The primary aim of the investigation was to explore the production and control of microstructures of 7050 and 7475 through variations in the temperature compensated strain rate, \( Z \) \( (Z = \varepsilon \exp(\Delta H)) \). The experimental design was constructed such that the results \( RT \) could be expressed in terms of the more traditional -- billet temperature, extrusion ratio, and section aspect ratio. Extremes in ram speed, extrusion ratio, and billet temperature were chosen such that the widest variation in \( Z \) and, therefore, the
widest variation in microstructure could be achieved. Accordingly, 7050 and 7475 were direct extruded into round rod and rectangular bars on a 22.24 MN press. The microstructures were characterized in the solution heat treated and aged conditions as a function of temperature compensated strain rate, Z. The following observations were made: (1) Extrusions run under conditions of highest Z had the greatest tendency to recrystallize upon solution heat treatment. (2) Extrusion ratio appeared to have an effect on the development of structure even though geometry and ratio were taken into account in the definition of strain rate. The lower extrusion ratio consistently gave a greater tendency to recrystallize during heat treatment. (3) Under similar conditions, alloy 7050 had a greater tendency to recrystallize than alloy 7475. (4) The grain structure in the extrusions varied from surface to center. In extrusions with limited recrystallization, the amount of deformation could be qualitatively assessed by comparing the aspect ratio (length/width) of the original grains. Higher aspect ratios occurred near the surface of the extrusions. (5) The extrusion ratio and location within the extrusion affected the distribution of Al7Cu2Fe and Mg2Si, the insoluble intermetallics. The effect of these microstructural features on the tensile, fracture toughness and fatigue crack growth are discussed.
SUMMARY

Direct extrusion of aluminum alloy 7050 and 7475 results in a product which has a nonuniform microstructure. The structure varies from surface to center and from front to rear of the product. The nonuniform structure develops within the billet during the extrusion process. Cylinder wall shear produces a region of intense deformation adjacent to the surface. During the stroke this layer widens and toward the end of the extrusion cycle, the heavily sheared layer constitutes a significant volume of the billet. The material at the surface of the product comes from the heavily sheared layer and the depth of this well defined layer increases from front to rear of the product. During solution heat treatment, if the structure has a tendency to recrystallize the greatest probability of recrystallization is at the surface. Extruding at high Z (low temperature and high strain rate where Z is the temperature compensated strain rate) facilitates recrystallization throughout the product with complete recrystallization at the surface. Furthermore, the results of this investigation indicate that under similar fabricating conditions 7050 has a greater tendency to recrystallize than 7475.

In addition to the effect of nonuniform flow on the development of a nonuniform grain structure, the distribution of insoluble particles are also affected by the metal flow. At high extrusion ratio, or near the surface where the amount of deformation is high, the interparticle spacing of the insolubles appears to be modified by deformation. Increasing the deformation
increases the interparticle spacing in a plane parallel to the deformation.

Yield strength was affected by cross-section geometry and composition, but was unaffected by changes in Z or R (extrusion ratio). The major effect of cross-section geometry appears to be on its influence on crystallographic texture. Axi-symmetric extrusion (round billet cross-section to a round product) leads to duplex fiber texture. The <111> and <100> directions are parallel to the axis of extrusion, changing the cross-section to a rectangle results in a texture similar to that which is produced by hot-rolling ((110) <112>).

Ductility and toughness could be correlated to extrusion ratio and location with respect to surface or center of the extruded product. Increasing R or testing near the surface results in an increase in L and LT ductility and an increase in UPE in the L and LT orientations.

Analysis of the fatigue crack growth data revealed only one consistent trend in the data. The combination of high Z and high R resulted in the shortest lives for both 7050 and 7475.

The use of Z in relating microstructure to processing in heat treatable alloys must be approached with caution, since changes in temperature affect the amount of soluble phase in solution and therefore the recrystallization behavior.
FORWARD

This investigation was conducted for the U.S. Naval Air Systems Command under Contract N00019-77-C-0499. Mr. E. S. Balmuth was the original contract monitor and Mr. Michael D. Valentine the monitor at the completion of the final report. The research was conducted at Alcoa Laboratories. Dr. T. H. Sanders, Jr. was the project scientist, Mr. J. T. Staley supervised Dr. Sanders during the design and execution of the experiments.

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INTRODUCTION

Extrusion is an important process in commercial forming of metals. It is, however, a complex process insofar as understanding how structure develops during deformation and how structure, in turn, determines final mechanical properties. There have been a number of investigations which have led to a fundamental understanding of the relationship between microstructure and processing variables such as billet temperature, ram speed, and extrusion ratio. Although most of these studies have been conducted using high purity alloys, small laboratory presses, and axisymmetric deformation, the results of these investigations can be applied to the design and execution of a program to address some of the complexities of commercial extrusion. This program attempts to examine in detail the influence of changes in the basic extrusion variables on the development, distribution and morphology of a variety of microstructural features and the relationship of the microstructure to strength, toughness, and fatigue crack growth of heat treatable aluminum alloys.

In past investigations, partially extruded billets and products were examined by optical, X-ray degree of recrystallization, and transmission electron microscopy techniques. These examinations revealed systematic variations in deformation throughout the billet and product. The structural observations were correlated to the mechanical properties by applying concepts originally developed to explain
structural changes occurring in creep, where flow stress, \( \sigma \), strain rate, \( \dot{\varepsilon} \), and deformation temperature, \( T \), are related by:

\[
\sigma = f(Z), \quad \text{where} \quad Z = \dot{\varepsilon} \left( \exp \left( \frac{\Delta H}{RT} \right) \right).
\]

In the above equation, \( \Delta H \) is an activation energy and \( Z \) is the Zener-Holloman parameter or temperature compensated strain rate.

Qualitatively, when \( Z \) is high, i.e., either the temperature is low or the strain rate is high, fewer thermally activated events can occur per unit strain, and, therefore, the flow stress will be high. When \( Z \) is low, the converse is true.

Structurally, for a particular combination of \( \dot{\varepsilon} \) and \( T \), i.e., \( Z \), a limiting or equilibrium subgrain size is reached and, correspondingly, a limiting flow stress results. Usually, both equilibrium subgrain size and flow stress can be functionally related to \( Z \). The equilibrium structure is a consequence of the mutual rates of creation and annihilation of dislocations and the rearrangement of the remaining dislocations into regular low angle boundaries or subgrains. This mechanism is referred to as dynamic recovery.

Because flow stress at room temperature also increases with decreasing subgrain size, equilibrium structures produced under a variety of hot working conditions should reflect an
interrelationship between Z, subgrain size, and room temperature properties of nonheat treatable alloys.

The application of the above principles can then be applied to extrusions in the following way. The variables temperature, ram speed, and extrusion ratio can be used to calculate Z by applying certain simplifying assumptions. For instance, the starting billet temperature may be used as an estimate of temperature and the strain rate may be calculated by use of a relationship such as Feltham's:

\[ \frac{6D_c^2 V_{\text{ram}} (\ln R) \tan \alpha}{D_c^3 - D_E^3} \]

where:

- \( \dot{\varepsilon} \) = mean strain rate,
- \( D_c \) = cylinder diameter,
- \( D_E \) = diameter of extruded section,
- \( V_{\text{ram}} \) = ram speed,
- \( R \) = extrusion ratio, and
- \( \alpha \) = angle between cylinder center line and the dead metal zone boundary.

