# **Naval Surface Warfare Center**

**Carderock Division** West Bethesda, MD 20817-5700

#### **NSWCCD-61-TR-2021/10**

**June 2021**

Platform Integrity Department Technical Report

## **Temperature-Dependent Material Property Databases for Marine Steels – Part 4: HSLA-100**

by

Jennifer K. Semple Daniel H. Bechetti Wei Zhang Charles R. Fisher



DISTRIBUTION A. Approved for public release: distribution unlimited.

West Bethesda, MD 20817-5700

**June 2021**

### **NSWCCD-61-TR-2021/10**

Platform Integrity Department Technical Report

## **Temperature-Dependent Material Property Databases for Marine Steels – Part 4: HSLA-100**

by

Jennifer K. Semple Daniel H. Bechetti Wei Zhang Charles R. Fisher

DISTRIBUTION A. Approved for public release: distribution unlimited.

## **UNCLASSIFIED**



**UNCLASSIFIED**

## **CONTENTS**

Page





## **FIGURES**

<span id="page-5-0"></span>









## **TABLES**

<span id="page-10-0"></span>



#### **ADMINISTRATIVE INFORMATION**

<span id="page-12-0"></span>The work described in this report was performed by the Welding, Processing, and Nondestructive Evaluation Branch (Code 611) of the Platform Integrity Department at the Naval Surface Warfare Center, Carderock Division (NSWCCD) and by the Department of Materials Science and Engineering at the Ohio State University. The work was funded in FY18-19 by the Office of Naval Research (ONR), in support of the Lightweight Innovations for Tomorrow (LIFT) Institute's program entitled *Robust Distortion Control Methods and Implementation for Construction of Lightweight Metallic Structures – ICME Extension to Advanced Alloys*.

#### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

<span id="page-12-1"></span>The authors would like to thank the other members of the LIFT Joining-R4-3 integrated project team, including other engineers at the Naval Surface Warfare Center, Carderock Division (Matthew Sinfield, Maria Posada, and Johnnie Deloach), Huntington Ingalls Industries – Ingalls Shipbuilding (T.D. Huang, Randy Johnson, Yu-Ping Yang, Steve Scholler, Charlotte Merritt, Shannon Dolese, Anthony Copeland, Andrew Nicholson, Lance Carnahan, Stacey Merritt, Win Delancey, Dianna Genton, and John Walks), the University of Michigan (Pingsha Dong, Jack Hu, Theodor Freiheit), the Ohio State University (Colleen Hilla and Chris Cathis), ESI (Yogendra [San] Gooroochan and Mark Doroudian), and LIFT (Melvin Hawke, Alan Taub, and Hadrian Rori), for their technical assistance in the completion of this work.

*This page intentionally left blank*

#### **EXECUTIVE SUMMARY**

<span id="page-14-0"></span>*The Lightweight Innovations for Tomorrow (LIFT) project entitled, Robust Distortion Control Methods and Implementation for Construction of Lightweight Metallic Structures – ICME Extension to Advanced Alloys, sought to address distortion issues with thin-plate steel fabrication of U.S. Navy ships. Integrated Computational Materials Engineering (ICME)-based tools and techniques were identified as the best path forward for distortion mitigation through computational simulation of the welding process. ICME tools require temperature-dependent material properties to achieve accurate computational results for distortion and residual stress. Properties of note include specific heat, thermal conductivity, coefficient of thermal expansion (CTE), elastic modulus, yield strength, and flow stress of alloys from room temperature to near melting. In addition, the temperatures associated with on-heating and on-cooling phase transformations and their variation with heating rate, cooling rate, and peak temperature are also important for the prediction of stress and distortion evolution.* 

*The integrated project team (IPT) made generating pedigreed, temperaturedependent material property databases of Navy-relevant steels a key task within the LIFT project. The testing plan included some of the most common marine steels used in the construction of U.S. Naval vessels; namely, DH36, HSLA-65, HSLA-80, HSLA-100, HY-80, and HY-100. Material testing for each of the six steel grades was performed jointly by the Welding Engineering Program within the Department of Materials Science and Engineering at the Ohio State University (OSU) and the Welding, Processing, and Nondestructive Evaluation Branch at the Naval Surface Warfare Center, Carderock Division (NSWCCD). The temperature-dependent material property data was then sent to ESI for adaptation for use in their welding-based, finite-element analysis (FEA) software colloquially known as SYSWELD.* 

*This report is part of a seven-part series detailing the pedigreed steel data. The first six reports will report and discuss the material properties for each of the individual steel grades, whereas the final report will compare and contrast the measured steel properties across all six steels, while also comparing them to the available literature data. This report will focus specifically on the data associated with HSLA-100 steel.*

#### **BACKGROUND**

<span id="page-14-1"></span>The Lightweight Innovations for Tomorrow (LIFT) project entitled, *Robust Distortion Control Methods and Implementation for Construction of Lightweight Metallic Structures – ICME Extension to Advanced Alloys*, is a collaborative research project to address the complex fabrication problems that arise from the use of thin, high-strength steel panels for ship construction. The importance of lightweighting in the commercial and military shipbuilding sectors has gained attention in recent decades as a way to increase the performance capabilities of products while also reducing total ownership costs. Over the past decade, the production ratio of thin plate (10 mm [3/8-in.] or less) to thicker plate structures for steel construction at Huntington Ingalls Industries – Ingalls Shipbuilding has risen to over 80% in the Coast Guard's National Security Cutter (NSC) program. Modern naval vessel designs also make greater use of complex panels with inserts and cutouts, further increasing the fabrication complexity to achieve weight savings while meeting structural requirements.

European shipbuilding research suggests that 30% of hull fabrication costs can be attributed to rework and fit-up issues due to distortion [1]. Integrated Computational Materials Engineering (ICME)-

based prediction tools can be used to quantify distortions associated with the fabrication process of complex stiffened panels or other lightweight structures. These tools, once validated on selected product forms, could be used to establish recommended fitting, fixturing, welding, and assembly sequencing for optimized distortion control in thin-plate steel construction.

These ICME tools require detailed, reliable databases of temperature-dependent material properties in order to increase the accuracy of calculated distortion and residual stresses in welded metallic structures. Of highest importance to the fidelity of such models are the thermo-physical and thermo-mechanical properties of the material(s) being joined. The properties of note include specific heat, thermal conductivity, coefficient of thermal expansion (CTE), elastic modulus, yield strength, and flow stress of the alloy, from room temperature to near melting. The temperatures associated with on-heating and on-cooling phase transformations and their variation with heating rate, cooling rate, and peak temperature are also important for the prediction of stress and distortion evolution.

While some of these data exist for the most common Navy steels, these are generally not suitable for use in high-fidelity welding-focused computational models for several reasons. First, the methods of data generation are inconsistent because the testing was completed over many decades by separate researchers and programs. Also, significant gaps exist in the data, especially at temperatures above approximately 400 °C ( $\sim$ 750 °F). Additionally, some available data are restricted against public distribution. Finally, the data are, in general, subject to reliability issues because of changes in material fabrication and testing practices that have occurred in the decades since the data were generated. To combat this lack of comprehensive and consistent data, the integrated project team (IPT) made generating pedigreed, temperature-dependent material property databases of Navy-relevant steels a key task within the LIFT project. A major portion of the tasking involved analysis of heat-affected zone (HAZ) microstructures, as this region of rapidly changing microstructure results in significant changes in resultant mechanical properties. These varied HAZ region microstructures of Navy-relevant also do not have well-established mechanical property data, especially as a function of temperature and heating or cooling rate.

The testing plan included some of the most common marine steels used in the construction of U.S. Naval vessels; namely DH36, HSLA-65, HSLA-80, HSLA-100, HY-80, and HY-100. HSLA is short for "high-strength low-alloy," whereas HY stands for "high yield." The number designation behind HSLA and HY is the minimum yield strength of the plate material in units of ksi. Current (as of this writing) specifications for these alloys can be found in references [2] [3] [4]. Material testing for each of the six steel grades was performed jointly by the Welding Engineering Program within the Department of Materials Science and Engineering at the Ohio State University (OSU) and the Welding, Processing, and Nondestructive Evaluation Branch at the Naval Surface Warfare Center, Carderock Division (NSWCCD). The temperature-dependent material property data was then sent to ESI for adaptation for use in their welding-based, finite-element analysis (FEA) software colloquially known as *SYSWELD*.

This report is part of a seven-part series based on the pedigreed steel data. The first six reports will focus on establishing the material properties for each of the individual steel grades, whereas the final report will compare and contrast the measured steel properties across all six steels, while also comparing them to the available literature data. Follow-on reports detailing use of these temperature-dependent material databases within the LIFT-funded program are also expected. While this report focuses on HSLA-100 data, the citation for the previous report on DH36 is [5], HSLA-65 is [6], and HSLA-80 is [7].

#### **APPROACH**

#### <span id="page-16-1"></span><span id="page-16-0"></span>**Material Testing Program**

The material property assessment program was developed through inputs from welding engineers at NSWCCD, researchers at OSU, and modeling experts at ESI. The program focused on generating the types of data required to develop Navy-relevant material databases for use by ESI's commercial software, *SYSWELD*. The raw data could also be adapted for use by other FEA tools, such as Hexagon's *Simufact Welding* or the welding module for *Abaqus*. Specific data included thermo-physical and mechanical properties of the alloys of interest, from room temperature up to near-melting. Density, heat capacity, thermal conductivity, and coefficient of thermal expansion (CTE) were identified as the most important thermo-physical properties. Mechanical properties of interest included the elastic modulus, yield strength, and flow stress.

Material from a single HSLA-100 steel plate procured to NAVSEA Technical Publication T9074- BD-GIB-010/0300 (Tech Pub 300) [4] was analyzed for this project. The nominally 4.76 mm (3/16-in.) thick plate was acquired by Huntington Ingalls Industries – Ingalls Shipbuilding (HII – Ingalls). The room temperature yield strength and elongation requirements for the alloy are 690-828 MPa (100-120 ksi) and 17% in 50 mm (2-in.), respectively [4]. There are no ultimate tensile strength requirements for HSLA-100 plate procured to Tech Pub 300 [4]. The plate conformance certification sheet for the material investigated in this study is given in **Appendix A**. A portion of this plate was cut into 610 mm by 305 mm (24-in. by 12-in.) pieces and shipped to both NSWCCD and OSU for determination of temperaturedependent material properties.

#### <span id="page-16-2"></span>*Chemical Composition*

The chemical composition of the base material was measured at OSU using optical emission spectroscopy in accordance with ASTM E415 [8].

#### <span id="page-16-3"></span>*Heat Affected Zone Phase Transformation Analysis*

Phase transformations of HSLA-100 as a function of austenitization temperature and cooling rate were assessed via dilatometry. Continuous cooling transformation (CCT) diagrams were developed for four regions of the heat affected zone (HAZ) that are subject to microstructural transformation during welding: the intercritical region (ICHAZ); the low-temperature, fine-grained region (FGHAZ1); the hightemperature, fine-grained region (FGHAZ2); and the coarse-grained region (CGHAZ).

