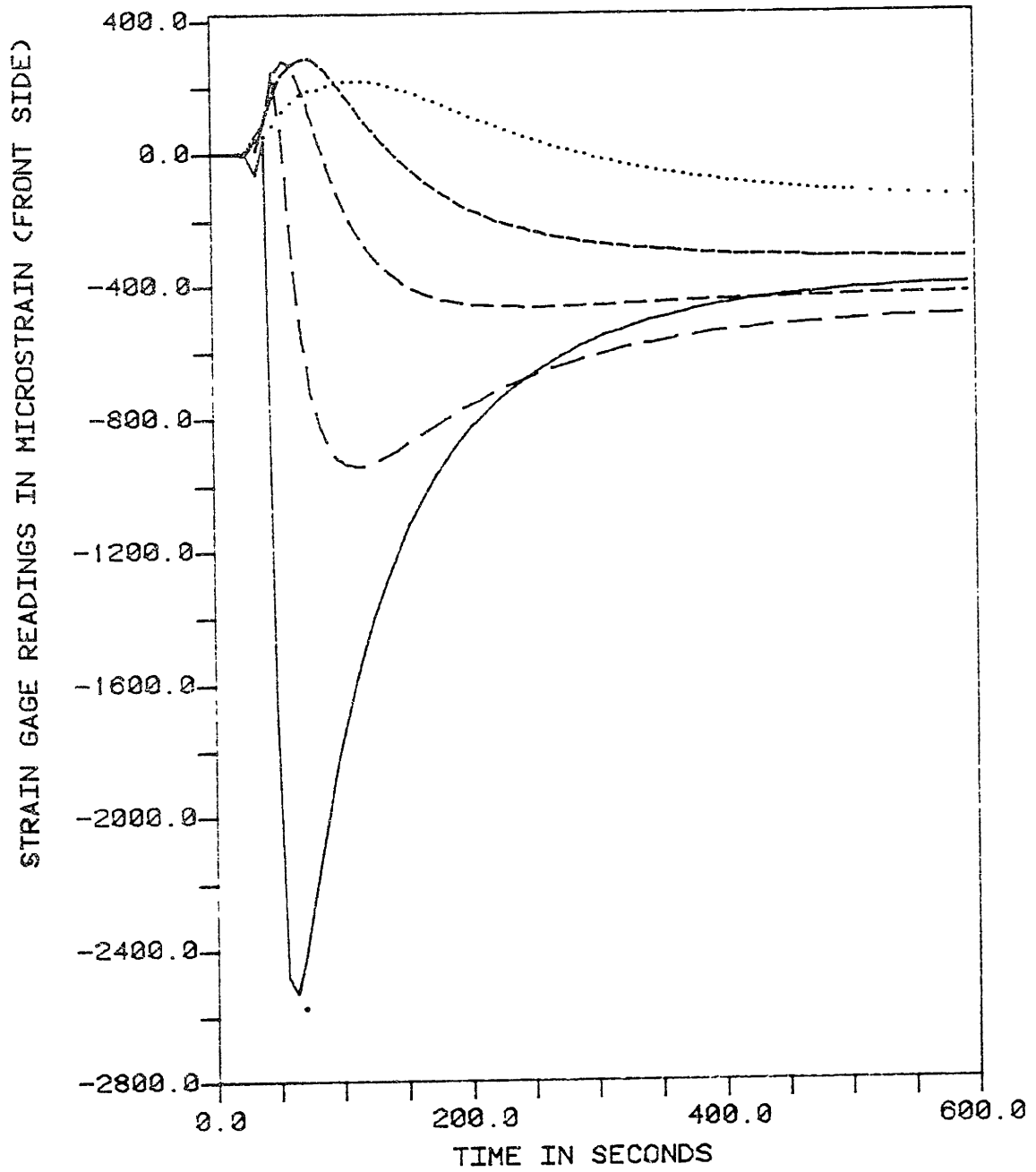
WELDING OF SPECIMEN #2

Figure 7.6 : Strains during welding of specimen #2
(corrected for temperature-induced
apparent strain and gage factor
variations)



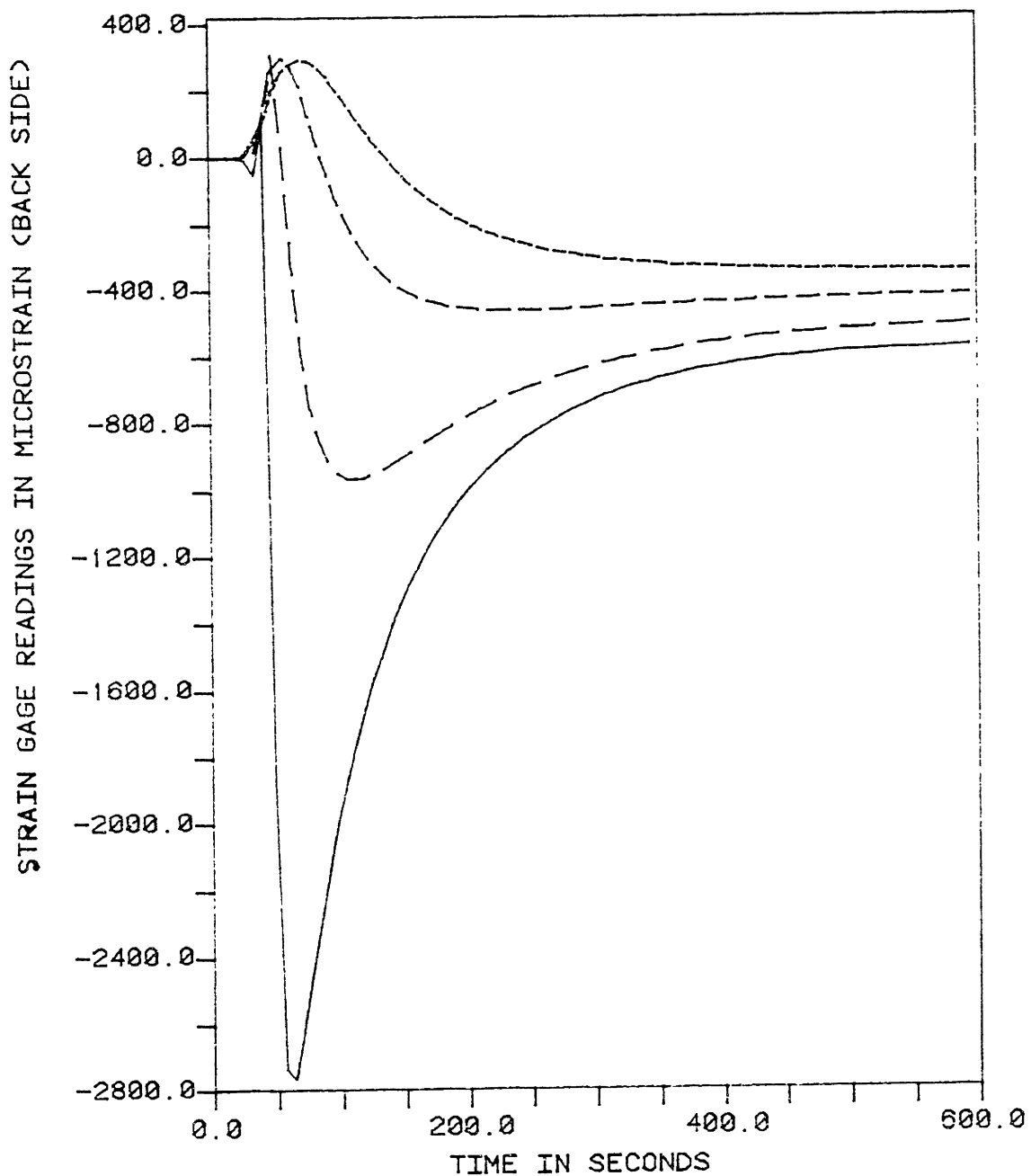
WELDING OF SPECIMEN #3

Figure 7.7 : Thermocouple readings during welding of specimen #3



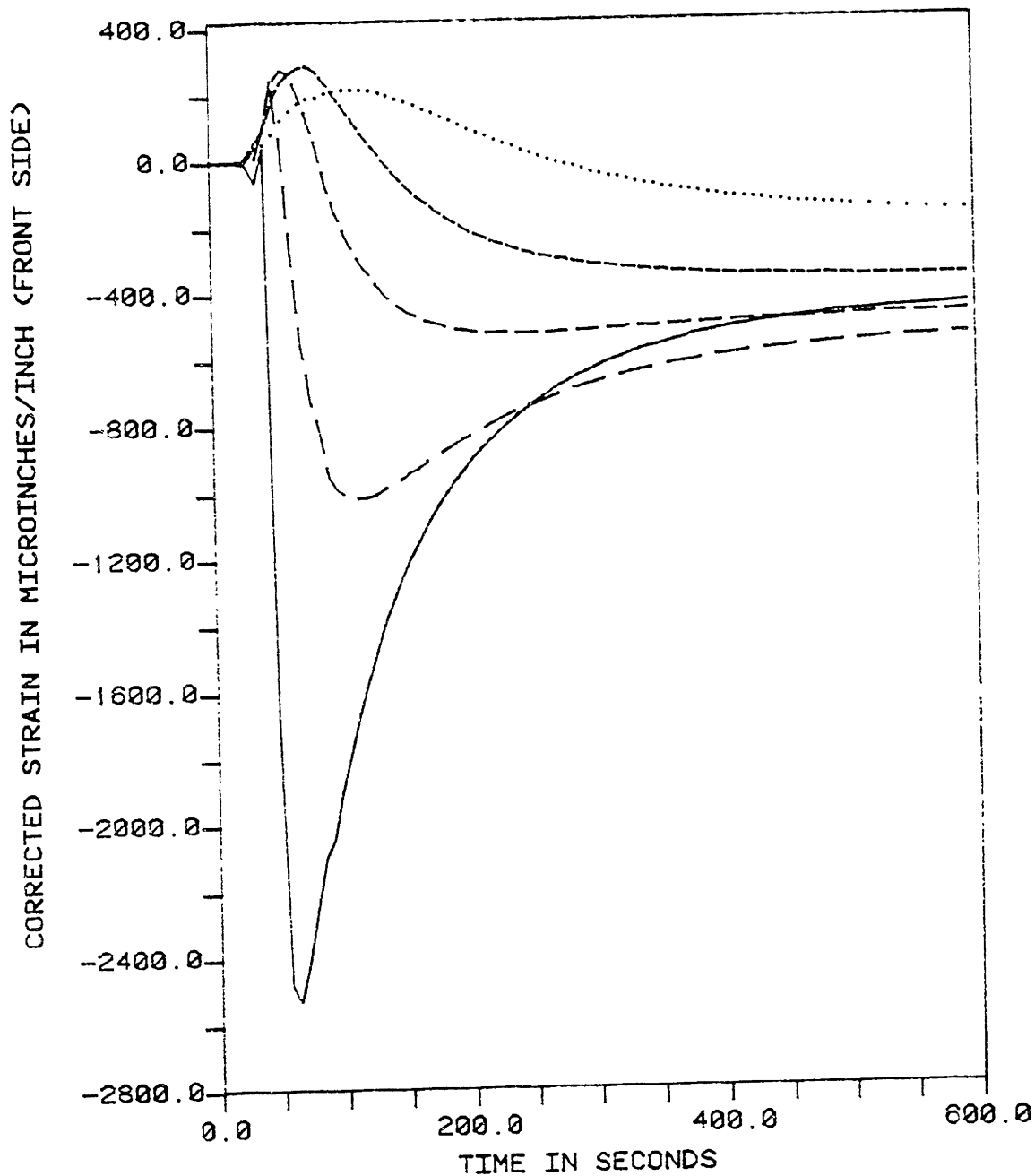
WELDING OF SPECIMEN #3

Figure 7.8 : Uncompensated strain gage readings during welding of specimen #3, front side



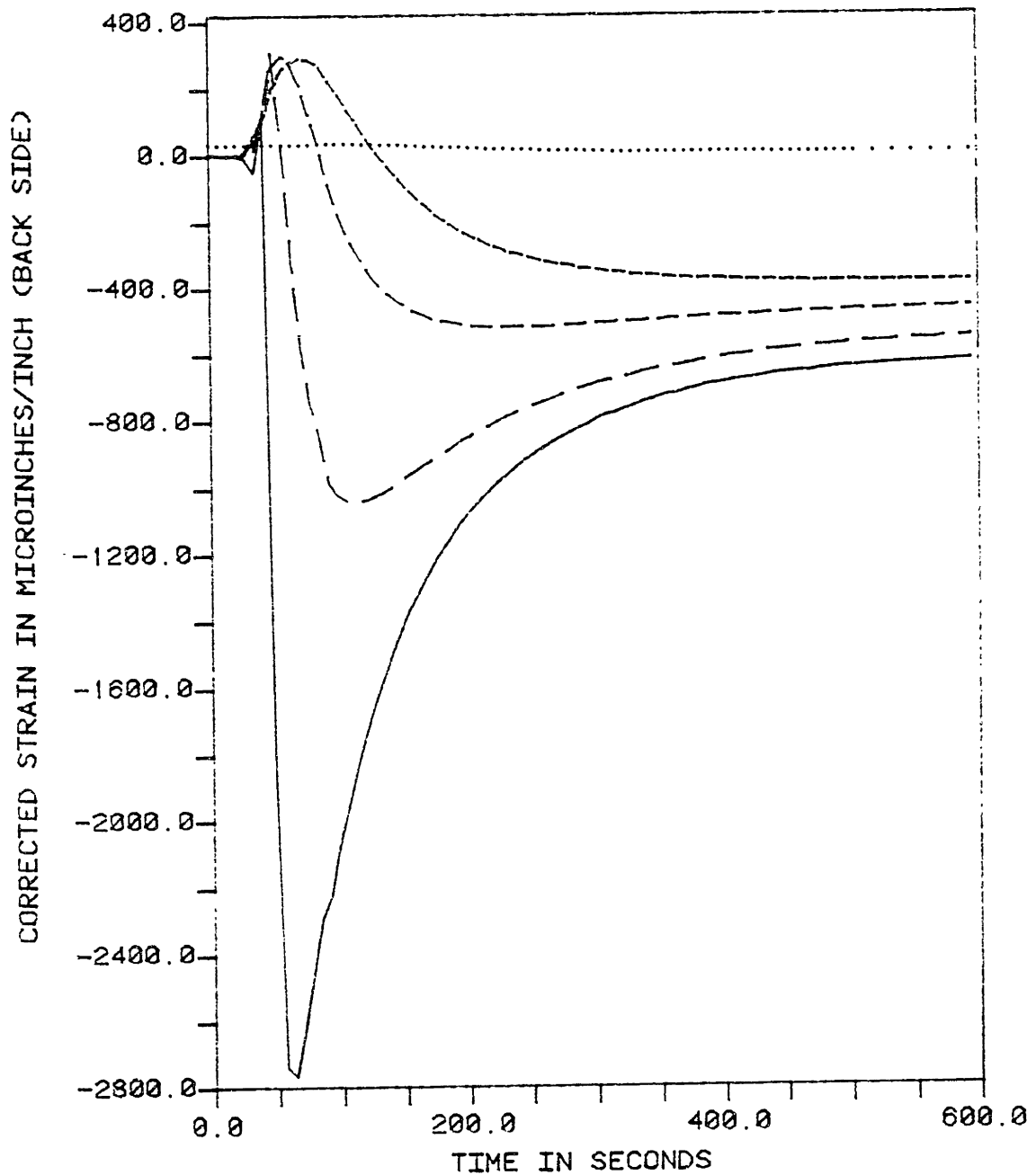
WELDING OF SPECIMEN #3

Figure 7.9 : Uncompensated strain gage readings during welding of specimen #3, back side



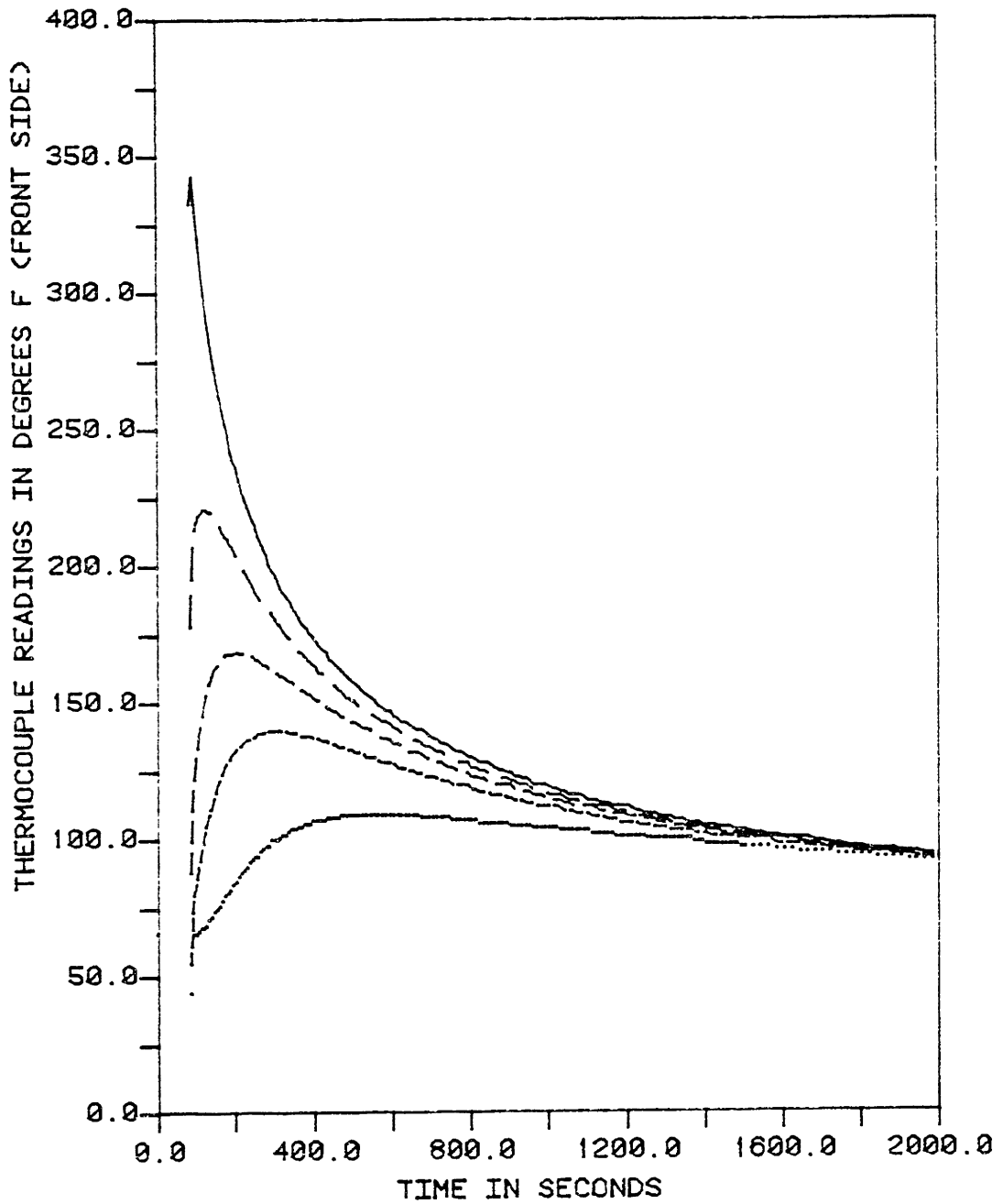
WELDING OF SPECIMEN #3

Figure 7.10 : Strains during welding of specimen #3, front side (corrected for temperature induced apparent strain and gage factor variations)



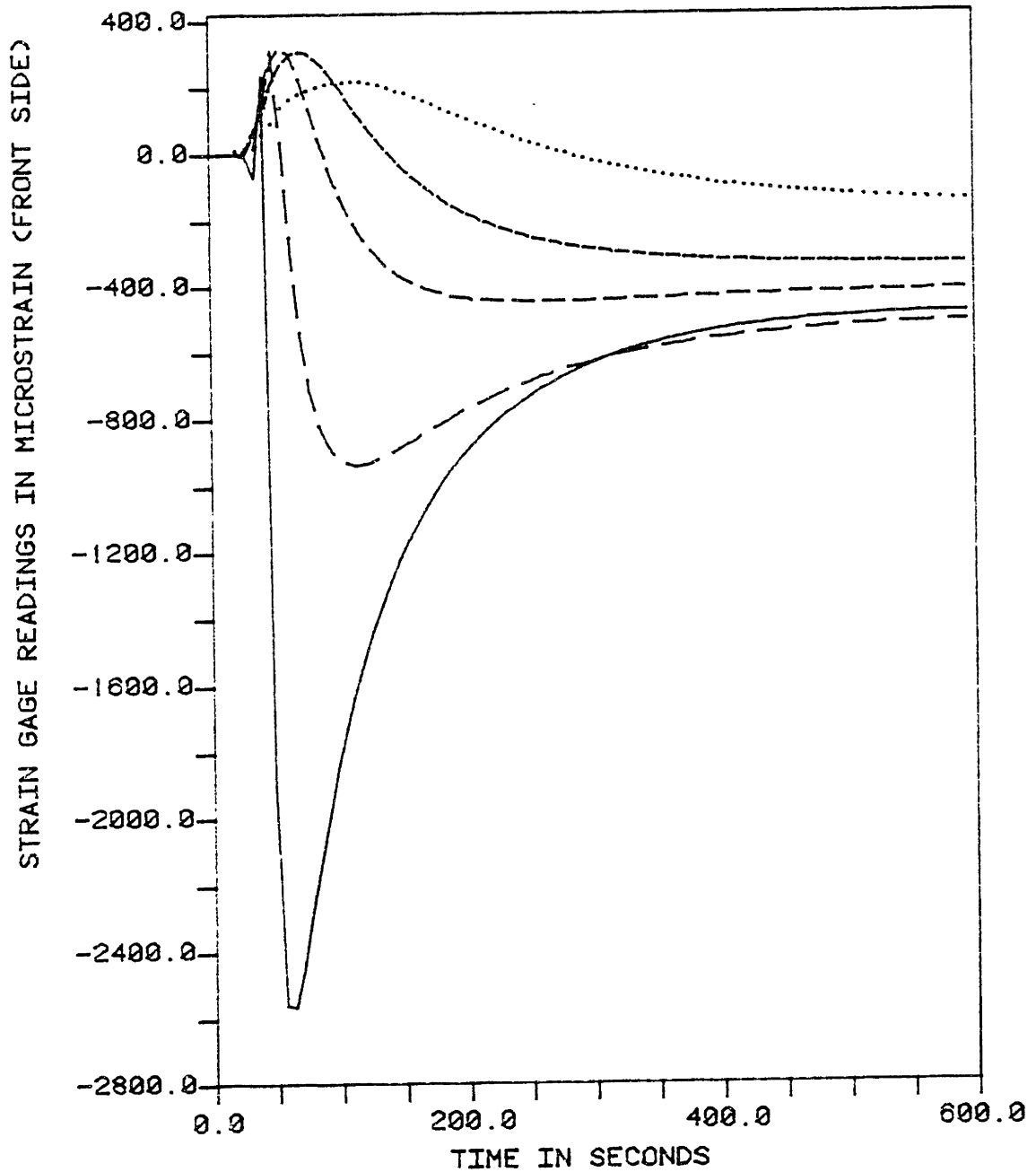
WELDING OF SPECIMEN #3

Figure 7.11 : Strains during welding of specimen #3, back side (corrected for temperature induced apparent strain and gage factor variations)



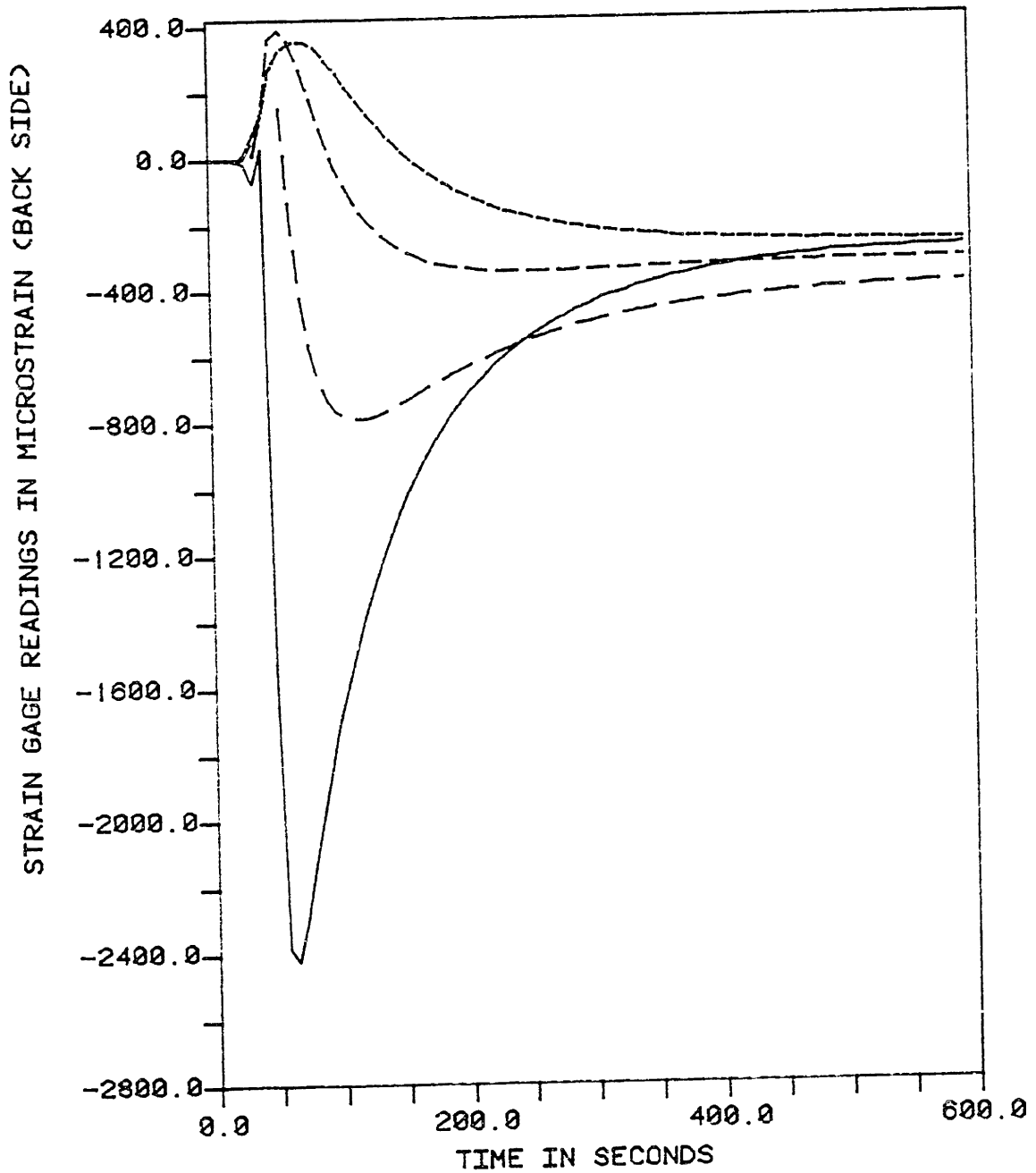
WELDING OF SPECIMEN #4

Figure 7.12 : Thermocouple readings during welding of specimen #4



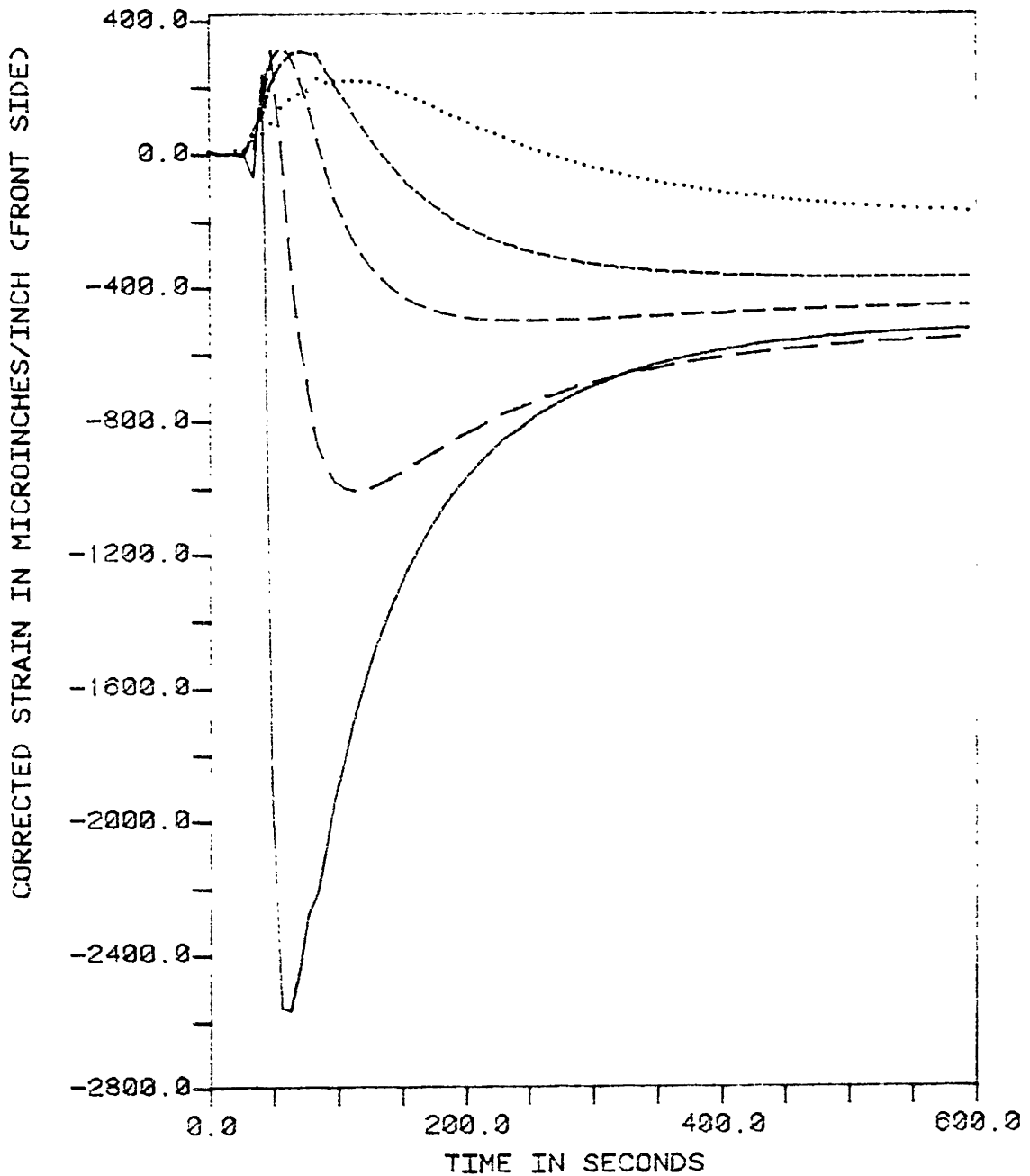
WELDING OF SPECIMEN #4

Figure 7.13 : Uncompensated strain gage readings during welding of specimen #4, front side



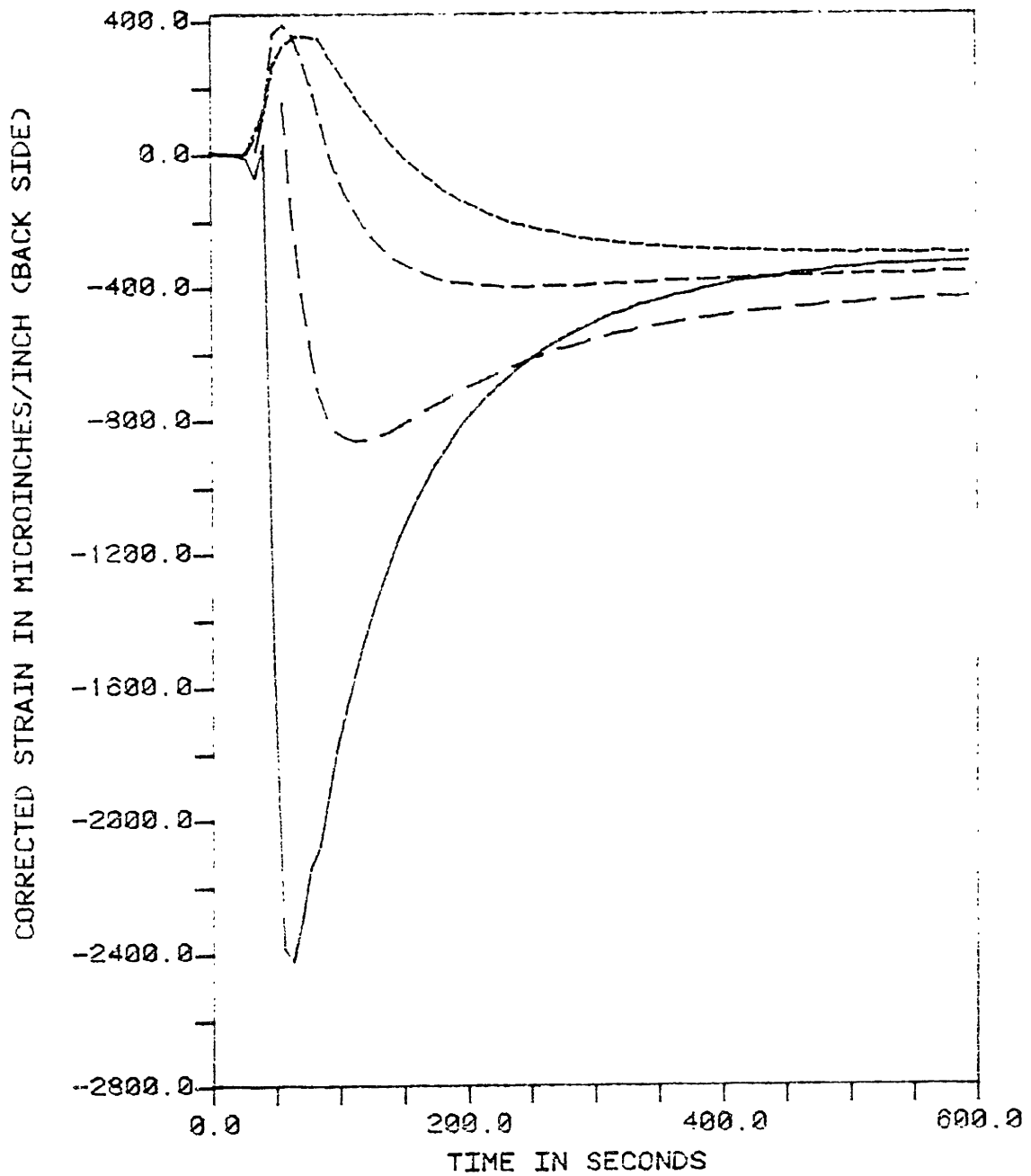
WELDING OF SPECIMEN #4

Figure 7.14 : Uncompensated strain gage readings during welding of specimen #4, back side



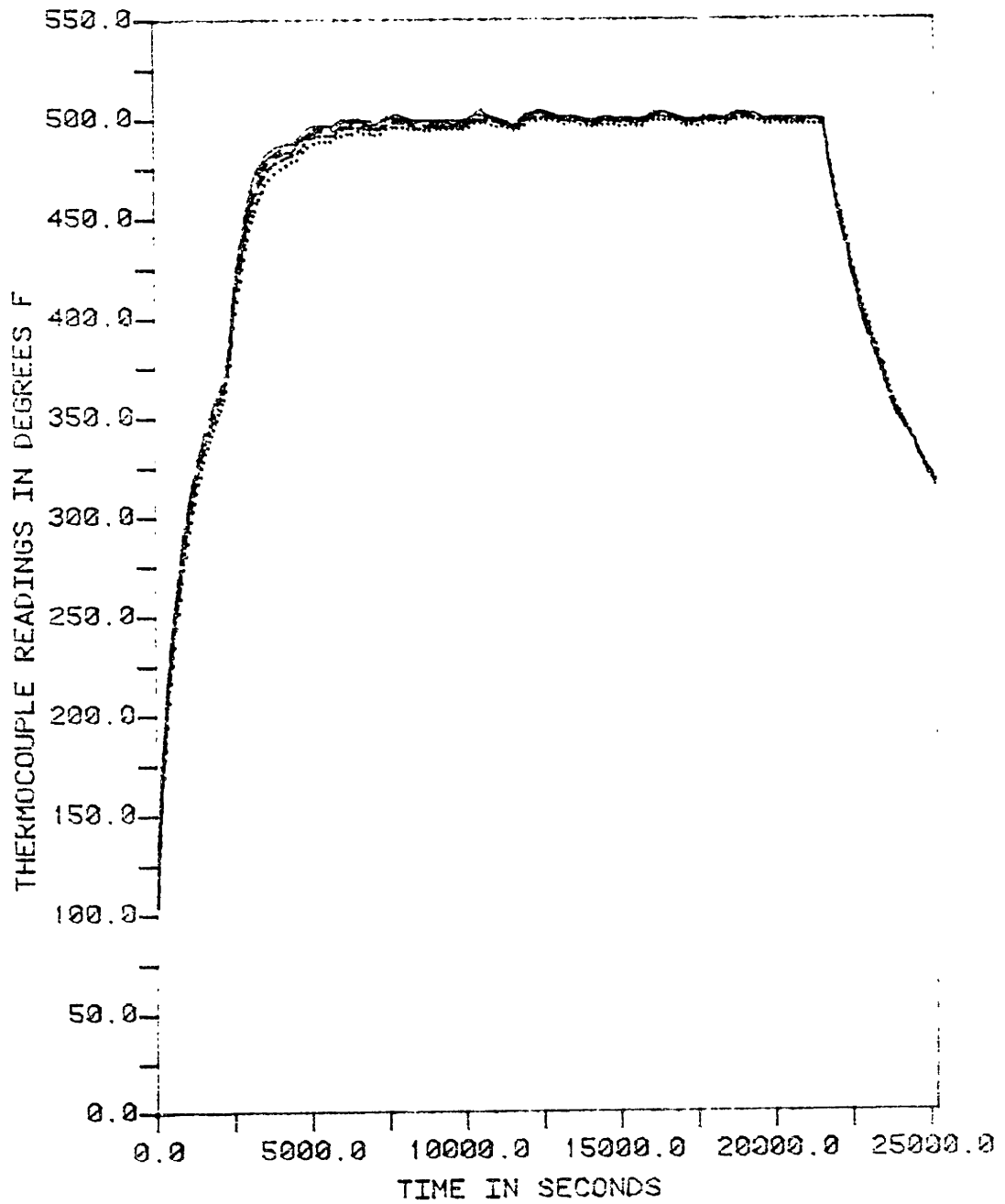
WELDING OF SPECIMEN #4

Figure 7.15 : Strains during welding of specimen #4, front side (corrected for temperature induced apparent strain and gage factor variations)