Thus, for given conditions, an estimate of the temperature compensated strain rate, Z, is:

\[ Z = \left[ \frac{6D_c^2 V_{\text{ram}} (\ln R) \tan \alpha}{D_c^3 - D_E^3} \right] \exp \left[ \frac{\Delta H}{R T_{\text{billet}}} \right]. \]
Using these ideas, the present investigation aims to test the applicability and limitations of the above concepts when applied to commercial, heat treatable, high-strength 7XXX aluminum alloys and to make available the information gathered to aid in the production of consistent, predictable structures and properties.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

Material

Four 22.86 cm (9.0") x 254 cm (100.0") ingots were cast by the HDC method. The melt analyses are listed in Table 1. The compositions are nominally equivalent to 7050 and 7475. Two solidification rates were used in an attempt to alter the ingot grain size to correspond to large and small ingot cross-sections. The cast ingots were scalped to approximately 15.5 cm (6.12") diameter and cut into 30.5 cm (12.0") length for extrusions billets.

Fabrication

The billets were extruded into round rod and rectangular bars from a 16.2 cm (6.38") diameter cylinder on a 22.24 MN (2500 ton) production size press. A detailed description of the experimental design is given in Appendix A. The extrusion data are summarized in Table 2 and represent two phases of work. In the first phase, aimed at better understanding of the development of structure and properties in an extruded product, four 7050 billets were preheated, reheated to the desired extrusion temperature and partially extruded to approximately 50% of complete extrusion. Once the desired amount of extrusion was achieved, the unextruded portion of the billet was pushed from
the container, sheared from the extruded product, and quenched in room-temperature water. The elapsed time from load removal to quench was approximately one minute. The unextruded billet portions were split in half longitudinally. One half of the billet was solution heat treated at 477°C (890°F) for 1.5 hours and cold water quenched. Both halves were then machined on a diametral plane and macroetched to reveal the flow patterns and the developing structures in the as-fabricated temper (F) and in the solution heat treated and quenched temper (W). The macroetching was done using hot, 66°C (150°F) caustic solution (5% by weight NaOH), washed in room temperature water, washed in 20% (by volume) nitric acid to remove corrosion product, and rinsed in water.

In the second phase, 26 billets were extruded at various extrusion ratios, temperatures, strain rates, and section geometries to manipulate microstructure, in accordance with previous discussion.

Microstructure

Structure in the Billet. Figure 1 is a photograph showing the grain flow in the high Z, low R extrusion (F temper) and illustrating the regions of interest for the metallographic and TEM investigations in the F and W tempers of the partially extruded 7050 billets. As indicated in the photograph, there are four regions to be examined. One is region A, a region of intense deformation as suggested by the grain flow. This region lies adjacent to the cylinder wall at the rear of the billet and
curves toward the die opening at the front of the billet. A second region, B, lies along the centerline which extends from the rear of the billet toward the die opening. A third region, C, appears as a "cone" of deformation and is located in the approach to the die opening. The fourth region, D, lies just beyond the die exit in the product.

TEM and X-ray transmission specimens were prepared from the partially extruded billets by machining a longitudinal slab approximately 0.51 mm (0.020") thick. For reference, the thinned sections contained the macroetched surface. The machined slabs were chemically thinned in a solution containing 400 ml HCl, 400 ml H₂O, 20 grams NaCl and 4 grams NiSO₄. The sections were then washed in a caustic solution (5% by weight NaOH) and cleaned in a solution of concentrated HNO₃. Transmission Laue photographs were taken at selected locations adjacent to, and within, the heavily sheared layer in the F and W tempers. Discs 3.0 mm (0.12") in diameter were punched from the thinned sections of the high Z, low R and low Z, low R extrusions. Only F temper material was examined in the TEM. The discs were electropolished in a twin jet Fischione polishing cell operated at approximately 12 volts d.c. A solution of 25% (by volume) nitric acid and 75% methanol cooled to approximately -30°C (-22°F) was used for the polishing.

The W temper metallographic specimens were mechanically polished, electropolished using a solution of 46 ml HBF₄ (48%), 977 ml H₂O, and 7 grams of boric acid at 20 volts, and examined using polarized light.
Structure in the Product. Selected specimens from near the midlength of the extruded products were examined in the F temper by TEM and the phases present along with their relative amounts determined by X-ray diffraction. Estimates of mean subgrain size were made using the linear intercept method. Measurements were made on foils prepared at the surface, T/4, and T/2 locations in the high Z, low R and low Z, low R 7050 extrusions. The X-ray intensity data were collected on film using a Guinier-deWolff quadruple focusing camera. All extrusions were examined by optical microscopy and transmission X-ray Laue techniques. The metallographic specimens were mechanically polished and examined in the as-polished and electropolished conditions.

The as-polished 7050 and 7475 specimens generally had a low volume fraction of secondary intermetallic precipitates, which is typical for these alloys. However, those extruded from the 7050 ingot cast at a slow solidification rate had a large amount of porosity along the centerline. Examples of this porosity are shown in Figure 2. Because the porous specimens came from midlength, the lot of extrusions in question was considered to be of unacceptable quality and was not examined further.

Estimates of mean subgrain size were made on the four 7050 extrusions at surface, T/4, and T/2 locations provided these regions did not fully recrystallize.
Reflection pole figure data were collected on the rectangular cross-section extrusions of 7050 and on the 7475 round rod. The specimens were machined from blanks along the centerline at mid-thickness on the rectangular section extrusions and from along the centerline on the round rod extrusions. The specimens were 2.54 cm (1.0") long by 2.54 cm (1.0") wide by 0.64 cm (0.25") thick and in the W temper. The data were collected using an automated Siemens texture diffractometer with an oscillating stage. To fully describe the texture the (111), (200), and (220) Bragg reflections were examined. Intensity histograms were collected at 8 second intervals while the $\phi$ axis (axis of rotation perpendicular to the plane of the specimen) and the $x$ axis (axis of rotation perpendicular to the $\phi$ axis) were continuously rotating at a 5:1 ratio. The simultaneous two-axis rotation resulted in a spiral covering the sphere of reflection, as illustrated by Figure 3. The same intensity data were corrected for the angular dependence of absorption and plotted using computer programs written at Georgia Tech.

**Mechanical Testing**

The front half of each extrusion was solution heat treated,* cold-water quenched, stretched 1.5%, naturally aged for one week, and artificially aged for 24 hours at 121°C followed by 15 hours at 163°C (T76-type tempers). The various specimens for mechanical testing were prepared from these front end

*Solution heat treatments: 7050 - 1.5 hours at 477°C (890°F) and for 7475 - 1.5 hours at 516°C (960°F).
sections taken at midplane along the centerline of the extrusions. A complete description of specimen location and the type of specimen is given in Appendix B.

**Constant Amplitude Fatigue Crack Growth (CAFCG).** The 7050 and 7475 extrusions in a T7651-type temper were investigated for changes in CAFCG performance as a function of the processing conditions. The FCG specimens were compact tension type with an L-T fracture plane orientation (See Appendix B).

All tests were conducted on closed loop, electro-hydraulic servo-controlled MTS test equipment. Crack growth was monitored electronically by crack propagation gauges as shown in Figure 4. Uniform increments of crack extension 1.27 mm (0.05") apart were measured as strands of the wire gauge broke due to the propagating crack. Numbers of cycles were monitored on a 20 counter electronic box so that as each gauge strand broke, the counter for that strand stopped and the next counter started. The data were obtained as crack length vs cycles and converted to rate of crack growth vs $\Delta K$. Pilot tests were run to check the accuracy and reliability of this system. Figure 5 shows the crack growth vs number of cycles obtained by visual reading of photogrids on the surface of the specimen. It can be seen that they are in good agreement. The visual measurement can be made within $\pm 0.05$ mm ($\pm 0.002$") or within $\pm 1\%$ of a/w. The maximum expected error in crack detection with gauges is estimated to be about $\pm 0.1$ mm ($\pm 0.004$") or within $\pm 2\%$ of a/w.*


*
Humid air (relative humidity >90%) was used as the reference environment for all tests. The high humidity assures a moisture-saturated environment, thereby reducing sensitivity of crack growth rate to both test frequency and small changes in moisture content.*

All tests in this phase of the investigation were conducted at constant amplitude conditions with sinusoidal loading a maximum stress, $\sigma_{\text{max}}$, of 17.4 MPa (2524 psi) and a stress ratio of $R=0.33$. A frequency of 20 Hz was maintained through the entire test. Maximum load, $P_{\text{max}}$, and load range, $\Delta P$, were maintained within ±2%.