Heating and cooling rates for these regions in HSLA-100 were assumed to be the similar those for DH36 weldments [5]. As part of the DH36 effort [5], the heating and cooling rates were defined by combining typical heat inputs used in the fabrication of DH36 weldments, from 0.4 to 2.6 kJ/mm (10 to 65 kJ/in) as suggested by Ingalls engineers, with numerical simulation of the heat flow using the *SmartWeld* program from Sandia National Laboratories [9]. From these calculations, it was determined that peak temperatures (T<sub>peak</sub>) between 790 and 1350 °C (1454 and 2462 °F), in combination with cooling rates between 1 and 200 °C/s (1.8 and 360 °F/s), would provide information covering a sufficiently broad range of phase transformation behavior relevant to both slowly-cooled welds (*e.g.*, high heat input welds on thin plate) and rapidly-cooled welds (*e.g.*, low heat input welds on thick plate). These CCT diagrams informed the temperature-dependent mechanical property testing program as well, specifically for heating and cooling rates, peak temperatures, and various testing temperatures.

In addition to the on-cooling CCT diagram development, this portion of the testing program also involved a detailed assessment of the on-heating austenite transformation as a function of heating rate. Just as on-cooling transformation temperatures vary with cooling rate, so does on-heating austenitization temperature ( $A_{c1}$  and  $A_{c3}$ ). Heating rates between 10 and 2000 °C/s (18 and 3632 °F/s) were used to study these variations. **[Table 1](#page-17-0)** shows the full test matrix utilized for HAZ CCT diagram development.

<span id="page-17-0"></span>

<b>Test Type</b>	<b>Region</b>	Peak Temperature, $\rm ^{\circ}C$ ( $\rm ^{\circ}F$ )	<b>Heating Rate,</b> $\rm ^{\circ}C/s$ ( $\rm ^{\circ}F/s$ )	Soak Time, s	<b>Cooling Rate,</b> $\rm ^{\circ}C/s$ ( $\rm ^{\circ}F/s$ )
$A_{c1}/A_{c3}$ Determination	N/A	1200 (2192)	10(18) 100 (180) 200 (360) 500 (900) 1000 (1800) 2000 (3600)	N/A	N/A
	<b>ICHAZ</b>	790 (1454)			1(1.8) 5(9)
<b>CCT</b> Diagram	FGHAZ1	1000 (1832)	200(360)	2	10(18)
Development	FGHAZ2	1150 (2102)			25(45)
	<b>CGHAZ</b>	1350 (2462)			100 (180) 200(360)

**Table 1.** Test Matrix for HAZ CCT Diagram Development

Execution of this test matrix was performed at NSWCCD by employing a Gleeble 3500 thermomechanical simulation apparatus to apply the prescribed heating and cooling rates. The Gleeble operates on the principles of resistive heating, conductive cooling through water-cooled fixturing, and rapid (50 kHz) control system feedback to apply precise thermal cycles even at rapid heating and cooling rates that cannot be easily achieved by other apparatus. The Gleeble 3500 system, in combination with the apparatus's standard 'Pocket Jaw' setup, used full contact copper grips and 70 mm (2.76-in.) long specimens with 3 mm (0.118-in.) diameters. A linear variable differential transformer (LVDT)-type contact extensometer was used to measure diametric dilation of the specimens during heating and cooling. All dilatometry specimens were extracted perpendicular to the rolling direction of the plate, and all dilatometry tests were performed in an argon atmosphere. The typical experimental setup for the dilatometry testing is shown in **Figure 1.**



**Figure 1.** Photographs of the Gleeble-based dilatometry experimental set-up.

#### <span id="page-18-1"></span><span id="page-18-0"></span>*Thermo-Physical Property Analysis*

Specimens were sent to the Thermophysical Properties Research Laboratory, Inc. (TPRL) in West Lafayette, IN for analysis of thermal diffusivity ( $\alpha$ ) and specific heat ( $C_p$ ). Thermal diffusivity was measured using the laser flash method according to ASTM E1461 [10]. Specific heat was measured using differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) methods according to ASTM E1269 [11]. Coefficient of thermal expansion (CTE) was measured from the on-heating Gleeble dilatometry data in two regimes: 240 to 690 °C (464 to 1274 °F) for the base material microstructure, and 860 to 1100 °C (1580 to 2012 °F) for austenite. No attempt was made to determine CTE during the on-heating transformation. CTE calculations were either performed by linear fitting or by discrete analysis using the dilation data endpoints from each temperature range in conjunction with **Equation 1**. The material was assumed to be isotropic.

$$
\alpha_T = \left(\frac{\Delta d}{d_0}\right) \left(\frac{1}{\Delta T}\right) \tag{1}
$$

where  $\alpha_T \equiv$  Linear coefficient of thermal expansion  $[{}^{\circ}C^{-1}]$  $\Delta d \equiv$  Change in specimen diameter over the chosen temperature range [cm]

 $d_0$  ≡ Initial specimen diameter [cm] *ΔT* ≡ Temperature range [<sup>o</sup>C]

The temperature-dependent density (*ρ*) was calculated using a theoretical cubic volume element under the assumption of isotropic thermal expansion:

$$
\rho(T) = \frac{\rho_0 V_0}{V(T)}\tag{2}
$$

where  $\rho(T) \equiv$  Density at temperature *T* [g/cm<sup>-3</sup>]  $\rho_0 \equiv$  Room temperature density provided by TPRL [g/cm<sup>3</sup>]  $V_0$   $\equiv$  Room temperature volume of the theoretical cubic element [cm<sup>3</sup>] *V*(*T*)  $\equiv$  Volume of the theoretical cubic element at temperature *T* [cm<sup>3</sup>]

*V<sup>0</sup>* was calculated assuming a side length equal to the room temperature width of the dilatometry specimens. This value was chosen because, as shown in **[Figure 1](#page-18-1)**, it corresponds to the starting gauge length for the dilatometer used to measure thermal expansion. A theoretical cubic volume element was chosen instead of the actual specimen dimensions to subvert potential complications with measuring dimensions that were not directly measured by the dilatometer (*e.g.*, the effect of thermal gradients on measurement of the specimen's longitudinal expansion).  $V_T$  was simply calculated by:

$$
V(T) = [w(T)]^3 \tag{3}
$$

where  $w(T) \equiv \text{Dilatometer-measured specimen width at temperature } T \text{ [cm]}$ 

This method allowed calculation of the density through the austenite transformation. Finally, thermal conductivity  $(\lambda)$  as a function of temperature was then calculated by using **Equation 4**:

$$
\lambda = \rho \cdot C_p \cdot \alpha \tag{4}
$$

where  $\lambda$  ≡ Thermal conductivity [W/cm- $\textdegree$ C]  $C_p \equiv$  Specific heat capacity [J/g-<sup>o</sup>C]  $\rho_0 \equiv$  Room temperature density [g/cm<sup>3</sup>]  $\alpha$  = Thermal diffusivity [cm<sup>2</sup>/s]

#### <span id="page-19-0"></span>*Thermo-Mechanical Property Analysis*

Tensile specimens were machined from the HSLA-100 plates according to the dimensions shown in **[Figure 2a](#page-20-0)**. All specimens were extracted with their length perpendicular to the rolling direction of the plate. Elastic modulus, yield strength, and flow stress were identified as the required mechanical properties from room temperature up to near-melting. On-heating tension testing of the HSLA-100 base material at temperatures between 22 and 1100  $^{\circ}$ C (72 and 2012  $^{\circ}$ F) was performed by The Ohio State University using the Gleeble 3800. Specimens were spray painted with an yttrium oxide  $(Y_2O_3)$  solventbased paint to provide a contrast between the black speckle pattern sprayed onto the face of specimens, as shown in **[Figure 2b](#page-20-0)**. Tensile testing was carried out using digital image correlation in lieu of a contact extensometer. Room temperature testing was performed in accordance with ASTM A370 [12], and elevated temperature testing was performed in accordance with ASTM E21 [13].



<span id="page-20-0"></span>

On-cooling mechanical properties were measured using the Gleeble 3500 at NSWCCD. Prior to mechanical testing, the specimens were thermally cycled to generate different initial microstructures based on the results of the CCT diagram development described above. For HSLA-100, microstructural analysis indicated that substantially different microstructures formed when the material was cooled at 1, 10, 25, and 100  $\textdegree$ C/s (1.8, 18, 45, and 180  $\textdegree$ F/s). Because of programmatic time constraints, only a peak temperature of 1350 °C (2462 °F) was applied to the tensile specimens. All specimens were heated in an argon atmosphere, and forced air was used to meet cooling rates of 10 °C/s (18 °F/s) and above. All specimens were cooled to room temperature, and thereafter a contact longitudinal extensometer was affixed. The specimens were then reheated to the test temperature at a rate of 10  $\rm{°C/s}$  (18  $\rm{°F/s}$ ) and soaked for 10 seconds before being pulled to failure in crosshead control mode at strain rates targeting those prescribed in ASTM E21 [13]. The crosshead displacement rate used was 0.30 mm/min (0.012 in/min). It is acknowledged that this is not the most representative method of testing for welding-related applications because the stresses that develop during welding do so rapidly and while the material is cooling and undergoing phase transformations. However, given the programmatic intent of establishing the mechanical behavior of specific microstructures and the need to avoid exposing the strain measurement device to exceedingly high temperatures, the method of cooling to room temperature and tension testing after reheating was determined to be an acceptable compromise. In cases where the induced

microstructure was stronger than the base material, a second reduced gauge section was machined in the specimen prior to testing to ensure specimen fracture in the region of interest. This revised specimen geometry is shown in **[Figure 3](#page-21-0)**.



<span id="page-21-0"></span>

Thermal cycling and subsequent tensile testing were performed using the apparatus's "Pocket Jaw" setup with minimal contact stainless steel grips used to fixture the specimen. These grips were selected to minimize the longitudinal thermal gradient in the gauge length of the specimens during testing. Graphite foil was inserted between the specimen and the grips to further minimize the thermal gradient. Strain in the specimens was measured using a contact longitudinal extensometer, and the initial gauge length for the tests varied between 8 and 10 mm (0.31 and 0.39 in.). Elevated temperature tension tests were performed in an argon atmosphere. Preliminary testing as part of the DH36 test program [5] indicated that for this setup, the temperature variation across the initial gauge length was 10 to 30  $^{\circ}$ C (18) to 54 °F). The typical experimental setup for the dilatometry testing is shown in **[Figure 4](#page-22-1)**.