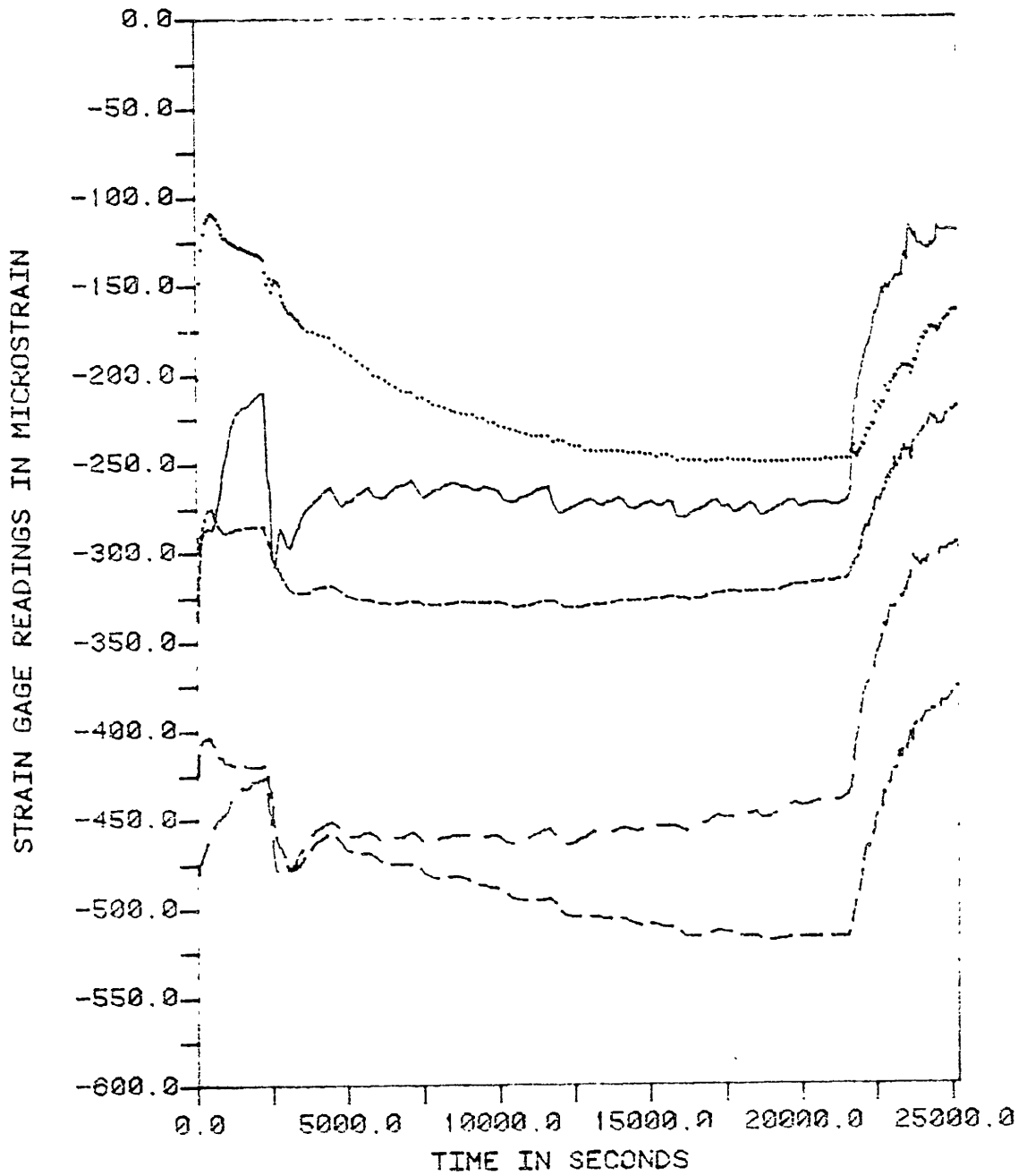
WELDING OF SPECIMEN #4

Figure 7.16 : Strains during welding of specimen #4, back side (corrected for temperature induced apparent strain and gage factor variations)



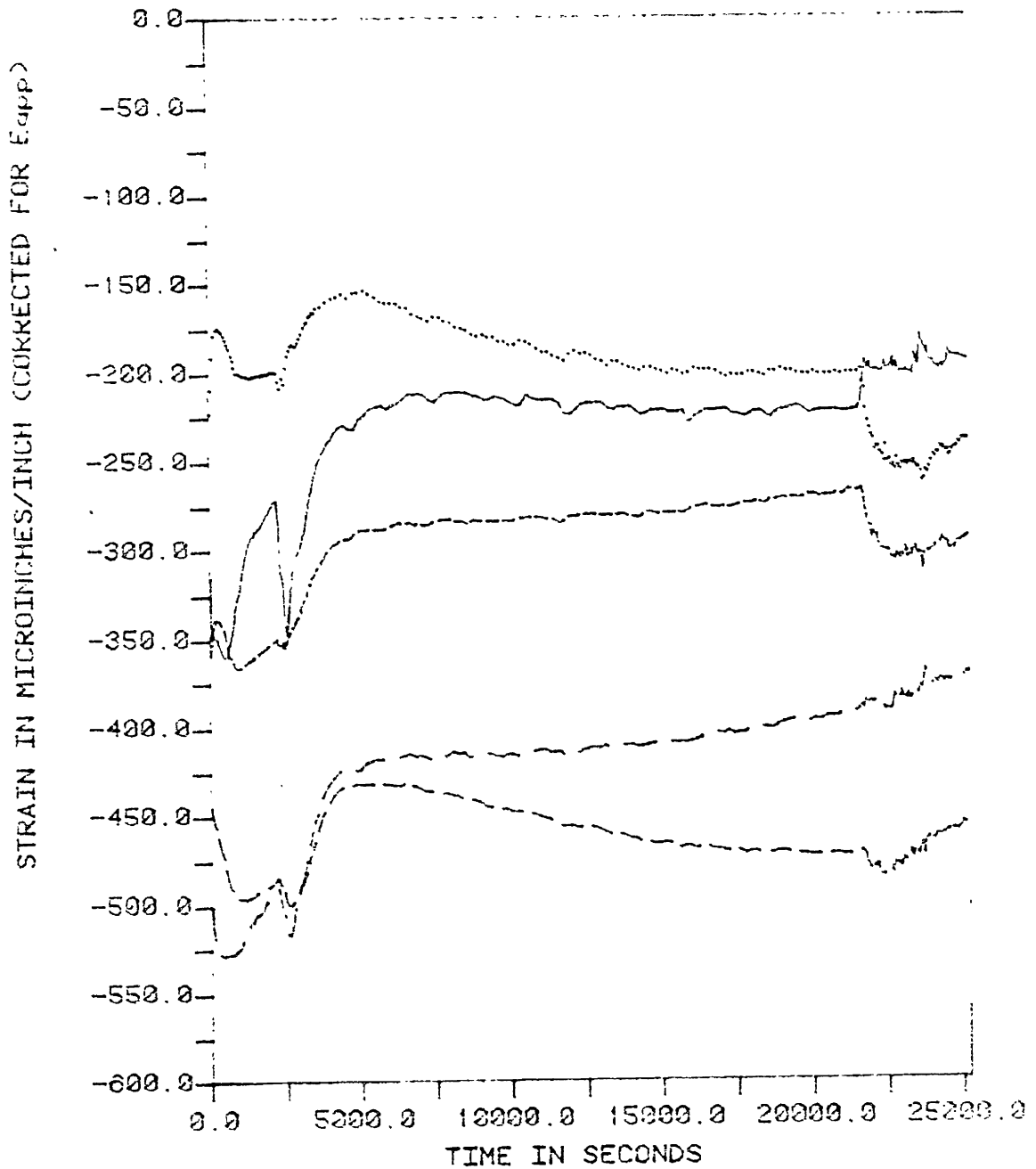
STRESS RELIEVING OF SPECIMEN #1

Figure 7.17 : Thermocouple readings during stress-relieving of specimen #1



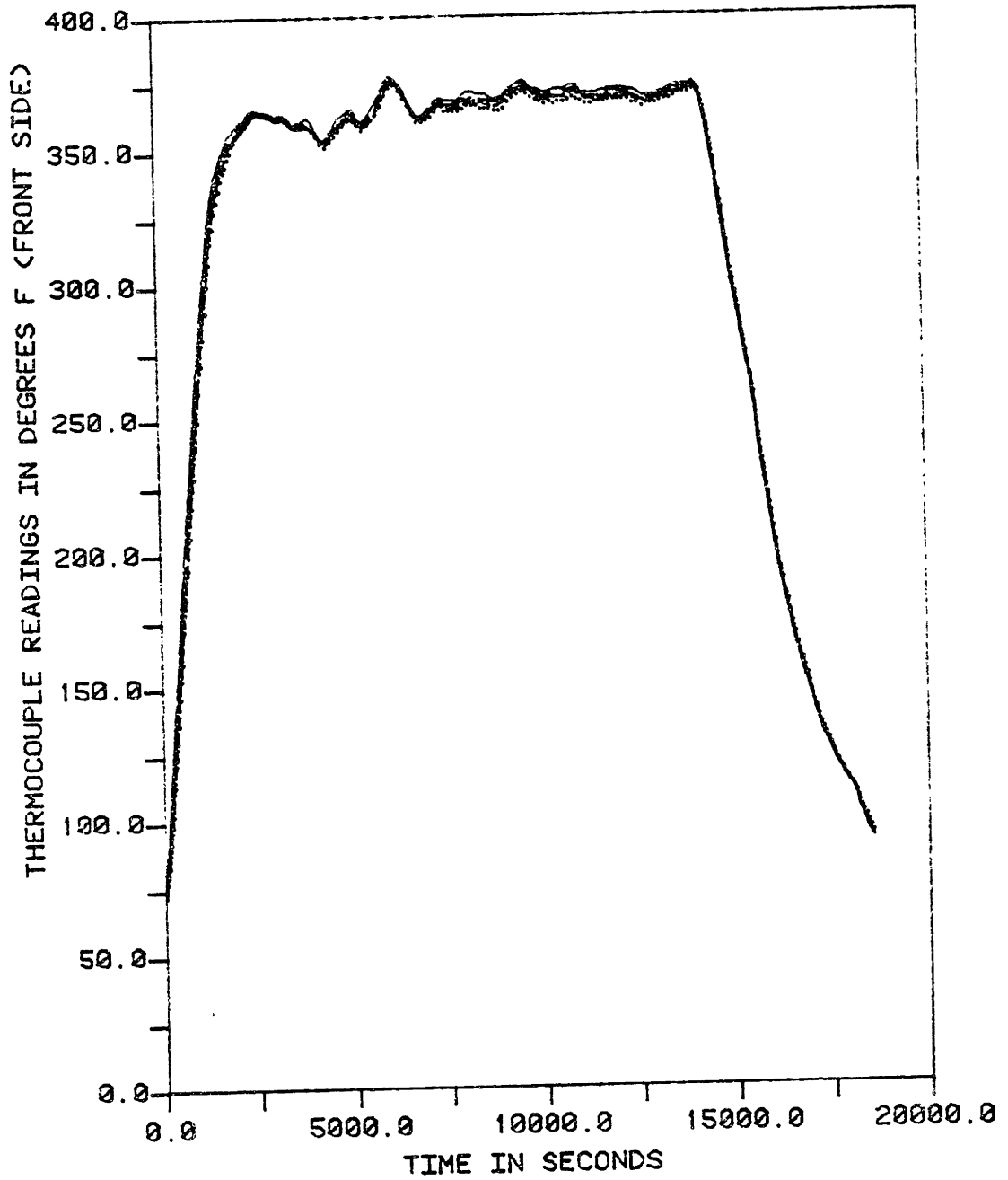
STRESS RELIEVING OF SPECIMEN #1

Figure 7.18 : Uncompensated strain gage readings during stress-relieving of specimen #1



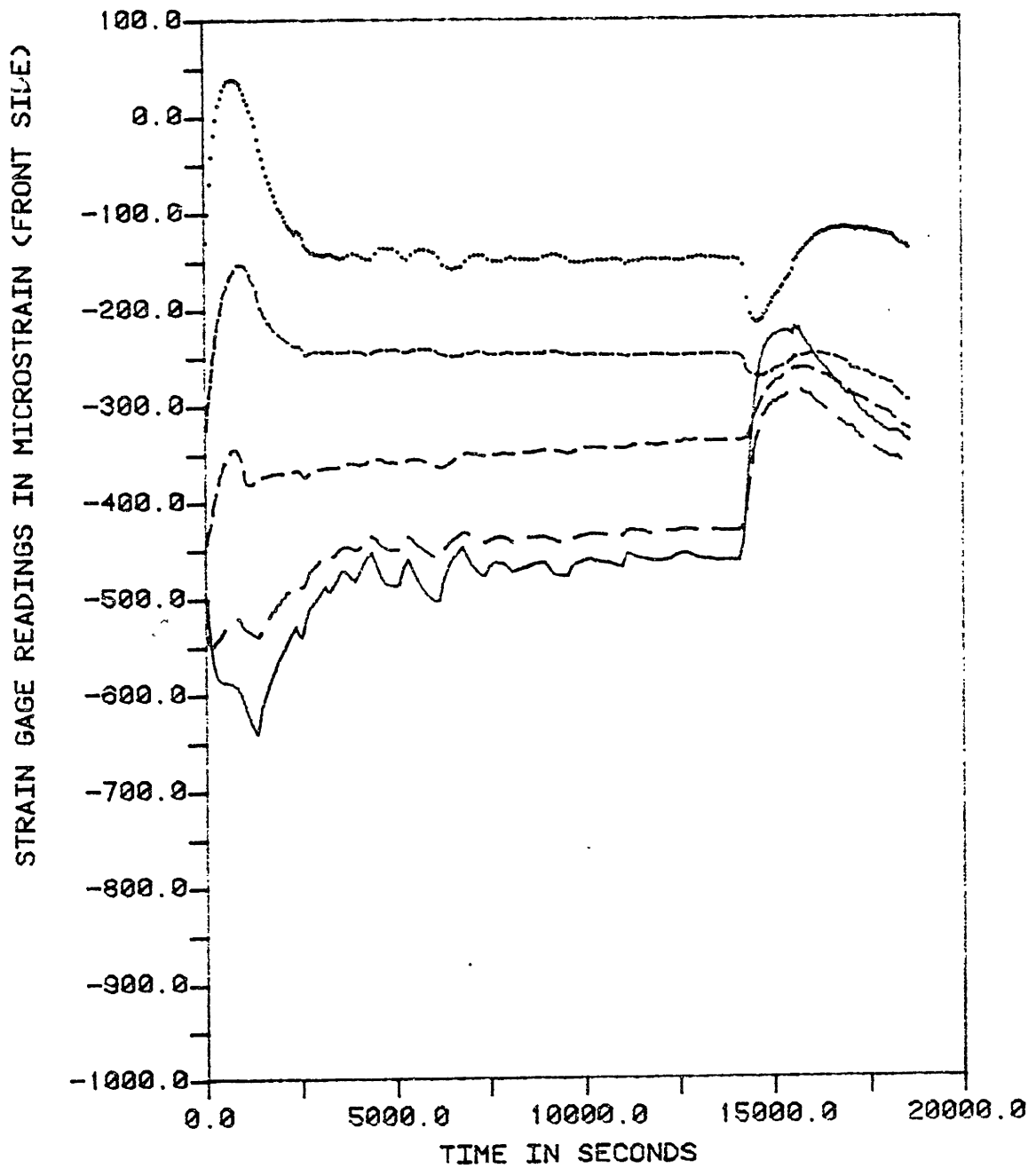
STRESS RELIEVING OF SPECIMEN #1

Figure 7.19 : Strains during stress-relieving of specimen #1 (corrected for temperature-induced apparent strain and gage factor variations)



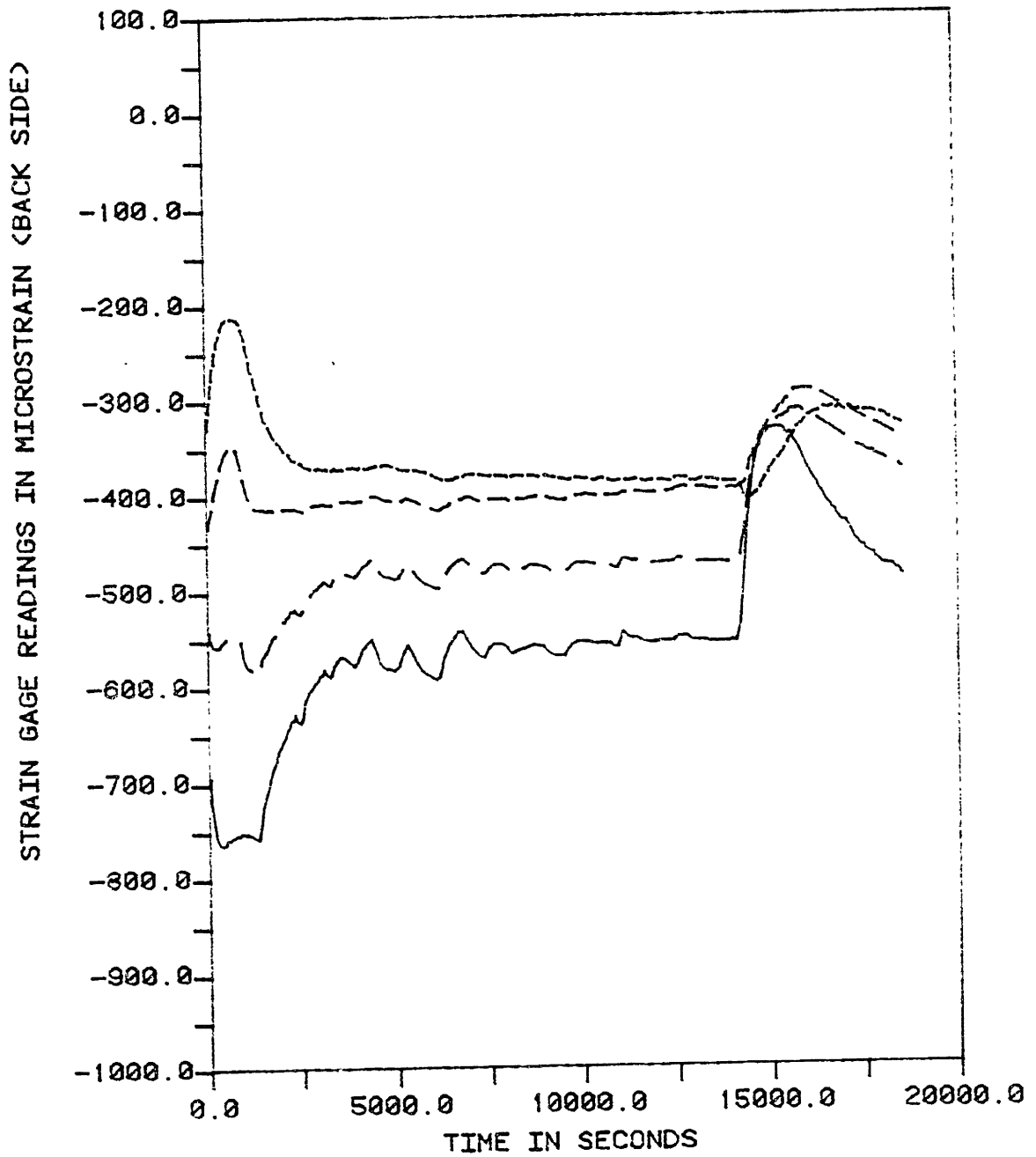
STRESS RELIEVING OF SPECIMEN #3

Figure 7.20 : Thermocouple readings during stress-relieving of specimen #3



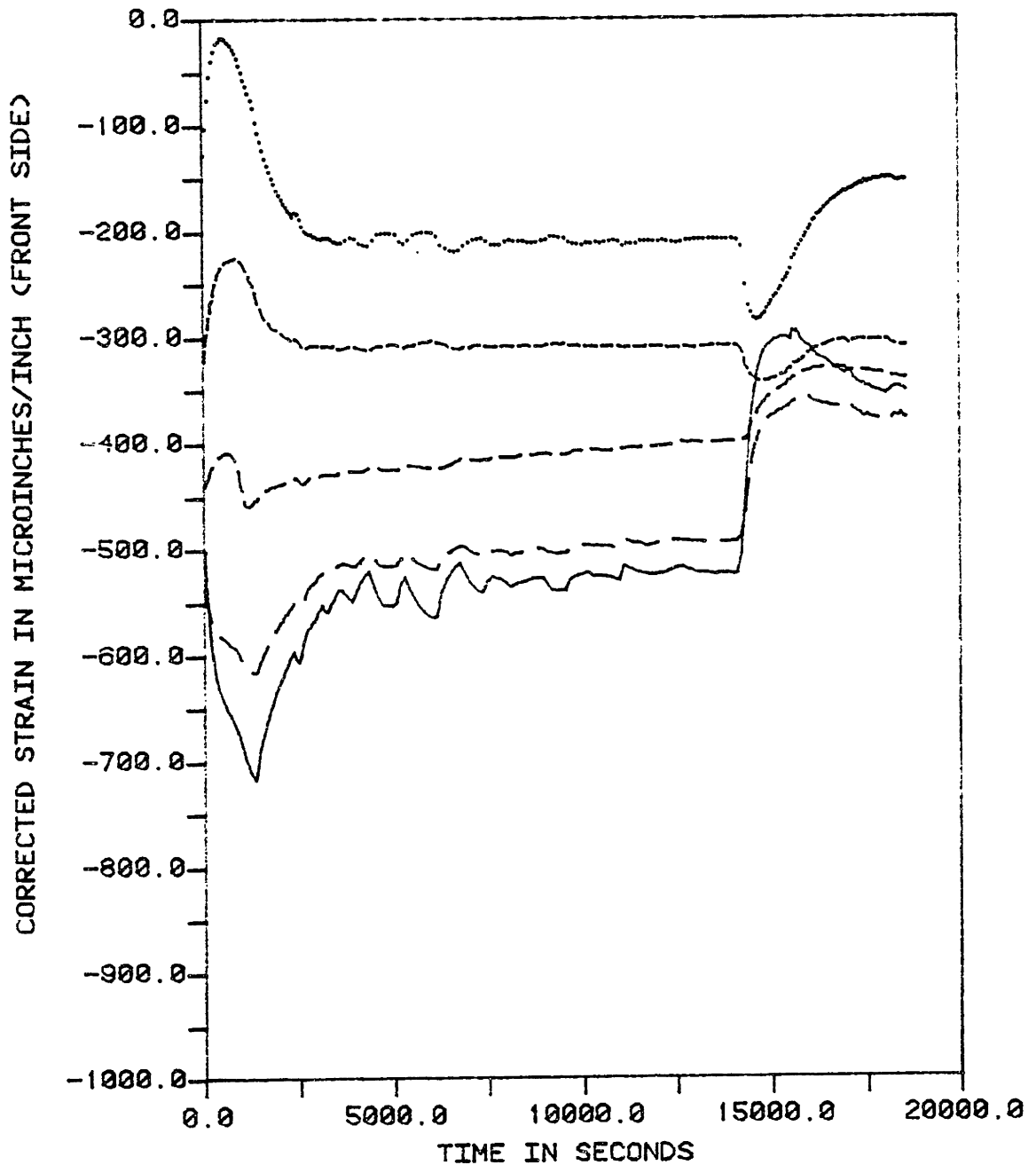
STRESS RELIEVING OF SPECIMEN #3

Figure 7.21 : Uncompensated strain gage readings during stress-relieving of specimen #3, front side



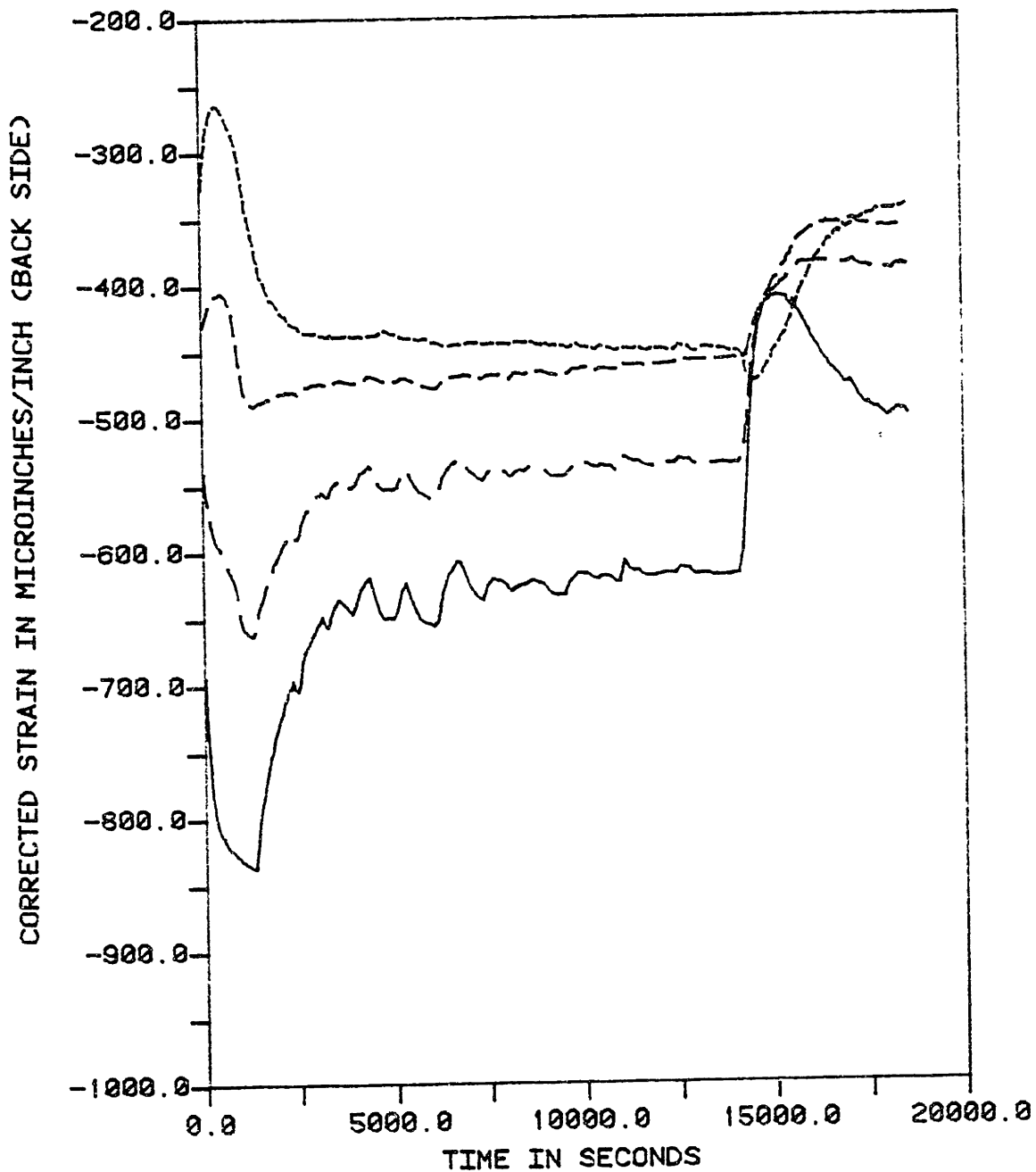
STRESS RELIEVING OF SPECIMEN #3

Figure 7.22 : Uncompensated strain gage readings during stress-relieving of specimen #3, back side



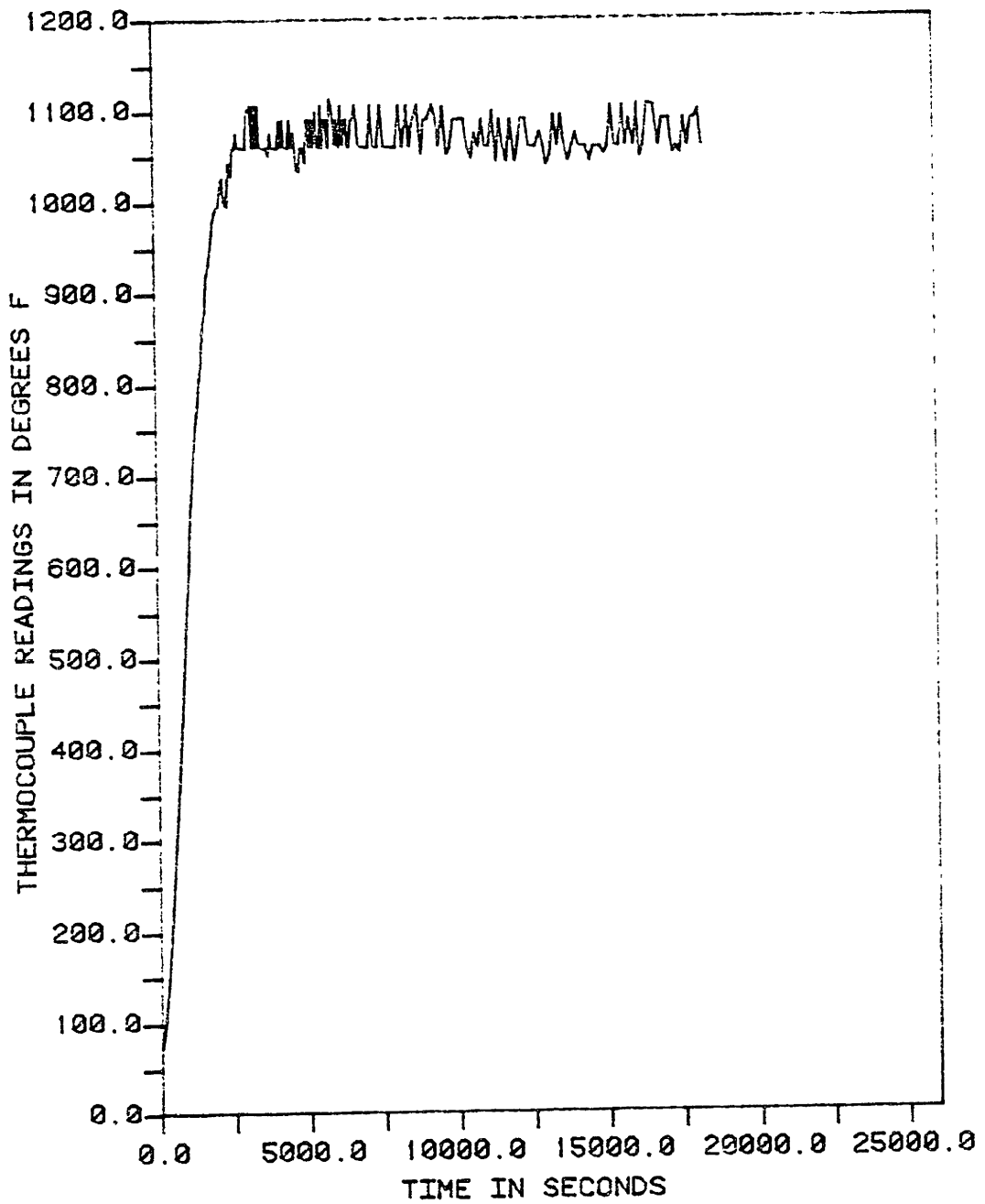
STRESS RELIEVING OF SPECIMEN #3

Figure 7.23 : Strains during stress-relieving of specimen #3, front side (corrected for temperature induced apparent strain and gage factor variations)



STRESS RELIEVING OF SPECIMEN #3

Figure 7.24 : Strains during stress relieving of specimen #3, back side (corrected for temperature induced apparent strain and gage factor variations)



STRESS RELIEVING OF SPECIMEN #4

Figure 7.25 : Thermocouple readings during stress-relieving of specimen #4

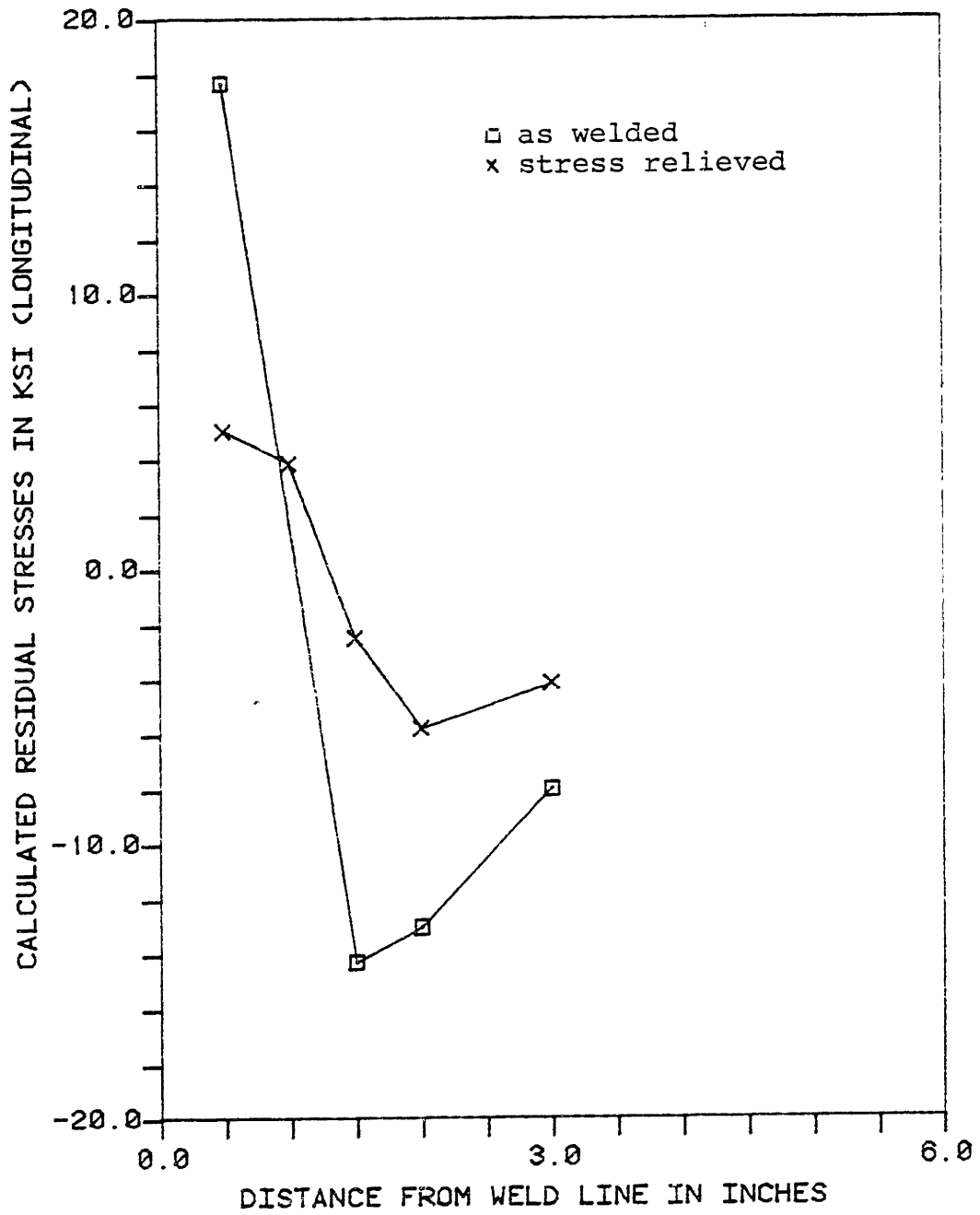


Figure 7.26 (a): Comparison of longitudinal residual stresses after welding and stress relieving (1100° F)