The propagation gauges were located to obtain data as the crack length, $a$, extended from 20.3 mm (0.8") to 45.7 mm (1.8") in all tests. The factors considered in deciding the location of the gauges are as follows:

**Stress Intensity Range:** The stress intensity range traversed during the constant load cycles corresponds to intermediate $\Delta K$ levels of 4.4 to 15.0 MPa$\sqrt{m}$ (4.0 to 13.6 ksi$\sqrt{\text{in.}}$). For screening purposes, these $K$ levels were chosen to be high enough so as not to make the test too time consuming and low enough so that crack growth is not predominantly influenced by fracture toughness of the material.

**Specimen Size Requirement:** Calculations indicated

that the uncracked ligament size exceeded the ASTM requirement, w/a, equal to or greater than \(4/\pi (\frac{k_{\text{max}}}{Y.S.})^2\).

**Precrack Interval:** A sufficient precracked interval of 17.1 mm (0.675") was provided to initiate the crack. The final 3.2 mm (0.125") of precracking to 20.3 mm (0.8") of crack length was done at the test loads and humidity to avoid any transient effects.

**Fractography**

Sections of the fracture surface from the tensile, tear, and fatigue crack growth specimens were examined in the scanning electron microscope to determine fracture mode and discern differences in the fracture surface of the various samples.

**Specimen Location Effects**

To determine if the tensile and tear properties are influenced by microstructure within a given extrusion, specimens were prepared from a surface section of the low Z, low R 74750 extrusion in the T7651 temper.

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RESULTS

Structure in the Billet

In an attempt to better understand the development of structure in the product, partially extruded billets were examined in the F and W tempers. This section will summarize the microstructural observations.

The same general characteristics were observed in the macroetched section from each of the four billets partially extruded approximately 50% (15 cm butt). Consequently, the billet extruded at high $Z$ into a low $R$ product will be considered representative of the general metal flow. Figure 6 is a photograph of the macroetched F temper billet in the high $Z$, low $R$ extrusion. A region of intense deformation, suggested by the grain flow, lies adjacent to the cylinder wall at the rear of the billet and curves toward the die opening at the front of the billet. This area is termed the heavily sheared layer.

A second region lies along the central portion of the billet and extends from the rear toward the front of the billet near the die opening. The amount of deformation as suggested by grain flow is limited at the rear but increases considerably near the die opening.

Surrounding the die opening there is an area which appears as a cone of deformation which is a result of grain distortion due to the shape change occurring as the metal moves from the billet to the smaller rectangular section.

The last region of interest is in the vicinity of the die exit and contains structure common to the billet and product.
The microstructures of the partially extruded 7050 billets were examined in the F-temper by the techniques of X-ray transmission Laue and TEM. Figures 7 and 8 contain pinhole photographs taken at several locations in the partially extruded 7050-F billets. The degree of recrystallization (as estimated by the pinhole films*) varied from none on either side of the heavily sheared layer to just started + at the center of the layer. Furthermore, the recrystallized grains at the center of the heavily sheared layer were fine. These observations are in contrast to those made at similar locations in the high Z, low R extrusion, Figure 8, where the structure was unrecrystallized throughout the billet.

TEM's from specific locations in the as-extruded billets are shown in Figures 9 and 10. The microstructure in the heavily sheared layer is characterized by a nonuniform distribution of equiaxed subgrains with mechanical fibering of the precipitates in the principle direction of metal flow. Away from the heavily sheared layer, slightly larger equiaxed subgrains were present. The microstructure of the high Z, low R extrusion was slightly different from that of the low Z extrusions, Figure 10. The subgrains in the high Z extrusion tended to be smaller and more uniform in size than those at similar locations in the low Z extrusion. In the heavily sheared layer, the subgrains were elongated in the direction of metal flow. As observed in the low Z extrusion, the precipitates were aligned in the direction.

*Degree of recrystallization gradations: None, Just Barely Started, Just Started, Started, Partial, Complete.
of metal flow. Numerous, small equilibrium precipitates of \( \eta \ (\text{MgZn}_{2}\text{-type}) \) and \( S \ (\text{Al}_{2}\text{CuMg}) \) were observed in the high Z and not in the low Z extrusion.
Solution heat treating half of each of the partially extruded billets resulted in similar macro flow patterns. However, there were systematic variations in the recrystallization behavior which could be correlated to location within the billet, Z, and R.

Figure 11 is a polarized light micrograph taken across the heavily sheared layer in the high Z, low R extrusion. A continuous variation in grain structure is apparent in this low magnification photograph. Correspondingly higher magnification polarized light micrographs are included in Figure 12. These photographs were taken at the locations indicated on Figure 11.

Location A contains evidence of the original cast structure; these cast grains, however, are distorted and are elongated in the direction of metal flow. At position B, microstructure consists of coarse elongated and fine equiaxed recrystallized grains with areas of unrecrystallized grains. At position C, most of the field contains coarse, recrystallized grains with a few fine equiaxed recrystallized grains. At the last position, D, most of the structure is unrecrystallized with a few recrystallized grains.

Figures 13 & 14 contain polarized light micrographs taken approximately at the center of the heavily sheared layer of the four different partial extrusions. Figure 13 contains representative micrographs taken of the low Z and high Z variants both extruded at low R. The microstructure in the low Z was characterized by a mixed grain structure containing both unrecrystallized...
and fine recrystallized grains. This structure is in contrast to the coarse, elongated recrystallized grains observed in the high Z extrusion. Figure 14 contains representative micrographs taken of the low Z and high Z variants both extruded at high $n$. The low Z microstructure was characterized by a mixed grain structure containing areas of unrecrystallized grains, and both coarse and fine recrystallized grains. The recrystallized grains that formed under these extrusion conditions were slightly larger than those extruded at the same calculated Z, but at the lower extrusion ratio. The grain structure from the high Z billet extruded at high $R$ contained unrecrystallized areas and both fine and coarse recrystallized grains. This microstructure was different from the structure extruded at the same calculated Z, but at the lower extrusion ratio. The low $R$ resulted in much coarser recrystallized grains, and a high fraction of recrystallized grains throughout the shear layer.

Thus, the microstructures of the solution heat treated partial extrusions in the heavily sheared layer were observed to vary across the layer with the greatest tendency to recrystallize near the center. Furthermore, $Z$ and $R$ both seemed to control the type of microstructure produced. These structural variations can be summarized as follows:

The high Z extrusions generally resulted in a greater tendency to recrystallize than those extruded at the low Z. Low $R$ tended to result in larger, elongated recrystallized grains when the calculated Z's were the same.
Thus, the high Z, low R condition resulted in the greatest tendency to recrystallize, producing coarse, elongated grains.

Figures 15-18 contain micrographs of orthogonal sections illustrating the effect of varying Z and using the same extrusion ratio (high R condition). The micrographs were taken at areas located along the centerline and near the rear of the billet, and near the die opening at the front of the billet within the cone of deformation. At the rear, the original cast grains are easily recognizable and have undergone little shape change. However, near the front in the cone of deformation, the micrographs illustrate the shape change as a consequence of extrusion from the round billet to the thin, rectangular section.