**Figure 4.** Photographs of the Gleeble-based mechanical testing experimental set-up.

#### <span id="page-22-1"></span><span id="page-22-0"></span>*Fabrication of Welded Specimens*

Additionally, two sets of HSLA-100 plates were welded together at Ingalls and sent to OSU to investigate the plate, weld, and heat-affected zone (HAZ) microstructures. The first set of plates were welded using submerged arc welding (SAW) in a two-sided butt joint configuration, as shown in **[Figure](#page-23-0)  [5a](#page-23-0)**. The second set of plates were welded using flux cored arc welding (FCAW) in a two-sided tee-joint configuration, as shown in **[Figure 5b](#page-23-0)**. Welding parameters for both scenarios are given in **[Table 2](#page-23-1)**. These weldments enabled correlation of the microstructures generated through thermal simulations for the CCT curves with those produced from arc welding. Each weldment is representative of two primary types of joints used at Ingalls for structural welds: seaming butt joints and fillet joint stiffener welds. These joint types were also the focus of larger fabrication efforts described in other tasks within the greater LIFT project as described in [14].



**Figure 5.** Representative **a**) butt and **b**) tee joint weldments of HSLA-100 material investigated for plate, weld, and HAZ microstructures.

<span id="page-23-0"></span>

<span id="page-23-1"></span>

#### <span id="page-24-0"></span>*Microstructural Analysis*

To quantify and characterize the HSLA-100 weldment microstructures, a cross-section of each of the weldments represented in **[Figure 5](#page-23-0)** was analyzed. Each specimen was metallographically prepared to a final polish of 0.05 μm using standard techniques and etched by immersion in 4% Picral (4 g picric acid dissolved in 100 mL ethanol) for approximately 10 seconds followed by immersion in 2% Nital (2 mL nitric acid in 98 mL of ethanol) for 5 seconds. Metallographic preparation was followed by light optical microscopy (LOM) and scanning electron microscopy (SEM) analysis. Vickers microhardness values measured using a load of 200 g (7.05 oz.) were taken from the fusion zone through the HAZ to the base material for both weldments.

Thermally cycled specimens from the HAZ CCT diagram development were metallographically prepared using the same procedure. Identification and phase fraction measurement of the microstructural constituents in each specimen were evaluated using image analysis through LOM and SEM. Vickers microhardness testing was also used to determine the hardness of the constituent(s) in each CCT specimen. This analysis facilitated proper CCT analysis, provided phase fraction input for the HSLA-100 material property database, and helped determine which thermal cycles were the most appropriate for application in the mechanical testing portion of the program described above.

#### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

#### <span id="page-24-2"></span><span id="page-24-1"></span>**Chemical Composition**

**[Table 3](#page-25-1)** shows the averaged results of three base material chemistry measurements for the HSLA-100 plate, plus manufacturer's plate certification values (shown in **Appendix A**), the NAVSEA Tech Pub 300 HSLA-100 specifications for Composition 1 grade [4], and results from a study conducted as part of a Navy Manufacturing Technology (ManTech) program with the Naval Metalworking Center from the mid-2000s [15]. This data is labeled "CTC" for Concurrent Technologies Corporation, where the testing was conducted for a plate of 25.4 mm (1.0 in.) nominal thickness. As expected, the measured chemical composition values generally agreed with the manufacturer's plate certification and were well within the NAVSEA specifications. The carbon equivalency number (CEN) was calculated according to Yurioka *et al.* [16]. The individual measurements made by OSU to obtain the average composition values are located in **Appendix A**.

#### <span id="page-24-3"></span>**Solidus and Liquidus Analysis**

Solidus and liquidus temperatures were not experimentally measured for HSLA-100 base material as part of this project. The CTC report [15] states a measured solidus temperature of 1510 °C (2750 °F) and liquidus temperature of 1525 °C (2777 °F).

<span id="page-25-1"></span>

<b>Type</b>	$\mathbf C$	Mn	P	S	Si	Ni	Cr	Mo		Cu
<b>Measured</b> Avg.	0.031	0.88	0.007	0.0009	0.28	1.94	0.59	0.32		1.13
<b>Plate</b> Certificate	0.04	0.91	0.007	0.002	0.29	1.66	0.60	0.32		1.18
<b>Tech Pub</b> 300 $[4]$	< 0.06	$0.75 -$ 1.15	< 0.020	< 0.004	< 0.40	1.50-2.00	$0.45 - 0.75$	$0.30 - 0.55$		1.00-1.30
<b>CTC</b> $[15]$	0.05	$0.90 - 0.91$	0.005	0.002	0.24	1.59-1.61	0.56	$0.37 - 0.38$		1.13-1.14
<b>Type</b>	<b>Nb</b>	Al	Ti	As	<b>Sb</b>	$\boldsymbol{\mathrm{V}}$	Sn	N	Fe	<b>CEN</b> $[16]$
<b>Measured</b> Avg.	0.027	0.028	0.002		---	0.003	0.0012	---	Bal	0.298
<b>Plate</b> <b>Certificate</b>	0.028	0.024	0.002	0.0040	0.0020	0.001	0.011	0.0064	Bal	0.308
<b>Tech Pub</b> 300 $[4]$	$0.02 -$ 0.06	>0.015	< 0.02	< 0.025	< 0.025	< 0.03	< 0.030	$---$	Bal	
<b>CTC</b> [15]	$0.029 -$ 0.030	$0.038 -$ 0.041	0.002	0.0030	0.0010	$0.02 -$ 0.03	$0.007 -$ 0.008	$0.0090 -$ 0.0093	Bal	0.322

**Table 3.** Chemical Composition of HSLA-100 Material (wt.%)

#### <span id="page-25-0"></span>**Base Metal Microstructure**

The microstructure of the HSLA-100 base metal is shown in the light optical micrograph of **[Figure 6](#page-26-2)**. The microstructure is entirely quasipolygonal ferrite. As the base metal was subjected to a precipitation aging heat treatment by the manufacturer, the presence of ε-Cu precipitates is presumed, but they could not be resolved via LOM. The average Vickers microhardness of the base metal was  $257 \pm 9.7$ HV300. In comparison, Yue *et al.* [17] measured HSLA-100 base metal to be 284 HV, albeit with a 1 kg load instead of 300 g load as used in this testing.

Observing the HSLA-100 base metal in both the longitudinal and transverse planes revealed irregular grains with no evidence of anisotropy. The grain size was measured using the "intercept method" detailed in ASTM E1382 [18]. Using this technique, a circle is drawn at random locations within a micrograph, and the number of times a grain boundary intercepts that circle is used to calculate the average grain size. Using a circle instead of a line ensured that the presence of anisotropy (*e.g.*, rolling texture) did not bias results. Measurements were taken four times on a sample of base metal with the average ASTM grain size calculated to be  $G = 11.24$ .



**Figure 6.** Representative micrograph of HSLA-100 steel plate base metal microstructure at 1000x magnification using LOM.

## <span id="page-26-2"></span><span id="page-26-0"></span>**Heat Affected Zone Phase Transformation Analysis**

#### <span id="page-26-1"></span>*Dilation Curve Analysis Method*

**[Figure 7](#page-27-1)** shows a representative on-heating portion of a Gleeble-produced dilatometry curve generated by NSWCCD. The black curve (left axis) represents the change in sample diameter (*i.e.,*  dilation) with temperature, with non-linearity in the black dilation curve corresponding to a phase transformation. Instances at which non-linearity occurs can be highlighted by graphing the derivative of the dilation curve with respect to temperature, shown by the red curve (right axis). Simple linear extrapolations of the black dilation curve are shown by the blue lines as a secondary method for pinpointing the temperatures at which nonlinearity occurs. In this case, the transformation of interest is that of the HSLA-100 base metal microstructure to austenite.



<span id="page-27-1"></span>**Figure 7.** Representative on-heating dilatometry curve for HSLA-100 steel, showing the linear extrapolation and derivative curve methods for evaluating the ferrite to austenite reaction. Black curve, left axis: dilation data. Red curve, right axis: derivative of dilation data. Blue lines: extrapolation lines for determining transformation start  $(A<sub>c1</sub>)$ and finish  $(A_{c3})$  temperatures.

Two methods for extracting start and finish temperatures for phase transformations from Gleeble dilatometry data are commonly used. The first method involves superimposing a straight line of matching slope along the low temperature portion of the dilation curve and extrapolating it past the transformation. The point at which the experimental data begins to deviate from the straight line is then taken as the transformation start temperature. The same technique is then used to find the transformation finish temperature, with the straight line being extrapolated from the high-temperature portion of the curve after the transformation. The second method involves calculating and plotting the derivative of the dilation curve. Then the points at which the derivative begins to deviate from a constant value are taken as the transformation start and finish temperatures. Both methods for determining phase transformation temperatures are inherently somewhat subjective, and both also have advantages and disadvantages. The linear extrapolation method is faster and easier to interpret but is difficult to use when multiple transformations occur. The derivative method is more quantitative and can more easily distinguish multiple transformations but can be difficult to interpret when the dilation data is noisy. For this work, the linear extrapolation method was chosen as the primary method of data analysis, and the derivative method was used as a complementary technique for distinguishing concurrent phase transformations. Both methods are shown in **[Figure 7](#page-27-1)**, where the derivative curve is displayed in red and the linear extrapolations are displayed in blue.

#### <span id="page-27-0"></span>*Austenite Transformation Temperature Measurement*

**[Figure 8](#page-28-1)** presents the variation in austenite transformation behavior as a function of heating rate for HSLA-100 base material. As shown, the austenite transformation start temperature  $(A<sub>c1</sub>)$  increases significantly as heating rate increases toward 200 °C/s (360 °F/s). This is a consequence of thermal diffusion during heating outpacing the mass diffusion required for the transformation to take place. In contrast, the austenite transformation finish temperature  $(A_{c3})$  remains more stable across the

experimental heating rate range. Researchers who have investigated similar behavior in other ferrous materials have associated heating rate dependencies of the austenite transformation with those of the controlling diffusion mechanism (*i.e.*, volume carbon diffusion or grain boundary substitutional element diffusion), the ferrite recrystallization process, and/or austenite nucleation and growth rates [19] [20] [21]. These data are important for the refinement of welding simulation results because different regions of a weldment and its HAZ are subject to significantly different heating rates during the welding process. The on-heating transformation behavior must be incorporated in order to accurately predict which areas around the weld will transform to austenite and will therefore be subject to re-transformation (and associated changes in mechanical properties and residual stresses) during cooling. Data from CTC as part of the Navy ManTech program [15] and from Yue *et al.* [17] are included for comparison. It should be noted that the Yue data was an average value across 12 specimens all heated at 200 °C/s (360 °F/s). The raw data points for **[Figure 8](#page-28-1)** can be found in **[Table 9](#page-58-1)** within **Appendix B**.



<span id="page-28-1"></span>**Figure 8.** Variation in austenite transformation start and finish temperatures with heating rate for HSLA-100 material.