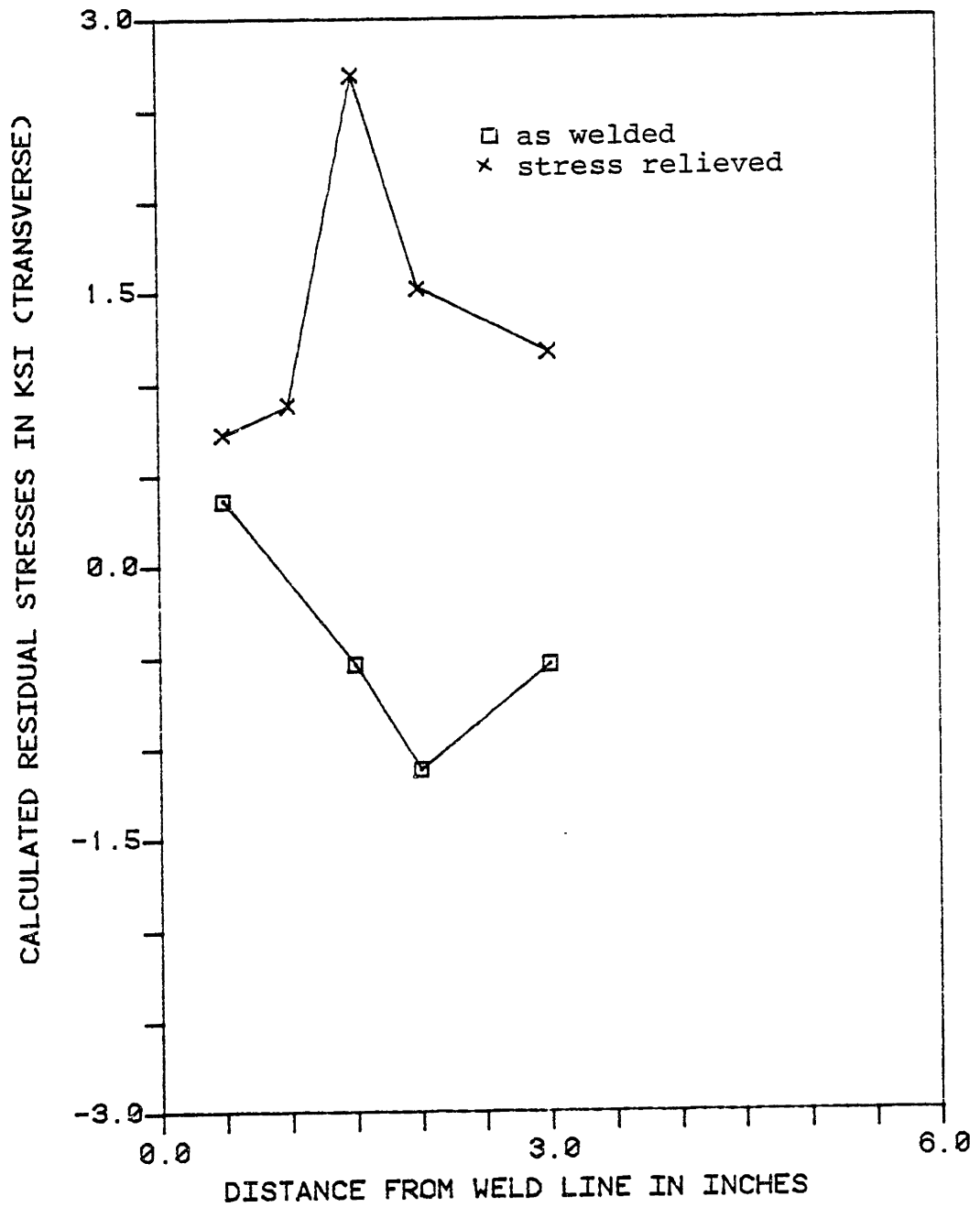


Figure 7.26 (b): Comparison of transverse residual stresses after welding and stress relieving (1100° F)

Table 7.1 : Strain gage readings before and after cutting

Location	$\bar{\epsilon}_{x\text{BEF}}$	$\bar{\epsilon}_{x\text{AFT}}$	$\Delta\bar{\epsilon}_x$	$\bar{\epsilon}_{y\text{BEF}}$	$\bar{\epsilon}_{y\text{AFT}}$	$\Delta\bar{\epsilon}_y$	σ_x	σ_y
	$\mu\text{in/in}$	$\mu\text{in/in}$	$\mu\text{in/in}$	$\mu\text{in/in}$	$\mu\text{in/in}$	$\mu\text{in/in}$	ksi	ksi
SPECIMEN #1								
1	-209	-722	-513	/	/			
2	-358	-121	237	/	/			
3	-400	32	432	/	/			
4	-280	106	386	/	/			
5	-195	101	296	/	/			
SPECIMEN #2								
1	0	-622	-622	0	175	175	17.71	0.36
2	1	+221	220	2	*	-	-	-
3	1	+499	498	-1	-133	-132	-14.26	-0.54
4	1	+448	447	2	-96	-98	-12.99	-1.12
5	1	+276	275	-159	-224	-65	- 7.95	-0.54
SPECIMEN #4								
1	1	-170	-171	-1	27	28	5.06	0.72
2	0	-128	-128	0	10	10	3.89	0.88
3	0	115	115	0	-121	-121	-2.45	2.69
4	-1	219	220	0	-115	-115	-5.77	1.52
5	-1	157	158	437	352	-85	-4.12	1.17

Key: / : Gage not installed

* : Gage destroyed during cutting

7.2 Comparisons with Predictions of the One-Dimensional Program

The predictions of the one-dimensional program for the case of edge welding and subsequent stress relieving are presented in this section. Welding conditions were assumed exactly the same as in the experiments and temperatures, strains and stresses were calculated across a center strip of the specimen throughout welding and stress relieving operations.

The actually used input data can be found in the end of Appendix C. A range of values was found in the literature for the arc efficiency, η_a , and surface heat loss coefficient, H , ([1],[37],[135]). Since, no experimental measurements of these parameters were made in this study, the actually selected values - more or less within that range - were such as to minimize the deviation of the predicted temperature history from the experimentally measured one.

The predicted temperatures, mechanical strains and stresses during welding are plotted in Figures 7.27, 7.28, 7.29. For ease of comparison with experimental data the same locations (0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0 and 3.0 inches from the weld line) are selected.

During stress relieving at 500^oF the assumed temperature history is shown in Figure 7.30 and the predicted variations in stress and mechanical strain are plotted, versus time, in Figures 7.31 and 7.32. A comparison of the predicted residual stress distribution after welding and after stress relieving are given in Figure 7.33. The assumed temperature history and the respective predictions for stress relieving at 1100^oF can

be found in Figures 7.34 to 7.37. It should, however, be noted that creep was taken into account only in the latter case (1100^oF) where creep properties were available (Appendix A).

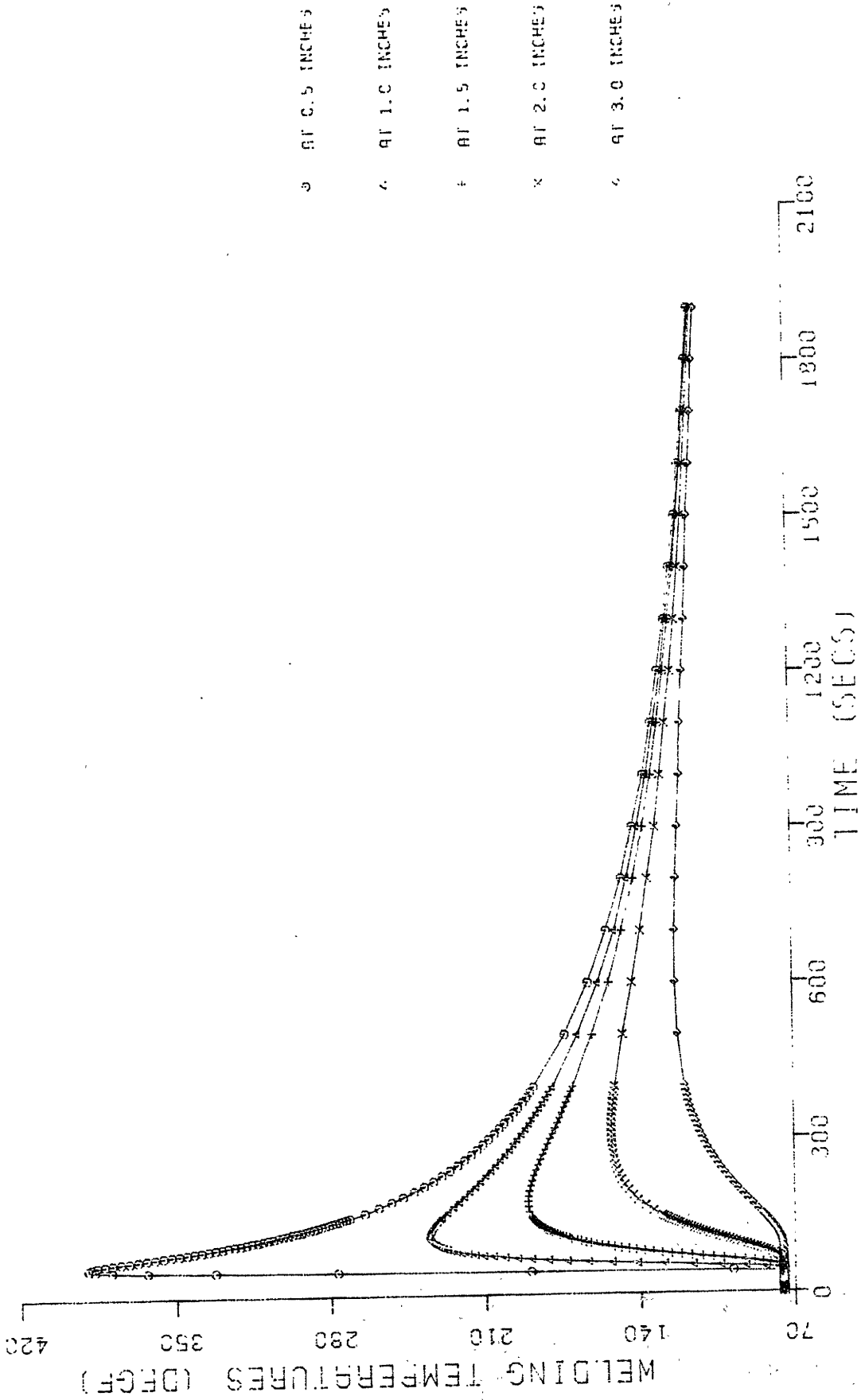


Figure 7.27 : Temperatures during edge welding, as predicted by the one-dimensional program

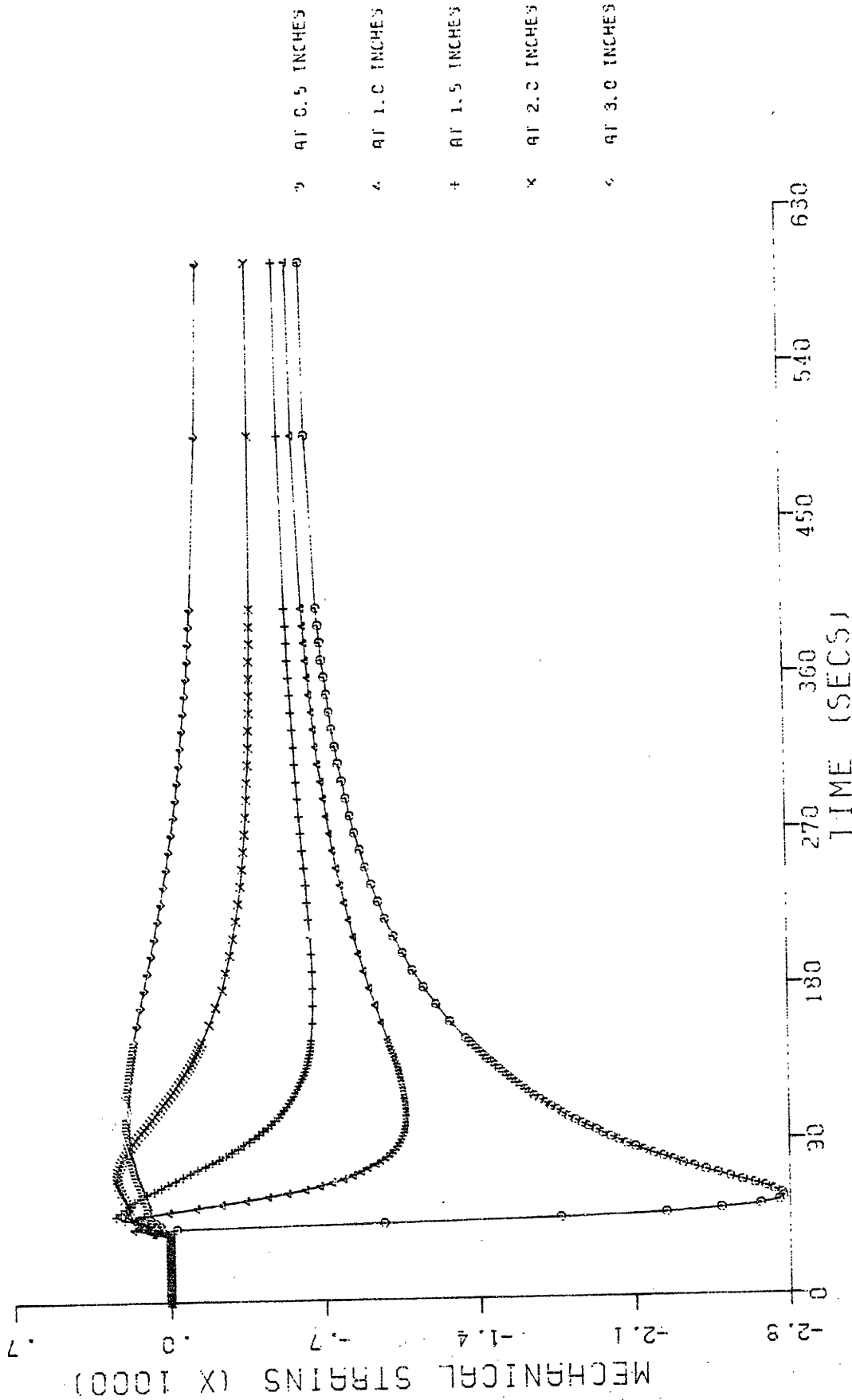


Figure 7.28 : Mechanical strains during edge welding as predicted by the one-dimensional program

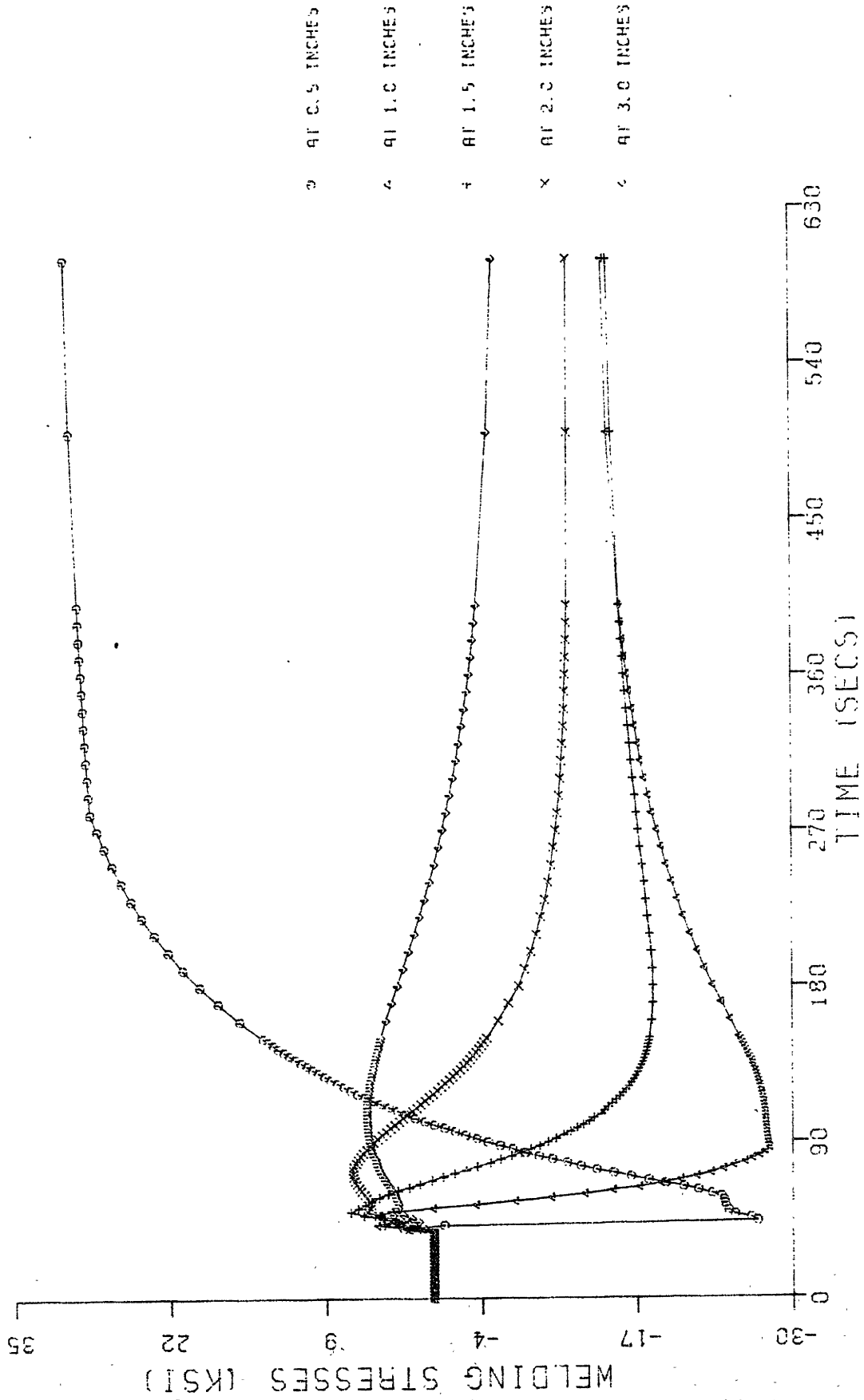


Figure 7.29 : Stresses during edge welding as predicted by the one-dimensional program

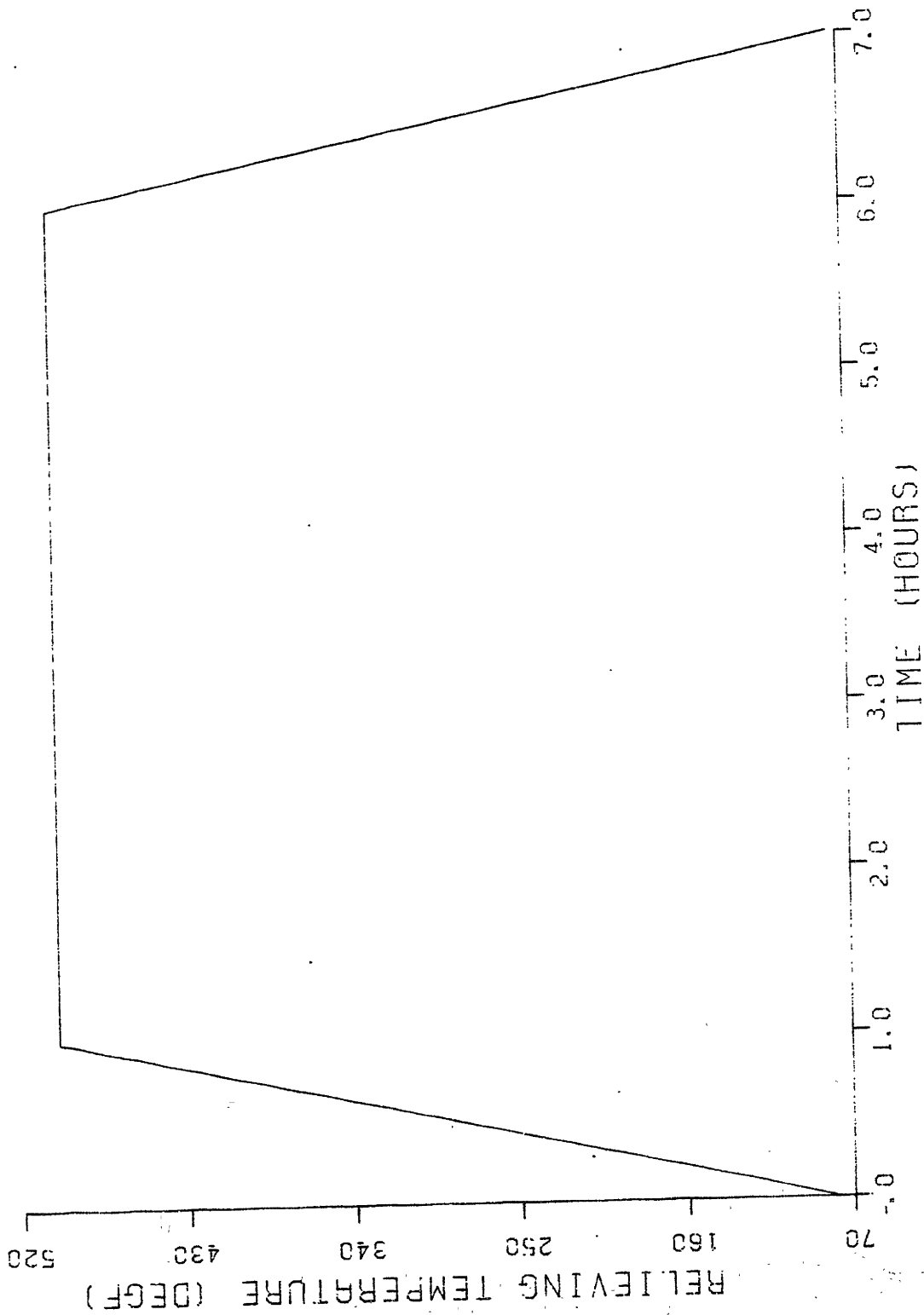


Figure 7.30 : Temperatures during stress-relieving at 500°F

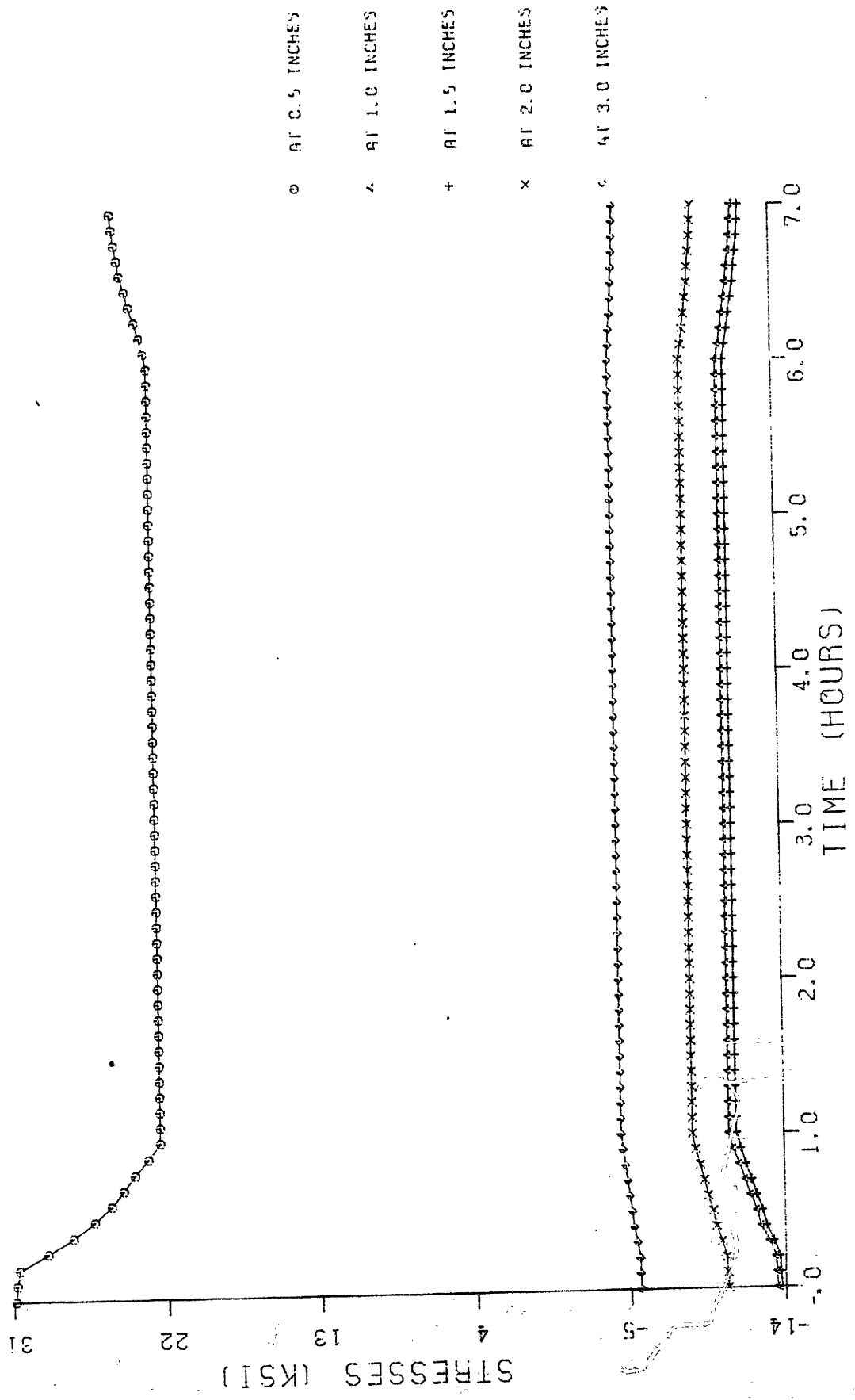


Figure 7.31 : Stresses during stress relieving at 500°F, as predicted by the one-dimensional program

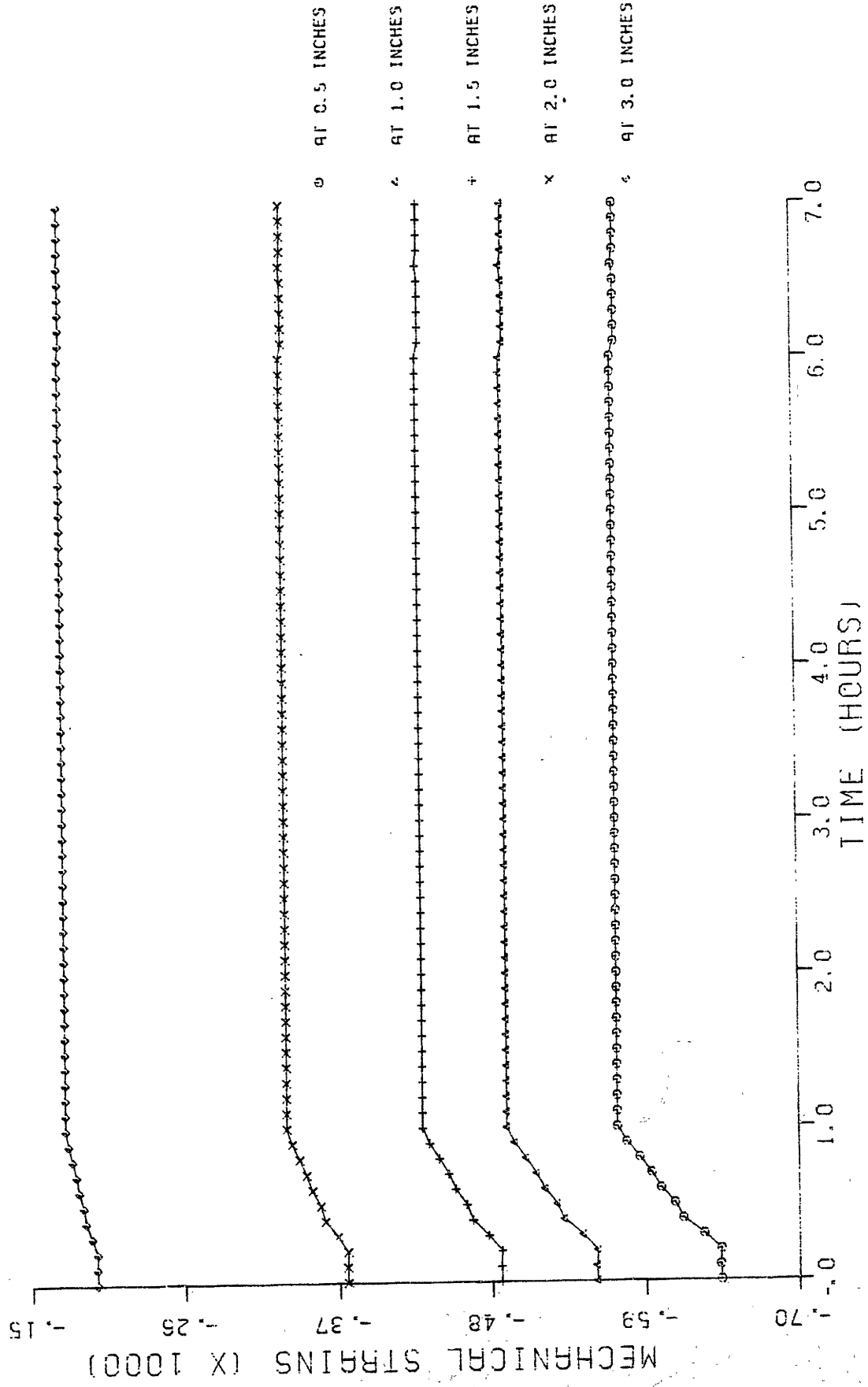


Figure 7.32 : Mechanical strains during stress relieving at 500°F, as predicted by the one-dimensional program

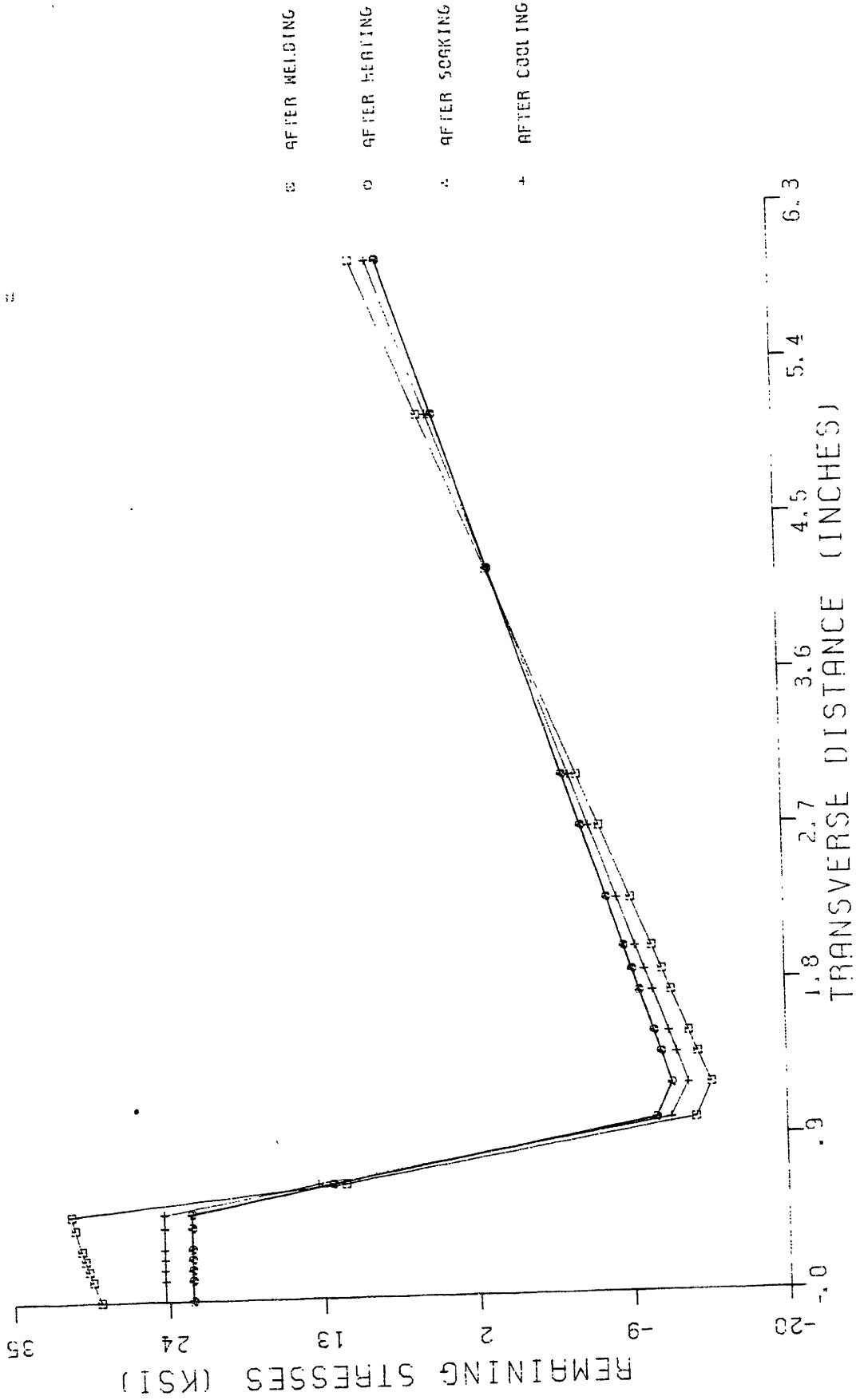


Figure 7.33 : Comparison of residual stresses before, during and after stress relieving at 500°F, as predicted by the one-dimensional program