The transition area, or the area including material in the billet and product, is quite interesting, especially in the vicinity of the die corner showing the structure forming the product surface.

Figure 19 is a low magnification polarized light micrograph showing the variation of grain structure from surface into the center of the product. The section was from material extruded at high Z high R. At the surface there is a layer containing coarse recrystallized grains. Below this layer the microstructure is unrecrystallized and the width of these unrecrystallized grains increases from surface to center.

Figures 20-21 include four variants of the partially extruded 7050 at the die opening. Figure 20 shows the effect of varying Z and extruding at low R. Extruding at low Z results in
a thin layer of coarse, elongated recrystallized grains. Extruding at high Z, on the other hand, results in a recrystallized layer composed of coarse, elongated recrystallized grains extending across the field of view.

Figure 21 shows the effect of varying Z on the development of the recrystallized layer in the high R extrusions. Increasing Z increases the depth of the coarse recrystallized layer.

A comparison of the micrographs in Figures 20 and 21 illustrates the effect of R on structure while maintaining the same calculated Z. The greatest absolute depth occurs in the high Z, low R, but a comparison of the depth of this recrystallized layer with the layer formed by extruding at high Z, high R shows that the low R thickness was approximately two times that of the high R. The difference in reduction in the direction in which the micrograph was taken was approximately 2.7 times greater in the high R.

The recrystallized layer present on the surface appears to develop from material moving from the heavily sheared layer. The depth of the recrystallized layer is qualitatively related to both Z and R. High Z tends to result in greater depth and the greatest absolute depth occurs when extruded at high Z and low R.

The above observations were made at approximately 50% of completion of extrusion. This next section will summarize the observations made on the butt ends of the high and low Z variants of the low R extrusions of 7050.
Metallographic examinations of W-temper sections of the butt ends of 7050 extruded at low and high Z at low R were made to complete the understanding of microstructure development during extrusion. As illustrated in the metallography from the partially extruded billets, variations in grain flow, recrystallization, and grain size were observed. There were, however, some specific differences between the structure observed at 50% and near the end of the stroke.

The continuation of the extrusion process has widened the heavily sheared layer, for example, compare Figure 22 with Figure 6. The heavily sheared layer now constitutes a significant fraction of the billet. Furthermore, material from the heavily sheared layer is not confined to a thin layer at the surface of the product, but now penetrates well into subsurface layers of the product. Figure 22 compares the effect of Z on the structure after solution heat treatment. (It is important to note the fine grain structure in the zone which separates the billet and the product is a result of the effect of the deformation from shearing the product from the billet rather than the extrusion process itself.)

Figures 23 and 24 contain micrographs taken at comparatively higher magnification than in Figure 22 from the heavily sheared layer of the low Z extrusion. In this region very fine recrystallized grains are present. Near the top of the heavily sheared layer, however, there are some coarse, elongated, recrystallized grains. Figure 24 is a photomicrograph of this area. The large grains appear to be associated with tears in the metal.
Figure 25 shows the grain structure in, and adjacent to, the heavily sheared layer in the high Z extrusion. In contrast to the grain structure in the heavily sheared layer of the low Z extrusion, Figure 23, the recrystallized grains are not uniform in size and numerous large elongated grains can be seen.

Figures 26 and 27 show the grain structure in, and adjacent, to the heavily sheared layer in the low Z, Figure 26, and high Z, Figure 27, extrusions. In the low Z extrusions, the structure is mixed with fine recrystallized grains along with the elongated cast grains. In contrast, the high Z extrusion contains coarse, elongated, fully recrystallized grains.

In summary, toward the end of the stroke, the heavily sheared layer has widened and constitutes a significant portion of the billet area. In areas that have recrystallized, the low Z extrusion results in a more uniform, fine grain structure than the high Z extrusion.
Structure in the Product

The detailed optical metallographic and transmission X-ray Laue investigations on each of the 7050 and 7475 extrusions showed a number of microstructural variations. The observations could be correlated qualitatively to temperature compensated strain rate, Z, extrusion ratio, R, alloy, and specimen location as to surface or center.

Extrusions run under conditions of highest temperature compensated strain rate, Z, had the greatest tendency to recrystallize upon solution heat treatment. This can be shown by comparing Figures 28 through 33 with Figures 34 through 39. However, extrusion ratio also appeared to have an effect on the development of structure even though geometry and ratio were taken into account in the definition of strain rate. The lower extrusion ratio gave a greater tendency to recrystallize during solution heat treatment at the high Z (e.g., compare Figure 28 with Figure 31). However, when extrusion was carried out at low Z, the combination low Z, low R resulted in the lowest degree of recrystallization. Variation in alloy chemistry also seemed to affect the degree of recrystallization of the W temper products. Under similar extrusion conditions, alloy 7050 had a greater tendency to recrystallize than alloy 7475. For example, compare Figure 28 with Figure 29. Thus, alloy 7050 extruded using high Z, low R conditions had the greatest tendency to recrystallize while 7475 extruded at low Z and low R did not appear to recrystallize. Furthermore, the 7475 low R, either as round rod
or rectangular section was unrecrystallized in the W temper.

As noted earlier, minor differences in the effect of cooling rate during solidification were observed in the ingot structure. However, there was no detectable effect of cooling rate in the development of structure in the extruded products of 7475.

The degree of recrystallization estimated from X-ray pinholes taken near the center agreed qualitatively with optical results (Table 3).

The grain structure in the extrusions varied from center to surface. In extrusions with limited recrystallization, the amount of deformation could be qualitatively assessed by comparing the aspect ratio (length/width) of the original grains. Higher aspect ratios (greater deformation) occurred near the surface of the extrusions (Figure 40). In extrusions which recrystallized, the greatest tendency to recrystallize occurred at the surface of the extrusions.

As-polished sections of 7050 and 7475 rectangular cross-section extrusions showed an effect of extrusion ratio on the size and distribution of the insoluble phases. The variation was independent of alloy (7050 versus 7475) and Z. Random metallurgical sections for the low Z 7050 taken at the surface, T/4 and T/2 locations are included in Figure 41 to illustrate the effect of R on the particle distribution. The size and distribution in the low R extrusion changed from surface to center. At the surface, the particles were slightly smaller.
and discrete compared to the larger and more clustered particles at T/2. On the other hand, the high R extrusion did not show this through thickness variation. A comparison of the high R with the low R showed that the greater reduction tended to result in a finer distribution of particles when comparing the T/2 and T/4 locations. However, the surface sections of the low and high R extrusions were similar. For comparison, Figure 42 includes a random metallographic sections comparing high and low R insoluble particle distribution at the T/2 locations.

High magnification often revealed the presence of substructure in unrecrystallized grains. When recrystallization occurred, this substructure was absent. Micrographs with three different orientations of polarization are shown in Figure 43. Substructure is not present in the recrystallized grain regardless of orientation, but can be seen in the surrounding unrecrystallized grains. In certain instances, an alignment of the substructure was observed. Three orientations, Figure 44, show the distribution of substructure in a unrecrystallized section of extrusion, when in contrast the substructure appears to be aligned at approximately 45° to the extrusion direction (parallel to the planes of maximum shear). Higher magnification in another sample, Figure 45, further illustrates this effect.

There appeared to be an effect of Z on the ability to show subgrain contrast in the unrecrystallized areas of the products. Figures 46 and 47 contain polarized light micrographs of W-temper, longitudinal sections of 7050, the four combinations of high and low Z and R. At both low and high R, high Z tends to produce a microstructure which has enhanced substructure.
contrast, whereas low Z does not. However, subgrains were present in the unrecrystallized grain extruded at both low and high Z.