#### <span id="page-28-0"></span>*Continuous Cooling Transformation Diagrams*

CCT diagrams assembled from dilatometry of HSLA-100 thermally cycled to peak temperatures representative of the four selected HAZ regions are given in **[Figures](#page-29-0) 9[-12](#page-30-1)**. The austenite transformation temperatures described above resulted in selection of an ICHAZ simulation temperature of 790 °C (1454 °F) for HSLA-100, which was 35 °C (95 °F) lower than that used for HSLA-65 [6] and HSLA-80 [7], and 85 °C (185 °F) lower than the temperature used for DH36 [5]. The  $A_{c1}$  and  $A_{c3}$  temperatures labeled on the CCT diagrams are averages calculated from the individual  $A_{c1}$  and  $A_{c3}$  values for all of the CCT specimens. The black curves are the actual specimen cooling curves. The target cooling rates for all specimens except those cooled at 100 and 200  $\degree$ C/s (180 and 360  $\degree$ F/s) were maintained through the oncooling phase transformations. The latent heat released during low temperature transformation slowed the

cooling rates of both the 100 °C/s (180 °F/s) and the 200 °C/s (360 °F/s) tests for all peak temperatures. As a result the target cooling rate was maintained until the start of the transformation, but was slowed as the transformations occurred for 100 and 200  $\degree$ C/s (180 and 360  $\degree$ F/s) tests. The raw data for these figures are given in **[Table 10](#page-58-2)**-**[13](#page-59-1)** of **Appendix B**, and the individual dilation curves are given in **[Figures](#page-59-0) 38[-61](#page-71-0)** of **Appendix B**.



<span id="page-29-0"></span>**Figure 9.** CCT diagram for HSLA-100 heated to peak temperature of 790 °C (1454 °F).



<span id="page-29-1"></span>**Figure 10.** CCT diagram for HSLA-100 heated to peak temperature of 1000 °C (1832 °F).



<span id="page-30-0"></span>**Figure 11.** CCT diagram for HSLA-100 heated to peak temperature of 1150 °C (2102 °F).



**Figure 12.** CCT diagram for HSLA-100 heated to peak temperature of 1350 °C (2462 °F).

<span id="page-30-1"></span>The colored symbols in **[Figures](#page-29-0) 9[-12](#page-30-1)** correspond to the start and finish temperatures for the various on-cooling phase transformations. Simulated HAZ regions were subject to up to three regimes of on-cooling transformation start temperatures across the cooling rate range assessed in this work as shown in **[Figure 13](#page-31-0)[-Figure 15](#page-32-0)**. The first occurred at high temperatures and was associated with ferrite

formation, which was observed for slowly-cooled samples at every peak temperature tested, as illustrated below in **[Figure 13](#page-31-0)**. In general, ferrite start transformation temperatures were suppressed as cooling rate increased, which is expected for a diffusion-based transformation mechanism. Though ferrite was not represented for every combination of cooling rate and peak temperature, for a given cooling rate, transformation temperatures decreased as the peak temperature increased.



<span id="page-31-0"></span>**Figure 13.** Variation of start temperature for the ferrite transformation shown in **[Figures](#page-29-0) 9[-12](#page-30-1)**.



<span id="page-31-1"></span>**Figure 14.** Variation of start temperature for the bainite transformation shown in **[Figures](#page-29-0) 9[-12](#page-30-1)**.



<span id="page-32-0"></span>**Figure 15.** Variation of start temperature for the martensite transformation shown in **[Figures](#page-29-0) 9- [12](#page-30-1)**.

Bainite was present in a small number of samples, appearing only at moderate cooling rates (from 5-25 °C/s [9-45 °F/s]) and in samples brought to high peak temperatures, as shown in **[Figure 14](#page-31-1)**. Martensite was a more common transformation product in the low temperature regime, only present in samples cooled at rates of 25 °C/s (45 °F/s) and higher but represented in each simulated HAZ sub-region illustrated in **[Figure 15](#page-32-0)**. As shown, *Ms* temperature rose slightly with increasing peak temperature, falling between 449 and 495 °C (840 and 923 °F).

In order to confidently establish the identities of the on-cooling phase transformations, LOM was performed on all dilatometry specimens, and select specimens were analyzed via SEM. Micrographs collected from the dilatometry specimens are given in **[Figures](#page-72-1) 62[-67](#page-77-0)** of **Appendix C.** Additionally, the measured microhardness for each specimen is given in **[Figure 16](#page-33-0)** and **[Table 14](#page-78-1)** of **Appendix D**. For this discussion, the following definitions for the morphology of microstructural constituents are adopted, based on references [22] [23] [24] [25] [26]. The typical definitions for crystal structure and composition of the constituents are also assumed.

*Primary ferrite (FP)* – Carbide-free grain boundary or intragranular allotriomorphic or idiomorphic ferrite

*Acicular ferrite (AF)* – Fine, interlocking structure formed by impingement of multiple Widmanstätten plates growing from intragranular inclusions

*Martensite-austenite constituent (M/A)* – Structure represented by a combination of martensite and residual austenite

*Bainite (B)* – General term for fine aggregates of ferrite laths or plates and cementite particles *Lath martensite (ML)* – Martensite laths with highly dislocated substructure which are grouped into larger packets



<span id="page-33-0"></span>**Figure 16.** Measured Vickers microhardness for HSLA-100 dilatometry specimens as a function of peak temperature and cooling rate. Error bars are one standard deviation. Values are the average of 5-65 indents.

Representative micrographs of all CCT specimens heated to 790  $\degree$ C (1454  $\degree$ F) are shown in **[Figure 62](#page-72-1)** of **Appendix C**. This temperature falls between  $A_{c1}$  and  $A_{c3}$  (759 and 836 °C [1398 and 1537 °F], respectively) and was chosen in order to achieve partial transformation to austenite prior to cooling. This partial transformation is expected to occur via austenite nucleation at the triple points and grain boundaries as the ferrite equilibrium temperature is exceeded [24].

Slowly cooled samples heated to ICHAZ peak temperature did not retain microstructures from the original base material. The samples subjected to 1, 5, 10, and 25 °C/s (1.8, 9, 18, and 45 °F/s) cooling rates (shown in **[Figure 62a](#page-72-1)-d**) all exhibited a mixture of primary ferrite with quasipolygonal morphology and M/A constituent. Determination of the proportions of martensite and austenite in the M/A constituents could not be determined through optical microscopy and was not attempted with electron microscopy. Ferrite transformation start temperatures dropped from 684 °C (1263 °F) to 601 °C (1114 °F) as cooling rates of these samples increased from 1 to 25 °C/s (1.8 to 45 °F/s). This depression of transformation temperatures for diffusion-based transformations is expected as cooling rates increase. A secondary transformation was detected at lower temperatures, presumed to correspond with formation of M/A constituent. For all four samples this began at approximately 585 °C (1085 °F), but finish temperatures for the slower cooling rates of 1-25 °C/s (1.8-45 °F/s) fell within a narrow range of 452 and 461 °C (846 and 862 °F). Due to the fine and fragmented morphology of the M/A constituent shown in the micrographs, it is difficult to quantify fraction ferrite, but there does not appear to be a significant difference in the proportion of ferrite present in the samples cooled at 5-25 °C/s (9-45 °F/s). This is supported by microhardness, as all three samples fell within the narrow range of  $249-254 \text{ HV}_{200}$ . The etching response of the M/A constituent bears a close resemblance to martensite, but the low cooling rates coupled with low microhardness values (between 242 and 254 HV<sub>200</sub>) support identification as  $M/A$ constituent. *SYSWELD* does not explicitly account for M/A constituent, so phase fractions of these specimens were reported to be entirely ferrite, as shown in **[Table 4](#page-34-0)**.

	<b>Cooling Rate</b>	Peak Temperature = $790\text{ °C}$ (1454 $\text{°F}$ )			
$\rm ^{\circ}C/s$	$\mathrm{PFS}$	$F + M/A$			
	1.8				
10	18				
25	45				
100	180	0.64		0.36	
200	360	0.38		0.62	

<span id="page-34-0"></span>**Table 4.** Measured Phase Fraction of HSLA-100 CCT Specimens Thermally Cycled to a Peak Temperature of 790 °C (1454 °F)

A large number of precipitates were present in all samples heated to intercritical temperatures, particularly concentrated in regions adjacent to M/A constituent. It is unclear whether these precipitates persisted from the base material or if additional precipitates had formed on-heating. Ferritic regions were comparatively precipitate-free, indicating dissolution during thermal cycling. The identity of the precipitates was not explored, though their visibility in optical micrographs suggests they are some form of carbides or carbonitrides. ε-Cu precipitates in HSLA-80 have been reported to be less than 5 nm in size [27], and it is presumed that the same precipitates in HSLA-100 are on a similar scale. A study by Sun *et al.* examined the effect of aging time on precipitate size in a Cu-bearing marine steel, similar to HSLA-100 but with slightly higher Cu and Ni content [28]. This steel was subjected to controlled rolling thermomechanical processing conditions consistent with those used to produce HSLA steels. The authors found that when this material was subjected to isothermal aging at 500  $^{\circ}$ C (932  $^{\circ}$ F) for 1 and 3 hours, Cu precipitates with average size of 5.6 and 19.3 nm, respectively, could be identified via TEM. Any precipitates that may have formed during a 0.5 hour aging regimen were too small for positive identification [28]. A study by Das *et al.* examined another steel similar to HSLA-100 with slightly higher than allowable Cu and Ni content, but without the aging step carried out by Sun *et al.* [29]. Das *et al.* used TEM to find that when the material was cooled at 0.68 °C/s (33 °F/s) from 800 °C (1472 °F), the average size of Cu precipitates fell between 10-18 nm, with the largest identified having a size of 50 nm. The extremely small Cu precipitate size reported in various literature makes it unlikely that any precipitates shown in the simulated HAZ optical or SEM micrographs were  $\varepsilon$ -Cu. Any volumetric change associated with precipitate dissolution was not large enough to identify on dilation curves.

For HSLA-80, the dissolution of second phases (including ε-Cu) was determined in tests at CTC to finish at 880 °C (1616 °F) at slow heating rates [30]. Further, a study by Bhagat *et al.* indicated that under isothermal aging conditions, dissolution of copper precipitates in an HSLA steel sample began at 650 and 700 °C (1202 and 1292 °F) after being held for 20 and 4 minutes, respectively, as evidenced by an increase in experimentally measured resistivity [27]. The sample studied by Bhagat *et al.* had a composition that was similar to that of HSLA-100, but the Ni content of 3.39 wt.% was more representative of that allowed for thick plate than the 1.94 wt.% measured in the material analyzed in this report. Thermo-Calc 2020b and the TCFE9 database [31] were used in this study to calculate an equilibrium ε-Cu dissolution temperature of approximately 700 °C (1292 °F) for the HSLA-100 composition reported in **[Table 3](#page-25-1)**. It is therefore unlikely that ε-Cu precipitates persisted at the 790 °C (1454 °F) ICHAZ peak temperature, with the possible exception of rapidly cooled samples, and complete dissolution was expected for all higher peak temperature samples. As is the case with M/A constituent, precipitates are not considered in *SYSWELD*, so despite their presence these microstructures are simply described as ferrite.