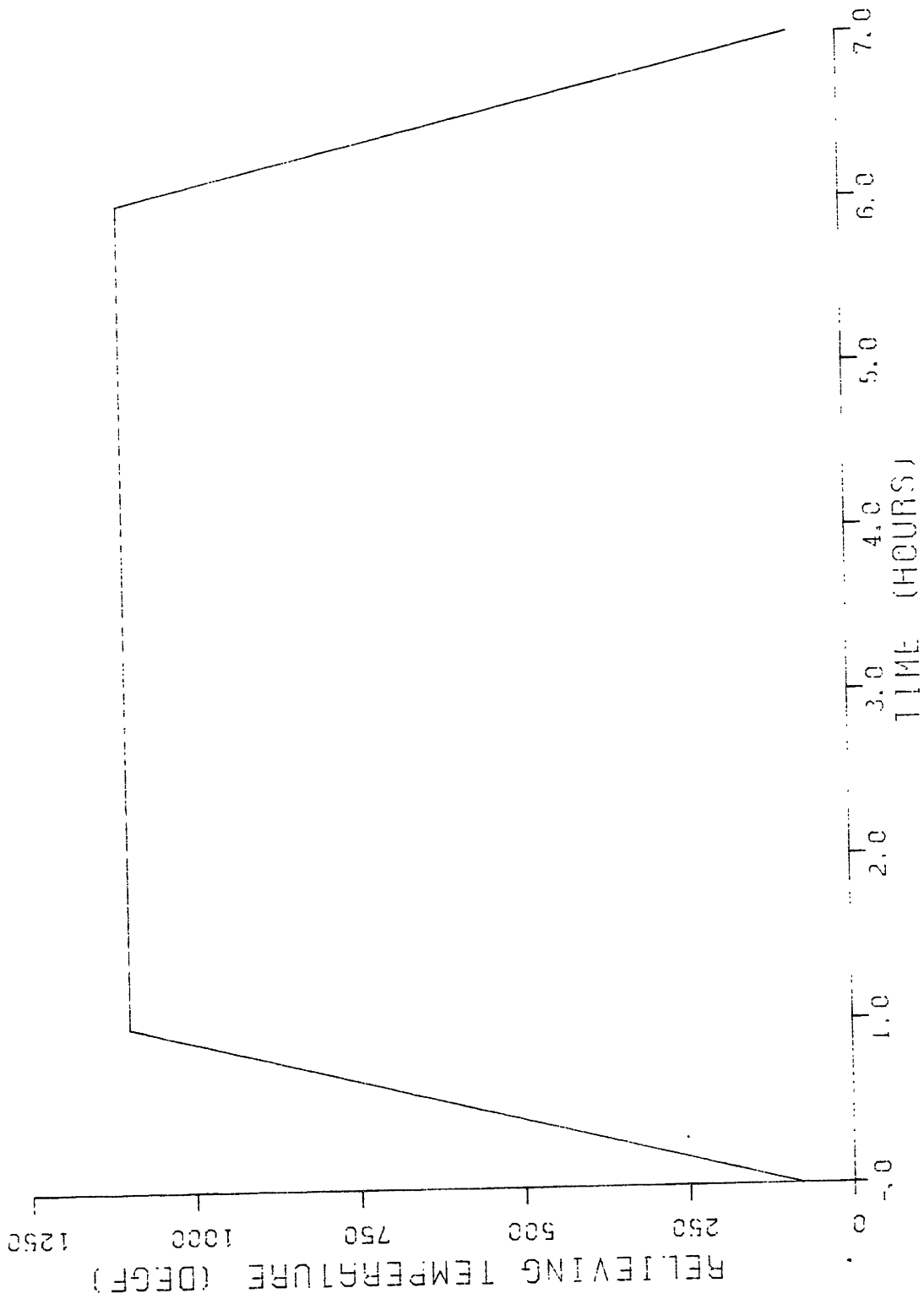


Figure 7.34 : Temperatures during stress relieving at 1100°F

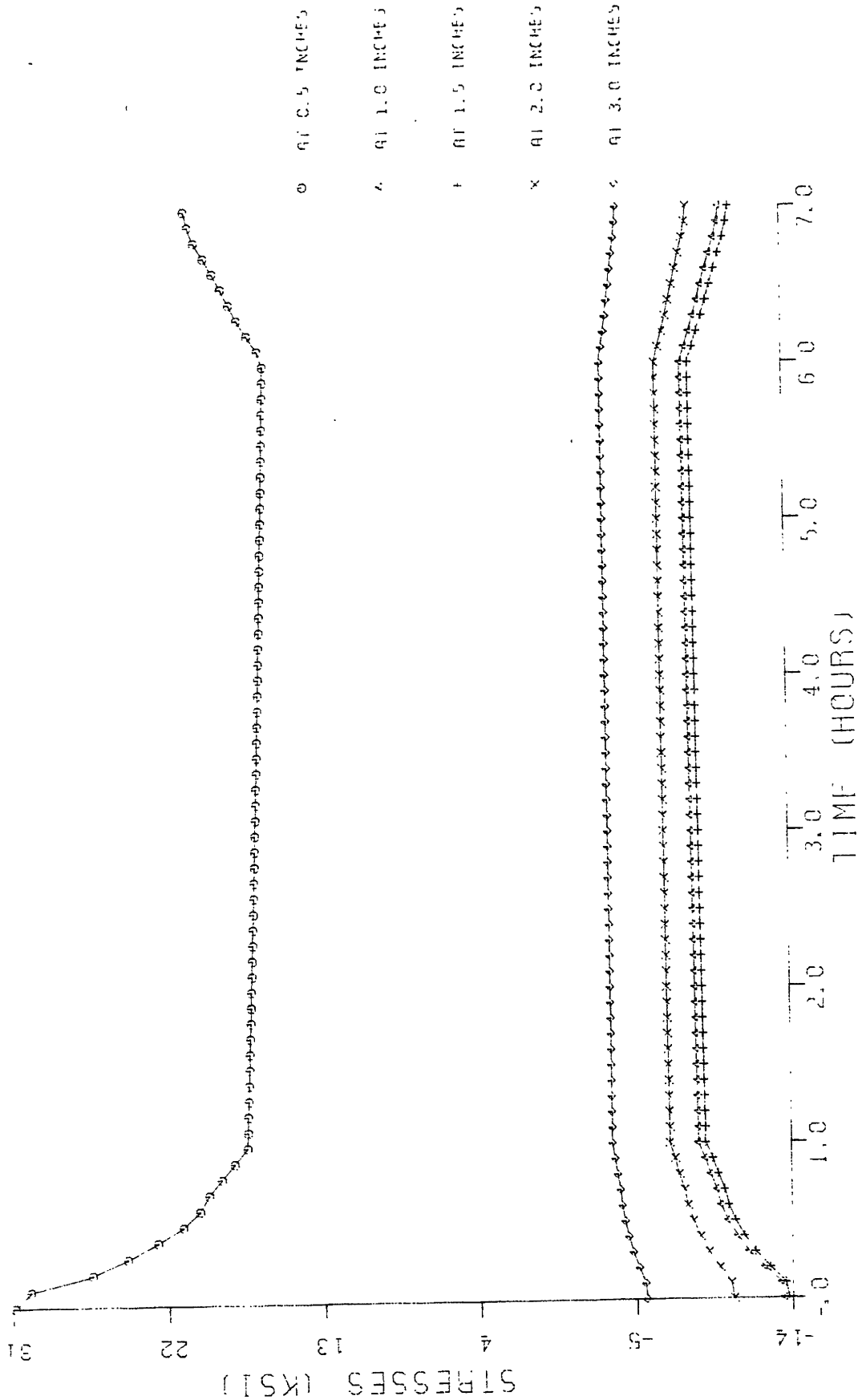


Figure 7.35 : Stresses during stress relieving at 1100°F, as predicted by the one dimensional program

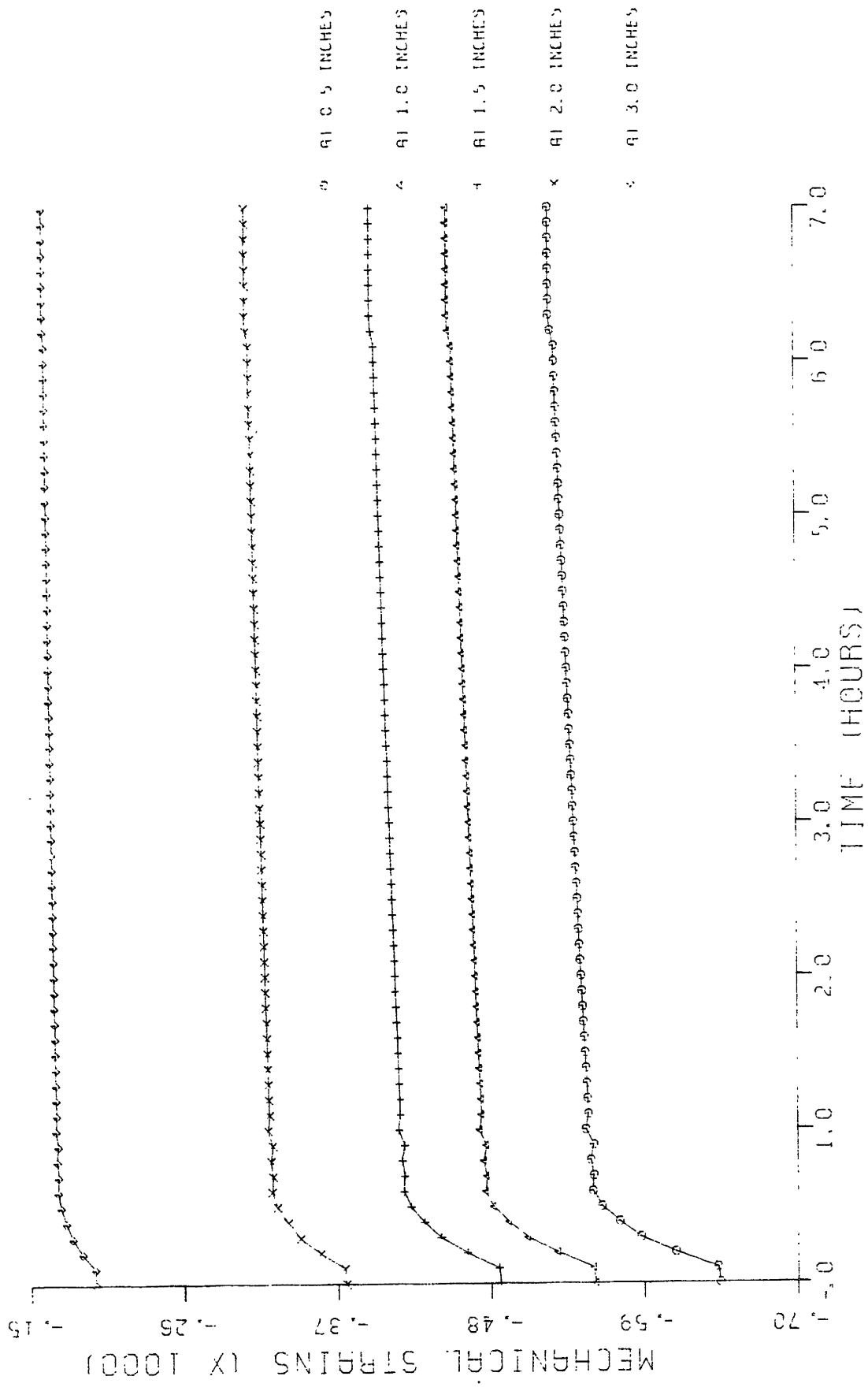


Figure 7.36 : Mechanical strains during stress relieving at 1100°F, as predicted by the one-dimensional program

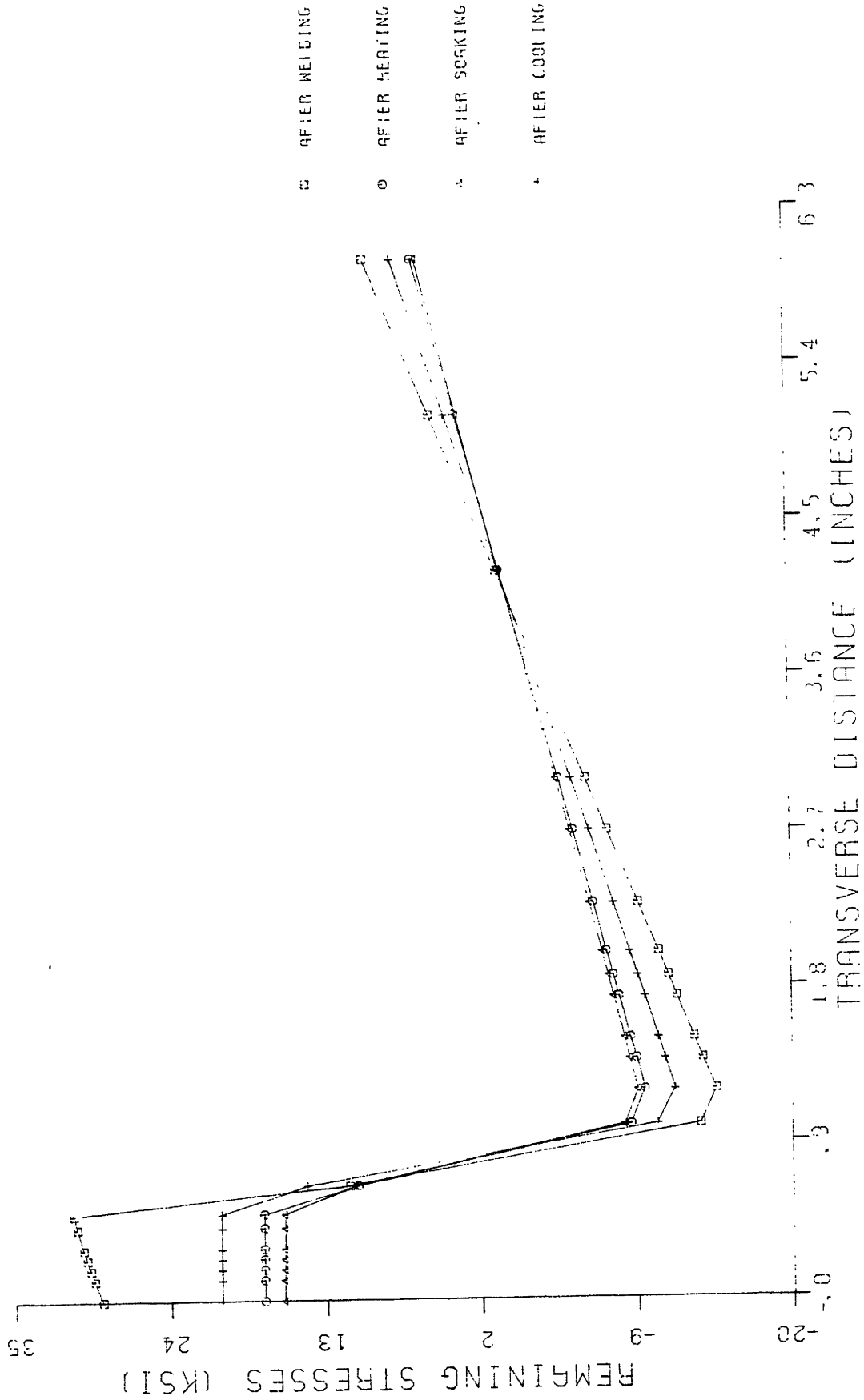


Figure 7.37 : Comparison of residual stresses before, during and after stress relieving at 1100°F as predicted by the one-dimensional program

7.3 Conclusions and Recommendations for Future Research

As evidenced in the previous sections, the correlation between the experimental results and the predictions of the one-dimensional model for temperatures strains and stresses during welding and subsequent stress relieving is quite good. However there exist a number of possibilities for further improvements, extensions and modifications:

(a) Further sensitivity analysis should be performed to investigate the effect of parameter variation on the model performance. Specifically, for example, it was noticed that small changes of the surface heat loss coefficient drastically affect the cooling rates. Furthermore the arc efficiency which is strongly dependend on the type of welding process, directly determines the heat input to the weld and thus the maximum temperatures attained.

(b) It is rather a straight forward procedure to modify the computer code so as it can accept any temperature history (as long as the temperature distribution is uniform over the specimen at any given time instant). However, it should be slightly more difficult to analyze the stress relaxation during localized heat treatments. Heat flow analysis - similar to the welding case - should be performed in the case of flame heating for example. As soon as the temperature distribution and history is known, however, the general stress analysis presented in chapter V is directly applicable.

(c) If the assumptions, on which the development of the one-dimensional model was based, are not any longer satisfied

two - or three - dimensional heat flow and stress analyses should be performed. A finite element model should then most possibly be appropriate. This would be the case for the localized heating of a thick plate or a pipe for example.

(d) Direct application of the developed model to the case of high strength steels, and HY-130 in particular, was prevented due to the lack of comprehensive creep data for these materials. The available information is summarised in Appendix A.

Stress relieving experiments on HY-130 (both uniform and flame heating) are, however, currently performed at M.I.T. and will be described in [128].

(e) The underlying objective of this part of the study was to analyze the effectiveness of the various stress relieving heat treatments and to identify possible improvements. However, it is also hoped that it is one step towards the development of a rational procedure for the selection of optimal stress relieving treatments that would give maximum residual stress relaxation with minimal effects on the integrity of the welded structure.

PART IV

ECONOMIC ANALYSIS

CHAPTER VIII

ECONOMIC ASPECTS OF WELDING

8.1 Introduction

In a construction industry ,such as shipbuilding,welding operations can account for 10 to 20% of the total fabrication time and welding departments usually employ more than 10% of the total labor force. These relatively high percentages can only dictate efforts towards cost reductions and/or productivity increases in the welding sector.

The introduction of high deposition rate processes ,such as submerged arc or electroslag welding , together with special procedures ,such as one sided welding or narrow gap welding were some initial steps towards increased productivity and efficiency. These developments should certainly be viewed as coupled to the major advancements in production technology that occurred during the past few decades ,such as rationalization of facilities and layout ,prefabrication of large units ,introduction of numerical control etc..

Nevertheless , the construction industry ,and especially shipbuilding was very slow to adopt,in large scale production, the recent advances in high energy processes (Electron Beam and Laser Welding) ,automation and robotics ,that would certainly boost productivity.This reluctance should be attributed to the low technology nature of the construction industry , the large investments necessary and the bad market conditions of 1970's , as well as to the technical difficulties of implementation.

When assessing the advantages of a new welding process or

procedure, however, it is necessary to be able to estimate comparative costs savings and productivity increases. Further, the welding costs must be accurately determined since they represent a part of the total product or job costs, and as such are necessary in price setting and bidding.

The next sections of this chapter deal with the determination of welding costs and the factors that affect them.

8.2 The Elements of Welding Cost

The costing of welds and weldments should be done according to generally accepted accounting principles and must fit into the cost accounting practices of a particular company or activity. In general, however, the cost of welding, and any other industrial process as well, includes the cost of direct materials and direct labor and a fair share of the indirect production costs (overhead costs).

The direct material costs include the costs of filler metals, shielding gas, fluxes and other miscellaneous materials (e.g. guide tubes in consumable guide electroslag welding or ferrules and studs in arc stud welding) directly consumed in the welding process. The basis for the determination of material costs is usually the amount of weld metal that must be deposited to produce the welded joint. In autogenous welding, where no filler metal is deposited the total weld length is used for the same purpose.

The direct labor costs are the ones that can be directly traced or related to welding operations. The basis for labor costing is time (time per weld, or time per unit length or time

to weld a part). When a time-rate wage system is used the time directly translates to labor costs. When another wage system is employed, as payment by results for example, again labor costs can be related to time per part or to parts welded per unit of time. In the determination of time the most relevant parameters are the rate of depositing weld metal and welding speed.

Overhead costs include all the indirect production costs such as indirect labor (supervisors janitors, inspectors, toolroom personel, timekeepers), indirect material costs and such services as heating, lighting, power, maintenance, depreciation, taxes and insurance related to assets used in the fabrication process. Additionally distirbution costs (marketing and selling) and general and administrative costs also are included in the full cost of a welded product. The basis for allocating these overhead costs varies depending on the practices of the company and the nature of the cost. Usually these costs are prorated according to the direct labor involved in fabricating the part, using a predetermined overhead rate. Extensive discussion of this subject can be found in the varions cost accounting texts, [129],[130].

At this point, it should be emphasized that the cost of a specific weld is not necessarily the only cost that must be determined to establish the cost of a weldment. The latter includes the cost of the weld and also the material required for the weldment, the preparation of the parts prior to welding, and the postweld treatment that might be required. Joint preparation varies according to the material thickness and to

joint design. Also some processes, such as electroslog and electrogas welding, require less accurate fit up and preparation than others. Postweld treatment includes final machining grinding and polishing, heat treating, shot blasting and possibly straightening. Some processes and some materials require more (or less) postweld treatment which influences the total cost of the weld and the weldment.

Although detailed analysis of the elements of welding cost and the factors influencing them, will be presented in the next few sections, some general comments are due here. Specifically it should be noted that field welding costs more than shop welding and welding in the horizontal, vertical, or overhead positions cost more than welding in the flat positions. Further, the local working conditions, availability of equipment, experience and skill of the welders, local power rates, special code requirements, weather and temperature conditions and industrial regulations might drastically affect the costs as well.

8.3 Material Costs

8.3.1 Weld Metal Requirements

For processes where filler metal is deposited, the basis for the calculation of the material cost is the amount of weld metal deposited in the joint. The latter can be estimated if the cross sectional area of the deposit, the length of the weld and the density of the weld metal are known.

Specifically:

$$(W.D.) = (C.S.A) \cdot (S.W.) \cdot (R.F.) \cdot a$$

(8-1)

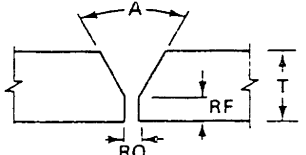
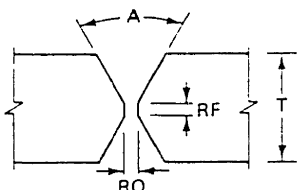
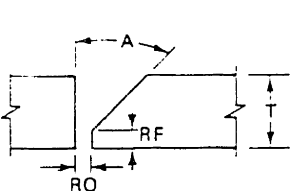
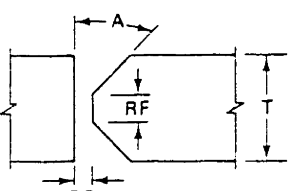
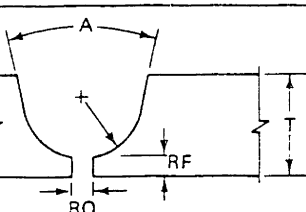
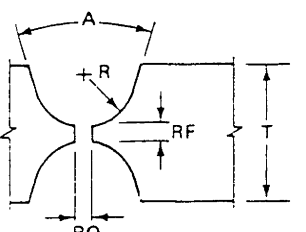
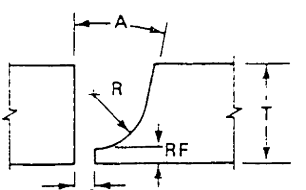
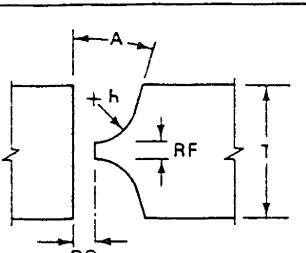
WELD	DESIGN	FORMULA FOR CROSS SECTION AREA
SINGLE V		$CSA = (T - RF)^2 \tan\left(\frac{A}{2}\right) + RO \times T$
DOUBLE V		$CSA = 1/2(T - RF)^2 \tan\left(\frac{A}{2}\right) + RO \times T$
SINGLE BEVEL		$CSA = 1/2(T - RF)^2 \tan A + RO \times T$
DOUBLE BEVEL		$CSA = 1/4(T - RF)^2 \tan A + RO \times T$
SINGLE U		$CSA = (T - R - RF)^2 \tan\left(\frac{A}{2}\right) + 2R(T - R - RF) + 1/2\pi R^2 + RO \times T$
DOUBLE U		$CSA = 1/2(T - 2R - RF)^2 \tan\left(\frac{A}{2}\right) + 2R(T - 2R - RF) + \pi R^2 + RO \times T$
SINGLE J		$CSA = 1/2(T - R - RF)^2 \tan(A + R)(T - R - RF) + 1/4\pi R^2 + RO \times T$
DOUBLE J		$CSA = 1/4(T - 2R - RF)^2 \tan(A + R)(T - 2R - RF) + 1/2\pi R^2 + RO \times T$

Figure 8.1 : Cross sectional areas for various designs

where: W.D. = Weight of deposit per unit length (lb/ft)
 C.S.A.= Cross-sectional area (in²)
 S.W. = Specific weight of weld metal (lb/in²)
 R.F. = Reinforcement factor
 a = Constant (12 for the units used)

The cross-sectional area can be calculated using straight forward geometric formulas if the exact joint preparation is known. Some cases are shown in figure 8.1 but more detailed tables can be found in the bibliography, [131].

The reinforcement factor has to be added to account for the fact that the weld surface will not be flush. A value of reinforcement of 10% is usually added to single groove welds and of 20% to double groove ones. 10% reinforcement is also added to fillet welds.

The equation (8-1) can be readily applied in the comparison of the material costs of various weld designs. However for more accurate calculations, test welds must be performed.

8.3.2 Filler Metal

The weight of the filler metal required is greater than the weight of the weld metal deposit. This is due to a loss of filler metal through spatter and slag formation and due to the unused electrode stub. The amount of this loss is accounted for by the deposition efficiency factor which is also called filler metal yield or recovery rate, and is the ratio of the weight of the deposited weld metal divided by the gross weight of the filler metal used.

Specifically the filler metal cost per unit length of weld

seam deposited, C_{FM} , is

$$C_{(F M)} = \frac{(W.D)}{(Y_{FM}\%)} P_{F M} \quad (\text{in } \$/\text{ft}) \quad (8-2)$$

where:

$W.D$ = Weight of deposit per unit seam length (lb/ft)

$Y_{FM}\%$ = Filler metal yield (%)

P_{FM} = Price of filler metal per unit of weight (\$/lb)

Filler metal yield varies with the process as can be seen in Table 8.1. The covered electrodes have the lowest yield of 55% to 75% due to a 7% to 15% end stub loss, 10% to 50% coating or slag loss and a 5% to 10% spatter loss. End losses are minimized when using continuous electrode wire where the scrap end weight is usually negligible compared to the total weight of the coil. Further the spatter loss is eliminated in submerged arc welding resulting in a 100% yield. In flux cored electrodes the deposition efficiency decrease to 75% or 85% due to the flux which is consumed and lost as slag.

An alternative way of calculating the cost of filler metal per unit length, C_{EL} , using short electrodes is based on the number of electrodes needed to produce a unit of weight of weld deposit, B (electrodes/lb), and the price per electrode, P_{EL} (\$/electrode).

$$C_{EL} = (W.D) \cdot B \cdot P_{EL} \quad (\text{in } \$/\text{ft}) \quad (8-3)$$

For the case of continuous wire processes another approach can also be followed. Specifically the weight of filler metal required per hour is given by :

Electrode Type and Process	Yield %
<u>Covered Electrode for:</u>	
SMAW 14" manual	55 to 65%
SMAW 18" manual	60 to 70%
SMAW 28" automatic	65 to 75%
<u>Solid Bare electrode for:</u>	
Submerged arc	95 to 100%
Electroslag	95 to 100%
Gas metal arc welding	90 to 95%
<u>Tubular-flux cored electrode for:</u>	
Flux cored arc welding	80 to 85%

Table 8.1 Filler metal yield-various types of electrodes

$$w_{FM} = \frac{V_{WF} \cdot a}{L_W} \quad (\text{in lb/hr}) \quad (8-4)$$

where: V_{WF} = the wire feed speed (in/min)

L_W = the length of wire per unit of weight (in/lb)

a = constant (60 for the units used)

The wire feed speed can be determined from charts, supplied by the wire feeder manufacturer, that relate the welding current to wire feed speed, depending on the size and composition of the electrode wire, the welding process and the molten metal transfer mode such a chart is shown in figure 8-2, adapted from [116]. The length per unit of wire weight is a physical property of the material and given in table 8-2 as a function of the wire diameter and type.

The weight of filler metal required per unit length of seam welded, w_{FM} , can now be calculated:

$$w_{FM} = \frac{w_{FM}}{V_{WT} \cdot a} \quad (\text{in lb/ft}) \quad (8-5)$$

where: V_{WT} = the weld travel speed (in/min)

a = constant (60 for the units used)

8.3.3 Flux Requirements

The cost of flux in submerged arc, electroslag or oxy-fuel gas welding can be related to the weight of weld metal deposited and may be calculated as:

$$C_{FLX} = P_{FLX} \cdot (W.D.) \cdot R_{FLX} \quad (8-6)$$

where : C_{FLX} = The cost of flux per unit weld seam deposited
(\$/ft)

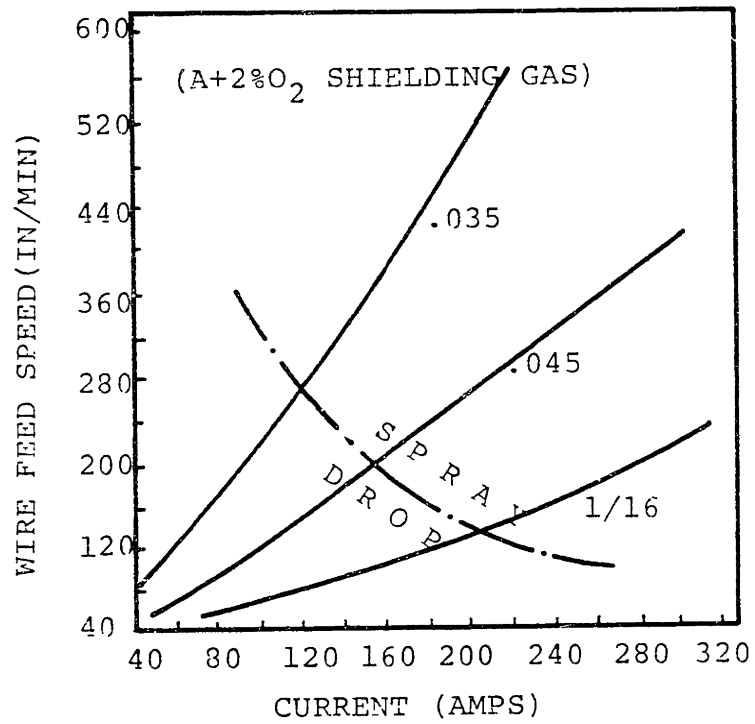


Figure 8-2: Wire feed speed vs current for stainless steel wires [116]

WIRE DIAMETER		MATERIAL										
Decimal Fraction	Inches	Aluminum	Alum. 10% Bronze	Silicon Bronze	Copper (deox)	Copper	Nickel	Magnesium	Nickel	Steel, Mild	Steel, Stainless	
0.020		32400	11600	10300	9800	9950	50500	9900	11100	10950		
0.025		22300	7960	7100	6750	6820	34700	6820	7680	7550		
0.030		14420	5150	4600	4360	4430	22400	4400	4960	4880		
0.035		10600	3780	3380	3200	3260	16500	3240	3650	3590		
0.040		8120	2900	2580	2450	2490	12600	2480	2790	2750		
0.045	3/64	6410	2290	2040	1940	1970	9990	1960	2210	2170		
0.062	1/16	3382	1120	1070	1020	1040	5270	1030	1160	1140		
0.078	5/64	2120	756	675	640	650	3300	647	730	718		
0.093	3/32	1510	538	510	455	462	2350	460	519	510		
0.125	1/8	825	295	263	249	253	1280	252	284	279		
0.156	5/32	530	189	169	160	163	825	162	182	179		
0.187	3/16	377	134	120	114	116	584	115	130	127		
0.250	1/4	206	74	66	62	64	320	63	71	70		

Table 8-2 : Length vs weight (inches per pound) of bare electrode wire of type and size shown.

P_{FLX} = The price of flux per unit weight (\$/lb)

R_{FLX} = The flux-to-steel weight ratio

The flux ratio varies with the process and the flux used, being approximately 1.0 for submerged arc welding and 0.05 to 0.1 for electroslag or oxy-fuel gas welding processes.

8.3.4 Shielding Gas Requirements

The cost of shielding gas is directly related to the time required to make the weld and the specified flow rate, $V_{S.G.}$. Specifically:

$$C_{SG} = \frac{P_{SG} \cdot V_{SG}}{V_{WT} \cdot 5} \quad (8-7)$$

where : C_{SG} = The cost of gas per unit length of weld (\$/ft)

P_{SG} = The price of gas (\$/ft³)

V_{WT} = The weld travel speed (in/min)

V_{SG} = The gas flow rate (ft³/hr)

Slightly different formulas should be employed when using CO₂ gas which is marketed in liquid form and sold per unit weight, or when calculating the total cost of shielding gas per weld.

8.4 Labor Costs

Welding, and particularly manual welding is a highly labor intensive manufacturing process. The cost of labor is probably the single greatest component in the total welding cost. The basis for the determination of labor costs is generally the time required to make a weld or a weldment.

Various wage systems are employed in production processes today but we can in general distinguish between the flat hourly wage and the productivity, or incentives related, wage systems.

Table 8-3 : Suitable wage systems for welding

Sector	Nature of work	Supervision	Wage system
Shipbuilding, steel construction	Long or numerous welds of the normal type	Foremen, inspectors	Piecework by length
Construction of machines and apparatus	Series of small workpieces always with equal welds	Foremen, inspectors	Piecework by no of pieces or bonus per piece
Container construction	Pressure tanks	Welding engineer, NDT inspection, X-ray tests	Flat rate with wage allowance
Car and vehicle construction	Series, car frames	Foremen, inspectors	Piecework by no of pieces
Construction of apparatus for the chemical industry	Corrosion-resistant joints	Welding engineer, all kinds of tests, ultrasonics, X-ray, crack and halogen tests	Flat rate with wage allowance
Pressure tanks, bridge building	Highly refractory steel, fine-grain steel, preheating of butt welds	Welding engineer, X-ray and crack tests	Productivity wage, flat rate with wage allowance
All sectors	Straightening	Foreman	Flat rate with wage allowance
All sectors	Tacking, one-off production	Foreman	As for assembly line workers, flat rate with wage allowance
All sectors	Tacking, series	Foreman	Piecework by no of pieces or workpiece bonus

Detailed discussion on these systems can be found in [132] and [133] Table 8-3 lists suitable wage systems for various sectors of the fabrication industry together with some information on the nature of the work.

Only the time rate systems will be examined in this section however. Specifically for a single-pass weld or for Gas Tungsten Arc or Plasma Arc welding processes where weld metal is not deposited the labor costs per unit length of seam welded arc (in \$/ft).

$$C_L = \frac{P_W}{V_{WT} \cdot (OF) \cdot a} \quad (8-8)$$

where: P_W = The welder pay rate (in \$/hr)
 V_{WT} = The weld travel speed (in in./min)
 OF = The operator factor (%)
 a = Constant (5 for the units used)

The welder pay rate may, or may not, include fringe benefits (as cost of insurance, holidays, vacations etc) and should be determined according to the accounting practices of the company or activity.

The weld travel speed is known from the welding procedure schedule . Finally the operator factor , or arcing factor, is the same as duty cycle, that is the percentage of arc time against the total allowed or paid time . Specifically

$$OF = \frac{t_{arc}}{t_{arc} + t_{idle} + t_{electrode\ change} + t_{movement}} \quad (8-9)$$

As can be seen from figure 8-3 operator factors vary

considerably depending on the nature of the process, arrangement of the work use of fixtures and positioners, and also on the location (field or shop).

When the welding procedure schedule is not available or when welding involves more than one pass the following equation should be used for the labor cost per unit length of weld deposited (in \$/ft).

$$C_L = \frac{P_W \cdot (W.D.)}{(D.R.) \cdot (O.F.)} \quad (8-10)$$

where : P_W = The welder pay rate (\$/hr)

W.D.= The weight of weld metal deposited per unit length (lb/ft)

D.R.= The deposition rate (lb/hr)

The deposition rate expresses the weight of filler metal deposited in a unit of time and can be calculated as:

$$D.R. = \frac{V_{WF} \cdot a}{L_W \cdot Y_{FM}} \quad (\text{lb/hr}) \quad (8-11)$$

where : V_{WF} = The wire feed rate or melt off rate (in./min)

L_W = The length of electrode per unit weight (in./lb) (table 8-2)

Y_{FM} = The filler metal yield (%)

a = Constant (60 for the units used)

Deposition rates for various processes are given in figure 8.4, plotted versus weld current. Accurate calculation however requires some test welds to be performed.

8.5 Power and Overhead Costs

Electric power cost is usually considered as a part of

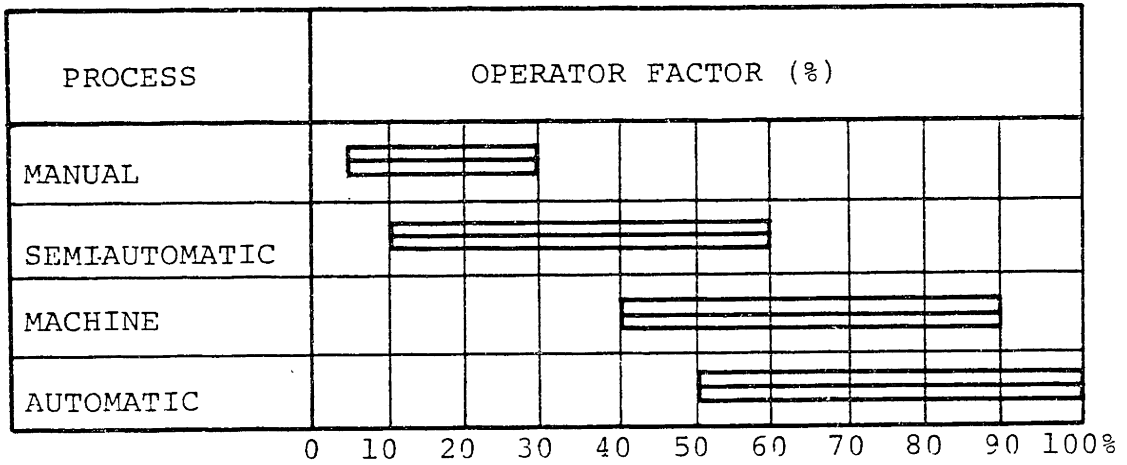


Figure 8-3 : Operator factor for various processes

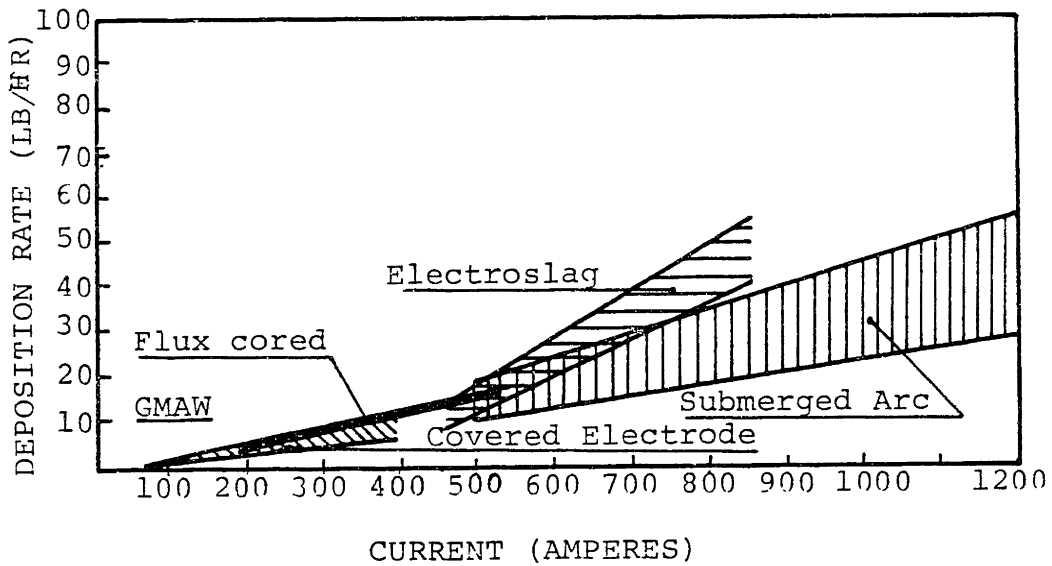


Figure 8-4 : Deposition rate vs current for various processes

overhead expense. Specifically for welding, however, it is sometimes considered a direct cost and is charged against the particular job. In such a case the following equation should be used for the cost of electric power per unit length of seam welded: (in \$/ft).

$$C_{EP} = \frac{P_{EP} \cdot V \cdot I \cdot (W.D.)}{(D.R.) \cdot (O.F.) \cdot n_{PS} \cdot a} \quad (8-12)$$

where :

- P_{EP} = The local power rate (\$/kwh)
- V, I = The welding voltage and current
- (W.D.) = The weight of weld metal deposited per unit length (lb/ft)
- (D.R.) = The deposition rate (lb/hr)
- (O.F.) = The operator factor (%)
- n_{PS} = The power source efficiency (%)
- a = Constant (1000 for the units used)

The power source efficiency varies with the equipment size and quality and is approximately as follows: [134]

d.c. welding generators	45-60%
a.c. welding generators	65-70%
welding rectifier	65-75%
welding transformers	75-85%

Overhead costs include as was already mentioned all the costs that cannot be directly charged to the individual job or weldment. These costs are allocated pro rata among all work going through the plant. If the overhead rate is known (in \$/hr) then the total overhead cost per unit length of weld seam can be calculated from equation (8-8), for single pass welding, or

equation (8-10), for multipass welding, with the overhead rate substituted for the welder pay rate.