The low Z, low R and high Z, low R microstructures were examined in the F- and W-tempers at the surface, T/4 and T/2 locations. Foils were prepared from planar sections parallel to the surface of the extrusions. The average subgrain sizes are summarized in Table 4. The subgrain sizes varied slightly from surface to center, the larger subgrains were generally observed in the center of the extrusions, and the low Z extrusions usually had larger subgrain sizes than those extruded at high Z.

In F-temper material, occasionally areas were observed which contained subgrains adjacent to areas which were fully recrystallized, Figure 48.

Pole figures for the W-temper 7050 extruded at low Z, low R, and low Z, high R; and 7475 extruded axisymmetrically into a round rod are plotted and discussed in Appendix C.
Mechanical Testing

The average tensile, yield, elongation and reduction in area for duplicate longitudinal (L) and long-transverse (LT) tensile tests are summarized in Tables 5 and 6. The averages of triplicate tear tests for L-T* and T-L** orientations are summarized in Tables 7 and 8.

Alloy type, 7050 versus 7475, was the only parameter in this program which affected either yield or tensile strength. However, tensile ductility, Tables 5 and 6, and toughness, as measured by a tear test, Tables 7 and 8, could be consistently correlated to extrusion ratio. The high R extrusions gave the highest tensile ductility (as measured either by total elongation or reduction in area). Further, high R gave higher unit propagation energies (UPE's) than did the corresponding low R extrusion S, regardless of specimen orientation.

Also, another interesting trend in UPE can be taken from the data in Tables 7 and 8. Within an extrusion condition, 7475 solidified at the slower rate (S# 498813, -811, -821, -825) had lower UPE's than 7475 solidified more rapidly (S# 498814, -812, -822, -826). The casting rate effect was present in both orientations.

CAFCG

A total of 14 tests (a single test for each variable) were made to evaluate the effects of the different extrusion para-

*L-T: Stress in longitudinal direction, crack growing in transverse direction.

**T-L: Stress in transverse direction, crack growing in longitudinal direction.
meters on the 7050 and 7475. The results are plotted in Figures 49-53. The data are presented according to crack length, \( a \), versus the number of cycles, \( N \), Figures 49-51, and as the incremental crack growth per cycle, \( da/dn \), versus the cyclic stress intensity factor range, \( \Delta K \), Figures 52 and 53. Each figure contains annotated data points to indicate the alloy and process variables. Also, the amount, in degrees, the crack deviated from an ideal crack plane, Figure 54 is given. Cracks deviating by more than 5° violate the requirements imposed by ASTM E647-78T. For comparison, results of other investigations in similar tempers are plotted on Figures 52 and 53.

Examination of Figures 49 and 50 indicates that only one consistent trend emerges from the data. The combination of high \( Z \), high \( R \) results in the shortest life. This observation was true for 7050 and both 7475 alloys.

Fractography

The tensile, Kahn tear, and FCG fracture surfaces were examined in the SEM to determine the nature of the failure process and the influence of the microstructure on the propagation of a crack.

**Tensile fractures.** Regardless of the alloy or processing variables, the predominant mode of failure was ductile dimple rupture. Representative SEM's of the tensile failures of 7050 and 7475 are included in Figures 55 and 56.

**Tear fractures.** Figures 57 and 58 contain SEM's of TL and LT tear fractures of 7050 extruded at low \( Z \), low \( R \)
(Figure 57), and low Z, high R (Figure 58). These micrographs were taken beyond the pop-in area where the crack was propagating stably. From these micrographs it appears that the crack path is influenced by the presence of the secondary intermetallics. The distribution of the dimples on the high R extrusion appears to be more uniform than the dimple distribution on the low R extrusion. Figures 59 and 60 further illustrate the effect of particles and their distribution on the propagation of the crack. Again, these micrographs were taken from regions on the fracture surface where the crack was propagating stably. A low magnification micrograph is included to establish an overall view of the fracture surface.

**FCG fractures.** Fracture surfaces at different ΔK's are shown in Figures 61-68 for 7050 extruded under the four test conditions. Only extrusion ratio appeared to have an effect on fracture morphology. The effects were particularly pronounced at low ΔK's, where the fracture path, though propagating transgranularly, was strongly influenced by the grain morphology. Figures 61-64.

Extrusion ratio also appeared to have a minor effect on the fracture surface in the overload region (high ΔK). Figures 65-68 contain SEM's taken near the transition region from crack growth to overload. The dimples formed in high R extrusions, Figures 65 and 67, appear to be slightly smaller and more uniformly distributed than the dimples which formed in the low R extrusion shown in Figures 66 and 68.
In summary, only extrusion ratio, R, appeared to have an effect on the fracture appearance. The origin of this effect may be in the influence of the extrusion ratio on modifying the distribution of the insoluble, second phase particles, and modification of the size and shape of the unrecrystallized grains.

**Specimen Location Effects**

Triplicate Kahn tear tests were conducted on a 7475 low Z, low R extrusion machined from just below the surface. These results are presented in Table 9. There was an increase in UPE going from the center to near surface. (Compare Table 8 with 9).
SUMMARY OF RESULTS

Direct extrusion of aluminum alloy 7050 and 7475 results in a product which has a nonuniform microstructure. The structure varies from surface to center and from front to rear of the product. The nonuniform structure develops within the billet during the extrusion process. Cylinder wall shear produces a region of intense deformation adjacent to the surface. During the stroke this layer widens and toward the end of the extrusion cycle, the heavily sheared layer constitutes a significant volume of the billet. The material at the surface of the product comes from the heavily sheared layer and the depth of this well defined layer increases from front to rear of the product. During solution heat treatment, if the structure has a tendency to recrystallize the greatest probability of recrystallization is at the surface. Extruding at high Z (low temperature and high strain rate) facilitates recrystallization throughout the product with complete recrystallization at the surface. Furthermore, the results of this investigation indicate that under similar fabricating conditions 7050 has a greater tendency to recrystallize than 7475.

In addition to the effect of nonuniform flow on the development of a nonuniform grain structure, the distribution of insoluble particles are also affected by the metal flow. At high extrusion ratio, or near the surface where the amount of deformation is high, the interparticle spacing of the insolubles appears to be modified by deformation. Increasing the deformation increases the interparticle spacing.
Yield strength was affected by cross-section geometry and composition, but was unaffected by changes in Z or R. On the other hand, ductility and toughness could be correlated to extrusion ratio and location with respect to surface or center of the extruded product.

Analysis of the fatigue crack growth data revealed only one consistent trend in the data. The combination of high Z and high R resulted in the shortest lives for both 7050 and 7475.

**DISCUSSION**

In this program, composition and shape had an effect on yield strength; whereas, extrusion ratio, R, and Z did not have an effect on the yield strength. A comparison of the 7475 tensile data in Table 5 shows the result of changing the shape from a round cross-section to a rectangular cross-section on the longitudinal yield strength of 7475 identically aged. The round rod gives higher strength than the rectangular sections. This effect has been reported by others (13) and is more dramatic in the T651 temper. The primary difference in the structure of the round rod and the rectangular section is the crystallographic texture, Appendix C. The round rod has a duplex fiber texture with a strong <111> component and a weak <100> component. On the other hand, the rectangular sections have a rolling texture, (110) <112>.
Since changes in recrystalllographic texture may affect strength, a systematic investigation attempting to relate shape and yield strength to crystallographic texture was conducted. The results of this investigation are summarized in Figures 69 and 70. The yield strength showed the usual inverse correlation with tensile elongation, Figure 70. However, increasing the aspect ratio decreased the yield strength. These authors correlated the decrease in the density of \( <111> \) parallel to the tensile axis. For a \((110)<1\overline{1}2>\) texture, the principle crystallographic axis parallel to the tensile axis is the \( <1\overline{1}2> \). With the high density of \( <111> \) parallel to the tensile axis, therefore, in the round rod there is a high density of \((111)\) planes nearly perpendicular to the tensile axis thus unfavorably oriented for slip. Alternatively, one might relate the density of \( <111> \) parallel to the tensile axis and the corresponding higher Taylor factor than would occur with a \( <112> \) parallel to the tensile axis. Regardless of the precise mechanism of strengthening, it is clear that for the same alloy processed under nearly identical conditions of temperature and strain rate, changes in die geometry which change texture can have a larger affect on yield strength in 7XXX alloys than changes in temperature compensated strain rate, \( Z \).