The average size of the M/A constituent appeared to decrease as cooling rate increased. This is consistent with reduced time for prior austenite grain growth. Evidence of M/A constituent banding was present in the 1  $\rm{°C/s}$  (1.8  $\rm{°F/s}$ ) and was slightly discernible in the samples cooled at 5, 10, and 25  $\rm{°C/s}$  (9, 18, and 45 °F/s). M/A constituent formation requires local carbon enrichment. Austenite has a significantly higher solubility for carbon than ferrite does, so partial transformation of the ferritic base material into austenite would have encouraged diffusion of carbon from ferritic regions to austenitic ones. Further, banding of alloying elements or impurities is a common phenomenon in rolled plate. Calculations performed using Thermo-Calc 2020b and the TCFE9 thermodynamic database [31] predict that the chemical potential of carbon will be lower in areas where remnant macrosegregation results in a higher than nominal concentration of substitutional alloying elements, further driving diffusion towards those areas.

Transformation finish temperatures for the samples cooled at 100 and 200 °C/s (180 and 360 °F/s) extend significantly below those of the more slowly cooled specimens. It is likely that in addition to the ferrite observed in samples cooled at and below 25 °C/s (45 °F/s), phases such as bainite or martensite are present. Other studies have found an  $M_s$  temperature of approximately 420 °C (788 °F) [32] [33]. This is lower than the temperature range at which martensite was observed to begin transformation, even for higher peak temperatures. This discrepancy can be explained by chemical composition. Though HSLA-100 was studied in each case, most literature sourced material from thicker material than the 4.76 mm (3/16-in.) thick plates examined in this report. In contrast with the measured 1.94 wt.% Ni in the samples studied here, thick sections have a Ni content between 3.35-3.65 wt.% as by Tech Pub 300 [4]. The resulting difference in carbon equivalent is significant, as calculated using the formula developed by Yurioka *et al.* [16]. The material studied in this report had a carbon equivalent of 0.30, compared to values of 0.39 and 0.44 reported by Shome *et al.* and Spanos *et al.*, who each reported an *M<sup>s</sup>* of 420 °C (788 °F) [32] [33]. The compositions studied in literature have more austenite stabilizing elements, which allow austenite to persist at lower temperatures before transforming to martensite, decreasing *Ms*. Therefore, it is likely that *M<sup>s</sup>* temperatures for the HSLA-100 composition in this report are simply higher than those reported in other studies due to lower proportion of austenite stabilizing alloying elements.

Various constitutive equations for predicting the start temperatures for bainite and martensite transformations based on alloy chemistry are available in the literature [34] [35]. Such models are generally oversimplifications and often are only accurate for alloys similar to those used to create them, but they can act as a guide for reasonable temperatures at which to expect formation of intermediate and low temperature phases. As such, the models developed by Capdevilla *et al.* [36] and Kirkaldy [37] were applied to the measured HSLA-100 composition given in **[Table 3](#page-25-1)**:

$$
M_s = 491.05 - 302.6w_c - 30.6w_{Mn} - 16.6w_{Ni} - 8.9w_{Cr} + 2.4w_{Mo} - 11.3w_{Cu} + 8.58w_{Co} + 7.4w_W - 14.5w_{Si}
$$
\n(5)

$$
B_s = 656 - 57.7w_C - 75w_{Si} - 35w_{Mn} - 15.3w_{Ni} - 32w_{Cr} - 41.2w_{Mo}
$$
 (6)

where  $M_s \equiv$  martensite start temperature ( ${}^{\circ}$ C)  $B_s \equiv$  bainite start temperature (°C)  $w_i \equiv$  concentration of element *i* (wt%)

From **Equations 5** and 6, the  $M_s$  and  $B_s$  temperatures for HSLA-100 are predicted to be 401 °C (755 °F) and 541 °C (1005 °F), respectively. The same formulas predict *Ms* temperatures of 369 and 360 °C (696 and 680 °F) for the more highly-alloyed literature compositions, which both reported an experimental  $M_s$  temperature of 420 °C (788 °F) [32] [33]. From this it can be concluded that **Equation 5** substantially underestimates transformation temperatures for this class of material.
Two transformations were detected in the dilation curves for the samples cooled at 100 and 200 °C/s (180 and 360 °F/s). The first, higher temperature transformations began at 583 and 588 °C (1081 and 1090 °F) and finished at 449 and 457 °C (840 and 855 °F) for the two samples, respectively. Though this falls within the predicted bainite temperature regime, optical and SEM micrographs in **[Figures](#page-72-0) 62** and **[63](#page-73-0)** of **Appendix C** revealed only polygonal ferrite and martensite, suggesting that these transformations were associated with ferrite formation. The second, lower temperature transformations took place over 449 to 364 °C (840 to 687 °F) when cooled at 100 °C/s (180 °F/s) and over 457 to 352 °C (855 to 666 °F) when cooled at 200  $\rm{C/s}$  (360  $\rm{F/s}$ ). These low temperature transformations were associated with martensite, as evidenced by the high microhardness values (285 and 287 HV<sub>200</sub>) and consistency with measured  $M<sub>s</sub>$  for higher peak temperature samples.

The next simulated HAZ region was the FGHAZ, with a peak temperature of 1000  $\degree$ C (1832  $\degree$ F). Representative micrographs are presented in **[Figures](#page-74-0) 64** and **[65](#page-75-0)** of **Appendix C**, with measured phase fractions reported in **[Table 5](#page-36-0)**. Samples cooled at 1 to 25 °C/s (1.8 to 45 °F/s) were all composed of a mixture of polygonal ferrite and M/A constituent. The slowly cooled samples spent more time in the high temperature regime that allowed for precipitate dissolution and grain growth, which is reflected in the coarse microstructures in the sample cooled at 1 °C/s (1.8 °F/s) and progressively finer microstructures and higher number of precipitates as cooling rate increased to 25  $\rm{C/s}$  (45  $\rm{F/s}$ ). Average microhardness increased with cooling rate, from 230 to 280 HV $_{200}$ . In ICHAZ samples, the presence of M/A constituent was accompanied with a corresponding distinct inflection point in dilation curves. This was not the case for samples heated to higher peak temperatures. It is likely that time spent at high peak temperatures allowed for more thorough dissolution of alloying elements associated with M/A formation. This could have decreased the extent of M/A formation that formed upon cooling to a volume no longer measurable by the dilatometer. Transformation temperatures followed a strong trend of decreasing as cooling rate increased, with ferrite start temperatures falling steadily from 678 to 592 °C (1252 to 1105 °F) as cooling rate increased from 1 to 25 °C/s (1.8 to 45 °F/s). Ferrite transformation finish temperatures followed the same trend, falling from 458 °C (856 °F) for the sample cooled at 1 °C/s (1.8 °F/s) to 369 °C (696 °F/s) when cooling rate was increased to 25  $\mathrm{C/s}$  (45  $\mathrm{F/s}$ ).



<span id="page-36-0"></span>

Samples cooled at 100 and 200  $\degree$ C/s (180 and 360  $\degree$ F/s) were primarily composed of martensite, with optical and SEM micrographs revealing a small proportion of ferrite between martensite packets. Ferrite start transformation temperatures were 532 and 502 °C (990 and 936 °F) for the two samples, respectively. Martensite transformation took place from 465 to 333 °C (869 to 631 °F) when cooled at 100 °C/s (180 °F/s), and from 464 to 331 °C (867 to 628 °F) for the sample cooled at 200 °C/s (360 °F/s). Microhardness was measured to be 331 and 326 HV $_{200}$  for the two specimens. As is expected with the introduction of martensite, these values were substantially higher than the microhardness associated with more slowly cooled samples.

The third peak temperature investigated was also representative of the FGHAZ, but with a slightly higher peak temperature of 1150 °C (2102 °F). Representative micrographs are shown in **[Figure](#page-76-0)  [66](#page-76-0)** in **Appendix C**, with measured phase fractions reported in **[Table 6](#page-37-0)**. It is clear from micrographs of the sample cooled at  $1 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C/s}$  (1.8  $\text{ }^{\circ}\text{F/s}$ ) that this peak temperature was sufficient for grain-pinning precipitates to dissolve, as demonstrated by the large prior austenite grains compared to samples with lower peak temperatures. The microhardness of 239 HV $_{200}$  was only slightly higher than samples reaching lower peak temperatures and cooled at the same rate. Despite the larger prior austenite grains, the phases present were the same as those observed in lower peak temperature samples: a mix of polygonal ferrite and M/A constituent. As with FGHAZ samples heated to 1000 °C (1832 °F), only the transformation associated with ferrite was identified on dilation curves. Ferrite transformation took place between 594 and 437 °C (1101 and 809 °F) for the sample cooled at  $1 \text{ }^{\circ}C/s$  (1.8 °F/s).

<b>Cooling Rate</b>		Peak Temperature = $1150$ °C (2102 °F)			
$\rm ^{\circ}C/s$	$\mathrm{PFS}$	$F + M/A$		М	
	1.8				
		0.87	0.13		
10	18				
25	45		0.12	0.88	
100	180				
200	360				

<span id="page-37-0"></span>**Table 6.** Measured Phase Fraction of HSLA-100 CCT Specimens Thermally Cycled to a Peak Temperature of  $1150 \degree C$  (2102  $\degree F$ )

Increasing the cooling rate to 5  $\degree$ C/s (9  $\degree$ F/s) introduced bainite to the mixture of polygonal ferrite and M/A constituent. The measured ferrite transformation temperature decreased from 573 to 444 °C (1063 to 831 °F) and bainite formed between 444 and 414 °C (831 and 777 °F). This was accompanied by an increase in microhardness to 268 HV<sub>200</sub>. Further increasing the cooling rate to 10 °C/s (18 °F/s) precluded ferrite formation, leaving only a bainitic microstructure with microhardness of  $298 \text{ HV}_{200}$ . Bainite transformation took place between 550 and 394 °C (1022 and 741 °F). The 25 °C/s (45 °F/s) cooled sample formed a small amount of bainite from 507 to 482 °C (945 to 900 °F) but was primarily composed of martensite, which formed from 482 to 360 °C (900 to 680 °F). Microhardness values reached an average of 313 HV<sub>200</sub>. Samples cooled at 100 and 200 °C/s (180 and 360 °F/s) were entirely martensitic, with microhardness values of 327 and 323, respectively. The martensite transformation took place across essentially the same temperature range – from 479 to 333 °C (894 to 631 °F) and from 481 to 339 (898 to 642 °F) for samples cooled at 100 and 200 °C/s (180 and 360 °F/s), respectively.