8.6 Conclusions

The previous sections of this chapter focused on the calculation of the various elements of welding costs. The methods described should be used in order to compare different welding processes or procedures in terms of cost or efficiency. However, it should be noted that, as in all the cases of alternate choice decisions, only the costs that are actually different in the two alternatives should be taken into account. This is particularly true for the components of overhead costs, which do not always vary proportionally with direct labor costs, as the use of a standard overhead rate might superficially suggest.

Cost evaluation of the weld joint designs and the welding procedures should always be made, since weld metal is usually the most expensive metal involved in steel fabrication. The various possibilities for cost reductions are briefly highlighted in the next chapter.

CHAPTER IX
COST REDUCTIONS REALIZABLE THROUGH
WELD METAL STRENGTH UNDERMATCHING

9.1 Introduction - Possibilities for Cost Reductions

As was mentioned in the previous chapter welding is a sector of the construction industry, where a small percentage of cost reduction or productivity improvement represents a significant overall cost saving. This is mainly due to the fact that welding is a highly labor intensive process.

Cost reductions can be realized in various ways. Some general guidelines that could be followed are:

- (a) Eliminate welded joints whenever possible substituting them with rolled sections, formed plates, or small castings.
- (b) Limit field welding by prefabricating larger units in the shop.
- (c) Reduce the cross sectional area of welds, utilizing smaller root openings, smaller groove angles and double-instead of single-groove preparations.
- (d) Utilize fillet welds with caution, since doubling their size and strength results in quadrupling their weight.
- (e) Use positioners and fixtures to limit the extent of overhead or vertical welding that must be performed.
- (f) Modify the design to permit easy accessibility to all welds.
- (g) Reduce labor costs by utilizing, whenever applicable semi- or fully-automated welding processes and or welding robots.
- (h) Limit the number of electrodes that should be used in the fabrication of a part.

(i) Avoid complex preparations or post welding treatments selecting proper weld and base metal combinations.

Particularirly for high strength steels, however, the existing specifications require preheat and interpass temperature controls, electrode controls and post weld magnetic particle testing that unavoidably result in increased fabrication costs. Most of these requirements are results of the well established philosophy of weld metal strength overmatching. However, as was shown by various investigators, whose work was presented in chapter II, some of these requirements can be relaxed, or eliminated, when a lower yield strength filler metal is used in conjunction with a lower hydrogen process.

A more detailed analysis of the possibilities for cost reductions in the fabrication of HY-80 steel, through weld metal strength undermatching, will be presented in the next few sections of this chapter.

9.2 Preheating and Preheat Control

9.2.1 Existing Preheating Requirements for HY-80 steels

The reason for preheating in HY-steels systems is to reduce cracking. It is generally believed that preheating results in slower cooling rates and thus permits greater quantities of hydrogen to diffuse from the weld zone. Additionally, the more uniform cooling results in lower thermal stresses and thus reduces the likelihood of cracking.

The existing preheat requirements when welding HY-80 steels are summarized in table 9-1. Lower preheating temperatures are accepted for thinner sections since the diffusion path is

THICKNESS	PREHEAT/INTERPASS MINIMUM		PREHEAT/INTERPASS MAXIMUM	
	MIL-11018	MIL-9018 Gas Metal Arc Sub arc	Austenitic Electrodes (1)	All Electrodes
1 1/8" and over	200°F	150°F	125°F	300°F
From 1 1/8" to 1/2"	125°F	150°F	125°F	300°F
1/2" and less	60°F	60°F	60°F	300°F

(1) Post weld NDT is not required when using austenitic electrodes

Table 9-1: HY-80 Preheat requirements

reduced and the level of restraint is lowered. Also lower levels of preheat are permitted when welding with lower yield strength electrodes (MIL-9018) and lower hydrogen processes (G.M.A. and submerged arc welding). As was mentioned in earlier chapters, lower yield strength electrodes would result in lower residual stresses. Therefore, since hydrogen cracking is directly related to the level of imposed or residual stresses, the use of lower yield-strength filler metal should effectively reduce cracking. Therefore a corresponding reduction in preheat should be tolerated. Further it should then be possible even to eliminate preheat for certain combinations of material thicknesses and joint designs. This is where substantial savings would result, as will be analyzed in the next section.

9.2.2 Cost Reductions Realizable Through the Elimination of Preheat

The cost of preheating is the single most significant factor contributing to the higher cost of fabricating HY-80 steel structures . Thus the elimination of preheating, even in some cases only, would substantially reduce fabrication costs. The simple reduction of the level of preheat would marginally reduce costs, however, since it would only lower the power consumption but would not affect other more significant cost elements.

Specifically the main elements of the preheating cost are the following:

- (a) Capital cost of the necessary facilities, such as the central power station and switch gear.

(b) Cost of electric power for preheating, which largely exceeds the power costs of the welding operations.

(c) Capital and replacement costs of the preheating devices, which have relatively short lifespan. The cost of the necessary temperature control devices would also be included here.

(d) The direct labor costs of applying and supervising the heating operation.

Additionally the preheating operation increases the fabrication costs through:

(a) Reduced productivity due to the high temperature environment in which the welders would have to work. Temperatures between 200^oF and 300^oF are usually specified making it practically impossible to weld in a tight spot or an enclosed area.

(b) Scheduling problems due to the trades disruption caused by preheating. The areas being preheated are not accessible to other trades, when in high temperature.

(c) Delays in the outfitting phase caused when welding attachments to the basic HY-80 structures an operation which also requires preheating.

It should be emphasized again, at this point, that the simple reduction of the level of preheating in thick plate butt welds, possible when using lower strength electrodes, has only a minimal effect on the total cost. These welds are usually performed in open unrestricted areas, most often during prefabrication. Furthermore they only represent a small percentage of the total welding that must be performed.

There are, however, numerous attachments, brackets,

stiffeners or foundations, usually made of a lower yield strength steel, which have to be welded on the basic HY-80 structures. It is believed that use of lower yield strength electrodes would permit the total elimination of preheating in these welds. Such an improvement would have a drastic effect on the total cost.

9.3 Electrode Selection and Moisture Controls

The existing specifications for electrode storage and handling require that electrodes should be baked after they are received from the manufacturer, and kept in special dry conditioners in order to ensure that their initial moisture level is minimal. Furthermore once issued they can only be exposed to the atmosphere for five hours and should then be rebaked. This results in issuing electrodes at least twice during the normal eight hour shift, a practice which certainly disrupts the work and reduces productivity.

Lower yield strength metals used in electrodes with special moisture resistant coatings were shown to permit exposure periods over the eight hour shift. This would certainly improve scheduling and productivity.

Additionally lower strength filler metal can permit the use of a single electrode (e.g. E 9018) for joining to HY-80 other steels of lower yield strength (35 to 55 ksi). This would alleviate the problem of having to identify the various materials during fabrication and to use a different electrode for each combination and therefore would certainly reduce the fabrication costs drastically.

The single electrode would undermatch HY-80, but would overmatch the lower yield strength attachments. This would cause no problem, however, since these steels do not have a microstructure sensitive to hydrogen cracking.

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A P P E N D I C E S

APPENDIX A

MATERIAL PROPERTIESA.1 HY-80 Steel

HY-80 is a low alloy Ni-Cr-Mo steel of a minimum yield strength of 80 Ksi (552 MPa) and excellent toughness. It is the primary U.S. Navy hull construction material and achieves its strength and toughness through a quenching and tempering heat treatment.

Table A.1 summarizes the compositional ranges for the steel. Mechanical properties specifications are, according to MIL-S-16216G, outlined in Table A.2.

TABLE A.1 Compositional Ranges of HY-80, HY-130 and 304 Stainless Steel (weight, %)

<u>Element</u>	<u>HY-80 [106]</u>	<u>HY-130 [106]</u>	<u>304 Stainless [108]</u>
C	0.18 max	0.08-0.12	0.08 max
Mn	0.10-0.40	0.60-0.90	2.00 max
Si	0.15-0.35	0.20-0.35	1.00 max
Ni	2.00-3.25	4.75-5.25	8.00-10.50 (or 11.0)
Cr	1.00-1.80	0.40-0.70	18.00-20.00
Mo	0.20-0.60	0.30-0.65	0.50 max
V	0.03 max	0.05-0.10	-
S	0.025 max	0.010 max	0.030 max
P	0.025 max	0.010 max	0.045 max
S+P	0.045 max	-	-
Ti	0.02 max	0.02 max	-
Cu	0.25 max	0.25 max	-

Table A.2 : Specification Limits of HY-80 Mechanical Properties [2]

PROPERTY	PLATE THICKNESS	
	Less than 5/8 in.(16mm) 5/8 in.(16mm) and over	
Ultimate Strength	For information	For information
Yield Strength at 0.2% Offset	80 to 100 Ksi (552 to 690 MPa)	80 to 95 Ksi (552 to 655 MPa)
Min. Elongation in 2 in. (50mm)	19%	20%
Reduction in area Longitudinal	---	55%
Transverse	--	50%
Charpy V-Notch Energy Requirements		
Plate Thickness	Specimen Size	Absorbed Energy Minimum
1/4 in.(6mm) to 1/2 in.(13mm) Excl.	10 x 5 mm (0.4x0.2 in.)	For information
		-120° F (-84°C)
1/2 in.(13mm) to 2 in.(50mm) Incl.	10 x 10 mm (0.4x0.4 in.)	50 ft-lb (72.8 J)
		-120° F (-84°C)
Over 2 in. (50mm)	10 x 10 mm	30
	(0.4x0.4 in.)	(43.7 J)
		-120° F (-84°C)

A.2 HY-130 Steel

HY-130 steel is a Naval hull-construction steel with a minimum yield strength between 130 and 150 Ksi (895 MPa to 1030 MPa), also referred to, in different stages of development, as 5 Ni-Cr-Mo-V, HY-150, HY-140, HY-130/150 and HY-130(T). The steel is to be used in a quenched and tempered condition, in which the microstructure is primarily tempered martensite, as in the case of HY-80 steel.

The compositional ranges of this steel are given in Table A.1. Some as-received mechanical properties are shown in Table A.3 and Temperatures for thermal treatments in Table A.4.

Mechanical and physical properties of HY-130 at room and elevated temperatures are plotted in Figures A.1 and A.2.

Finally, the minimum observed creep rate for various temperatures and various applied stresses appears in Figures A.3 (a) and (b) adapted from [100] and [101].

TABLE A.3 : General Properties of HY-130 Type Steel [107]

Yield Strength	min 130 Ksi (895 MPa) at center of 4in(101.6mm)plate
Elongation	15-20% in 2in.(50mm)
Reduction of Area	50-64% transversely 70% through thickness
Charpy-V-Notch Impact	
Energy Absorption (ductile fracture region)	60ft-lb(87.3J) at 0°F(-17.8°C)

TABLE A.4 : Thermal Treatment Related Properties for HY-130

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} A_{c1} \\ A_{c3} \\ M_s \end{array} \right.$	Temperature	1210° F (654° C)
	Temperature	1415° F (768° C)
	Temperature	715° F (379° C)
Recommended final austenitizing temperature		1500° F (815° C)
Recommended Quenching Medium		Water
Microstructure(as quenched, midthickness)		
$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 0.5\text{in (12.2mm) plate} \\ 4.0\text{in (101mm) plate} \end{array} \right.$		100% martensite
		60-75% martensite, remainder bainite
Recommended tempering temperature range		1000-1150° F (538-621°C)

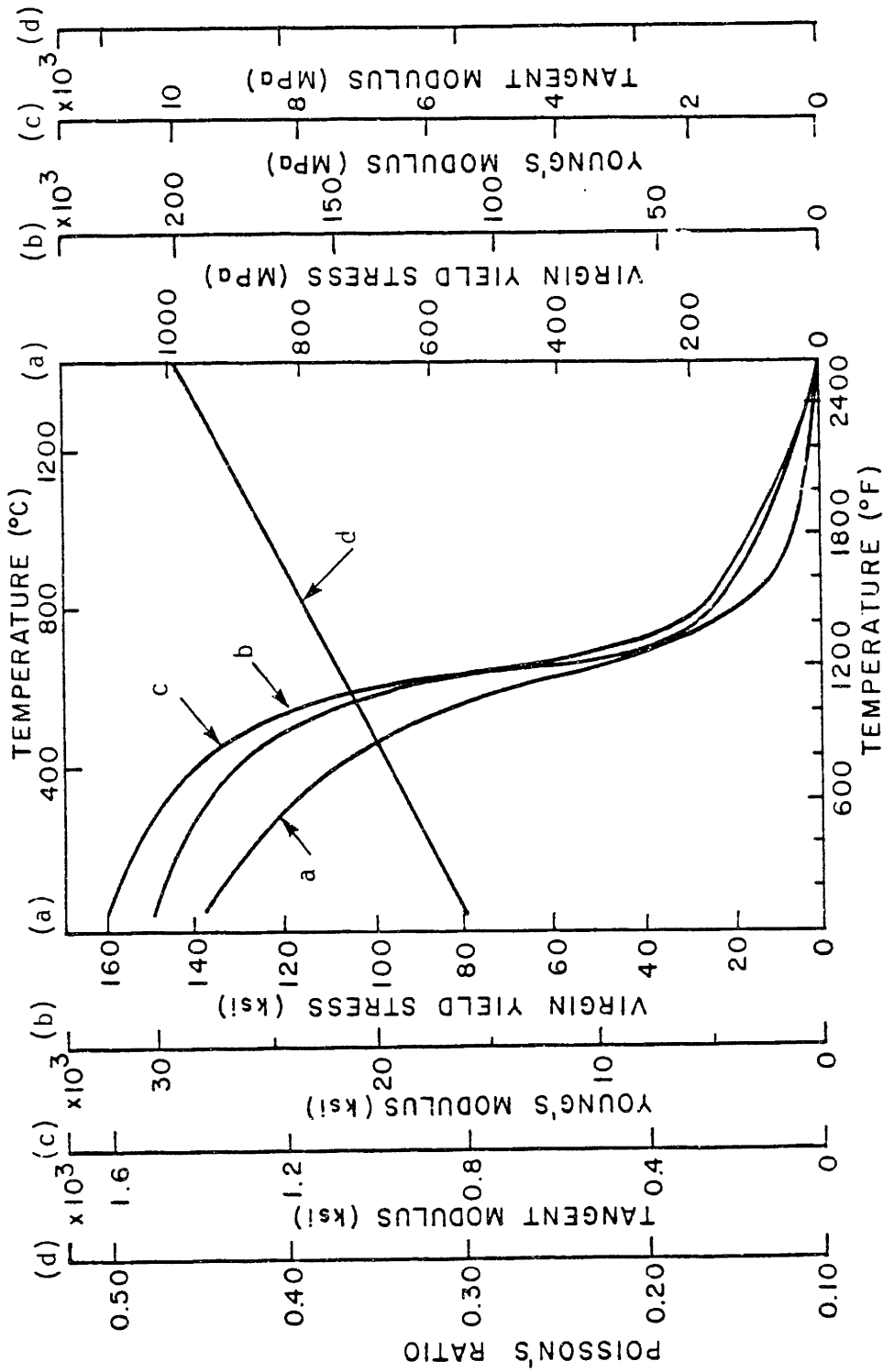


Figure A.1 (a) Variation of virgin yield stress with temperature for HY-130
 (b) Variation of Young's modulus with temperature for HY-130
 (c) Variation of tangent modulus with temperature for HY-130
 (d) Variation of Poisson's ratio with temperature for HY-130

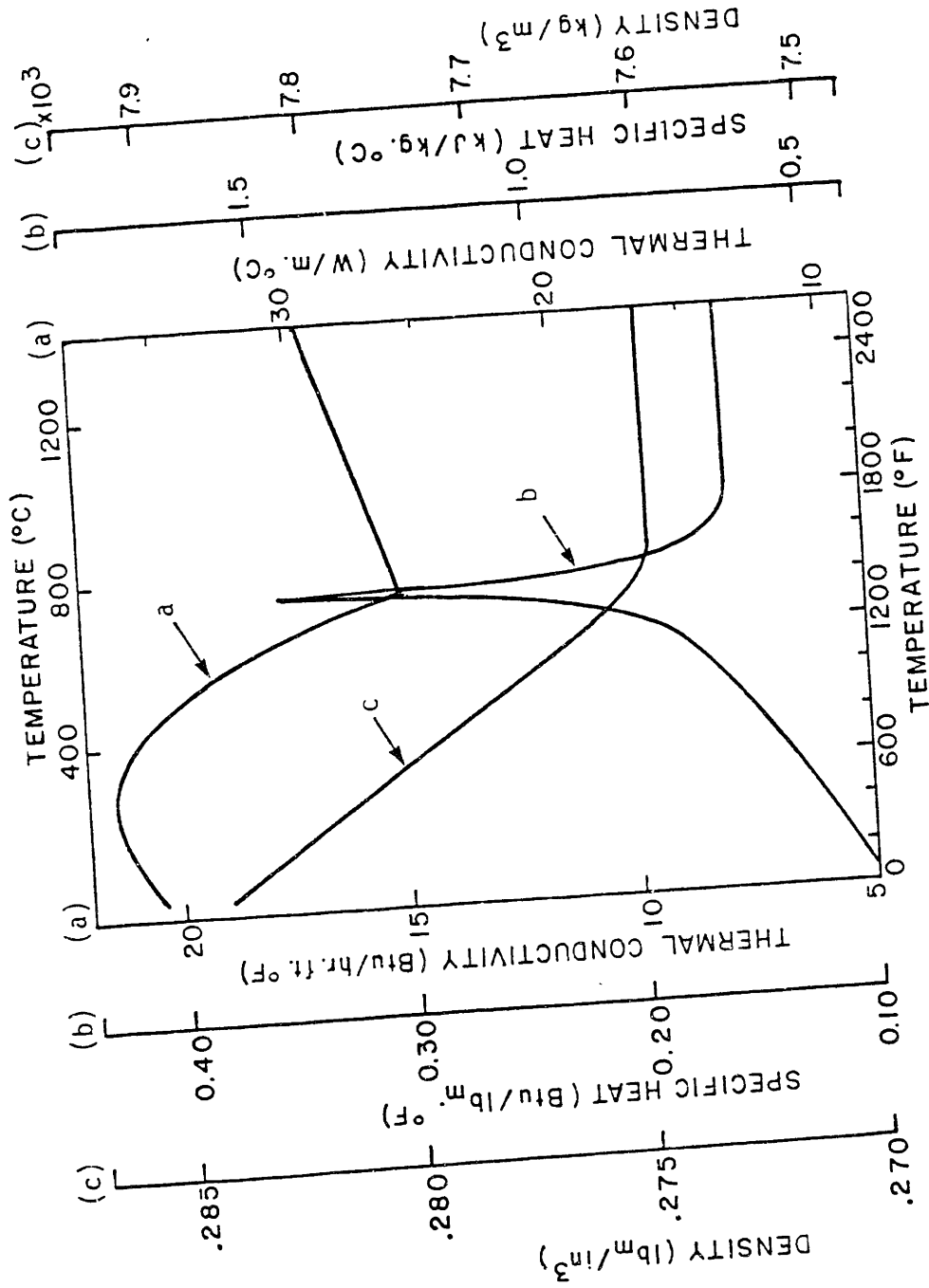


Figure A.2 (a) Variation of thermal conductivity with temperature for HY-130
 (b) Variation of specific heat with temperature for HY-130
 (c) Variation of density with temperature for HY-130

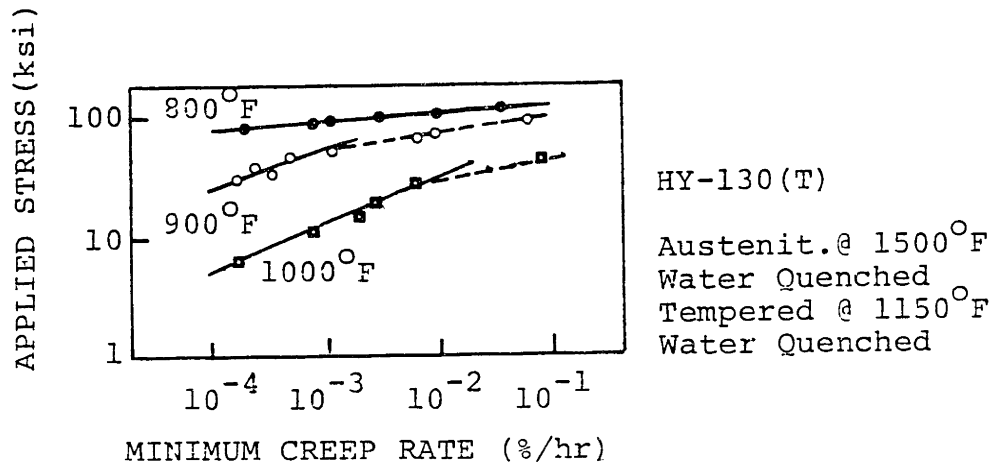


Figure A.3(a) : Minimum creep rate at various temperatures and levels of applied stress, for HY-130(T) standard 0.25 in. dia. specimens. [101]

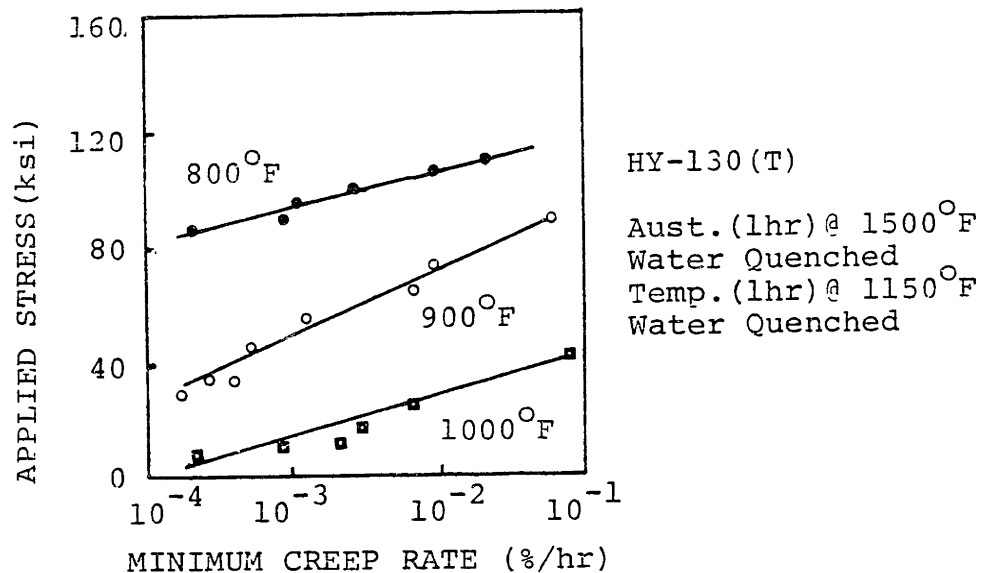


Figure A.3(b) : Minimum creep rate at various temperatures and levels of applied stress, for HY-130(T) 1 in. thick plates. [100], [101]

Table A.5 : Typical Mechanical Properties of Annealed
304 Stainless Steel at Room Temperature [109]

Form	U.T.S.		Yield Strength		Elongation	Hardness
	Ksi	MPa	Ksi	MPa	%	
Bar	85	586	35	241	60	Bhn 149
Plate	82	565	35	241	60	Bhn 149
Sheets	84	579	42	290	55	Rb 80
Strips	84	579	42	290	55	Rb 80
Tubing	85	586	35	241	50	Rb 80
Wire	90	621	35	241	60	Rb 83

Table A.6 : Thermal Treatment Temperatures for 304 St. Steel
[108],[109].

Initial Forging Temperature	2100-2300 ^o F (1149-1260 ^o C)
Annealing Temperature	1850-2050 ^o F (1010-1121 ^o C)
Stress Relief Ann. Temperature	400-750 ^o F (204-399 ^o C)
Melting Range	2550-2650 ^o F (1399-1454 ^o C)
Carbide Precipitation range	800-1600 ^o F (427-871 ^o C)

A.3 304 - Stainless Steel

304 Stainless Steel is a low-carbon (max 0.08% C), unstabilized austenitic stainless steel specially developed for better corrosion resistance and for restriction of carbide precipitation during welding.

Chemical composition ranges are shown in Table A.1. Mechanical properties of annealed material at room temperature are given in Table A.5, and physical properties in Table A.7. Thermal treatment temperatures are shown in Table A.6. Physical and mechanical properties at both ambient and elevated temperatures are plotted in Figure A.4 to A.10 adapted from [108] through [113]. It should be noted, however, that in many instances data from different sources were not in complete agreement, reflecting the normal variations from heat-to-heat of the alloy and differences between the experimental procedures of different laboratories. In such cases either all the different data were presented, with their sources cited, or judgment was used, in order to obtain a single compromise curve for use in the computer modelling.

Creep data adapted from [100], [101], and [114] appear in Figures A.11 and A.12.

No data were found in the literature for the temperature dependence of density. Figure A.13 gives the assumed variation of density, calculated from the thermal expansion data of Figure A.9 and the known density at room temperature (Table A.7).

Table A.7 : Typical Physical Properties of 304 Stainless Steel, [108],[109],[110]

Density (ρ).....	0.29 lb/in ³ (8000 Kg/m ³)
Elastic Modulus (E).....	28.0x10 ³ Ksi (1.93x10 ⁵ MPa)
Tangent Modulus (E_T).....	0.73x10 ³ Ksi (5x10 ³ MPa)
Average Thermal.....	[32 ^o F to 212 ^o F (0 ^o C to 100 ^o C)]
Expansion Coefficient (α).....	9.6 μ in/in ^o F (17.2 μ m/m ^o C)
Thermal Conductivity	
at 212 ^o F (100 ^o C) (λ).....	9.4 Btu/hr ft ^o F (16.2 W/m ^o K)
Specific Heat (c_p)	
[32 to 212 ^o F (0 to 100 ^o C)].....	0.12 Btu/lb ^o F (0.5 KJ/Kg ^o K)

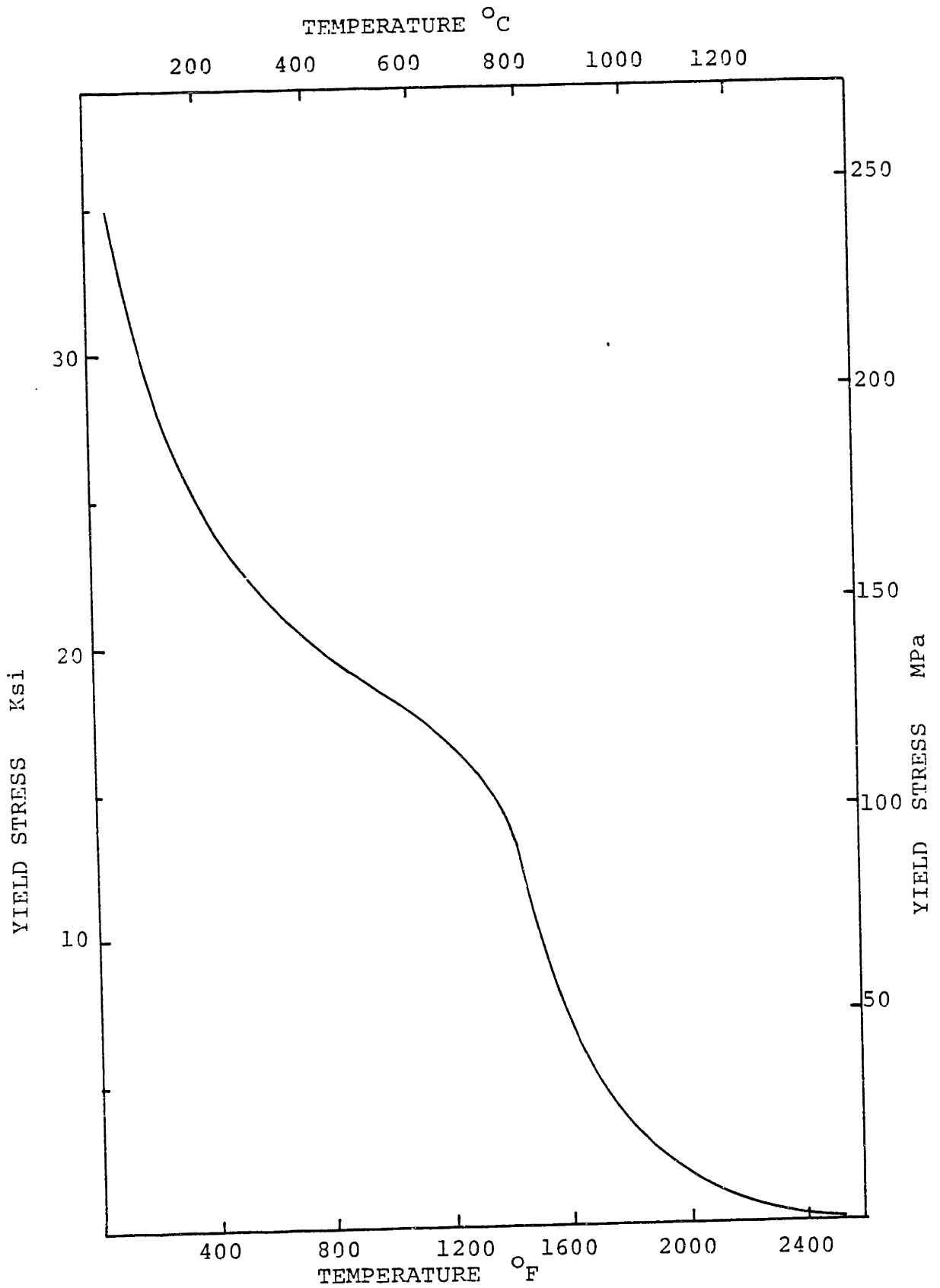


Figure A.4 : Variation of virgin yield stress with temperature for 304 stainless steel. [110], [112], [113]

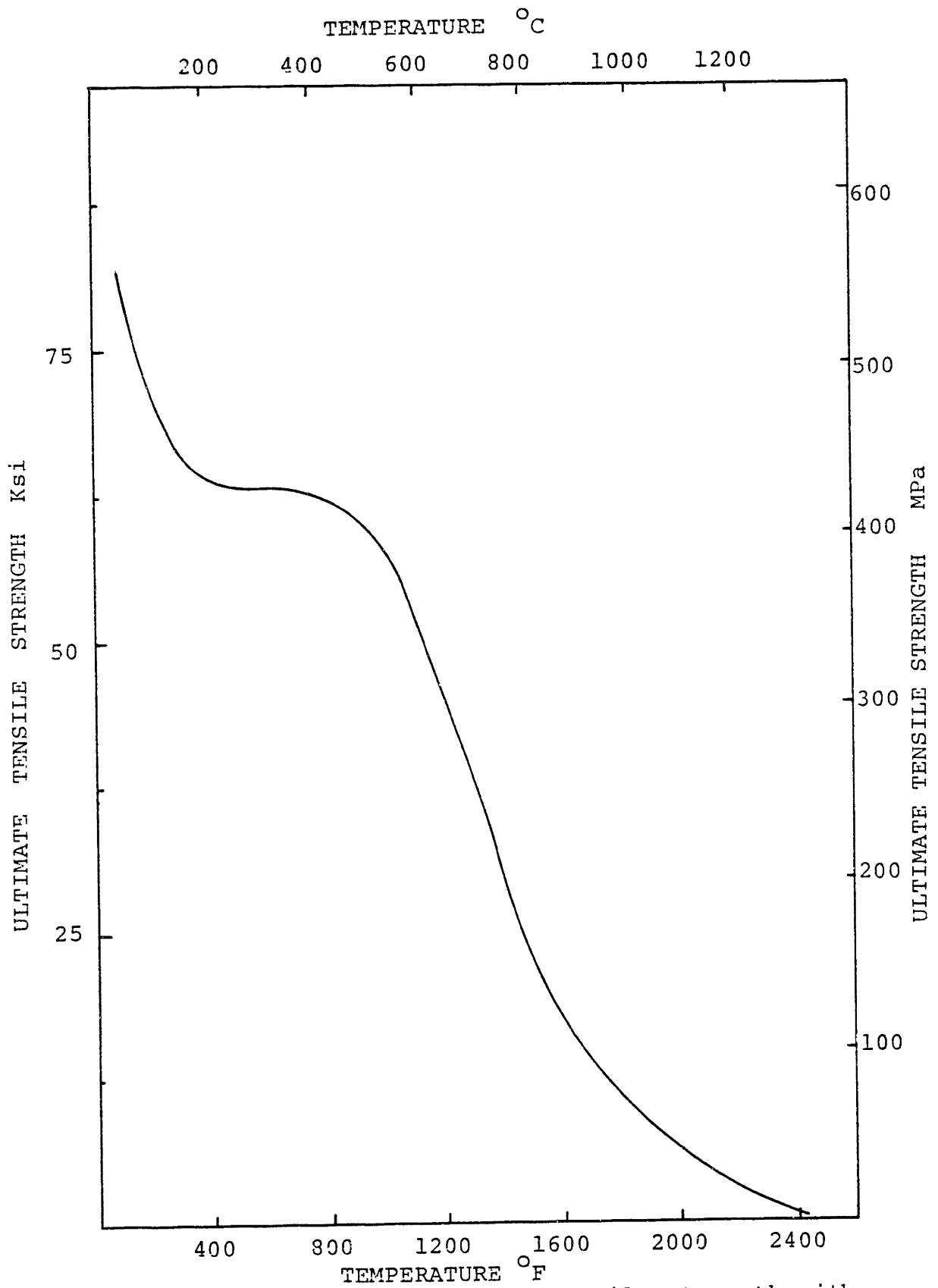


Figure A.5 : Variation of ultimate tensile strength with temperature for 304 stainless steel. [110],[112]