Figures 9 and 10 compare the F-temper microstructures at equivalent positions in the interior of two partially extruded 7050 ingots. (Low \( Z \) is shown in Figure 9 and high \( Z \) is shown in Figure 10.) In addition to the presence of a deformation substructure, soluble phases such as \( Al_2CuMg \) and \( Mg(Zn, Cu, Al)_2 \),
are also present. The volume fraction of these phases is dependent upon the reheat time and temperature prior to hot working.

Figure 71 is a schematic illustrating the effect of composition on the solvus temperature. For a given composition, increasing the hot working temperature decreases the volume fraction of soluble phase, or at a constant temperature, increasing the solute content decreases the volume fraction of soluble phases. Over the hot working range, 290-425°C, the fraction of soluble phase present varies significantly for 7475 and 7050. Thus the choice of hot working temperature plays two important roles in heat treatable aluminum alloys. The hot working temperature affects the dynamic recovery processes by increasing the number and mobility of the dislocations. The result is that at low hot working temperatures a smaller subgrain size is observed compared to the subgrain size when hot working at a higher temperature. This correlation has been observed in single phase alloys or alloy systems in which the fraction of second phase particles is small and temperature independent. In heat treatable alloys, the soluble elements, Zn, Mg, and copper, precipitate at the hot working temperature, thus decreasing the temperature or increasing the fraction of second phase particles.

The second phase particles act as sources and sinks for dislocations during the deformation process. The interparticle spacing may have a more important influence on the subgrain size and distribution than does the state of stress as determined by temperature. Therefore, when deciding how to apply the concepts
of hot working, one must know if the structure is temperature dependent over the range of hot working conditions. For the two alloys investigated in this program, the effect of temperature on structure must be considered.

In a detailed investigation on 7050 extrusions, the effects of fabricating variables and section geometry on properties were determined. Since the main thrust of that program was to generate data for MIL-HDBK-5, a detailed microstructural study was not conducted, however, the mechanical properties reported were similar to the findings of this investigation, with respect to ratio effects. For a given aspect ratio the yield strength, increasing the extrusion ratio increases the NTS/YS ratio, or, for a given extrusion ratio and yield strength, increasing the aspect ratio increases the LT-NTS/YS ratio. For an alloy which fails by micro-void coalescence, it is the interparticle spacing which controls fracture. Processing which modifies that distribution will alter the toughness. In this investigation and the report in Reference 15, increasing the extrusion ratio, proximity to the surface, or aspect ratio, resulted in an increase in fracture toughness.
CONCLUSIONS

For the two alloys investigated a clear, qualitative description relating the process variables, microstructure, and properties emerged. However, if we are to consider a different alloy system and a different method of hot working, the findings of this program would serve as a guide.

The microstructure of a commercial alloy is a composite of a variety of components. Some of these components such as grain morphology are affected by the conventional hot working variables T and \( \dot{\varepsilon} \). However, other components such as deformation texture and insoluble particle distribution are affected by die geometry, extrusion ratio, and location. One needs to know which microstructural feature controls the property of interest and how that microstructural feature is altered by the deformation. Consequently, a number of investigations of the type reported in this document will be necessary before a generalized relationship between process, structure, and properties in aluminum alloys can be presented.
REFERENCES


Table 1. Chemical Analyses of the 7050 and 7475

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Table 3. Estimated Degree of Recrystallization Determined by the X-ray Pinhole Technique Taken Near the Center of the SHT Product

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Degree of Recrystallization Gradation: None, Just Barely Started, Just Started, Started, Partial, Complete.
Table 4. Average Subgrain Size in the F- and W-Temper of 7050 as a Function of Process Variables and Location

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Extrusion Condition</th>
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<td>Yield (ksi)</td>
<td>Elong. in 2' (%)</td>
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**Round Rod 5.72 cm (2.25"), Diameter**

<table>
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<tr>
<th>S. Number</th>
<th>Tensile Strength (MPa)</th>
<th>Yield (ksi)</th>
<th>Elong. in 2' (%)</th>
<th>Reduction in Area (%)</th>
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Table 6. Long-Transverse (LT) Tensile Properties

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<tr>
<th>S. Number</th>
<th>Alloy</th>
<th>Tensile MPa (ksi)</th>
<th>Yield (.2%) MPa (ksi)</th>
<th>Elong. in 2&quot; (%)</th>
<th>Reduction in Area (%)</th>
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<td>549 (79.6)</td>
<td>487 (70.5)</td>
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<td>518 (75.1)</td>
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<td>487 (70.6)</td>
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Round Rod 5.72 cm (2.25") Diameter (Transverse)

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<td>7475</td>
<td>509 (73.8)</td>
<td>10.0</td>
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### Table 7. Longitudinal (L) Tear Properties

<table>
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<tr>
<th>S. Number</th>
<th>Alloy</th>
<th>Tear Strength MPa (ksi)</th>
<th>Tear Strength/Yield Strength</th>
<th>Unit Propagation Energy, KJ/m² (In.-lb/in.²)</th>
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<td>129.1 (735)</td>
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<td>699 (101.5)</td>
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<td>669 (97.2)</td>
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<td>73.7 (420)</td>
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<td>100.6 (575)</td>
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<td>1.36</td>
<td>103.6 (590)</td>
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Round Rod 5.72 cm (2.25") Diameter

| 498817    | 7475  | 719 (104.3)             | 1.37                          | 95.6 (546)                                  |
| 498818    | 7475  | 715 (103.7)             | 1.37                          | 87.4 (499)                                  |
Table 8. Long-Transverse (LT) Tear Properties

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. Number</th>
<th>Alloy</th>
<th>Tear Strength MPa (ksi)</th>
<th>Tear Strength/Yield Strength</th>
<th>Unit Propagation Energy, KJ/m² (In.-lb/in.²)</th>
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<tr>
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<td>66.7 (380)</td>
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<td>69.9 (400)</td>
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Round Rod 5.72 cm (2.25") Diameter (Transverse)

<table>
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<th>S. Number</th>
<th>Alloy</th>
<th>Tear Strength MPa (ksi)</th>
<th>Tear Strength/Yield Strength</th>
<th>Unit Propagation Energy, KJ/m² (In.-lb/in.²)</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>Tear Strength/Yield Strength</td>
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<td>498825</td>
<td>7475</td>
<td>657 (95.3)</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>96.7 (550)</td>
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Figure 1. Photograph of macroetched F-temper billet extruded at high $Z$, low $R$ showing the various regions of interest.
Figure 2. As-polished sections of 7050 extrusions from alloy cast at a slow rate of solidification; (a) S-number 498823 at 100X, (b) same area as (a) at 500X, (c) S-number 498815 at 100X, and (d) same area as (c) at 500X. Extrusion conditions for 498823 were high Z and low ratio, and for 498815 high Z and high ratio.
Figure 3. Schematic illustrating the surface area covered on the sphere of reflection.
Figure 4. Fatigue crack propagation specimen with propagation gauge.
Figure 5. A comparison of crack length versus number of elapsed cycles for a constant amplitude test of alloy 7050-T751 using photogrids and visual observations of the crack growth.
Figure 6. Photograph of macroetched F-temper billet extruded at high $Z$, low $R$. 