The final simulated region was the CGHAZ, with a peak temperature of 1350  $\degree$ C (2462  $\degree$ F). Representative micrographs are shown in **[Figure 67](#page-77-0)** in **Appendix C**, with measured phase fractions reported in **[Table 7](#page-38-0)**. Samples cooled at both 1 and 5 °C/s (1.8 and 9 °F/s) were composed entirely of polygonal ferrite and M/A constituent. The higher peak temperature afforded even more prior austenite grain growth than observed in the samples heated to 1150 °C (2102 °F). Microhardness values were 236 and 240 HV<sub>200</sub>. Ferrite transformation began at 589 and 574 °C (1092 and 1065 °F) and completed at 449 and 402 °C (840 and 756 °F) for samples cooled at 1 and 5 °C/s (1.8 and 9 °F/s), respectively.

<b>Cooling Rate</b>		Peak Temperature = $1350$ °C (2462 °F)			
$\rm ^{\circ}C/s$	$\mathrm{F/s}$	$F + M/A$			
	1.8				
10	18				
25	45		0.10	0.90	
100	180				
200	360				

<span id="page-38-0"></span>**Table 7.** Measured Phase Fraction of HSLA-100 CCT Specimens Thermally Cycled to a Peak Temperature of 1350  $^{\circ}$ C (2462  $^{\circ}$ F)

Phases present in samples heated to 1350  $\degree$ C (2462  $\degree$ F) and rapidly cooled were the same as those in corresponding samples heated to 1150 °C (2102 °F). The sample cooled at 10 °C/s (18 °F/s) was entirely bainitic, with microhardness of  $266 \text{ HV}_{200}$  and transformation taking place between 555 and 406  $°C/s$  (1031 and 763 °F/s). Increasing cooling rate to 25 °C/s (45 °F/s) introduced martensite alongside the bainite, raising microhardness to 308 HV<sub>200</sub> while dropping bainite start temperatures to 555 °C (932 °F) and forming martensite between 480 and 385 °C (896 and 725 °F). The two samples cooled at 100 and 200 °C/s (180 and 360 °F/s) were cooled too rapidly to allow for bainite formation, instead forming entirely martensitic microstructures. Transformation temperatures matched well between the two, with martensite formation taking place between 482 and 362 °C (900 and 684 °F) for the sample cooled at 100  $°C/s$  (180 °F/s) and between 495 and 361 °C (923 and 682 °F) for the sample cooled at 200 °C/s (360)  $\mathrm{PFS}$ ).

The phase transformation information developed here is critically important for ensuring that weld simulation software can draw on thermo-physical and thermo-mechanical property information from the appropriate phases at the appropriate times during calculations. The results in **[Figure 9](#page-29-0)[-15](#page-32-0)** highlight the importance of developing multiple HAZ-related CCT diagrams.

### **Weldment Microstructures**

Metallographic specimens were removed from both weldments and analyzed in a manner similar to the Gleeble specimens. Discussion of the microstructures present correspond to the HAZ of the second pass for each weldment, as the reheating experienced by the first pass confounded the analysis and do not directly correlate with thermal cycles undergone by Gleeble CCT specimens, making them unsuitable for the intended purpose of experimental validation.

The fusion zone for each joint configuration was a mixture of coarse primary ferrite, acicular ferrite, and unidentified carbides. **[Figure 17](#page-39-0)** presents representative micrographs for the butt joint and tee joint fusion zones. Microhardness values ranged from approximately  $190-240 \text{ HV}_{200}$ .



<span id="page-39-0"></span>**Figure 17.** Representative microstructures of the second pass fusion zone for the **a)** butt joint and **b)** tee joint configuration.

Representative HAZ microstructures for the second pass of the HSLA-100 butt joint are presented in **[Figure 18](#page-40-0)**. A microhardness map with truncated color scale is provided in **[Figure 19](#page-41-0)**. This limited scale excludes the highest microhardness values, which were present in a single local region and discussed below. The selected color scale shows more granular differences across the weldment and serves as a direct comparison to the color map representing the tee joint microhardnesses shown in **[Figure](#page-43-0)  [22](#page-43-0)**. Each map shows measurements values for indents spaced at intervals of 250 μm in both the horizontal and vertical directions, with numerical values provided in **[Table 15](#page-79-0)** in **Appendix D**. The CGHAZ of the butt joint, shown in **[Figure 18a](#page-40-0)**, was comprised of large grains of coarse bainite, with microhardness values near 240 HV $_{200}$ . It appeared that instead of carbides, the aligned secondary phase was instead M/A constituent. The large prior austenite grain size indicated that the region reached sufficient temperatures to dissolve precipitates that would otherwise have pinned the grain boundaries and suppressed grain growth. As distance increased from the fusion line and peak temperature decreased, grain size decreased. This is characteristic of the shift into the FGHAZ, with the region closer to the CGHAZ shown in **[Figure](#page-40-0)  [18b](#page-40-0)**.

Microhardness was higher in the FGHAZ than the CGHAZ, reaching approximately 275 HV $_{200}$  in most regions and achieving local maximums on the order of  $350 \text{ HV}_{200}$  near the centerline of the plate, where solute banding during the rolling process enriched the microstructure and increased hardenability. Microhardness values above 330 HV<sub>200</sub> were only identified on the left side of the butt joint, but the relatively low resolution of the microhardness map makes it likely that a corresponding hard region was present on the right side and simply fell between indentations. This hard region is represented in **[Figure](#page-41-1)  [20](#page-41-1)**, which shows a microhardness map with the full range of microhardness values and emphasizes the locally hard region. The microhardness of the FGHAZ generally decreased as distance from the fusion line increased, with values falling to approximately  $250 \text{ HV}_{200}$  near the ICHAZ. Grain size decreased and microstructure changed from coarse bainite to entirely quasipolygonal ferrite interspersed with islands of M/A constituent, illustrated in **[Figure 18c](#page-40-0)**. The outer edge of the HAZ, adjacent to the base metal, is the ICHAZ, with a representative micrograph shown in **[Figure 18d](#page-40-0)**. Grain size decreased further in the ICHAZ, which was comprised of extremely fine quasipolygonal ferrite interspersed with very small islands of M/A constituent and unidentified precipitates. Microhardness was slightly lower in the ICHAZ than in the FGHAZ, with values near  $230-240 \text{ HV}_{200}$ .



<span id="page-40-0"></span>Figure 18. Representative light optical micrographs of the second pass of the HSLA-100 butt joint **a)** CGHAZ, **b)** FGHAZ close to the CGHAZ, **c)** FGHAZ close to the ICHAZ, and **d)** ICHAZ.



<span id="page-41-0"></span>**Figure 19.** Composite image of light optical micrographs of the HSLA-100 butt joint overlaid with contour map of microhardness values in units of  $HV_{200}$ . Color scale adjusted to match the one shown in **[Figure 22](#page-43-0)** for a direct comparison of the two joint configurations.



Figure 20. Composite image of light optical micrographs of the HSLA-100 butt joint overlaid with contour map of microhardness values in units of  $HV_{200}$ , with color scale that represents full range of values.

<span id="page-41-1"></span>Representative HAZ microstructures for the second pass of the HSLA-100 tee joint are presented in **[Figure 21](#page-42-0)**. A microhardness map with full-range color scale is provided in **[Figure 22](#page-43-0)**, showing a map of indents spaced at intervals of 250 μm in both the horizontal and vertical directions. Numerical values are provided in **[Table 16](#page-87-0)** in **Appendix D**. Trends for the HAZ microhardness were consistent for microhardness traverses measured in comparable locations of each bead, with relatively low hardness values in the fusion zone and in the CGHAZ adjacent to the fusion line and dramatically increasing above 300 HV200 in the FGHAZ. Microhardness values peaked in the FGHAZ, decreasing again towards approximately 240 HV<sub>200</sub> in the ICHAZ and then rising slightly to 257 HV<sub>200</sub> in the base metal, with regions reaching microhardness values as high as  $280 \text{ HV}_{200}$ .



<span id="page-42-0"></span>**Figure 21.** Representative light optical micrographs of the second pass of the HSLA-100 tee joint **a)** CGHAZ, **b)** FGHAZ close to the CGHAZ, **c)** FGHAZ close to the ICHAZ, and **d)** ICHAZ.

Gleeble simulated samples that compared most favorably to the weldment CGHAZ, FGHAZ, and ICHAZ were as follows. The CGHAZ was well-approximated by the sample heated to 1350 °C (2432 °F) and cooled at 10  $\rm{C/s}$  (18  $\rm{F/s}$ ). The microstructures both seemed to be a mixture of bainite and martensite, with qualitatively comparable prior austenite grain size. Microhardness values also matched well, with the Gleeble sample measuring 266 HV<sub>200</sub> and the region of the tee joint pictured in **[Figure 21a](#page-42-0)** measuring 269 HV<sub>200</sub>. The FGHAZ close to the CGHAZ of the tee joint (see **[Figure 21b](#page-42-0)**) matched well with the Gleeble sample heated to 1150 °C (2102 °F) and cooled at 5 °C/s (9 °F/s). Each microstructure was composed of a mixture of bainite and ferrite, with microhardness of  $268 \text{ HV}_{200}$  and  $274 \text{ HV}_{200}$ measured for the Gleeble sample and the weldment FGHAZ region in **[Figure 21b](#page-42-0)**, respectively. Prior austenite grain size seemed slightly smaller in the weldment, which may explain the higher hardness value.

The region of the weldment FGHAZ far from the CGHAZ matched well with the sample heated to 1000 °C (1832 °F) and cooled at 5 °C/s (9 °F/s). Each was composed of a mixture of M/A constituent and ferrite with similar grain size. Microhardness values compared favorably as well, with the region of the weldment shown in **[Figure 21c](#page-42-0)** measuring 261 HV<sub>200</sub> and the Gleeble sample measuring 251 HV<sub>200</sub>. The ICHAZ of the weldment did not match as well with simulated Gleeble samples. The sensitivity of HSLA-100 to precipitate behavior, particularly ε-Cu precipitates, makes this region difficult to approximate without knowing the experimental thermal history undergone by the weldment. This is

particularly true as ε-Cu is expected to dissolve close to AC1, meaning that small deviations from the thermal history experienced by the weldment may produce an inaccurate simulated ICHAZ sample. Nevertheless, a rough approximation of the ICHAZ was seen in the sample heated to 790 °C (1454 °F) and cooled at 5  $\rm{°C/s}$  (9  $\rm{°F/s}$ ). Each microstructure was composed of a mixture of ferrite and M/A constituent, though the region of the weldment shown in **[Figure 21d](#page-42-0)** was associated with a microhardness of 267 HV<sub>200</sub>, which is higher than the value of 250 HV<sub>200</sub> associated with the Gleeble sample. There was substantial variation in microhardness values measured throughout the ICHAZ of experimental weldments. Micrographs were taken on cross-sections near the surface of the plate, where the HAZ was relatively shallow. Though the same phases and morphologies were identified elsewhere, microhardness trended lower near this edge.