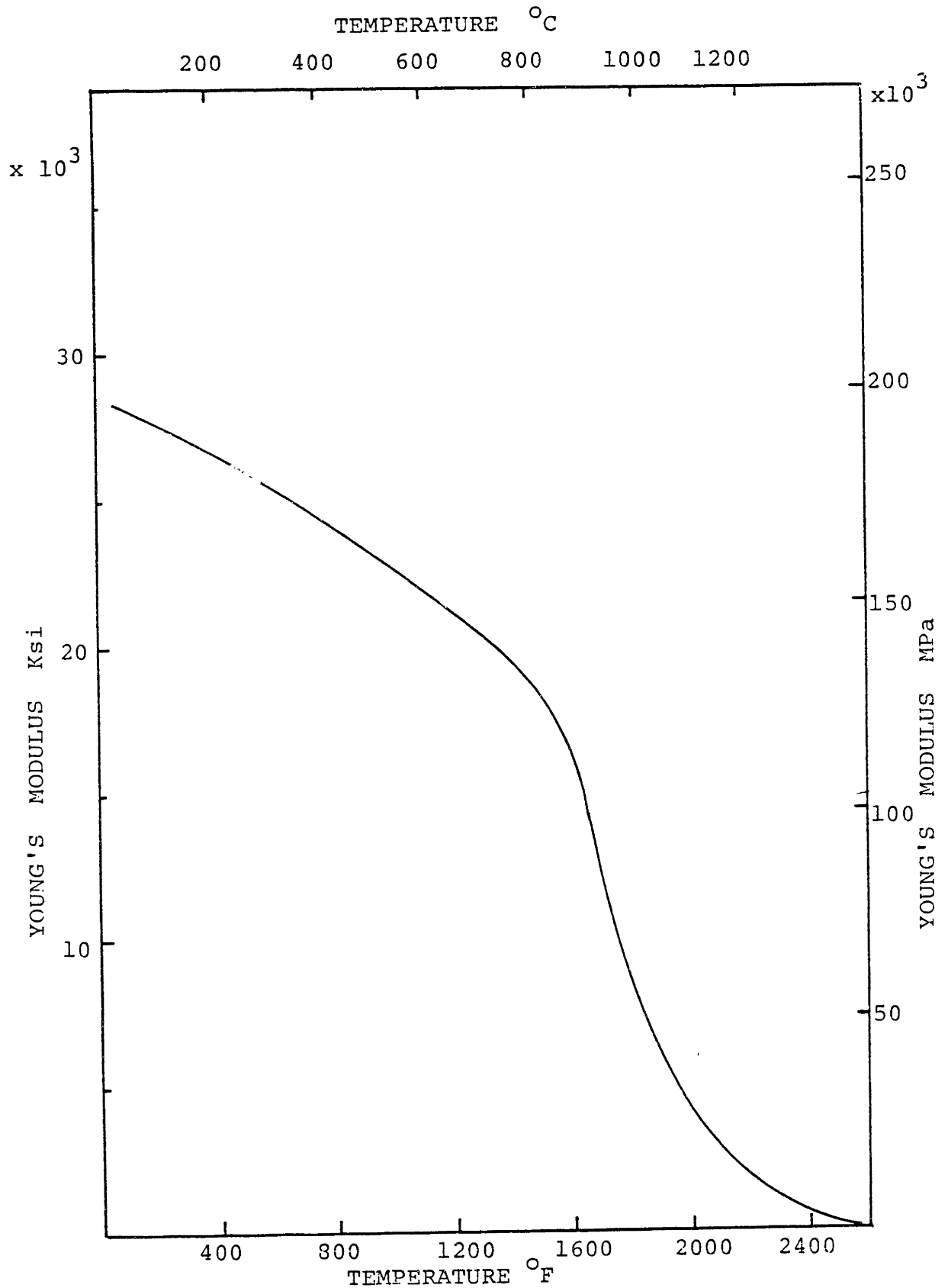


Figure A.6 : Variation of Young's modulus with temperature for 304 stainless steel. [108],[112]

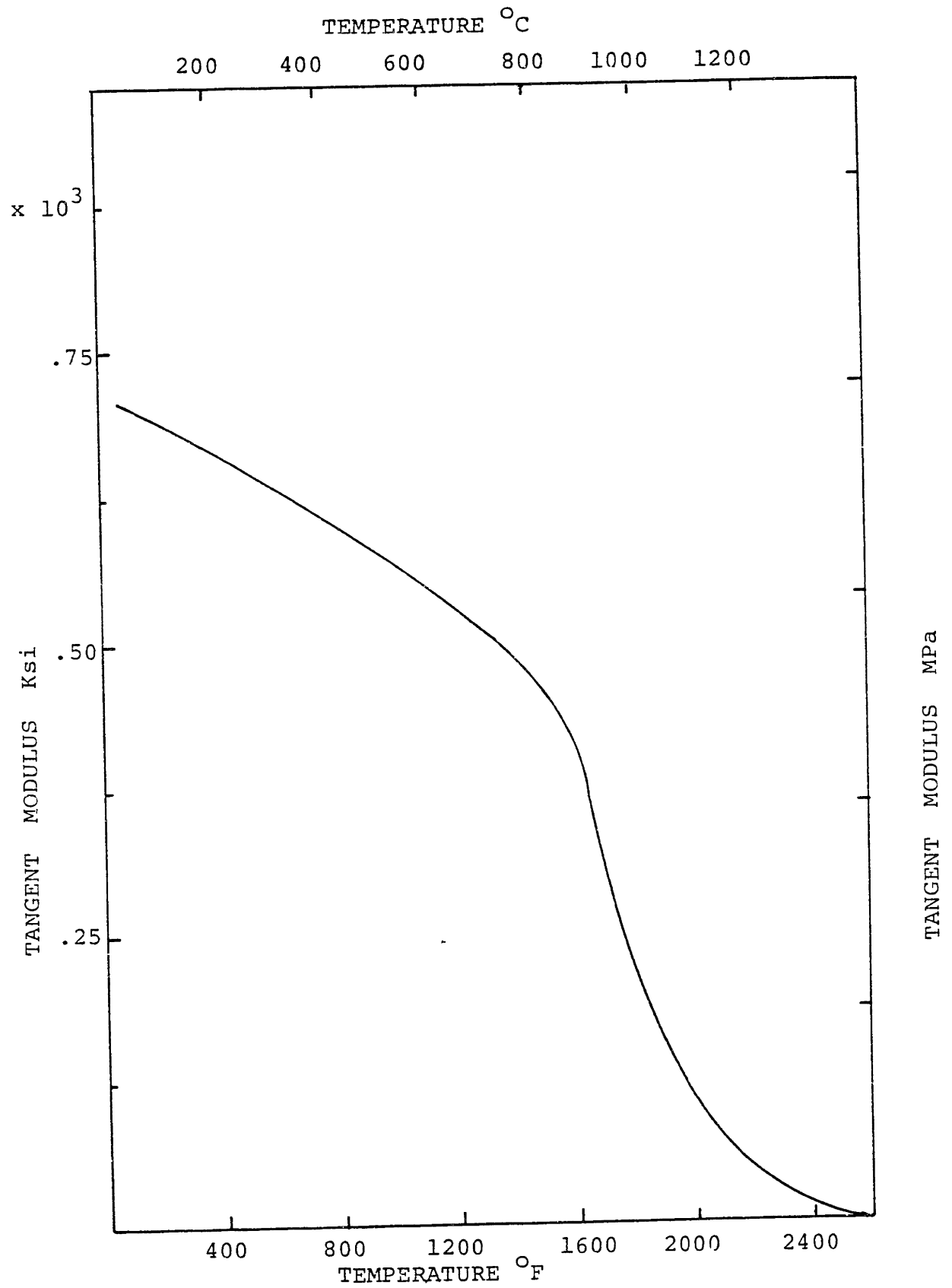


Figure A.7 : Variation of tangent modulus with temperature for 304 stainless steel. [111]

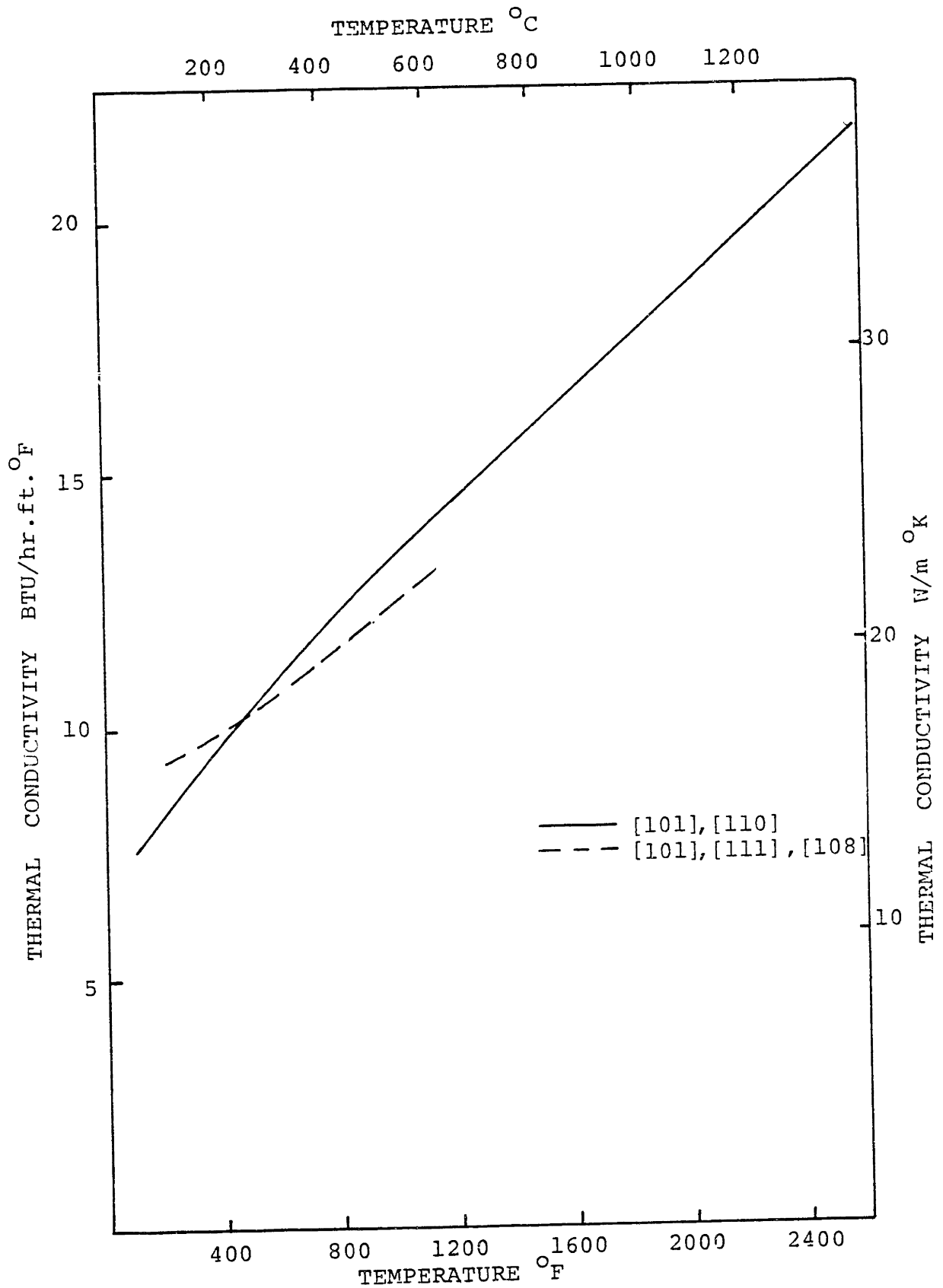


Figure A.8 : Variation of thermal conductivity with temperature for 304 stainless steel.

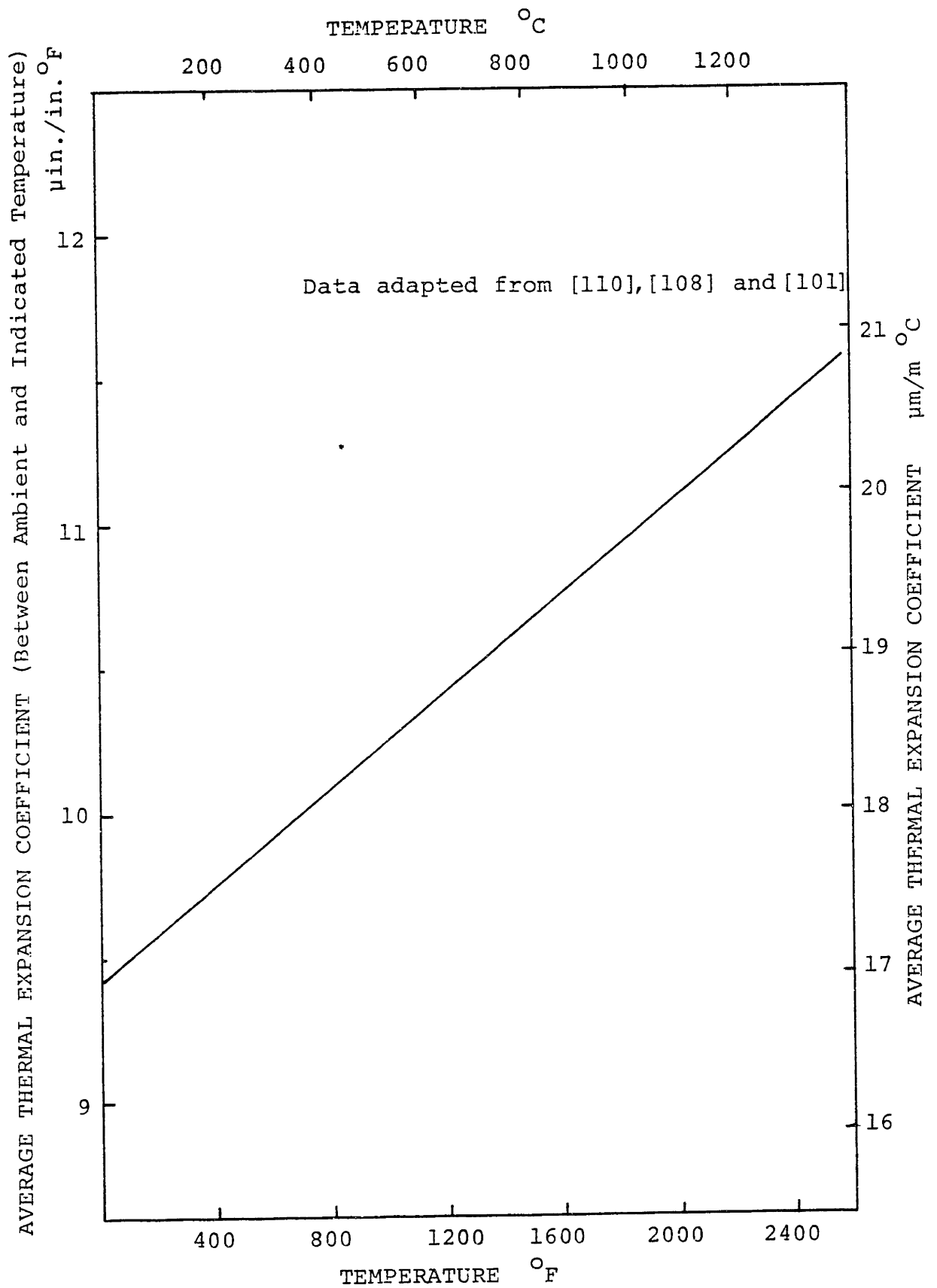


Figure A.9 : Average thermal expansion coefficient for 304 SS

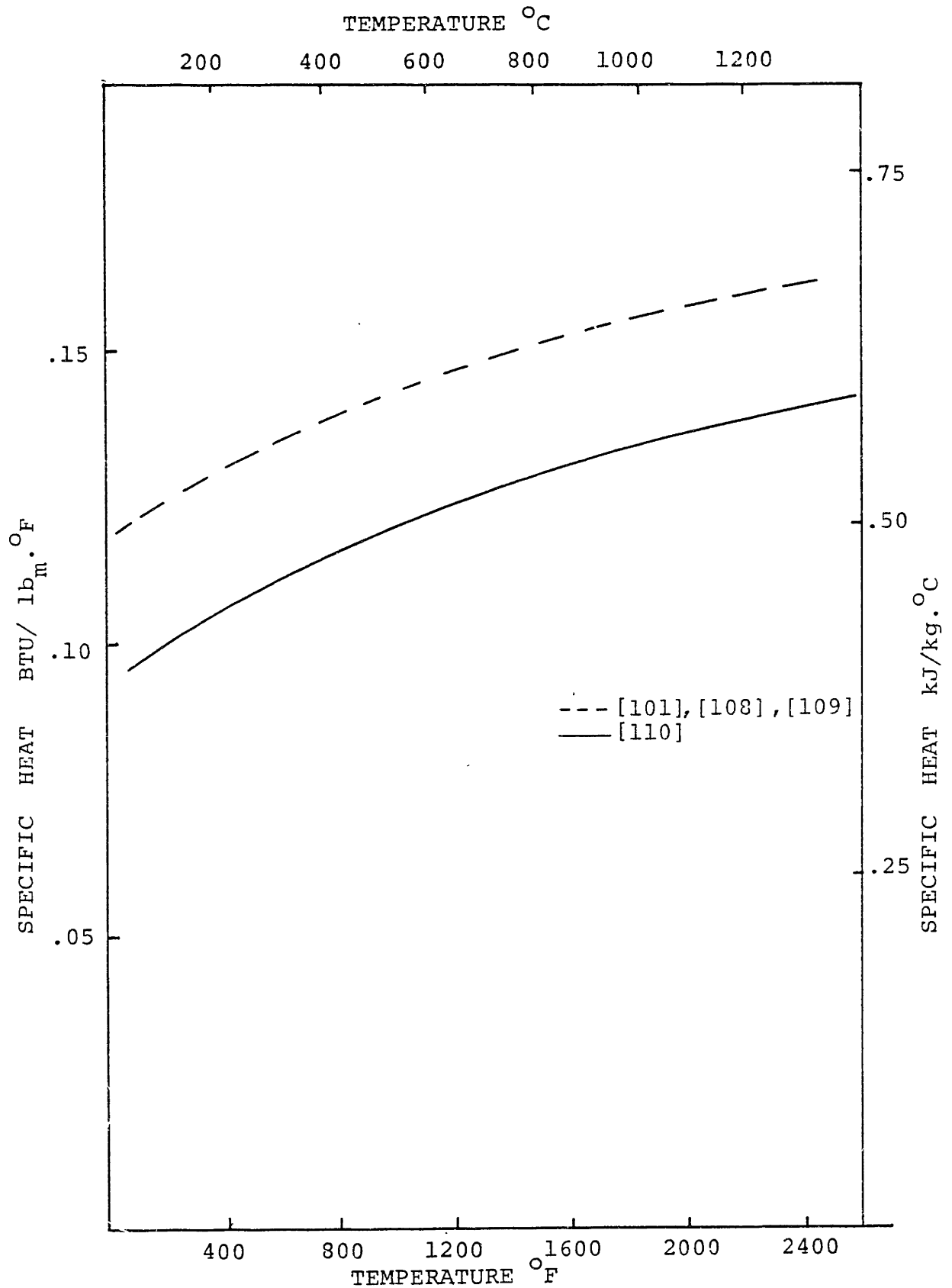


Figure A.10 : Variation of specific heat with temperature for 304 stainless steel .

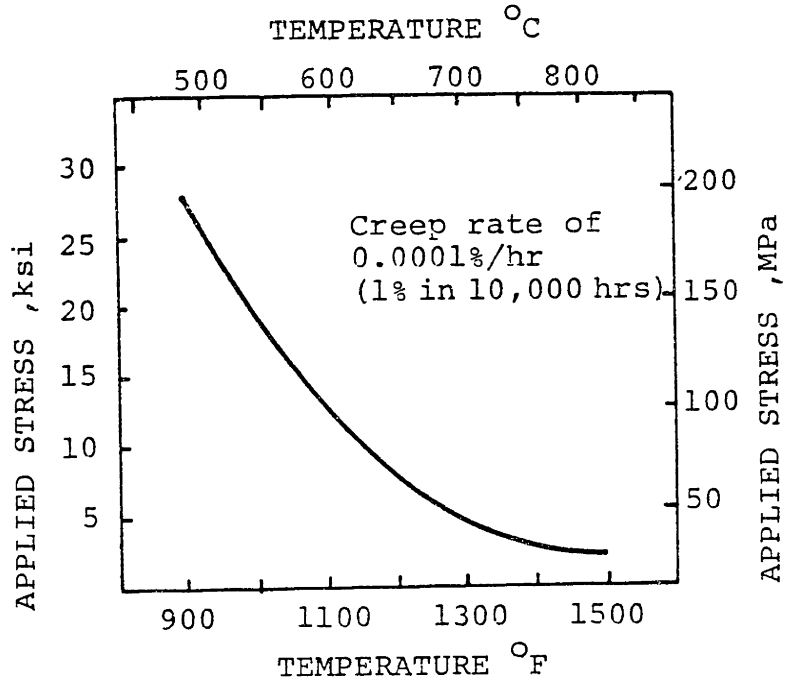


Figure A.11 : Creep rate curve for 304 stainless steel Adapted from [114].

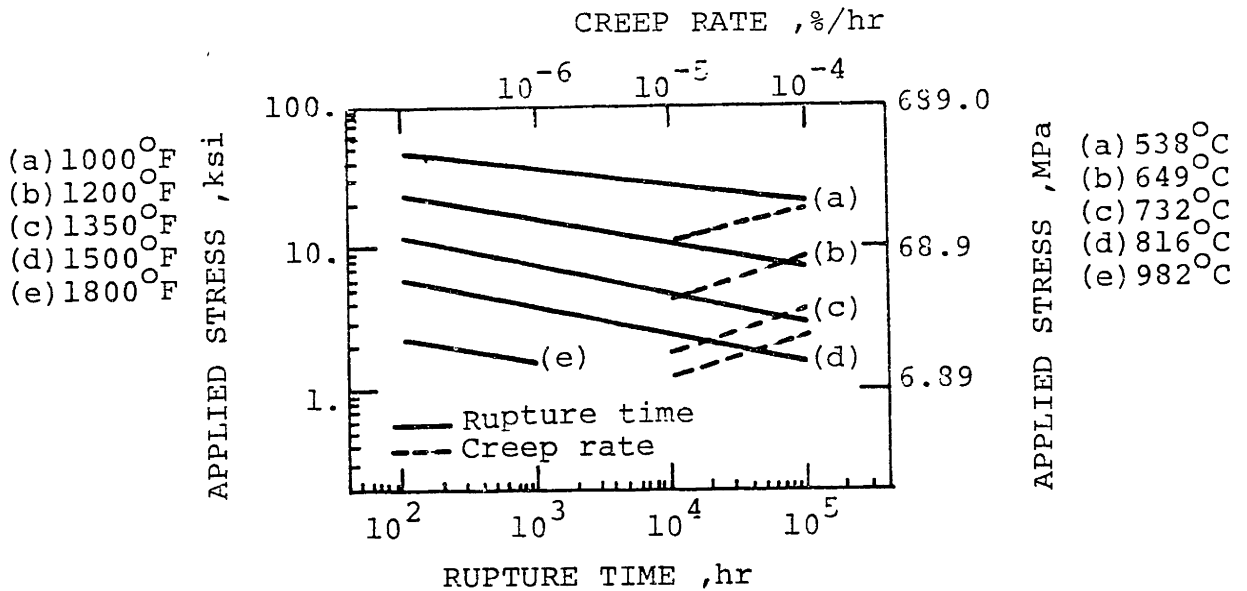


Figure A.12 : Stress vs. rupture-time and creep-rate curves for annealed type 304 stainless steel .[114]

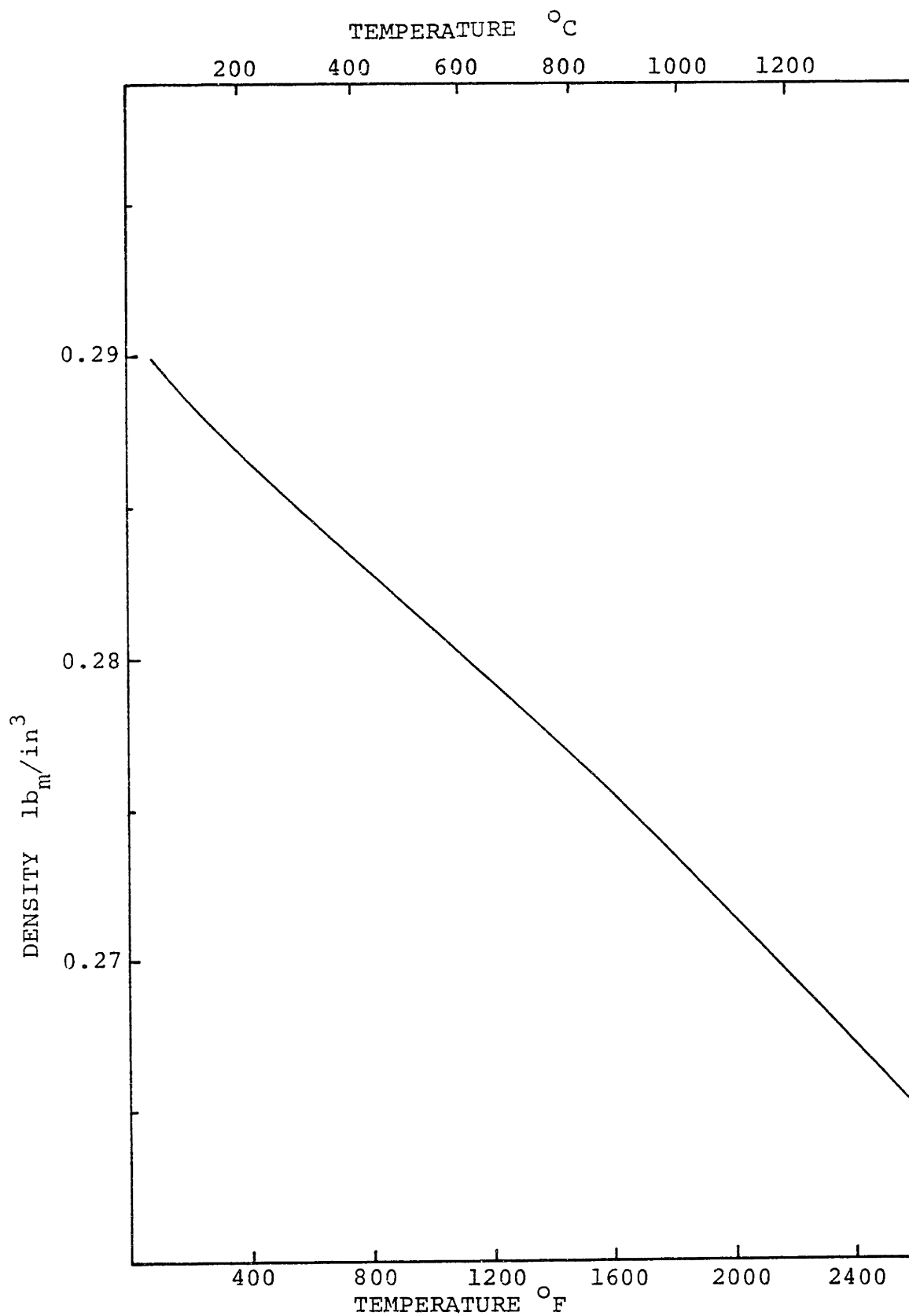


Figure A.13 : Variation of density with temperature for 304 stainless steel (based on thermal expansion)

APPENDIX BNUMERICAL INTEGRATION

In the program the various integrations are performed numerically for twenty one integration points, unequally spaced along the breadth of the plate. The numerical integration scheme used was based on Newton-Cotes closed integration formulas and was adapted by Imakita from Isoda [115].

In general, if the integral

$$I = \int_{x_1}^{x_N} f(x) dx \quad (B-1)$$

is to be evaluated given the set of data $[x_i, f(x_i)]$, $i=1,2,\dots,N$ the following cases are distinguished, in the numerical integration scheme used: (I) If $N=2$, the trapezoidal rule is used (assuming a first order approximation to $f(x)$)

$$I = \frac{h}{2} [f(x_1) + f(x_2)] \quad (B-2)$$

where $h = x_2 - x_1$ (B-3)

- (i) If $N \geq 3$ and odd then two subcases have to be considered
 (iia) If all integration points are equally spaced then the integral can be calculated using Simpsons first rule for every three consecutive integration points (assuming a second order approximation to $f(x)$):

$$I = \frac{h}{3} [f(x_1) + 4f(x_2) + f(x_3)] \quad (B-4)$$

where $h = x_2 - x_1 = x_3 - x_2$ (B-5)

- (iib) If the integration points are unequally spaced then a

modified version of equation (B-4) is used for every three consecutive points. Specifically, assuming again a second order approximation to $f(x)$, the respective Lagrange interpolation polynomial will be:

$$p(x) = \frac{(x-x_2)(x-x_3)}{(x_1-x_2)(x_1-x_3)} f(x_1) + \frac{(x-x_1)(x-x_3)}{(x_2-x_1)(x_2-x_3)} f(x_2) + \frac{(x-x_1)(x-x_2)}{(x_3-x_1)(x_3-x_2)} f(x_3) \quad (\text{B-6})$$

where $x_1 \leq x_2 \leq x_3$

If as in Figure B.1(a), α is the midpoint between x_1 and x_3 then

$$\alpha = (x_1+x_3)/2 \quad (\text{B-7})$$

and substituting in (B-6) we get

$$p(\alpha) = \frac{d}{2(h+d)} f(x_1) + \frac{h^2}{(h+d)(h-d)} f(x_2) - \frac{d}{2(h-d)} f(x_3) \quad (\text{B-8})$$

where h and d such as

$$\begin{aligned} x_3 - x_1 &= 2h \\ x_2 - x_1 &= h + d \\ x_3 - x_2 &= h - d \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B-9})$$

For the equally spaced points now (x_1, α, x_3) integral

I can be calculated as in (B-4), that is

$$I = \frac{h}{3} \left[f(x_1) + 4p(\alpha) + f(x_3) \right]$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \frac{h}{3} \left[f(x_1) + \left(\frac{d}{2(h+d)} f(x_1) + \frac{h^2}{(h+d)(h-d)} f(x_2) - \frac{d}{2(h-d)} f(x_3) \right) + f(x_3) \right] \\
&= \frac{h}{3} \left(\left(1 + \frac{2d}{h+d} \right) f(x_1) + 2 \left(\frac{h}{h+d} + \frac{h}{h-d} \right) f(x_2) + \left(1 - \frac{2d}{h-d} \right) f(x_3) \right) \quad (\text{B-10})
\end{aligned}$$

(iii) If $N \geq 4$ and even the following subcases have to be considered.

(iiia) If all integration points are equally spaced then I is calculated using (B-4) for all the points, taken three at a time, except the last four, where the Simpson's second rule is used (assuming a third order approximation to $f(x)$):

$$I = \frac{3h}{8} \left[f(x_1) + 3f(x_2) + 3f(x_3) + f(x_4) \right] \quad (\text{B-11})$$

(iiib) If the integration points are unequally spaced then the same method is employed as in (iiia), but now we use (B-10) instead of (B-4), and a modified version of (B-11) for unequal intervals. Specifically, referring to Figure B-1(b), we finally have (assuming a third order Lagrange interpolation polynomial):

$$\begin{aligned}
I = \frac{h}{3} & \left(\left(1 + \frac{2d_1 d_2}{(h+d_1)(h+d_2)} \right) f(x_1) + \frac{4h^2}{d_2-d_1} \left(\frac{d_2}{h^2-d_1^2} f(x_2) - \right. \right. \\
& \left. \left. \frac{d_1}{h^2-d_2^2} f(x_3) \right) + \left(1 + \frac{2d_1 d_2}{(h-d_1)(h-d_2)} \right) f(x_4) \right) \quad (\text{B-12})
\end{aligned}$$

where

$$h = (x_4 - x_1) / 2$$

$$d_1 = x_2 - x_1 - h \quad (\text{B-13})$$

$$d_2 = x_3 - x_1 - h$$

The integration subroutine QUDR, used in the one - dimensional program was adapted from Isoda, [115].

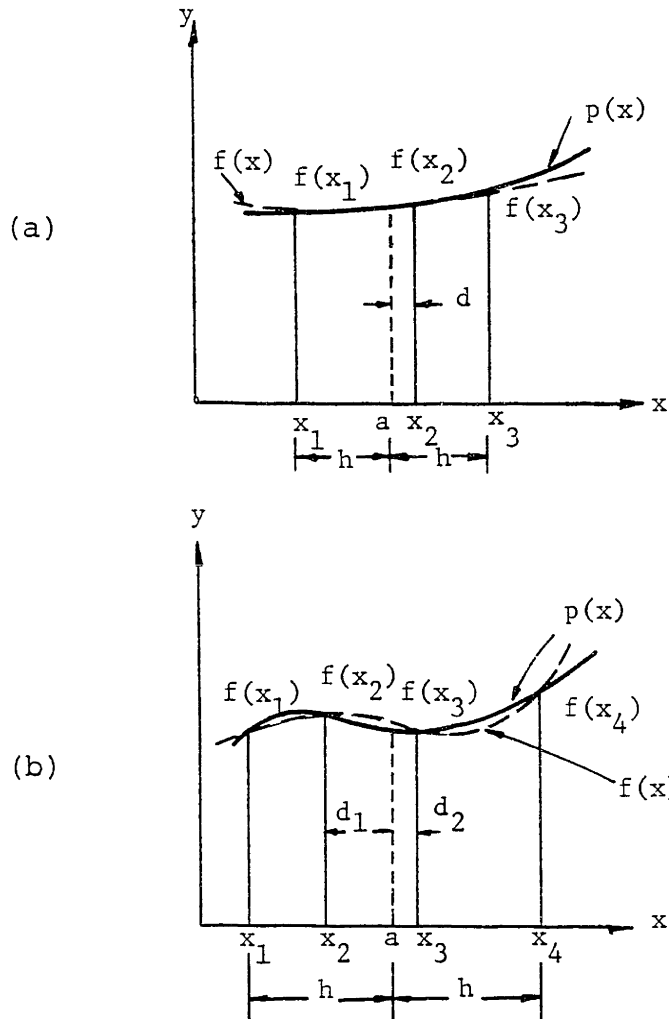


Figure B.1 : Second and third order approximations to function $f(x)$ used in numerical integration

APPENDIX C

FORTRAN LISTING OF THE MODIFIED ONE-DIMENSIONAL PROGRAM

A listing of the one-dimensional program, as modified by the author for the prediction of temperatures, strains and stresses, during welding and subsequent stress relieving, is presented in this Appendix.

Although the input and output format is somewhat different from the original version of the program the inclusion of comment statements and the existence of - READ and WRITE - FORMAT statements makes it unnecessary to repeat the input specifications here.