2 cm
Figure 7. X-ray pinhole photographs taken at several locations in the partially extruded, low Z, low R 7050-T billet.
Figure 8. X-ray pinhole photographs taken at several locations in partially extruded, high Z, low R 7050-F billet.
Figure 9. TEM's taken at several locations in the partially extruded low Z, low R 7050-F billet.
Figure 10. TEM's taken at several locations in the partially extruded high Z, low R 7050-F billet.
Figure 11. Polarized light micrograph taken across the heavily sheared layer in the high Z, low R extrusion.
Figure 12. Higher magnification polarized light micrographs of the regions A, B, C, and D defined in Figure 11.
Figure 13. Polarized light micrographs of W-temper 7050 structures near the center of the heavily sheared layer of the (a) low Z, low R and (b) high Z, low R partial extrusions.
Figure 14. Polarized light micrographs of W-temper grain structures near the center of the heavily sheared layer of the (a) low Z and high R and (b) high Z, high R partial extrusions.
Figure 15. Three dimensional grain structure from near the rear of the partially extruded W-temper 7050.
Figure 16. Three dimensional grain structure from near the rear of the partially extruded W-temper 7050.
Figure 17. Three dimensional grain structure from near the die exit of the partially extruded W-temper 7050.
Figure 18. Three dimensional grain structure from near the die exit of the partially extruded W-temper 7050.
Figure 19. Polarized light micrograph of W-temper 7050 showing the variation of grain structure from surface toward the center of the product in the partially extruded high Z, high R extrusion.
Figure 20. Polarized light micrographs of W-temper 7050 partially extruded billets showing the effect of (a) low Z and low R and (b) high Z and low R extrusion conditions on the grain structure at the die corner.
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Figure 49. Crack length versus number of elapsed cycles, 7050-T7651.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample No.</th>
<th>Product</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Crack Propagated Out of Plane, Deg.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>498813</td>
<td>9.5 mm x 95 mm Ext. Bar</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>◆</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>498814</td>
<td>9.5 mm x 95 mm Ext. Bar</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>498811</td>
<td>25.4 mm x 102 mm Ext. Bar</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>▲</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>498812</td>
<td>25.4 mm x 102 mm Ext. Bar</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>▼</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>498823</td>
<td>9.5 mm x 95 mm Ext. Bar</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>◆</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>498822</td>
<td>9.5 mm x 95 mm Ext. Bar</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>498825</td>
<td>25.4 mm x 102 mm Ext. Bar</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>▲</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>498826</td>
<td>25.4 mm x 102 mm Ext. Bar</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>▼</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SHT, CWQ, Stretched 1.5%, aged 24 hrs. at 121° + 15 hrs. at 165°

CT Specimen: H/W = 0.6
Orientation: LT
Environment: Relative Humidity > 99%

Figure 50. Crack length versus number of elapsed cycles, 7475-T7651.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample No.</th>
<th>Product</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Crack Propagated Out of Plane, Deg.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>498817</td>
<td>57.2 mm Dia. Ext. Rod</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>498818</td>
<td>57.2 mm Dia. Ext. Rod</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3HT, CWQ, Stretched 1.5%, aged 24 hrs. at 121° + 15 hrs. at 163°

CT Specimen: H/W = 0.6
Orientation: LT
Environment: Relative Humidity > 90%

![Graph showing crack length versus number of elapsed cycles for 7475-T7651 round rod extrusions.](image)

Figure 51. Crack length versus number of elapsed cycles, 7475-T7651 round rod extrusions.
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Figure 53. Cyclic stress intensity factor range, $\Delta K$, versus cyclic fatigue crack growth, $da/dn$, 7475-T7651.
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APPENDIX A

SELECTION OF EXPERIMENTAL EXTRUSION CONDITIONS

Although the primary aim of the investigation was to explore the control of microstructure through variations in the temperature compensated strain rate, $Z$, it seemed advisable to organize the tests so that the final results could be evaluated by more traditional means, i.e., in terms of the extrusion and aspect ratios. Accordingly, an experimental design of the following form was chosen:

- HIGH $Z$, HIGH $R$
- HIGH $Z$, LOW $R$
- LOW $Z$, HIGH $R$
- LOW $Z$, LOW $R$

The first step in designing the experiment was to select extrusion and aspect ratios which would be reasonably representative of those used for commercial production of 7XXX extrusions on a 22.5-MN press. The choices were:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section Type</th>
<th>Section Size (mm)</th>
<th>Extrusion Ratio</th>
<th>Aspect Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Width $(W)$</td>
<td>Thickness $(T)$</td>
<td>Diameter $(D_{F})$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rectangular Bar</td>
<td>96.2</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rectangular Bar</td>
<td>102.6</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Round Rod</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>57.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The round rod was included because many past investigations of microstructure development have employed axisymmetric conditions.
The next step was to select strain rates and temperatures to produce as broad a variation as possible in the $Z$ parameter and, therefore, in the microstructure. The strain rate ($\dot{\varepsilon}$) and temperature ($T$) which determine $Z$ through the relation

$$Z = \dot{\varepsilon} \exp(\Delta H/RT)$$

must, of course, be within the speed and force capabilities of the extrusion press. Based on prior experience, achievable extremes of $\dot{\varepsilon}$ and $T$ (where $T$ is taken as the initial billet temperature) are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$\dot{\varepsilon}$ (1/sec)</th>
<th>$T$ (°C)</th>
<th>$Z$ (1/sec)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.40 max</td>
<td>288 min</td>
<td>3.4E13 (High Z)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.05 min</td>
<td>427 max</td>
<td>7.4E09 (Low Z)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The $Z$ variation based on the chosen $\dot{\varepsilon}$'s and $T$'s is seen to be about four orders of magnitude. The literature would suggest that such variation is ample to effect changes in microstructure. An activation energy close to that of self diffusion in aluminium, 150,000 Joules/Gram mole, was used to estimate the $Z$ parameter.

The last step in the design was to determine press ram velocities consistent with the chosen strain rates. For this, Feltham's definition of mean strain rate for axisymmetric extrusion was used:

$$\dot{\varepsilon} = \frac{6D_c (\ln R) \tan \alpha}{(D_c^3 - D_E^3)}$$

where:

- $\dot{\varepsilon}$ = mean strain rate, 1/sec,
- $V$ = press ram velocity, mm/sec,
- $D_c$ = billet container diameter, mm,
- $D_E$ = extruded rod diameter, mm,
- $\alpha$ = angle between centerline and dead zone boundary.
For rectangular bars, $D_E$ was taken as the equivalent diameter of the bar cross sectional area, i.e., $D_E = 2\sqrt{\text{area}/\pi}$. This same value of $D_E$ was used to determine the direct extrusion dead zone angle ($\alpha$), following the procedure of Avitzur.

The final experimental design, with the appropriate ram velocities, was:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HIGH Z, HIGH R</th>
<th>HIGH Z, LOW R</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$V = 2.2 \text{ mm/s}$</td>
<td>$V = 6.0 \text{ mm/s}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LOW Z, HIGH R</th>
<th>LOW Z, LOW R</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$V = 0.2 \text{ mm/s}$</td>
<td>$V = 0.6 \text{ mm/s}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX B

Specimen Type and Location

The front half of each extrusion was solution heat treated* (SHT), cold water quenched, stretched 1.5%, naturally aged for one week, and artificially aged for 24 hours at 121°C followed by 15 hours at 163°C (T7651-type temper). The various specimens for mechanical testing were prepared from sections taken at midplane along the centerline of the rectangular extrusions and along a diametral plane for the round extrusions. A complete description showing specimen location and type of specimen is given in Tables B1-B3. The drawing number and corresponding specimen type are summarized in Table B4.