**Figure 22.** Composite image of light optical micrographs of the HSLA-100 fillet overlaid with contour map of microhardness values in units of  $HV_{200}$ .

<span id="page-43-0"></span>Microhardness values measured in the butt joint matched well with those in the tee joint, though the butt joint weld metal was substantially harder than that of the tee joint. This is likely due to the reheating of metal in the butt joint, as these two weld beads overlapped whereas the geometry of the tee joint thermally isolated the two weld beads somewhat. The mechanism behind the fusion zone hardness differences were outside the scope of investigation but is speculated to relate to re-precipitation and/or coarsening of precipitates within the harder regions, which were effectively heat treated by the second weld pass.

# **Thermo-Physical Property Analysis**

The CTE values measured from the dilation curves (n=3) were 1.5 x  $10^{-5} \pm 1.6$  x  $10^{-7}$  °C<sup>-1</sup> (8.6 x  $10^{-6} \pm 8.9$  x  $10^{-8}$  °F<sup>-1</sup>) for the untransformed base metal below 690 °C (1274 °F) and 2.2 x  $10^{-5} \pm 7.8$  x  $10^{-7}$ 

°C<sup>-1</sup> (1.2 x 10<sup>-5</sup> ± 4.4 x 10<sup>-7</sup> °F<sup>-1</sup>) for austenite above 860 °C (1580 °F). A representative graph showing the CTE measurement is given in **[Figure 23](#page-44-0)**.



<span id="page-44-0"></span>**Figure 23.** Representative on-heating dilatometry curve for HSLA-100, showing typical CTE analysis and results.

Temperature-dependent density values are shown in **[Figure 24](#page-45-0)**. A comparison dataset from a Navy ManTech study conducted at the Naval Metalworking Center from the mid-2000s is also included in the figure [15]. This data is labeled "CTC" for Concurrent Technologies Corporation, where the testing was conducted. Since the slopes of the lines (*i.e.*, the CTE) are nearly identical, differences between the data can be primarily attributed to a difference in the measured room temperature density between the two studies.

The measured specific heat and thermal diffusivity data for HSLA-100 can be found in **[Figures](#page-45-1) [25](#page-45-1)[-26](#page-46-0)**. The peaks or cusps in the data correspond to the effects of thermal energy absorption during phase transformations, particularly during the austenitic transformation between approximately 700 to 900 °C (1292 to 1652 °F). As shown, the data from this program compare very well with the data generated in the Navy ManTech study at CTC [15].

Finally, the data from **[Figures](#page-45-0) 24[-26](#page-46-0)** were used in conjunction with **Equation 4** to calculate the temperature-dependent thermal conductivity as shown in **[Figure 27](#page-46-1)**. Once again, the data coincides fairly well with the previous reporting from CTC. The raw data points for all of the thermo-physical property graphs can be found in **Appendix E**.



<span id="page-45-0"></span>**Figure 24.** Density of HSLA-100 steel as a function of temperature. LIFT data measured using analysis of Gleeble-based dilation curves in accordance with **Equations 2** and **3**. CTC data is adapted from reference [15].



<span id="page-45-1"></span>**Figure 25.** Measured specific heat for HSLA-100 steel at various temperatures. CTC data adapted from reference [15].



<span id="page-46-0"></span>**Figure 26.** Measured thermal diffusivity for HSLA-100 steel at various temperatures. CTC data adapted from reference [15].



<span id="page-46-1"></span>**Figure 27.** Calculated thermal conductivity for HSLA-100 steel at various temperatures. CTC data adapted from reference [15].

### **Thermo-Mechanical Property Analysis**

**[Figure 28](#page-47-0)** shows the values for elastic modulus as a function of temperature that were assumed in this work. The elevated temperature mechanical testing described above was performed in accordance with ASTM E21 [13] rather than the more appropriate ASTM E111 [38], which is prescribed when elastic modulus measurements are to be made. As such, it was determined that the experimentally measured elevated temperature elastic moduli were likely inaccurate. In order to provide elevated temperature modulus values for a HSLA-100 property database, the data in **[Figure 28](#page-47-0)** were adapted from the European standard for fire design of steel structures [39] [40]. Of the potential sources for this information, the European standard contained the most complete data covering temperatures relevant to this study. A room temperature elastic modulus of 210 GPa (30.5 Msi) was assumed [39], as it had been previously for DH36 [5], HSLA-65 [6], and HSLA-80 [7] steel. It was also assumed that rigorously measured elastic moduli for HSLA-100 steel would be very similar to data presented in **[Figure 28](#page-47-0)** because elastic properties tend to be consistent within a given material system (*e.g.*, steel).



<span id="page-47-0"></span>**Figure 28.** Assumed elevated temperature elastic modulus for HSLA-100 steel as adapted from references [39] [40].

**[Figure 29](#page-48-0)** shows the experimentally measured temperature-dependent 0.2% offset yield strength for HSLA-100 base material, and **[Figure 30](#page-48-1)** shows the measured temperature-dependent ultimate tensile strength (UTS). This data was calculated from the DIC analysis at OSU after converting to engineering stress and strain values. As expected, increased temperatures result in significant strength loss. At temperatures above 800 °C (1472 °F), the base metal microstructure is completely transformed to the weaker austenite phase, resulting in relatively minor differences in strength with increasing temperature. As shown, the data from this program compare very well with the data generated in the Navy ManTech study at CTC [15].



<span id="page-48-0"></span>**Figure 29.** Measured elevated temperature 0.2% offset yield strength for HSLA-100 steel. CTC data adapted from reference [15].



<span id="page-48-1"></span>**Figure 30.** Measured elevated temperature ultimate tensile strength (UTS) for HSLA-100 steel. CTC data adapted from reference [15].

The measured 0.2% offset yield strengths from specimens cycled to a peak temperature of 1350 °C (2462 °F) is shown in **[Figure 31](#page-49-0)**, along with those of the base metal on-heating for comparison. The stress-strain curves associated with the data are given in **[Figures](#page-102-0) 68**-**[71](#page-103-0)** of **Appendix F**. At room temperature, higher yield strength correlated with higher cooling rates. Only the specimen cooled at 1  $\degree$ C/s (1.8  $\degree$ F/s) had lower strength than the base metal at temperatures below 600  $\degree$ C (1112  $\degree$ F). Specimens cooled at 10  $\rm{°C/s}$  (18  $\rm{°F/s}$ ) and above formed bainitic and/or martensitic microstructures, which are typically expected to yield at higher loads than the ferritic base material. The specimen cooled at 1 °C/s  $(1.8 \degree C/s)$  was also composed of a ferritic microstructure, though excessive grain growth created a microstructure that underperformed that of the base material until reaching the 600 °C (1112 °F) test temperature. It is likely that precipitates from the original base material microstructure experienced dissolution during the thermal cycling of the HAZ tensile specimens. The study by Sun *et al.* indicated that significant re-precipitation is unlikely to occur with less than 0.5 hours spent in an appropriate aging temperature regime (approximately 500 °C [932 °F]) [28]. As such, the high strength of the base material as compared to the sample cooled at 1 °C/s (1.8 °F/s) can be attributed to both Hall-Petch effect (due to the refined grain size) and by the persistence of  $\varepsilon$ -Cu precipitates from the original material processing, which increase strength by resisting dislocation motion.



<span id="page-49-0"></span>**Figure 31.** Yield strength of simulated HSLA-100 CGHAZs after heating to 1350 °C (2462 °F) and cooling at different rates as compared with base material yield strength.

Yield strength for all thermally cycled specimens increased slightly from 25 °C to 200 °C, then steadily decreased with further temperature increases. In contrast, base metal strength showed a monotonic decrease in strength. Yield strength of the three rapidly cooled samples converged to approximately 718 MPa (104 ksi) at a testing temperature of 400 °C, with all thermally cycled specimens converging at higher test temperatures. The base metal yield strength remained approximately 100 MPa (14.5 ksi) below the average thermally cycled yield strength when the four samples converged. It is

unclear why the base material yield strength did not converge with the thermally cycled samples. The difference in yield strength may indicate that thermally cycling the HAZ specimens caused precipitation of a carbide that persisted to high temperatures during subsequent tensile tests, or it may simply be an artifact of the different test methods used to gather data for the base material and HAZ specimens.

On-heating flow stress measurements for the HSLA-100 base material are shown in **[Figure 32](#page-51-0)** for all temperatures, and **[Figure 33](#page-52-0)** highlights the flow behavior for tests at temperatures of 800 °C (1472 °F) and above. The raw data points for these graphs can be found in **Appendix F**. The data are true stresses and strains as generated by the DIC analysis from OSU. In several cases, the data seemed to show indefinite work hardening, *i.e.*, there was no plateau of stress values as strain increased. The experimental mechanism behind this behavior was unclear, but it was judged to be an artifact of the test method rather than a reflection of actual material behavior. In these cases the UTS values were unclear, but the best estimates are provided in **Appendix F**. As expected, increasing the test temperature tends to flatten the flow stress curves, since work hardening is made more difficult by dynamic recovery and/or recrystallization effects.

Flow stress curves for the thermally cycled HSLA-100 are given in **[Figures](#page-52-1) 34[-37](#page-54-0)**. Once again, the data are true stresses and strains calculated by conversion from engineering stress-strain data as generated by testing at NSWCCD. Such conversions are invalid past the onset of necking, so the terminal data points in **[Figures](#page-52-1) 34**-**[37](#page-54-0)** are at the UTS. All raw data points for these figures, along with the engineering fracture strains for the specimens, are found in **Appendix F**.



<span id="page-51-0"></span>**Figure 32.** On-heating flow stress behavior for HSLA-100 steel at various temperatures.



<span id="page-52-0"></span>Figure 33. On-heating flow stress behavior for HSLA-100 steel at testing temperatures above the austenitic phase transformation.



<span id="page-52-1"></span>**Figure 34.** Flow stress behavior at various temperatures for HSLA-100 steel after cooling at 1  $°C/s$  (1.8 °F/s) from a peak temperature of 1350 °C (2462 °F). Terminal data points are at the UTS.



**Figure 35.** Flow stress behavior at various temperatures for HSLA-100 steel after cooling at 10 °C/s (18 °F/s) from a peak temperature of 1350 °C (2462 °F). Terminal data points are at the UTS.



**Figure 36.** Flow stress behavior at various temperatures for HSLA-100 steel after cooling at 25  $°C/s$  (45 °F/s) from a peak temperature of 1350 °C (2462 °F). Terminal data points are at the UTS.



<span id="page-54-0"></span>**Figure 37.** Flow stress behavior at various temperatures for HSLA-100 steel after cooling at 100  $\rm{°C/s}$  (180  $\rm{°F/s}$ ) from a peak temperature of 1350  $\rm{°C}$  (2462  $\rm{°F}$ ). Terminal data points are at the UTS.