The program is general enough to handle, with minor only modifications, any type of stress relieving temperature history and profile. Only one creep model, for 304 stainless steel, was included. If for any other material, however, the uniaxial creep law is known, subroutine CREPLO has to be changed accordingly.

```

C*****
C ONE DIMENSIONAL PROGRAM AS MODIFIED BY J A FOR STRESS RELIEVING
C
C
C
C
C
C
C*****
C
DIMENSION EXR(21),STRSK(21),EMR(21),EPNR(21),STRESR(21),STRPL(21)
DIMENSION STRHT(21),ST1(200),EMI(200),TV1(200)
DIMENSION ST7(200),EM7(200),TV7(200)
DIMENSION ST9(200),EM9(200),TV9(200)
DIMENSION ST11(200),EM11(200),TV11(200)
DIMENSION ST15(200),EM15(200),TV15(200)
DIMENSION ST18(200),EM18(200),TV18(200)
DIMENSION TPL(300),TME(300),SSS1(300),EMM1(300)
DIMENSION SSS7(300),SSS9(300),SSS11(300),SSS15(300),SSS18(300)
DIMENSION EMW7(300),EMM9(300),EMM11(300),EMM15(300),EMM18(300)
COMMON /TEM/TV(21),TEMP(10),CAP(10),RHO(10),COND(10),TREFN(10),21)
COMMON /E/E(10),YP(10),ALPH(10),SLOP(10)
COMMON /STR/RAT(20),I(2000),EX(21),EM(21),EPN(21),STRES(21),EL(21)
COMMON /YW/Y(21),YDI(21)
COMMON /YP/YPN(10),YTHN(10),21)
COMMON /PP/P,V,Y,S,YEP,VOUT,THICK
COMMON /SC/NEDGE,HCOT(10)
COMMON /RS/EPO(21)
COMMON /P/YD1S,IMAX,T1X,TREF
COMMON /T/T1,T11,T2,T12,T3,T13,TST
COMMON /ID/KI,KD
COMMON /CRP/ECREEP(21)
COMMON /SREV/NUP,TIUP,NSOAK,TISK,NDN,TIDN,ISREV
C ***** READ INPUT DATA *****
C
0024 READ(KI,100)VOLT,AMP,EFF,THICK,V
0025 IF(VOLT.EQ.0.0) GO TO 999
0026 FORMAT(5F10.4)
0027 READ(KI,110)(RAT(K),K=1,20)
0028 FORMAT(20A4)
0029 READ(KI,101)(TEMP(I),I=1,10)
0030 READ(KI,101)(COND(I),I=1,10)
0031 READ(KI,101)(CAP(I),I=1,10)
0032 READ(KI,101)(RHO(I),I=1,10)
0033 READ(KI,101)(E(I),I=1,10)
0034 READ(KI,101)(YP(I),I=1,10)
0035 READ(KI,101)(ALPH(I),I=1,10)
0036 READ(KI,101)(SLOP(I),I=1,10)
0037 FORMAT(10F8.3)
0038 READ(KI,101) (HCOT(I),I=1,10)
0039 READ(KI,104) NEDGE
C ** NEDGE = 1 EDGE WELD ,O BUTT WELD , - 1 BEAD ON PLATE **
C
C*****

```

```

0040 READ(K1,104) NPAS
0041 FORMAT(I2)
0042 READ(K1,101) (VPM(I),I=1,MPAS)
0043 READ(K1,105) ((YTH(NP,I),I=1,1),,MP=1,,NPAS)
0044 FORMAT(1F7.4)
0045 DO 301 NP=1,,NPAS
0046   DO 301 I=1,2,21
0047     YTH(NP,I)=THICK
0048     READ(K1,102)YDIS,IMAX,ITX,ITRF
0049     FORMAT(4F10.4)
0050     READ(K1,103)T1,T11,T12,T13,T13,TST
0051     FORMAT(7F10.2)
0052     READ(K1,103) TLAST
0053     READ(K1,109) NPC,N1,N2,N3
0054     FORMAT(4I5)
C
C   NPC = 0 TO PRINT AND PLOT,1 PRINT ONLY,2 PLOT ONLY
C   PLOT THE FIRST N1,N2,N3 POINTS ONLY
C   FOR TEMPERATURES,STRESSES,STRAINS RESPECTIVELY
C
0055 READ (K1,191) ISREV
0056   FORMAT (I2)
C
C   ISREV = 1 FOR STRESS RELIEVING .0 FOR WELDING
C
0057 IF (ISREV.EQ.0) GO TO 192
0058 READ (K1,171) ICREP,NUP,NSOAK,NDN,TIUP,TISK,TIDN,ISREV
0059   FORMAT(4I5,4F10.2)
C
C ***** PRINT INPUT DATA *****
C
0060 WRITE(K0,223)(RAT(K),K=1,20)
0061   FORMAT(/18X,20A4/)
0062 WRITE(K0,266)
0063   FORMAT(///49X,'WELDING CONDITIONS'/)
0064 WRITE(K0,221)VOLT,AMP,EFF,V
0065   FORMAT(/24X,'VOLTS=',F6.2,' AMPS=',F6.2,' ARC EFF.=',F4.2,
0066     ' WELD SPEED ',F7.5,' (INCHES/SEC)')
0067 WRITE(K0,179) NEDGE = .12,3X, '(1 FOR EDGE .0 FOR BUTT,-1 FOR BEAD
0068   FORMAT(/31X,'NEDGE =',F12.3X, '(1 FOR EDGE .0 FOR BUTT,-1 FOR BEAD
0069     IN PLATE)')
0070 WRITE(K0,224)
0071   FORMAT(/40X,35IMATERIAL PROPERTIES VS TEMPERATURE/)
0072 WRITE(K0,250)(TEMP(I),I=1,10)
0073   FORMAT(/3X,11TEMPERATURE,4X,10(F7.2,1X),5X,'(DEGREES F)')
0074 WRITE(K0,251)(COND(I),I=1,10)
0075   FORMAT(/3X,12CONDUCTIVITY,3X,10F8.3,5X,'(WATTS/INCH/DEG F)')
0076 WRITE(K0,252)(CAP(I),I=1,10)
0077   FORMAT(/3X,'SPECIFIC HEAT',2X,10F8.3,5X,'(WATTS*SEC/POUND/DEG F)')
0078 WRITE(K0,253)(RHO(K),K=1,10)
0079   FORMAT(/5X,7HDENSITY,6X,10F8.4,5X,'(POUNDS/CUBIC INCH)')
0080 WRITE(K0,254)(E(I),I=1,10)
0081   FORMAT(/1X,15HYOUNG 5 MODULUS,2X,10F8.3,5X,'(KSI*10**3)')

```

```

J0100540
J0100550
J0100560
J0100570
J0100580
J0100590
J0100600
J0100610
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J0100690
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J0101060

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MAIN

RELEASE 2 O

FORTRAN IV G1

```

0080      WRITE(K0,255)(Y(I),I=1,10)
0081      FORMAT(/2X,'INITIAL YIELD',3X,10F8.3,5X,'(KSI)'/6X,'STRESS')
0082      WRITE(K0,256)(ALPH(I),I=1,10)
0083      FORMAT(/2X,'COEFFICIENT OF',2X,10F8.3,5X,
0084      1'(MICRO INCHES/INCH/DEG F)'/4X,'EXPANSTION')
0085      WRITE(K0,257)(SLOP(I),I=1,10)
0086      FORMAT(/,'TANGENT MODULUS',1X,10F8.3,5X,'(KSI*10**3)')
0087      WRITE(K0,280)(HCOF(I),I=1,10)
0088      FORMAT(/1X,'SURFACE HEAT LOSS',10F8.3,5X,'(WATTS/INCH/DEG F)'/4X,
0089      1,'COEFFICIENT')
0088      WRITE(K0,175) TMAX
0089      FORMAT(/1X,'MELTING TEMPERATURE (DEG F) = ',F8.2)
0090      WRITE(K0,176) TREF
0091      FORMAT(/1X,'REFERENCE TEMPERATURE (DEG F) = ',F8.2)
0092      WRITE(K0,177)
0093      WRITE(K0,178) THICK,YDIS
0094      FORMAT(/49X,'PLATE GEOMETRY')
0095      FORMAT(/40X,'PLATE THICKNESS (INCHES) = ',F7.2)
0096      WRITE(K0,271) NPAS
0097      FORMAT(1H1//2X,'NUMBER OF WELDING PASSES = ',12)
0098      WRITE(K0,272) (YPN(I),I=1,NPAS)
0099      FORMAT(1H0,10X,'POSITION OF WELDING ARC FROM CENTER (INCHES)')//
0100      * 11X,'PASS NO',1,1,19X,9F8.3//
0101      * 7
0102      WRITE(K0,273) (NP,(YTHN(NP,I),I=1,11),NP=1,NPAS)
0103      FORMAT(1H0,10X,'CHANGE OF JOINT SHAPE BY EFFECT OF MULTIPASS',/,
0104      */(4X,'PASS=',12,11F8.3) )
0105      YD(1)=0.0
0106      DO 1 J=2,21
0107      YD(J)=Y(J)*YDIS
0108      WRITE(K0,274) (YD(J),J=1,11),(YD(J),J=13,21,2)
0109      C
0110      C
0111      C
0112      C
0113      C
0114      C
0115      C
0116      C
0117      C
0118      C
0119      C
0120      C
0109      WELDING HEAT INPUT CALCULATION
0110      P=EFF*VOLT*AMP/THICK
0111      IF(NEDGE.GE.1) P=2.0*P
0112      C
0113      C
0114      C
0115      C
0116      C
0117      C
0118      C
0119      C
0120      C
0109      TIME STEPS CALCULATION
0110      TI=T11
0111      N=1
0112      T(1)=TST
0113      IF(T(N).GE.T1) T1=T11
0114      IF(T(N).GE.T2) T1=T13
0115      IF(T(N).GE.T3) GO TO 41
0116      T(N+1)=T(N)+TI
0117      N=N+1
0118      GO TO 40
0119      CONTINUE
0120      N=N+1
0121      T(N)=TLAST

```



```

0121 WRITE(KO,181)
0122 FORMAT(1H1/49X,'TIME STEP INFORMATION')
0123 WRITE(KO,259)T1,T11,T2,T12,T3,T13,TST
0124 FORMAT(5X,'T1=',F7.1,' T11=',F7.1,' T2=',F7.1,' T12=',F7.1,
, ' T3=',F7.1,' T13=',F7.1,' TST=',F7.1)
0125 WRITE(KO,211) TIX
0126 FORMAT(//1X,'ARC PASSES FROM OBSERVATION SECTION AT T=',F8.2,
, ' SECS.')
```

```

0127 WRITE(6,1226) (T(I),I=1,N)
0128 FORMAT(1H,'T(1)=' ,15(/1X,10F10.2))
0129 WRITE(KO,182)
0130 FORMAT(1H1//49X,'***** WELDING *****')
0131 WRITE(KO,210){YD(J),J=1,11},{YD(J),J=13,21,2}
0132 FORMAT(37X,48HTRANSVERSE DISTANCE FROM CENTER LINE IN INCHES//
, 16X,16F7.3)
0133 TMAX=TEMP(10)

C CHANGE UNITS TO PSI AND INCH/INCH
C
C DO 50 I=1,10
E(I)=E(I)*1000000.
YP(I)=YP(I)*1000.
ALPH(I)=ALPH(I)/1000000.
YEP=YP(I)/E(I)
DO 668 J=1,21
TREFN(I,J)=TREF
CONTINUE
DO 51 J=1,21
ECREEP(J)=0.0
EPO(J)=0.0
C
C LOOP FOR ALL WELD PASSES
DO 666 K=1,NPAS
C
C LOOP FOR ALL TIME STEPS
DO 777 I=1,N
XT={TIX-T(I)}*V
C CALCULATE TEMPERATURE HISTORY DURING WELDING
C CALL TEMP I(XT,K)
C CALCULATE STRESSES DURING WELDING
C CALL STRESS(K,I)
C STORE TEMPERATURES STRAINS AND STRESSES FOR PLOTTING
C TY(I)=TY(I)
C TV(I)=TV(I)

```

```

J0H01600
J0H01610
J0H01620
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J0H01670
J0H01680
J0H01690
J0H01700
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J0H01790
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J0H01950
J0H01960
J0H01970
J0H01980
J0H01990
J0H02000
J0H02010
J0H02020
J0H02030
J0H02040
J0H02050
J0H02060
J0H02070
J0H02080
J0H02090
J0H02100
J0H02110
J0H02120

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0153 TY9(I)=TY(9)
0154 TY11(I)=TY(11)
0155 TY15(I)=TY(15)
0156 TY18(I)=TY(18)
0157 ST1(I)=STRES(1)
0158 ST7(I)=STRES(7)
0159 ST9(I)=STRES(9)
0160 ST11(I)=STRES(11)
0161 ST15(I)=STRES(15)
0162 ST18(I)=STRES(18)
0163 EM1(I)=EM(1)
0164 EM7(I)=EM(7)
0165 EM9(I)=EM(9)
0166 EM11(I)=EM(11)
0167 EM15(I)=EM(15)
0168 EM18(I)=EM(18)

C PRINT TEMPERATURES IN DEGREES F
C STRESSES IN INCHES/INCH *10**3
C STRESSES IN KSI
C

0169 IF(NPC.EQ.2) GO TO 777
0170 IS=(1/5)*5
0171 IF(1.NE.15) GO TO 711
0172 WRITE(KO,274) (YD(J),J=1,11),(YD(J),J=13,21,2)
0173 CONTINUE
0174 711 WRITE(KO,277) T(I)
0175 WRITE(KO,299) K
0176 WRITE(KO,299) K
0177 FORMAT(1H+.35X,'PASS NO ',I2)
0178 WRITE(KO,200)(TY(J),J=1,11),(TY(J),J=13,21,2)
0179 WRITE(KO,234)(EL(J),J=1,11),(EL(J),J=13,21,2)
0180 FORMAT(/16H TEMPERATURE ,16F7.2)
0181 WRITE(KO,235)(EPN(J),J=1,11),(EPN(J),J=13,21,2)
0182 WRITE(KO,189)(ECREEP(J),J=1,11),(ECREEP(J),J=13,21,2)
0183 WRITE(KO,236)(EX(J),J=1,11),(EX(J),J=13,21,2)
0184 WRITE(KO,233)(STRES(J),J=1,11),(STRES(J),J=13,21,2)
0185 FORMAT(16H ELASTIC STRAIN ,16F7.3)
0186 FORMAT(16H CREEP STRAIN ,16F7.3)
0187 FORMAT(16H PLASTIC STRAIN ,16F7.3)
0188 FORMAT(13H MECH. STRAIN,3X,16F7.3)
0189 FORMAT(13H TOTAL STRAIN,3X,16F7.3)
0190 FORMAT(7H STRESS,9X,16F7.2)
0191 CONTINUE
0192 DO 667 J=1,21
0193 TREFN(K+1,J)=TY(J)
0194 CONTINUE
0195 DO 987 IPL = 1,21
0196 STRPL(IPL)= STRES(IPL)
0197 TPL(I)=TY(I)
0198 TME(I)=O.O
0199 SSS1(I)=STRES(I)
0200

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J0102130
J0102140
J0102150
J0102160
J0102170
J0102180
J0102190
J0102200
J0102210
J0102220
J0102230
J0102240
J0102250
J0102260
J0102270
J0102280
J0102290
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J0102580
J0102590
J0102600
J0102610
J0102620
J0102630
J0102640
J0102650

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0201 SSS7(1)=STRES(7)
0202 SSS9(1)=STRES(9)
0203 SSS11(1)=STRES(11)
0204 SSS15(1)=STRES(15)
0205 SSS18(1)=STRES(18)
0206 EMM1(1)=EM(1)
0207 EMM7(1)=EM(7)
0208 EMM9(1)=EM(9)
0209 EMM11(1)=EM(11)
0210 EMM15(1)=EM(15)
0211 EMM18(1)=EM(18)

C
C ***** STRESS RELIEVING BY UNIFORM HEATING *****
C
0212 IF((TSREV.EQ.0) GO TO 9090
0213 NSREV=NUP*NSOAK+NDN
0214 WRITE(KO,172)
0215 FORMAT(1H1//49X,'***** STRESS RELIEVING *****')
0216 WRITE(KO,183) ICREP=' ,15,' (O IF CREEP IS IGNORED, I IF INCLUDED)
0217 FORMAT(/,37X,'ICREP=',15X)
0218 WRITE(KO,184) TSREV
0219 FORMAT(/,37X,'STRESS RELIEVING TEMPERATURE (DEG F) =',F10.2)
0220 WRITE(KO,185) NUP,TIUP,NSOAK,TISK,NDN,TIDN
0221 FORMAT(/,37X,'TEMPERATURE HISTORY PARAMETERS ',/37X,
2'HEATING',5X,15,13X,F10.2,/37X,'STEP SIZE IN SECONDS',/37X,
3F10.2/37X,'COOLING',5X,15,13X,F10.2/)
0222 WRITE(KO,210)(YD(J),J=1,11),(YD(U),U=13,21,2)
0223 DO 331 I=1,NSREV
0224 IS=I+N
0225 IF(I.GT.NUP) GO TO 3331
0226 DO 3019 J=1,21
0227 TY(J)=(TSREV-TREF)*FLOAT(1)/FLOAT(NUP)+TREF
0228 T(1S)=T(N)+TIUP*FLOAT(1)
0229 CALL STRESS(1,1S)
0230 DO 3099 J=1,21
0231 STRHT(J)=STRES(J)
0232 GO TO 330
0233 IF(I.GT.(NUP+NSOAK)) GO TO 3332
0234 DO 302 J=1,21
0235 TY(J)=TSREV
0236 T(1S)=I(N)+TIUP*FLOAT(NUP)+TISK*FLOAT(1-NUP)
0237 IF(ICREP.EQ.1) GO TO 3021
0238 CALL STRESS(1,1S)
0239 GO TO 3301
0240 CALL STCRP(1S)
0241 DO 3302 J=1,21
0242 STRSK(J)=STRES(J)
0243 GO TO 330
0244 DO 303 J=1,21
0245 TY(J)=(1SREV-TREF)*FLOAT(NSREV-1)/FLOAT(NDN)+TREF
0246 INU=1-NUP*NSOAK
0247 T(1S)=T(N)+TIUP*FLOAT(NUP)+TISK*FLOAT(NSOAK)+TIDN*FLOAT(INU)

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J0H02660
J0H02670
J0H02680
J0H02690
J0H02700
J0H02710
J0H02720
J0H02730
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J0H02980
J0H02990
J0H03000
J0H03010
J0H03020
J0H03030
J0H03040
J0H03050
J0H03060
J0H03070
J0H03080
J0H03090
J0H03100
J0H03110
J0H03120
J0H03130
J0H03140
J0H03150
J0H03160
J0H03170
J0H03180

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0248          CALL STRESS(1,15)
0249          C *** PRINT TEMPERATURES (DEG F), STRAINS (*1000), STRESSES (KSI) ***
0250          C
0251          C
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0253          C
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0255          C
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0995          C
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1000          C

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0288 CALL SYMBOL(7,4,1.5,.07,'AT 2.0 INCHES',.0,0,13)
0289 CALL SYMBOL(7,15,1.05,.05,5.0,0,-1)
0290 CALL SYMBOL(7,4,1.0,.07,'AT 3.0 INCHES',.0,0,13)
0291 CALL PLOT(3,0,0,0,3)
0292 CALL PICTUR(7,0.5,0,'TIME (SECS)',11,
1'WELDING TEMPERATURES (DEGF)',27,1,TY19,N1,.05,1,T,T19,N1,.05,2,
2T,TY11,N1,.05,3,T,TY15,N1,.05,4,T,TY19,N1,.05,5)
CALL PLOT(3,0,0,0,3)
0293 CALL SYMBOL(7,15,3.05,.05,1.0,0,-1)
0294 CALL SYMBOL(7,4,3.0,.07,'AT 0.5 INCHES',.0,0,13)
0295 CALL SYMBOL(7,15,2.55,.05,2.0,0,-1)
0296 CALL SYMBOL(7,4,2.5,.07,'AT 1.0 INCHES',.0,0,13)
0297 CALL SYMBOL(7,15,2.05,.05,3.0,0,-1)
0298 CALL SYMBOL(7,4,2.0,.07,'AT 1.5 INCHES',.0,0,13)
0299 CALL SYMBOL(7,15,1.55,.05,4.0,0,-1)
0300 CALL SYMBOL(7,4,1.5,.07,'AT 2.0 INCHES',.0,0,13)
0301 CALL SYMBOL(7,15,1.05,.05,5.0,0,-1)
0302 CALL SYMBOL(7,4,1.0,.07,'AT 3.0 INCHES',.0,0,13)
0303 CALL PLOT(3,0,0,0,3)
0304 CALL PICTUR(7,0.5,0,'TIME (SECS)',11,
1'WELDING STRESSES (KSI)',22,T,S17,N2,.05,1,T,S19,H2,.05,2,
2T,S11,N2,.05,3,T,S15,N2,.05,4,T,S18,N2,.05,5)
CALL PLOT(3,0,0,0,3)
0306 CALL SYMBOL(7,15,3.05,.05,1.0,0,1)
0307 CALL SYMBOL(7,4,3.0,.07,'AT 0.5 INCHES',.0,0,13)
0308 CALL SYMBOL(7,15,2.55,.05,2.0,0,-1)
0309 CALL SYMBOL(7,4,2.5,.07,'AT 1.0 INCHES',.0,0,13)
0310 CALL SYMBOL(7,15,2.05,.05,3.0,0,-1)
0311 CALL SYMBOL(7,4,2.0,.07,'AT 1.5 INCHES',.0,0,13)
0312 CALL SYMBOL(7,15,1.55,.05,4.0,0,-1)
0313 CALL SYMBOL(7,4,1.5,.07,'AT 2.0 INCHES',.0,0,13)
0314 CALL SYMBOL(7,15,1.05,.05,5.0,0,-1)
0315 CALL SYMBOL(7,4,1.0,.07,'AT 3.0 INCHES',.0,0,13)
0316 CALL PLOT(3,0,0,0,3)
0317 CALL PICTUR(7,0.5,0,'TIME (SECS)',11,
1'MECHANICAL STRAINS (X 1000)',27,1,EM7,N3,.05,1,T,EM9,N3,.05,2,
2T,EM11,N3,.05,3,T,EM15,N3,0,05,4,T,EM18,N3,.05,5)
0318 IF ((SREV.EQ.0) GO TO 9091)
0319 C
C
C
0320 CALL PLOT(3,0,0,0,3)
0321 CALL PICTUR(7,0.5,0,'TIME (HOURS)',12,
1'RELIEVING TEMPERATURE (DEGF)',28,IME,IPL,NSREV1,0,0,0)
CALL PLOT(3,0,0,0,3)
0322 CALL SYMBOL(7,15,3.05,.05,1.0,0,-1)
0323 CALL SYMBOL(7,4,3.0,.07,'AT 0.5 INCHES',.0,0,13)
0324 CALL SYMBOL(7,15,2.55,.05,2.0,0,-1)
0325 CALL SYMBOL(7,4,2.5,.07,'AT 1.0 INCHES',.0,0,13)
0326 CALL SYMBOL(7,15,2.05,.05,3.0,0,-1)
0327 CALL SYMBOL(7,4,2.0,.07,'AT 1.5 INCHES',.0,0,13)
0328 CALL SYMBOL(7,15,1.55,.05,4.0,0,-1)
0329 CALL SYMBOL(7,4,1.5,.07,'AT 2.0 INCHES',.0,0,13)
0330 CALL SYMBOL(7,15,1.05,.05,5.0,0,-1)

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J01H03730
J01H03740
J01H03750
J01H03760
J01H03770
J01H03780
J01H03790
J01H03800
J01H03810
J01H03820
J01H03830
J01H03840
J01H03850
J01H03860
J01H03870
J01H03880
J01H03890
J01H03900
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J01H03920
J01H03930
J01H03940
J01H03950
J01H03960
J01H03970
J01H03980
J01H03990
J01H04000
J01H04010
J01H04020
J01H04030
J01H04040
J01H04050
J01H04060
J01H04070
J01H04080
J01H04090
J01H04100
J01H04110
J01H04120
J01H04130
J01H04140
J01H04150
J01H04160
J01H04170
J01H04180
J01H04190
J01H04200
J01H04210
J01H04220
J01H04230
J01H04240
J01H04250

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DF'E = 82126

MAIN

FORTRAN IV G1 RELEASE 2.0

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0331 CALL SYMBOL(7.15,1.05,.05,5.0,0,-1)
0332 CALL SYMBOL(7.4,1.0,.07,'AT 3.0 INCHES',0.0,13)
0333 CALL PLOT(3.0,0.3)
0334 CALL PICTUR(7.0,5.0,'TIME (HOURS)',12,
1' STRESSES (KSI)',15,TIME,SS57,NSREV1,0.05,1,TIME,SS59,NSREV1,05.2,
2,TIME,SS511,NSREV1,0.05,3,TIME,SS515,NSREV1,.05,4,TIME,SS518,NSREV1,
3,.05,5)
0335 CALL PLOT(3.0,0.0,3)
0336 CALL SYMBOL(7.15,3.05,.05,1.0,0,-1)
0337 CALL SYMBOL(7.4,3.0,.07,'AT 0 5 INCHES',0.0,13)
0338 CALL SYMBOL(7.15,2.55,.05,2.0,0,-1)
0339 CALL SYMBOL(7.4,2.5,.07,'AT 1.0 INCHES',0.0,13)
0340 CALL SYMBOL(7.15,2.05,.05,3.0,0,-1)
0341 CALL SYMBOL(7.4,2.0,.07,'AT 1.5 INCHES',0.0,13)
0342 CALL SYMBOL(7.15,1.55,.05,4.0,0,-1)
0343 CALL SYMBOL(7.4,1.5,.07,'AT 2.0 INCHES',0.0,13)
0344 CALL SYMBOL(7.15,1.05,.05,5.0,0,-1)
0345 CALL SYMBOL(7.4,1.0,.07,'AT 3 0 INCHES',0.0,13)
0346 CALL PLOT(3.0,0.0,3)
0347 CALL PICTUR(7.0,5.0,'TIME (HOURS)',12,
1' MECHANICAL STRAINS (X 1000)',28,TIME,EMM7,NSREV1,.05,1,
2,TIME,EMM9,NSREV1,.05,2,TIME,EMM11,NSREV1,.05,3,TIME,EMM15,NSREV1,.05,
34,TIME,EMM18,NSREV1,.05,5)
0348 CALL PLOT(3.0,0.0,3)
0349 CALL SYMBOL(7.15,3.05,.05,0.0,0,-1)
0350 CALL SYMBOL(7.4,3.0,.07,'AFTER WELDING',0.0,13)
0351 CALL SYMBOL(7.15,2.55,.05,1.0,0,-1)
0352 CALL SYMBOL(7.4,2.5,.07,'AFTER HEATING',0.0,13)
0353 CALL SYMBOL(7.15,2.05,.05,2.0,0,-1)
0354 CALL SYMBOL(7.4,2.0,.07,'AFTER SOAKING',0.0,13)
0355 CALL SYMBOL(7.15,1.55,.05,3.0,0,-1)
0356 CALL SYMBOL(7.4,1.5,.07,'AFTER COOLING',0.0,13)
0357 CALL PLOT(3.0,0.0,3)
0358 CALL PICTUR(7.0,5.0,'TRANSVERSE DISTANCE (INCHES)',28,
1'REMAINING STRESSES (KSI)',24,YD,STRPL,21,05,0,YD,STRHT,21,05,1,
2,YD,STRSK,21,05,2,YD,STRES,21,05,3)
9091 CALL ENDPLOT(11.0,0.0,999)
0359 GO TO 888
9991 CONTINUE
0360 CONTINUE
0361 STOP
0362 END
0363 END

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J0104260
J0104270
J0104280
J0104290
J0104300
J0104310
J0104320
J0104330
J0104340
J0104350
J0104360
J0104370
J0104380
J0104390
J0104400
J0104410
J0104420
J0104430
J0104440
J0104450
J0104460
J0104470
J0104480
J0104490
J0104500
J0104510
J0104520
J0104530
J0104540
J0104550
J0104560
J0104570
J0104580
J0104590
J0104600
J0104610
J0104620
J0104630
J0104640
J0104650
J0104660

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0001 SUBROUTINE TEMP1(XT,K)
C ***** TEMPERATURE DISTRIBUTION DURING WELDING *****
C
0002 DIMENSION YB(8)
0003 COMMON /TEM/TY(21),TEMP(10),CAP(10),RHO(10),COND(10),TREFN(10,21)
0004 COMMON /E/E(10),VP(10),ALPH(10),SLOP(10)
0005 COMMON /ST/RAT(20),T(2000),EX(21),EM(21),EPN(21),STRES(21),EL(21)
0006 COMMON /YW/Y(21),YD(21)
0007 COMMON /YP/YPN(10),YTHN(10,21)
0008 COMMON /PP/P,V,YS, YEP, YOUT, THICK
0009 COMMON /SC/NEGE,HCOI(10)
0010 COMMON /P/YDIS,TMAX,T1X,TREF
0011 COMMON /T/T1,T11,T2,T12,T3,T13,TST
0012 COMMON /IO/KI,KO
0013 YS=YPN(K)
0014 DO 70 J=1,21
0015 YI=YI+YS
0016 NP=2*(NN-1)
0017 NM=-2*NN
0018 YB(NN)=YT+FLOAT(NP)*(YDIS-YS)
0019 NN1=NN+4
0020 YB(NN1)=YT+FLOAT(NM)*(YDIS+YS)
0021 20 CONTINUE
0022 IF(R=0.001) 410,410,411
0023 R=SORT(XT*XT+YT*YT)
0024 IF(R=0.001) 410,410,411
0025 410 TN=TMAX
0026 411 CON=COND(4)
0027 CA=CAP(4)
0028 RH=RHO(4)
0029 HCON=HCOI(4)
0030 TO=TREFN(K,U)
0031 IT=0
0032 10 CONTINUE
0033 IT=IT+1
0034 CON=CON*YTHN(K,J)/THICK
0035 RH=RH*YTHN(K,J)/THICK
0036 C1=V*CA*RH/2.0/CON
0037 C2=P/6.28318/CON
0038 RV2=C1+C1*HCON/CON/THICK
0039 RV=RV+RV2
0040 EK=0.0
0041 DO 45 JJ=1,8
0042 YI=YB(JJ)
0043 R=SORT(XT*XT+YT*YT)
0044 ZZ=RV+R
0045 Z=-1.0+C1*XT
0046 CALL RBES(Z,Z,Z,EKR,B)
0047 EK=EK+EKR
0048 45 CONTINUE
0049
0050

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J0104670
J0104680
J0104690
J0104700
J0104710
J0104720
J0104730
J0104740
J0104750
J0104760
J0104770
J0104780
J0104790
J0104800
J0104810
J0104820
J0104830
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J0104890
J0104900
J0104910
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J0104970
J0104980
J0104990
J0105000
J0105010
J0105020
J0105030
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J0105070
J0105080
J0105090
J0105100
J0105110
J0105120
J0105130
J0105140
J0105150
J0105160
J0105170
J0105180
J0105190

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FORTRAN IV G1  RELEASE 2.0      TEMP 1
0051      TN=C2*EK
0052      TN=TN+TREFN(K,J)
0053      IF(TN.GT.TMAX) TN=TMAX
0054      AB=ABS(TN-TO)
0055      IF(AB<0.5)I1,I1,I1
0056      TM=(TO+TN)/2.0
0057      IF(I1.GT.90) GO TO 988
0058      TO=TN
0059      CON=FILLIN(TM,TEMP,COND,IO)
0060      HCON=FILLIN(TM,TEMP,HCDT,IO)
0061      CA =FILLIN(TM,TEMP,CAP ,IO)
0062      RH =FILLIN(TM,TEMP,RHO ,IO)
0063      GO TO IO
0064      TY(J)=TN
0065      GO TO 888
0066      998 WRITE(K0,298)      J,TM,TO,TN
0067      298 FORMAT(/1X,22HTEMP DOES NOT CONVERGE ,
      *3F10.2,'***** USED TM *****')
0068      TY(J)=TM
0069      CONTINUE
0070      70 CONTINUE
0071      RETURN
0072      END

```

J0H05200
J0H05210
J0H05220
J0H05230
J0H05240
J0H05250
J0H05260
J0H05270
J0H05280
J0H05290
J0H05300
J0H05310
J0H05320
J0H05330
J0H05340
J0H05350
J0H05360
J0H05370
J0H05380
J0H05390
J0H05400
J0H05410
J0H05420

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RBES

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0001 SUBROUTINE RBES(ZZ,Z, EK,B)
0002 IF(ZZ-155.0) 42,42,43
0003 Q=2./ZZ
0004 QQ=Q*Q
0005 Q00=00*Q
0006 IF((Z-ZZ), LI, -170.0) GO TO 45
0007 EK=EXP(Z-ZZ)*(1.253314 -.0783235 *Q+.0218956 *QQ-.0106244 *Q00+.0)
105878 *Q0*Q0-.0025154*Q0Q*Q0+.0005320 *Q0Q*Q0Q)/SQRT(ZZ)
B=0.0
0008 RETURN
0009 CALL BES(ZZ,B)
0010 IF(Z.LE.-15.0) Z=-15.0
0011 EK=B*EXP(Z)
0012 RETURN
0013 EK=0.0
0014 RETURN
0015 END
0016

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J01105430
J01105440
J01105450
J01105460
J01105470
J01105480
J01105490
J01105500
J01105510
J01105520
J01105530
J01105540
J01105550
J01105560
J01105570
J01105580
J01105590

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0001 SUBROUTINE STRESS(K,1)

 C **** STRESS ANALYSIS (WELDING ,HEATING ,COOLING) ****

 C

0002 DIMENSION H2(21),CAT(20),H1(21)

0003 DIMENSION EYN(21),HE(21),H(21),HTE(21),HTEY(21),A(21)

0004 DIMENSION SY(21),SPS(21),TAU(21),EPLA(21),ECR(21)

0005 COMMON /TEM/TY(21),TEMP(10),CAP(10),RHO(10),COND(10),TREFN(10,21)

0006 COMMON /E/E(10),YP(10),ALPH(10),SLOP(10)

0007 COMMON /ST/RAI(20),T(2000),EX(21),EM(21),EPN(21),STRES(21),EL(21)

0008 COMMON /YM/Y(21),YD(21)

0009 COMMON /YP/YPN(10),YTHN(10,21)

0010 COMMON /PP/P,V,YS, YEP, YOUT, THICK

0011 COMMON /SC/NEDGE,HCOI(10)

0012 COMMON /RS/EPO(21)

0013 COMMON /P/POIS,TMAX,TIX,TREF

0014 COMMON /T/T1,T11,T2,T12,T3,T13,TST

0015 COMMON /ID/KI,KO

0016 COMMON /CRP/ECREP(21)

0017 TAUEO=TREF+FILLIN(TREF,TEMP,ALPH,10)/YEP

0018 DO 70 J=1,21

0019 HE(J)=FILLIN(TY(J),TEMP,E,10)

0020 H(J)=HE(J)/E(1)

0021 A(J)=H(J)

0022 SY(J)=A(J)*YTHN(K,J)/THICK

0023 SPS(J)=FILLIN(TY(J),TEMP,YP,10)/YP(1)

0024 TAU(J)=TY(J)*FILLIN(TY(J),TEMP,SLOP,10)

0025 TAU(J)=TAU(J)-TAUEO

0026 ECR(J)=ECREP(J)/YOUT

0027 CONTINUE

0028 IF(NEDGE.GE.1) GO TO 630

0029 IF(NEDGE.LE.-1) GO TO 633

0030 IF(K.NE.1) GO TO 633

0031 IF(T11.LE.TIX) GO TO 630

0032 CONTINUE

0033 IF(TY(1) GE.TMAX) GO TO 630

0034 CALL QUDR(Y,O,H,21,A11,IERROR)

0035 A1=1,O/A1

0036 GO TO 632

0037 DO 631 J=1,21

0038 H2(J)=H(J)*Y(J)

0039 H1(J)=H(J)*Y(J)*Y(J)

0040 CALL QUDR(Y,O,H,21,A13,IERROR)

0041 CALL QUDR(Y,O,H,21,A12,IERROR)

0042 CALL QUDR(Y,O,H,21,A11,IERROR)

0043 DEN=A1*A13-A12*A12

0044 A1=A11/DEN

0045 A2=A12/DEN

0046 A3=A13/DEN

0047 DO 61 J=1,21

0048 IF(A(J) .GT. 48.48,49

0049 EYN(J)=O.O

0050

0056/00 J01I05670

005610 J01I05610

005620 J01I05620

005630 J01I05630

005640 J01I05640

005650 J01I05650

005660 J01I05660

005670 J01I05670

005680 J01I05680

005690 J01I05690

005700 J01I05700

005710 J01I05710

005720 J01I05720

005730 J01I05730

005740 J01I05740

005750 J01I05750

005760 J01I05760

005770 J01I05770

005780 J01I05780

005790 J01I05790

005800 J01I05800

005810 J01I05810

005820 J01I05820

005830 J01I05830

005840 J01I05840

005850 J01I05850

005860 J01I05860

005870 J01I05870

005880 J01I05880

005890 J01I05890

005900 J01I05900

005910 J01I05910

005920 J01I05920

005930 J01I05930

005940 J01I05940

005950 J01I05950

005960 J01I05960

005970 J01I05970

005980 J01I05980

005990 J01I05990

006000 J01I06000

006010 J01I06010

006020 J01I06020

006030 J01I06030

006040 J01I06040

006050 J01I06050

006060 J01I06060

006070 J01I06070

006080 J01I06080

006090 J01I06090

006100 J01I06100

006110 J01I06110

006120 J01I06120

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0051 SPS(J)=0
0052 HE(J)=1
0053 GO TO 61
0054 EYN(J)=SY(J)/A(J)
0055 EPLA(J)=0 0
0056 NC=0
0057 CONTINUE
0058 NC=NC+1
0059 IF(NC GT .20) GO TO 989
0060 DO 63 J=1,21
0061 HTE(J)=H(J)*(TAU(J)+EPLA(J)+ECR(J))
0062 HTEY(J)=HTE(J)*Y(J)
0063 CALL QDDR(Y,O,HTEY,21,TEYH,IERROR)
0064 CALL QDDR(Y,O,O,HTE,21,TEH,IERROR)
0065 DO 65 J=1,21
0066 IF(NEDGE GE. 1) GO TO 650
0067 IF(K.NE.1) GO TO 652
0068 IF(TY(1).GE.TMAX) GO TO 650
0069 IF(T(1).LE.TIX) GO TO 650
0070 CONTINUE
0071 EX(J)=A1*TEH
0072 GO TO 651
0073 EX(J)=(A1-Y(J)+A2)*TEH-(A2-Y(J)*A3)*TEYH
0074 EM(J)=EX(J)-TAU(J)
0075 IF(EPO(J)) 80,81,81
0076 IF(EM(J)) 82,83,83
0077 IF(EM(J)) 84,85,85
0078 EYN(J)=-1 0*EYN(J)
0079 IF(ABS(EM(J)).GT.ABS(EYN(J)))
* EPN(J)=(1 0-SPS(J)/HE(J))*EM(J)-EYN(J)
IF(ABS(EM(J)).LE.ABS(EYN(J))) EPN(J)=0 0
IF(ABS(EPN(J)).LT.ABS(EPO(J))) GO TO 831
GO TO 65
831 IF(ABS(EM(J))+ABS(EYN(J))-ABS(EPO(J))) 833,832,832
832 EPN(J)=EPO(J)
833 GO TO 65
EPN(J)=EM(J)+EYN(J)+SPS(J)/HE(J)*(EPO(J)-EM(J)-EYN(J))
GO TO 65
EYN(J)=-1 0*EYN(J)
82 EYN(J)=-1 0*EYN(J)
85 IF(ABS(EM(J))-ABS(EYN(J))+EPO(J)) 822,822,823
822 EPN(J)=EPO(J)
GO TO 65
823 IF(EM(J).GE.O.O)
* EPN(J)=EM(J)-EYN(J)-SPS(J)/HE(J)*(EM(J)-EYN(J)-EPO(J))
IF(EM(J).LT.O)
* EPN(J)=EM(J)-EYN(J)+SPS(J)/HE(J)*(EM(J)-EYN(J)-EPO(J))
EYN(J)=ABS(EYN(J))
DO 88 J=1,21
88 CONTINUE
38 GO TO 89
86 DO 87 J=1,21
87 EPLA(J)=EPN(J)
0090
0091
0092
0093
0094
0095
0096
0097
0098
0099
0100

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J01106130
J01106140
J01106150
J01106160
J01106170
J01106180
J01106190
J01106200
J01106210
J01106220
J01106230
J01106240
J01106250
J01106260
J01106270
J01106280
J01106290
J01106300
J01106310
J01106320
J01106330
J01106340
J01106350
J01106360
J01106370
J01106380
J01106390
J01106400
J01106410
J01106420
J01106430
J01106440
J01106450
J01106460
J01106470
J01106480
J01106490
J01106500
J01106510
J01106520
J01106530
J01106540
J01106550
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J01106570
J01106580
J01106590
J01106600
J01106610
J01106620
J01106630
J01106640
J01106650

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FORTRAN IV G1  RELEASE 2.0      STRESS      DATE = 82126      14/42/06      PAGE 0003
0101      GO TO 666
0102      CONTINUE
0103      DO 33 J=1,21
0104      EPO(J)=EPN(J)
0105      STRES(J)=YP(1)*A(J)*(EM(J)-EPN(J)-ECR(J))/1000.0
0106      EX(J)=EX(J)*YOUT
0107      EL(J)=(EM(J)-EPN(J)-ECR(J))*YOUT
0108      EM(J)=(EM(J))*YOUT
0109      EPN(J)=EPN(J)*YOUT
0110      GO TO 888
0111      989 WRITE(KD,238)
0112      238 FORMAT(/1X,24HSTRAIN DOES NOT CONVERGE)
0113      888 CONTINUE
0114      999 CONTINUE
0115      RETURN
0116      END

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J01H06660
J01H06670
J01H06680
J01H06690
J01H06700
J01H06710
J01H06720
J01H06730
J01H06740
J01H06750
J01H06760
J01H06770
J01H06780
J01H06790
J01H06800
J01H06810

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STCRP

FURTRAN IV G1 RELEASE 2 O

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0001 SUBROUTINE STCRP(15)
C ***** STRESS ANALYSIS DURING SOAKING *****
C ***** CREEP INCLUDED *****
C
0002 DIMENSION TAU(21),EINTY(21),EINTOT(21),DECRPN(21),HE(21)
0003 DIMENSION H(21),H2(21),H3(21),ECR(21),DECRP(21),H1(21)
0004 COMMON /TEM/TY(21),TEMP(10),CAP(10),RIID(10),COND(10),TREFN(10,21)
0005 COMMON /E/E(10),YP(10),ALPH(10),SLOP(10)
0006 COMMON /ST/RAT(20),T(2000),EX(21),EM(21),EPN(21),EL(21)
0007 COMMON /YW/Y(21),YD(21)
0008 COMMON /YP/YPN(10),YTRN(10,21)
0009 COMMON /PP/P,V,Y,S,YEP,YOUT,THICK
0010 COMMON /SC/NEDEGE,HCOI(10)
0011 COMMON /RS/EPO(21)
0012 COMMON /P/YDIS,IMAX,ILX,TREF
0013 COMMON /T/T1,T11,T2,T12,T3,T13,TST
0014 COMMON /ID/KI,KO
0015 COMMON /CRP/ECREEP(21)
0016 COMMON /SREV/NUP,TIUP,NSDAK,TLSK,NDN,TIDN,TSREV
0017 TAUO=TREF*FILLIN(TREF,TEMP,ALPH,10)/YEP
0018 DO 70 J=1,21
0019 HE(J)=FILLIN(TY(J),TEMP,E,10)
0020 TAU(J)=TY(J)*FILLIN(TV(J),TEMP,ALPH,10)/YEP
0021 TAU(J)=TAU(J)-TAUO
0022 H(J)=HE(J)/E(1)
0023 ECR(J)=ECREEP(J)/YOUT
0024 EPN(J)=EPN(J)/YOUT
0025 CONTINUE
0026 IF(NEDEGE.1) GO TO 630
0027 CALL QUADR(Y,O,O,H,21,A11,IER)
0028 A1=1/A11
0029 GO TO 632
0030 DO 631 J=1,21
0031 H2(J)=H(J)*Y(J)
0032 H1(J)=H(J)*Y(J)*Y(J)
0033 CALL QUADR(V,O,O,H,21,A13,IER)
0034 CALL QUADR(V,O,O,H2,21,A12,IER)
0035 CALL QUADR(V,O,O,H1,21,A11,IER)
0036 DEN=A1*A13-A12*A12
0037 A1=A11/DEN
0038 A2=A12/DEN
0039 A3=A13/DEN
0040 TI=Y(15)-T(N)-TIUP*FLOAT(NUP)
0041 TI=TI/3600.
0042 DO 71 J=1,21
0043 DECRP(J)=O.O
0044 NC=O
0045 CONTINUE
0046 NC=NC+1
0047 IF (NC.GT 20) GO TO 989
0048