SHT: 7050 - 1.5 hours at 477°C (890°F)
      7475 - 1.5 hours at 516°C (960°F)
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Table B-2. Specimen Locations from 25.4 mm (1") X 102 mm (4") Extruded Bar.

Table B-3. Specimen Locations from 9.5 mm (3/8") X 95 mm (3 3/4") Extruded Bar.

Table B-4. Drawing Number and Type of Specimen.
Table B-1. Specimen Locations from 57.2 mm (2½") Diam. Extruded Rod

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S Number</th>
<th>Specimen</th>
<th>Drawing #</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>498817</td>
<td>2 Tensile-L</td>
<td>L-7735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 Tensile-LT</td>
<td>L-8751</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 Tear-L-T</td>
<td>L-7201 Type 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 Tear-T-L</td>
<td>L-7201 Type 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 CT-L-T</td>
<td>D-015365 Size 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 CT-T-L</td>
<td>D-015365 Size 7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Diagram of specimen locations](image)
Table B-2. Specimen Locations from 25.4 mm (1'') X 102 mm (4'') Extruded Bar

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S-Number</th>
<th>Specimen Drawing #</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>498809</td>
<td>2 Tensile-L L-7735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>498810</td>
<td>2 Tensile-LT L-8456</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>498811</td>
<td>3 Tear-L-T L-7201 Type 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>498812</td>
<td>3 Tear-T-L L-7201 Type 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>498823</td>
<td>2 CT-L-T D-015365 Size 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>498824</td>
<td>2 CT-T-L D-015365 Size 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>498825</td>
<td>All specimens from center of the thickness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>498826</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table B-3. Specimen Locations from 9.5 mm (3/8") X 95 mm (3 3/4") Extruded Bar

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S-Number</th>
<th>Specimen Drawing #</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>498813</td>
<td>2 Tensile-L L-776</td>
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<td>498814</td>
<td>2 Tensile-LT L-7776</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>498815</td>
<td>3 Tear-L-T L-7201 Type 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>498816</td>
<td>3 Tear-T-L L-7201 Type 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>498819</td>
<td>2 CT-L-T D-015365 Size 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>498820</td>
<td>2 CT-T-L D-015365 Size 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>498821</td>
<td>All specimens from center of the thickness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>498822</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Diagram of specimen locations]
Table B-4. Drawing Number and Type of Specimen

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alcoa Drawing Number</th>
<th>Specimen Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L-8456-RK</td>
<td>.357&quot; Diameter Tapered Seat Tensile Specimen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L-8751-RK</td>
<td>1/8&quot; Diameter Tapered Seat Tensile Specimen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L-7776-RK</td>
<td>1/4&quot; Diameter Tapered Seat Tensile Specimen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L-7735-RK</td>
<td>1/2&quot; Diameter Tapered Seat Tensile Specimen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D-015365-RK</td>
<td>Compact Tension Crack Growth Specimen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L-7201-RK</td>
<td>Kahn-Type Tear Test Specimen (thickness .100&quot;)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX C

TEXTURE ANALYSIS
The results of the texture studies and analyses on the low Z extrusions are plotted in Figures C-1 - C-3. The textures could be divided into two types. A duplex <111> + <100> fiber texture with a strong <111> component was present in the round rod. The rectangular sections had a [112] (110) texture. This texture is the type which develops in rolled plate.

Intuitively we might expect the development of a fiber texture during the axisymmetric extrusion of a round product from a round billet. A material is said to have a fiber texture when it has rotational symmetry about an axis, that is all orientations about the axis are equally probable. Since the deformation field is radial, this type of symmetry is reasonable.

Figure C-4 contains the (111) and (001) stereographic projection which can be used in the analysis of the axisymmetric textures.

For a perfect <111> fiber texture, Figure C-5a shows the radial distribution of (200) poles. In this figure, the axis E, N and R are defined. E is parallel to the extrusion direction, N is normal to the extrusion direction, and R is perpendicular to E and N. Since the pole figures were determined in a plane normal to N, we need to know the distribution of the (200) poles in that plane. The distribution normal to N can be determined by rotating the pole figure in Figure C-4b. This is illustrated by rotation of several points on half of the (200) circle.*

*The rotation is accomplished by making the axis of rotation R coincident with the N-S axis of a Wulff net.
Figure C-6a is the result of having rotated half the circle, and Figure C-6b is the complete rotation. The distribution of the (200) poles for a perfect $<111>$ fiber texture normal to, and in the plane of, the extrusion direction are plotted in Figure C-7. Similarly, the distribution of poles for the (220) and (111) are given in Figures C-8 and C-9, respectively. The distributions of the (200), (220) and (111) for a perfect $<100>$ fiber texture are plotted in Figures C-10, C-11, and C-12, respectively. Comparison of these figures with Figure C-1 facilitates the identification of texture components in the pole figures from this research. For the axisymmetric case a strong $<111>$ and a weak $<100>$ fiber textures were present.

A comparison of Figure C-13 with Figures C-2 and C-3 aid in identifying the texture of the rectangular extrusions. The strong (220) intensity in the plane of the extrusion helps identify the plane, and the strong (220) poled parallel to strong to the extrusion direction orients the (110) sterographic projection with the pole figure. Thus, (110) (112) describes the texture for the rectangular sections.
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Figure C-1. (200) and (220) pole figures of SHT 7475 axisymmetrically extruded.

Figure C-2. (200) and (220) pole figures of low Z, low R SHT 7050 extrusion.

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Figure C-6. Rotation of (200) poles about the R axis.

Figure C-7. Distribution of (200) poles collected from a specimen (a) perpendicular and (b) parallel to the extrusion direction for a (111) fiber texture.

Figure C-8. Distribution of (220) poles collected from a specimen (a) perpendicular and (b) parallel to the extrusion direction for a (111) fiber texture.

Figure C-9. Distribution of (111) poles collected from a specimen (a) perpendicular and (b) parallel to the extrusion direction for a (111) fiber texture.

Figure C-10. Distribution of (200) poles collected from a specimen (a) perpendicular and (b) parallel to the extrusion direction for a <100> fiber texture.

Figure C-11. Distribution of the (220) poles collected from a specimen (a) perpendicular (b) parallel to the extrusion direction for a <100> fiber texture.

Figure C-12. Distribution of the (111) poles collected from a specimen perpendicular and (b) parallel to the extrusion direction for a <100> texture.

Figure C-13. (110) stereographic projection oriented with respect to the extrusion direction.
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Figure C-5. Rotation of (200) poles about the Z axis.
Figure C-6. Rotation of (200) poles about the R axis.
Figure C-7. Distribution of (200) poles collected from a specimen (a) perpendicular and (b) parallel to the extrusion direction for a <111> fiber texture.
Figure C-8. Distribution of (220) poles collected from a specimen (a) perpendicular and (b) parallel to the extrusion direction for a <111> fiber texture.
Figure C-9. Distribution of (111) poles collected from a specimen (a) perpendicular and (b) parallel to the extrusion direction for a <111> fiber texture.
Figure C-10. Distribution of (200) poles collected from a specimen (a) perpendicular and (b) parallel to the extrusion direction for a <100> fiber texture.
Figures C-11. Distribution of the (220) poles collected from a specimen (a) perpendicular (b) parallel to the extrusion direction for a <100> fiber texture.
Figure C-12. Distribution of the (111) poles collected from a specimen perpendicular and (b) parallel to the extrusion direction for a <100> texture.
Figure C-13. (110) stereographic projection oriented with respect to the extrusion direction.
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