```

```

0049      DO 72 J=1,21
0050      EINTOT(J)=H(J)*(TAU(J)+ECR(J)+DECRP(J)+EPN(J))
0051      EINY(J)=EINTOT(J)*Y(J)
0052      CALL QDDR(Y,O,O,EINTOT,21,EIN,IER)
0053      CALL QDDR(Y,O,O,EINY,21,EINY,IER)
0054      DO 65 J=1,21
0055      IF(NEDGE.GE.1) GO TO 650
0056      EX(J)=A1*EIN
0057      GO TO 651
0058      EX(J)=(A1-Y(J)+A2)*EIN-(A2-Y(J)+A3)*EINY
0059      EM(J)=EX(J)-TAU(J)
0060      EL(J)=EM(J)-EPN(J)-ECR(J)
0061      STRES(J)=H(J)*YP(1)+EL(J)/1000
0062      SS=STRES(J)
0063      CALL CREPLO(SS,TT,TO,DE)
0064      DECRP(J)=DE/YEP
0065      CONTINUE
0066      DO 88 J=1,21
0067      IF(ABS(DECRP(J)-DECRPN(J))-O1*ABS(DECRP(J))) 88.88.86
0068      CONTINUE
0069      GO TO 89
0070      DO 87 J=1,21
0071      DECRP(J)=DECRPN(J)
0072      GO TO 666
0073      DO 33 J=1,21
0074      ECR(J)=ECR(J)+DECRP(J)
0075      ECREEP(J)=ECR(J)+YOUT
0076      EM(J)=EM(J)+YOUT
0077      EL(J)=EL(J)+YOUT
0078      EX(J)=EX(J)+YOUT
0079      EPN(J)=EPN(J)+YOUT
0080      GO TO 888
0081      WRITE(KO,238)
0082      FORMAT(1X,,'---*--- CREEP STRAIN DOES NOT CONVERGE ---*---')
0083      CONTINUE
0084      RETURN
0085      END

```

J0107350
J0107360
J0107370
J0107380
J0107390
J0107400
J0107410
J0107420
J0107430
J0107440
J0107450
J0107460
J0107470
J0107480
J0107490
J0107500
J0107510
J0107520
J0107530
J0107540
J0107550
J0107560
J0107570
J0107580
J0107590
J0107600
J0107610
J0107620
J0107630
J0107640
J0107650
J0107660
J0107670
J0107680
J0107690
J0107700
J0107710

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0001

CREPLD

SUBROUTINE CREPLO(S,II,TO,DE)

C

*** UNIAxIAL CREP LAW FOR 304 S S AT 1100 DEG F ***

C

F=5.436E-05*(ABS(S))*1.843
R=5.929E-05*EXP(O.2029*ABS(S))
G=6.73E-09*(SINH(O.1479*ABS(S)))*.3 O
DE=F*(EXP(-R*II)-EXP(-R*TO))+G*(TO-II)
IF (S.GE O.O) GO TO 1
DE=DE
RETURN
END

0002

0003

0004

0005

0006

0007

0008

0009

J0H07720
J0H07730
J0H07740
J0H07750
J0H07760
J0H07770
J0H07780
J0H07790
J0H07800
J0H07810
J0H07820
J0H07830

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```

00011                                        L                                        J0H07840
00012                                        C                                        J0H07850
00013                                        C                                        J0H07860
00014                                        C                                        J0H07870
00015                                        C                                        J0H07880
00016                                        C                                        J0H07890
00017                                        C                                        J0H07900
00018                                        C                                        J0H07910
00019                                        C                                        J0H07920
00020                                        C                                        J0H07930
00021                                        C                                        J0H07940
00022                                        C                                        J0H07950
00023                                        C                                        J0H07960
00024                                        C                                        J0H07970
00025                                        C                                        J0H07980
00026                                        C                                        J0H07990
00027                                        C                                        J0H08000
00028                                        C                                        J0H08010
00029                                        C                                        J0H08020
00030                                        C                                        J0H08030
00031                                        C                                        J0H08040
00032                                        C                                        J0H08050
00033                                        C                                        J0H08060
00034                                        C                                        J0H08070
00035                                        C                                        J0H08080
00036                                        C                                        J0H08090

```

FUNCTION FILLIN(X,AB,OR NO)

PARABOLIC INTERPOLATION

DIMENSION AB(M(1),OR(M))

ANTRA(X1,X2,X3,X,Y1,Y2,Y3)=Y1*(X-X2)*(X-X3)/((X1-X2)*(X1-X3))+

Y2*(X-X1)*(X-X3)/((X2-X1)*(X2-X3))+Y3*(X-X1)*(X-X2)/((X3-X1)*

2*(X3-X2))

IF(X-AB(1)) 1,3,2

1-OR(1)

GO TO 99

Y=ANTRA(AB(1),AB(2),AB(3),X,OR(1),OR(2),OR(3))

GO TO 99

IF(X-AR(J))1,6,5

Y=OR(2)

GO TO 99

DO 7 I=3,M0

M=I

IF(X-AB(I))8,9,7

Y=OR(1)

GO TO 99

CONTINUE

Y=ANTRA(AB(M-2),AB(M-1),AB(M),X,OR(M-2),OR(M-1),OR(M))

FILLIN=Y

RETURN

ENDIF

00037


```

0001 SUBROUTINE BES(X,B)
0002 DIMENSION C(6),CI(6),CK(6)
0003 DATA C/- .0025154, .0058787, .0106244, .0218956, .0783235, 1.253314/
0004 DATA CI/ .0360768, .2659732, 1.206749, 3.089942, 3.515622, 1 /
0005 DATA CK/ .0001075, .0026269, .0348859, .2306975, .4227842, .5772156/
0006 IF (X) 11,10,20
0007 B=999
0008 RETURN
0009 X=-X
0010 11 IF (X-2) 30,50,50
0011 20 XI=ALOG(.5+X)
0012 30 XSK=X**2/4
0013 XSI=X**2/14 .0625
0014 S1= .0045813
0015 SK= .00000740
0016 DD 35 L=1.6
0017 S1-SI*XS1+CI(L)
0018 B=SK-SI*XL
0019 RETURN
0020 XRE=SQRT(X)*EXP(X)
0021 XS=2 /X
0022 SK=.00053208
0023 DD 55 L=1.6
0024 S1-SK*XS+CI(L)
0025 B=SK/XRE
0026 RETURN
0027 END
0028

```

J0H08100
J0H08110
J0H08120
J0H08130
J0H08140
J0H08150
J0H08160
J0H08170
J0H08180
J0H08190
J0H08200
J0H08210
J0H08220
J0H08230
J0H08240
J0H08250
J0H08260
J0H08270
J0H08280
J0H08290
J0H08300
J0H08310
J0H08320
J0H08330
J0H08340
J0H08350
J0H08360
J0H08370

FORTRAN IV G1 RELEASE 2 O

QUDR

SUBROUTINE QUDR(ARG,H,VAL,N,O,IER)

DIMENSION ARG(21),VAL(21)

IER=0

O=0

IF(N-2) 10,20,50

IER=1

RETURN

IF(ARG(1) NE ARG(N)) GO TO 40

IER=2

RETURN

O=(ARG(N)-ARG(1))*(VAL(1)+VAL(N))/2.

RETURN

IF(H,NE.O) GO TO 100

J=2

IF(ARG(J) NE .ARG(J-1)) GO TO 80

IER=2

N=N-1

IF(J.GT.N) GO TO 90

DO 70 K=J,N

ARG(K)=ARG(K+1)

VAL(K)=VAL(K+1)

J=J+1

IF(J.LE.N) GO TO 60

GO TO 100

I=-1

I=I+2

IF((N-I).LE.3) GO TO 150

C

ADD THE AREA BETWEEN ARG(I) AND ARG(I+2)

C

IF(H,NE.O) GO TO 140

H1=(ARG(I+2)-ARG(I))/2

D=ARG(I+1)-ARG(I)-H1

O=O+H1/3*(1+2*D/(H1-D))+VAL(I+2)

I=I+1

IF(I.LT.(N-2)) GO TO 110

RETURN

C

EQUAL INTERVAL

C

D=O.

H1=H

GO TO 130

IF((N-1) EQ 2) GO TO 120

150

ADD THE LAST THREE AREAS

C

C

H1=(ARG(N)-ARG(N-3))/2

D1=ARG(N-2)-ARG(N-3)-H1

D2=ARG(N-1)-ARG(N-3)-H1

O=O+H1/3*(1+2*D1/(H1+D2)+(H1+D1)*(H1+D2))+VAL(N-3)+4*H1+H1/(D2-D1)

1*(D2/(H1+H1-D1-D1)+VAL(N-2)-D1/(H1+H1-D2*D2))+VAL(N-1)+(1+2*D1

1+D2/(H1-D1)*(H1-D2))+VAL(N)

0001

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J0108380

J0108390

J0108400

J0108410

J0108420

J0108430

J0108440

J0108450

J0108460

J0108470

J0108480

J0108490

J0108500

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J0108580

J0108590

J0108600

J0108610

J0108620

J0108630

J0108640

J0108650

J0108660

J0108670

J0108680

J0108690

J0108700

J0108710

J0108720

J0108730

J0108740

J0108750

J0108760

J0108770

J0108780

J0108790

J0108800

J0108810

J0108820

J0108830

J0108840

J0108850

J0108860

J0108870

J0108880

J0108890

J0108900

FORTRAN IV G1 RELEASE 2 O
 0042 RETURN
 0043 END

QUIR

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J0108910
 J0108920

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BLK DATA

FURTRAN IV G1 RELEASE 2.0

J0H08930
J0H08940
J0H08950
J0H08960
J0H08970
J0H08980
J0H08990
J0H09000
J0H09010
J0H09020

0001 BLOCK DATA
0002 COMMON /VW/Y(21),VD(21)
0003 COMMON /IO/KI,KO
0004 DATA KI/5/,KO/6/

C NON DIMENSIONAL INTEGRATION POINTS

0005 DATA V/O 0.0,0.02,0.03,0.04,0.05,0.07,0.0833,0.11,0.1666,0.2,
0006 1 0.23,0.250,0.29,0.31,0.333,0.38,0.45,0.50,0.7,0.85,1.0/
END

FILE BUT1100 DATA A VM/SP CONVERSATIONAL MONITOR SYSTEM

	90.00	0.650	0.375	266	1100	DEG	F	1800.	2600
23 0	90.00	0.650	0.375	266	1100	DEG	F	1800.	2600
75	200	400	800.	1000	1200.	1400.	1600.	1800.	2600
0.183	0.197	0.233	0.296	0.324	0.351	0.374	0.401	0.427	0.531
100.23	105.506	110.781	121.331	127.602	131.882	133.992	137.157	140.850	149.818
0.29	0.288	0.286	0.283	0.281	0.279	0.277	0.275	0.273	0.265
28.3	27.9	26.6	24.1	22.5	21.1	19.4	16.1	8.3	0.0
35	29.05	24.15	19.6	18.2	16.45	13.65	7.0	3.5	0.0
9.48	9.59	9.75	10.11	10.25	10.40	10.60	10.75	10.93	11.59
0.730	0.720	0.686	0.622	0.580	0.544	0.500	0.415	0.214	0.00
0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003
0									
0 0									
0.375	0.375	0.375	0.375	0.375	0.375	0.375	0.375	0.375	0.375
5.0	2600	40.	75.0	2000.	100.	0.0			
150	2	400.0	10.0						
10000									
1	0	116	103	103					
1	1	10	50	10	360.	360	360.	1100.	

FILE EG1100 DATA A VM/SP CONVERSATIONAL MONITOR SYSTEM

	90 00	0 50	0 375	266	1800.	2600.
EDGE WEIDING OF 304 PLATE AND STRESS RELIEVING AT 1100 DEG F	300	800.	1000	1200.	1400.	1600.
0 183	0 197	0 233	0 296	0 324	0 351	0 401
100 23	105.506	110.781	121.331	127.662	131.882	137 157
0 29	0.288	0.286	0.283	0.281	0.279	0.275
28 3	27.9	26.6	24.1	22.5	21.1	19.4
35	29.05	24 15	19.6	18.2	16.45	13.65
9 48	9 59	9 75	10.11	10.25	10.40	10.60
0 730	0 720	0.686	0.622	0.580	0.544	0.500
0 003	0 003	0 003	0 003	0 003	0 003	0 003
0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0
0 375	0 375	0 375	0 375	0 375	0 375	0 375
5.0	2600	40.	75 0	100.	100.	0 0
150.	2	400 0	10.0	2000.	100.	0 0
100000.						
1	0 116	103 103				
1	1 10	50 10	360	360.	360	1100.

FILE: EG500 DATA A VM/SP CONVERSATIONAL MONITOR SYSTEM

23.0	90.00	0.50	0.375	.266	1800.	2600.
EDGE WELDING OF 304 PLATE AND STRESS RELIEVING AT 500 DEG F	200.	400.	800.	1000.	1200.	1400.
0.183	0.197	0.233	0.296	0.324	0.351	0.401
100.23	105.506	110.781	121.331	127.662	131.882	133.992
0.29	0.288	0.286	0.283	0.281	0.279	0.277
28.3	27.9	26.6	24.1	22.5	21.1	19.4
35.	29.05	24.15	19.6	18.2	16.45	13.65
9.48	9.59	9.75	10.11	10.25	10.40	10.60
0.730	0.720	0.686	0.622	0.580	0.544	0.500
0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003
1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0.0	0.375	0.375	0.375	0.375	0.375	0.375
6.0	2500.	40.	75.0	100.	100.	0.0
150.	2.	400.0	10.0	2000.	100.	0.0
10000.	0	116	103	103	360.	500
1	0	10	50	10	360.	500

APPENDIX D

LISTINGS OF DATA ACQUISITION AND REDUCTION PROGRAMS

FORTRAN IV V02.5

```

0001 ***** PAGE 001 *****
0002 PROGRAM SMPLE.FOR
0003
0004 *****
0005 *****
0006 *****
0007 *****
0008 *****
0009 *****
0010 *****
0011 *****
0012 *****
0013 *****
0014 *****
0015 *****
0016 *****
0017 *****
0018 *****
0019 *****
0020 *****
0021 *****
0022 *****
0023 *****
0024 *****
0025 *****
0026 *****
0027 *****

```

```

LOGICAL*1 BUF1(4),FNAME(16),BUF(20),BUF3(4)
LOGICAL*1 BUF2(6),IX(2,10),ROUT(90)
DIMENSION I(3000)
EQUIVALENCE (ROUT(1),VAL(1,1))
INTEGER*4 ITM1,ITM0
DATA BUF1/'L','O','C','I','X',*15/
DATA BUF2/'C','H','N','I',*15/
DATA BUF3/'U','N','L',*15/
DATA IX/'0','5','1','2','3','4','5','6','7','8','9',*9/
2,'1','0','1','1','2','1','3','1','4'//
NCHRI=4
NCHR2=6
NCHR3=4
IFLAG1=0
IFLAG2=0
IFLAG3=0
CC OUTPUT FILE INITIALIZATION
CC
TYPE *, 'WHAT IS THE NAME OF THE OUTPUT FILE'
ACCEPT 701,(FNAME(I),I=1,14)
FORMAT(14A1)
FNAME(15)=0
OPEN(UNIT=15,NAME=FNAME,TYPE='NEW',ACCESS='SEQUENTIAL',
1FORM='FORMATTED')
CC
CC TIME STEPS DEFINITION
CC
TYPE *, ' ENTER TIME LIMITS FOR EVERY INTERVAL'
TYPE *, ' ( ENTER T1,T2,T3 IN SECONDS )'
ACCEPT *,T1,T2,T3
TYPE *, ' ENTER TIME STEP SIZE FOR EVERY INTERVAL'
TYPE *, ' (T1,T2,T3 IN SECONDS)'
TYPE *, 'NOTE THAT TIME STEPS MUST BE GREATER THAN 4.5 SECS !!!'

```

PAGE 002

```

FORTRAN IV          V02.5
TYPE *,' (FOR 5 STRAIN GAGES AND 5 THERMOCOUPLES)
ACCEPT *,I11,I12,I13
N=1
I1=I11
I(1)=0,0
IF(I(N).GE.I1) I1=I12
IF(I(N).GE.I2) I1=I13
IF(I(N).GE.I3) GO TO 41
I(N+1)=I(N)+I1
N=N+1
GO TO 40
CONTINUE
TYPE 702,'(I,IJK),JJK=1,N)
FOKMAT(IH,IS,IX,IFIO,2))
TYPE *,'*** ARE TIME STEPS OK ?? (YES=1,NO=0) ***'
ACCEPT *,IYE
IF (IYE.EQ.0) GO TO 100
SAMPLING PHASE
PAUSE , TYPE A CARRIAGE RETURN TO START SAMPLING !!'
TYPE *,'TYPE A SECOND CARRIAGE RETURN TO STOP !!'
GET INITIAL TIME
CALL GTIM(ITMO)
CALL CVTIM(ITMO,IHO,IMO,ISO,ITO)
LOOP FOR ALL TIME STEPS
DO 121 JJ=1,N
CALL GTIM(ITM1)
CALL CVTIM(ITM1,IH1,IM1,IS1,I11)
TIM=(IH1-IHO)*3600.+(IM1-IMO)*60.+(IS1-ISO)+(I11-I10)/60.
IF(TIM.LT.I(JJ)) GO TO 1
CALL GTIM(ITM1)
CALL CVTIM(ITM1,IH1,IM1,IS1,I11)
TIM=(IH1-IHO)*3600.+(IM1-IMO)*60.+(IS1-ISO)+(I11-I10)/60.
SEND 'LOC' (9635 MEMORY FREEZE) COMMAND
CALL COUT (BUF1,NCHK1,IFLAG1)
IF (IFLAG1.EQ.1) GO TO 901
JJI=JJ-1
TYPE 718,JJI,TIM
FORMAT(3X,I5,F10.3)
LOOP FOR ALL CHANNELS
DO 103 JL=1,10
CALL CINKST
DO 104 J=1,20
BUF(J)=
BUF2(4)=IX(1,JL)

```

PAGE 003

```

FORTRAN IV          V02.5          PAGE 003
0073                BUF2(5)=IX(2,JL)
C                   SEND 'CHN X' (CHANNEL SAMPLING) COMMAND
C
0074                CALL COUT (BUF2,NCHR2,IFLAG2)
0075                IF (IFLAG2.EQ.1) GO TO 902
0076                IFL=0
0077                NCNT=0
C                   INPUT SERIAL DATA FROM 9635
C
0079                CALL CIN (BUF,IFL,NCNT)
0080                IF (IFL.EQ.0) GO TO 900
C                   GET RID OF LF,CR OR UREADABLE CHARACTERS
C
0082                DO 11 I=4,12
0083                JLI=(JL-1)*9+I-3
0084                IF (BUF(I).NE.'15') GO TO 112
0085                RUF(I)=
0086                IF (BUF(I),NE.'0') GO TO 11
0087                BUF(I)=
0088                RUF(JLI)=RUF(I)
0089                CONTINUE
0090                GO TO 112
0091                GO TO 103
C
C
0092                SEND 'UNL' (9635 MEMORY UNFREEZE) COMMAND
0093                CALL COUT (BUF3,NCHR3,IFLAG3)
C                   IF (IFLAG3.EQ.1) GO TO 903
C
C                   SET DATA TO PROPER FORMAT
C
0095                DO 93 I=1,10
0096                J9=9
0097                DO 92 IL=1,9
0098                ILI=9-IL+1
0099                IF (VAL(IL,I).EQ.' ') GO TO 92
0100                BOT(J9,I)=VAL(IL,I)
0101                J9=J9-1
0102                CONTINUE
0103                DO 94 JI=1,J9
0104                BOT(JI,I)=' '
0105                CONTINUE
0106                WRITE THE DATA TO THE DISC AND DISPLAY SOME IN THE TERMINAL
C
0107                WRITE (15,703) IIM,((BOT(IL,I),IL=1,9),I=1,10)
0108                FORMAT (1X,F10.3,4X,10(1X,9A1))
0109                TYPE 704,((BOT(IL,I),IL=1,9),I=1,3),((BOT(ML,M),ML=1,9),M=6,8)
0110                FORMAT (15X,6(1X,9A1))
C
C                   CHECK IF A CARRIAGE RETURN HAS BEEN TYPED TO STOP SAMPLING
C
0111                IY=ITTRNK()

```

```

FORTAN IV           V02.5                PAGE 004
0112                IF(IY,GE.0) GO TO 122
0114                CONTINUE
C                    END OF TIME STEPS LOOP
C
0115                GO TO 125
0116                TYPE *, 'DO YOU WANT TO CONTINUE SAMPLING IN THE SAME FILE ??'
0117                TYPE *, '(YES=1,NO=0),
0118                ACCEPT *, IYST
0119                IF (IYST.NE.0) GO TO 121
0121                CLOSE (UNIT=15)
0122                STOP
0123                END

```

PAGE 001

FORTRAN IV V02.5

```

*****
C *****
C SEND.FOR
C
C PROGRAM TO SEND CONTROL COMMANDS
C TO THE 9635 DAYTRONIC MODULE
C
C EXAMPLE: LOC (FOR MEMORY FREEZE)
C UNL (FOR MEMORY UNFREEZE)
C RST X (TO RESET CHNNL X TO MILLIVOLTS)
C ZRO X (TO SET CHNNL X TO ZERO)
C
C COMMAND TEXT CAN BE UP TO 9 CHARACTERS
C (CARRIAGE RETURN IS ADDED BY THE PROGRAM)
C *****
C *****
C LOGICAL*1 BUF1(10)
C DATA BUF1(10)/"15/
C TYPE *, 'WHAT DO YOU WANT TO BE SENT ?'
C ACCEPT 11, (BUF1(I), I=1,9)
C FORMAT(9A1)
C N1=10
C I1=0
C CALL COUT(BUF1, N1, I1)
C IF(I1.EQ.1) GO TO 2
C TYPE *, 'DO YOU WANT TO SEND MORE ? (YES=1, NO=0)'
C ACCEPT 12, IY
C FORMAT(I1)
C IF(IY.EQ.1) GO TO 1
C STOP
C END
0001
0002
0003 1
0004
0005 11
0006
0007
0008 2
0009
0011
0012
0013 12
0014
0016
0017

```

FORTRAN IV V02.5

```

C*****
C          REDUCE.FOR
C          PROGRAM TO COMPENSATE FOR TEMPERATURE INDUCED
C          APPARENT STRAIN AND GAGE FACTOR VARIATION
C          OR TO SCREEN SOME MEASUREMENTS
C          FOR THE CASE OF VERY LARGE INPUT FILES
C          READINGS ARE INPUT FROM FILE "FLIN"
C          IN INTEGER FORMAT (FORMATS 702 OR 703)
C          CORRECTED STRAINS ARE OUTPUT TO FILE "FLOUT"
C          IN REAL FORMAT (FORMATS 704 OR 705)
C*****

```

```

0001 LOGICAL*1 FLIN(16),FLOUT(16)
0002 DIMENSION IVSG(10),IVTC(10),STR(10),TEMP(10),STRAIN(10)

```

```

C          I/O FILES INITIALIZATION AND DATA INPUT

```

```

0003 TYPE *,WHAT IS THE NAME OF THE INPUT DATA FILE ?'
0004 ACCEPT 701,(FLIN(I),I=1,14)
0005 FORMAT (14A1)
0006 FLIN(15)=0
0007 OPEN (UNIT=15,NAME=FLIN,TYPE='OLD',ACCESS='SEQUENTIAL',
0008 1FORM='FORMATTED')
0009 TYPE *,WHAT IS THE NAME OF THE OUTPUT DATA FILE ?'
0010 ACCEPT 701,(FLOUT(I),I=1,14)
0011 FLOUT(15)=0
0012 OPEN (UNIT=16,NAME=FLOUT,TYPE='NEW',ACCESS='SEQUENTIAL',
0013 1FORM='FORMATTED')
0014 TYPE *,ENTER NUMBER OF STRAIN GAGE CHANNELS (MAX=10)'
0015 ACCEPT *,NSG
0016 TYPE *,ENTER NUMBER OF THERMOCOUPLE CHANNELS (MAX=10)'
      NCH=NSG+NTC

```

```

C          IF NSG IS GREATER THAN NTC THE PROGRAM WILL ASSUME THAT
C          THE LAST (NSG-NTC) STRAIN GAGES ARE AT THE SAME TEMPERATURES
C          AS THE FIRST NTC OF THEM

```

```

0017 TYPE *,ENTER NUMBER OF RUNS '
0018 ACCEPT *,NR
0019 TYPE *,EVERY HOW MANY POINTS DO YOU WANT TO READ AND WRITE ?'
0020 ACCEPT *,NJ
0021 NCOUNT=NJ
0022 TYPE *,DO YOU WANT TO COMPENSATE FOR TEMPERATURE EFFECTS ?'
0023 TYPE *,(YES=1,NO=0)
0024 ACCEPT *,ITMP

```

```

C          IF NO COMPENSATION IS REQUIRED THE "SCREENED" DATA

```

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V02.5

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```

0025      C
0026      C
0027      C
0028      C
0029      C
0030      C
0031      C
0032      C
0033      C
0034      C
0035      C
0036      C
0037      C
0038      C
0039      C
0040      C
0041      C
0042      C
0043      C
0044      C
0045      C
0046      C
0047      C
0048      C
0049      C
0050      C
0051      C
0052      C
0053      C
0054      C
0055      C
0056      C
0057      C
0058      C
0059      C
0060      C
0061      C
0062      C
0063      C
0064      C
0065      C
0066      C
0067      C
0068      C
0069      C
0070      C
0071      C
0072      C
0073      C
0074      C
0075      C
0076      C
0077      C
0078      C
0079      C
0080      C
0081      C
0082      C
0083      C
0084      C
0085      C
0086      C
0087      C
0088      C
0089      C
0090      C
0091      C
0092      C
0093      C
0094      C
0095      C
0096      C
0097      C
0098      C
0099      C
0100      C
0101      C
0102      C
0103      C
0104      C
0105      C
0106      C
0107      C
0108      C
0109      C
0110      C
0111      C
0112      C
0113      C
0114      C
0115      C
0116      C
0117      C
0118      C
0119      C
0120      C
0121      C
0122      C
0123      C
0124      C
0125      C
0126      C
0127      C
0128      C
0129      C
0130      C
0131      C
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0133      C
0134      C
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0140      C
0141      C
0142      C
0143      C
0144      C
0145      C
0146      C
0147      C
0148      C
0149      C
0150      C
0151      C
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0157      C
0158      C
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0183      C
0184      C
0185      C
0186      C
0187      C
0188      C
0189      C
0190      C
0191      C
0192      C
0193      C
0194      C
0195      C
0196      C
0197      C
0198      C
0199      C
0200      C

```

WILL BE WRITTEN IN THE OUTPUT FILE
 WITH THE SAME FORMAT AS IN THE INPUT FILE
 TYPE *, (YES=1, NO=0),
 ACCEPT *, ISGN
 DEPENDING ON THE CONNECTIONS OF THE BRIDGE COMPLETION CIRCUITS
 IN THE STRAIN GAGE CONDITIONER SIGN CHANGE OF S.G. READINGS
 MIGHT BE NEEDED
 DO 100 I=1, NR
 IF (NSG.GT.5) GO TO 2
 READ (15,702) TIM, (IVSG(J), J=1, NSG), (IVTC(J), J=1, NTC)
 FORMAT (1X, F10.3, 4X, 10(1X, I9))
 GO TO 3
 READ (15,703) TIM, (IVSG(J), J=1, NSG), (IVTC(J), J=1, NTC)
 FORMAT (1X, F10.3, 4X, 10(1X, I9)/15X, 10(1X, I9))
 IF (ISGN.NE.1) GO TO 300
 DO 30 J=1, NSG
 IVSG(J)=-IVSG(J)
 NCOUNT=NCOUNT-1
 IF (NCOUNT.NE.0) GO TO 100
 DO 101 I=1, NSG
 STR(I1)=IVSG(I1)
 IF (I1.GT.NTC) GO TO 102
 TEMP(I1)=IVTC(I1)
 GO TO 103
 TEMP(I1)=IVTC(I1-NTC)
 IF (ITMP.NE.1) GO TO 101
 CALL COMP(TEMP(I1), STR(I1), STRAIN(I1))
 CONTINUE
 IF (ITMP.NE.1) GO TO 104
 IF (NSG.GT.5) GO TO 21
 WRITE (16,704) TIM, (STRAIN(J), J=1, NSG), (TEMP(J), J=1, NTC)
 FORMAT (1X, F10.3, 4X, 10(1X, F9.2))
 GO TO 31
 WRITE (16,705) TIM, (STRAIN(J), J=1, NSG), (TEMP(J), J=1, NTC)
 FORMAT (1X, F10.3, 4X, 10(1X, F9.2)/15X, 10(1X, F9.2))
 GO TO 31
 IF (NSG.GT.5) GO TO 22
 WRITE (16,702) TIM, (IVSG(J), J=1, NSG), (IVTC(J), J=1, NTC)
 GO TO 31
 WRITE (16,703) TIM, (IVSG(J), J=1, NSG), (IVTC(J), J=1, NTC)
 NCONTINUE
 CLOSE (UNIT=15)
 CLOSE (UNIT=16)
 STOP
 END


```

FORTRAN IV          V02.5                      PAGE 001
C*****
C PLO.FOR
C PROGRAM TO PLOT STRAIN GAGE AND T/C READINGS
C ASSUME READINGS ARE IN FILE 'FNAME'
C*****
0001 LOGICAL*1 FNAME(16),OUNAM(16)
0002 DIMENSION VAL(300,15),TIM(300),PLO(300)
0003 DIMENSION IVSG(10),IVTC(10),VSG(10),VTC(10)
0004 TYPE*,WHAT IS THE NAME OF THE INPUT DATA FILE ?'
0005 ACCEPT(701),(FNAME(I),I=1,14)
0006 FORMAT(14A1)
0007 OPEN(UNIT=15,NAME=FNAME,TYPE='OLD',ACCESS='SEQUENTIAL',
0008 1FORM='FORMATTED')
0009 TYPE*,NOTE : ARE DATA IN INTEGER FORMAT ? (YES=1,NO=0)',
0010 TYPE*,
0011 ACCEPT*,IINT
0012 TYPE*,ENTER NUMBER OF STRAIN GAGE CHANNELS (MAX=10)'
0013 ACCEPT*,NSG
0014 TYPE*,ENTC
0015 NCH=NSG+NTC
0016 TYPE*,ENTER NUMBER OF RUNS (MAX=300)'
0017 ACCEPT*,NR
0018
C C C
C READ INPUT DATA FILE
C DO 100 J=1,NR
C IF (IINT.NE.1) GO TO 1
C IF (NSG.GT.5) GO TO 2
C READ (15,702)TIM(J),(IVSG(I),I=1,NSG),(IVTC(I),I=1,NTC)
C GO TO 3
C READ (15,703)TIM(J),(IVSG(I),I=1,NSG),(IVTC(I),I=1,NTC)
C DO 301 IS=1,NSG
C VAL(J,IS)=IVSG(IS)
C DO 302 IT=1,NTC
C VAL(J,IT+NSG)=IVTC(IT)
C GO TO 100
C IF (NSG.GT.5) GO TO 21
C READ (15,704)TIM(J),(VSG(I),I=1,NSG),(VTC(I),I=1,NTC)
C GO TO 31
C READ (15,705)TIM(J),(VSG(I),I=1,NSG),(VTC(I),I=1,NTC)
C DO 311 IS=1,NSG
C VAL(J,IS)=VSG(IS)
C DO 312 IT=1,NTC
C VAL(J,IT+NSG)=VTC(IT)
C CONTINUE
C PLOTTING PHASE (USE OF PLTSVK PLOTTING PACKAGE)
C

```

```

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C
0042 DO 110 I=1,NCH
0043 DO 111 J=1,NR
0044 PLO(J)=VAL(J,I)
0045 TYPE*,ENTER OPTION (2 FOR SAME PARAMETERS AS PREVIOUS GRAPH)
0046 ACCEPT*,IDPT
0047 CALL GRAPH(TIM,FLO,NR,IOPT)
0048 CONTINUE
0049 FORMAT(1X,F10.3,4X,10(1X,I9))
0050 FORMAT(1X,F10.3,4X,10(1X,I9)/15X,10(1X,I9))
0051 FORMAT(1X,F10.3,4X,10(1X,F9.2))
0052 FORMAT(1X,F10.3,4X,10(1X,F9.2)/15X,10(1X,F9.2))
0053 CLOSE (UNIT=15)
0054 STOP
0055 END

```