### **CONCLUSIONS**

Temperature-dependent material property data of a pedigreed plate of HSLA-100 steel from room temperature up to nearly the steel's melting point were determined. The thermo-physical properties investigated include specific heat, thermal diffusivity, thermal conductivity, CTE, and density. Thermomechanical properties including yield strength, UTS, and flow stress were also measured. The temperatures associated with on-heating and on-cooling phase transformations and their variation with heating rate, cooling rate, and peak temperature were determined and used to develop welding-focused CCT diagrams. Investigation of HAZ microstructures from the CCT specimens and arc welds concluded the analysis. This effort is essential for increasing the fidelity of finite element models used to predict welding-induced distortion and residual stress in marine structures. The data generated in this program have been provided to ESI for immediate incorporation into their *SYSWELD* software. A machinereadable version of the collected data will be uploaded to the University of Michigan's *Materials Commons* data repository <https://materialscommons.org> at a later date.

## **APPENDIX**

# **Appendix A: Plate Conformance Certificate and Chemical Composition for HSLA-100**



C E R T I F I C A T E<br>
PAGE NO: 02 OF 02<br>
FILE NO: 2822-01-02<br>
MILL ORDER NO: 83506-001<br>
MELT NO: D2773<br>
SLAB NO: 39AA<br>
DATE: 06/08/18 TEST

PROPERTIES **TENSILE** 



## GENERAL INFORMATION

NER ALL INFORMIED MANUFACTURED IN THE U.S.A.<br>PRODUCED IN ACCORDANCE WITH INSEED TO MANUFACTURED IN THE U.S.A.<br>PROUTEEMENTS OF MIL-T-45208A AMEND #1.<br>A.B.S. CERTIFICATE OA 2799196-A<br>MATERIAL HAS BEEN VACUUM DEGASSED AND CAL

LOW MELTING ALLOYS/LOW MELTING COMPOUNDS ARE NOT USED IN THE MFG.<br>ARCELORMITTAL PLATE LLC PRODUCTS OTHER THAN AS DEOXIDIZING AGENTS. OF

KNOWINGLY AND WILLFULLY FALSIFYING OR CONCEALING A MATERIAL FACT ON THIS<br>FORM, OR MAKING FALSE, FICTITIOUS OR FRAUDULENT ENTRIES OR REPRESENTATIONS<br>HEREIN, COULD CONSTITUTE A FELONY PUNISHABLE UNDER FEDERAL STATUTES.

CERTIFICATE OF CONFORMANCE - ALL ITEMS FURNISHED IN THE SHIPMENT ARE IN FULL CONFORMANCE WITH ALL P.O. AND SPEC. REQ.; AND THAT THE T.R.'S<br>FULL CONFORMANCE WITH ALL P.O. AND SPEC. REQ.; AND THAT THE T.R.'S<br>REPRESENT THE AC

OUR PLANT AND WILL BE MAINTAINED FOR A PERIOD OF 7 YRS. FROM THE DATE OF THE SHIPMENT UNLIES FURNISHED TO THE PURCHASER IN ADVANCE OF OR AT TIME OF SHIPMENT UNLESS FURNISHED TO THE PURCHASER IN ADVANCE OF OR AT TIME OF SHI

B/L #34436 P&S TRANSPORTATION INC.

WE HEREBY CERTIFY THE ABOVE INFORMATION IS CORRECT:

ARCELORMITTAL PLATE LLC QUALITY ASSURANCE LABORATORY 139 MODENA ROAD COATESVILLE, PA 19320

SUPERVISOR - TEST REPORTING **LOC TRAN** 

<b>Element</b>	Wt	Test 1	Test 2	Test 3	<b>Average</b>
$\mathbf C$	$\%$	0.034	0.031	0.027	0.031
Si	$\%$	0.28	0.28	0.28	0.28
Mn	$\%$	0.89	0.88	0.88	0.88
${\bf P}$	$\%$	0.008	0.007	0.007	0.007
S	$\%$	0.0009	0.0009	0.0008	0.0009
$C_{r}$	$\%$	0.59	0.58	0.59	0.59
Mo	$\%$	0.32	0.32	0.32	0.32
Ni	$\%$	1.95	1.94	1.94	1.94
Al	$\%$	0.029	0.028	0.028	0.028
Cu	$\%$	1.13	1.13	1.13	1.13
<b>Nb</b>	$\%$	0.027	0.027	0.027	0.027
Ti	$\%$	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.002
$\mathbf{V}$	$\%$	0.003	0.002	0.003	0.003
W	$\%$	< 0.005	< 0.005	< 0.005	< 0.005
Pb	$\%$	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.004
Sn	$\%$	0.012	0.012	0.012	0.012
As	$\%$	0.015	0.011	0.012	0.013
Zr	$\frac{0}{0}$	< 0.0010	< 0.0010	< 0.0010	< 0.0010
Ca	$\%$	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.002
<b>Ce</b>	$\%$	< 0.0010	< 0.0010	< 0.0010	< 0.0010
Sb	$\%$	0.014	0.013	0.014	0.014
<b>Se</b>	$\%$	0.003	0.004	0.004	0.004
Te	$\%$	0.016	0.016	0.016	0.016
Ta	$\%$	< 0.007	< 0.007	< 0.007	< 0.007
$\bf{B}$	$\%$	0.002	0.001	0.001	0.001
Zn	$\%$	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.002
La	$\%$	< 0.0003	< 0.0003	< 0.0003	< 0.0003

**Table 8.** Chemical Composition of HSLA-100 Base Plate as Measured by OSU



# **Appendix B: Continuous Cooling Transformation Curves**



**Table 10.** Experimentally Measured On-Cooling Transformation Temperatures for HSLA-100 Dilatometry Specimens Cooled from 790 °C (1454 °F). Note: Colors correspond to the transformation products discussed in **[Figure 9](#page-29-0)**-**[15](#page-32-0)**.



**Table 11.** Experimentally Measured On-Cooling Transformation Temperatures for HSLA-100 Dilatometry Specimens Cooled from 1000 °C (1832 °F). Note: Colors correspond to the transformation products discussed in **[Figure 9](#page-29-0)**-**[15](#page-32-0)**.



**Table 12.** Experimentally Measured On-Cooling Transformation Temperatures for HSLA-100 Dilatometry Specimens Cooled from 1150 °C (2102 °F). Note: Colors correspond to the transformation products discussed in **[Figure 9](#page-29-0)**-**[15](#page-32-0)**.



**Table 13.** Experimentally Measured On-Cooling Transformation Temperatures for HSLA-100 Dilatometry Specimens Cooled from 1350 °C (2462 °F). Note: Colors correspond to the transformation products discussed in **[Figure 9](#page-29-0)**-**[15](#page-32-0)**.





**Figure 38.** Dilation curve from a HSLA-100 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 790 °C and cooled at 1 °C/s.



**Figure 39.** Dilation curve from a HSLA-100 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 790 °C and cooled at 5 °C/s.



**Figure 40.** Dilation curve from a HSLA-100 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 790 °C and cooled at 10 °C/s.



**Figure 41.** Dilation curve from a HSLA-100 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 790 °C and cooled at 25 °C/s.



**Figure 42.** Dilation curve from a HSLA-100 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 790 °C and cooled at 100 °C/s.



**Figure 43.** Dilation curve from a HSLA-100 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 790 °C and cooled at 200 °C/s.



**Figure 44.** Dilation curve from a HSLA-100 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1000 °C and cooled at 1 °C/s.



**Figure 45.** Dilation curve from a HSLA-100 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1000  $\rm{^{\circ}C}$  and cooled at 5  $\rm{^{\circ}C/s}$ .



**Figure 46.** Dilation curve from a HSLA-100 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1000 °C and cooled at 10 °C/s.



**Figure 47.** Dilation curve from a HSLA-100 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1000 °C and cooled at 25 °C/s.



**Figure 48.** Dilation curve from a HSLA-100 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1000 °C and cooled at 100 °C/s.



**Figure 49.** Dilation curve from a HSLA-100 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1000 °C and cooled at 200 °C/s.



**Figure 50.** Dilation curve from a HSLA-100 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1150 °C and cooled at 1 °C/s.



**Figure 51.** Dilation curve from a HSLA-100 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1150 °C and cooled at 5 °C/s.



**Figure 52.** Dilation curve from a HSLA-100 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1150 °C and cooled at 10 °C/s.



**Figure 53.** Dilation curve from a HSLA-100 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1150 °C and cooled at 25 °C/s.



**Figure 54.** Dilation curve from a HSLA-100 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1150  $\mathrm{^{\circ}C}$  and cooled at 100  $\mathrm{^{\circ}C/s}$ .



**Figure 55.** Dilation curve from a HSLA-100 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1150 °C and cooled at 200 °C/s.



**Figure 56.** Dilation curve from a HSLA-100 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1350 °C and cooled at 1 °C/s.



**Figure 57.** Dilation curve from a HSLA-100 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1350 °C and cooled at 5 °C/s.



**Figure 58.** Dilation curve from a HSLA-100 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1350 °C and cooled at 10 °C/s.







**Figure 60.** Dilation curve from a HSLA-100 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1350 °C and cooled at 100 °C/s.



**Figure 61.** Dilation curve from a HSLA-100 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1350 °C and cooled at 200 °C/s.


## **Appendix C: Representative Microstructures of HSLA-100 CCT Specimens**

**Figure 62.** Representative microstructures from HSLA-100 dilatometry specimens heated to a peak temperature of 790 °C (1454 °F) and continuously cooled at various rates. **(a-f)**: 1, 5, 10, 25, 100, and 200 °C/s (1.8, 9, 18, 45, 180, and 360 °F/s).



**Figure 63.** SEM images showing representative microstructures of HSLA-100 dilatometry specimens heated to a peak temperature of 790  $^{\circ}$ C (1454  $^{\circ}$ F) and continuously cooled at **a**) 100 °C/s (180 °F/s), and **b**) 200 °C/s (360 °F/s).



**Figure 64.** Representative microstructures from HSLA-100 dilatometry specimen heated to a peak temperature of 1000 °C (1832 °F) and continuously cooled at various rates. **(af**): 1, 5, 10, 25, 100, and 200 °C/s (1.8, 9, 18, 45, 180, and 360 °F/s).



**Figure 65.** SEM images showing representative microstructures of HSLA-100 dilatometry specimens heated to a peak temperature of 1000 °C (1832 °F) and continuously cooled at: **a, b)** 25 °C/s (45 °F/s), **c)** 100 °C/s (180 °F/s), and **d)** 200 °C/s (360 °F/s). Note the yellow box in **a)** is the region highlighted at greater magnification in **b)**.



Figure 66. Representative microstructures from HSLA-100 dilatometry specimens heated to a peak temperature of 1150 °C (2102 °F) and continuously cooled at various rates. **(af**): 1, 5, 10, 25, 100, and 200 °C/s (1.8, 9, 18, 45, 180, and 360 °F/s).



Figure 67. Representative microstructures from HSLA-100 dilatometry specimens heated to a peak temperature of 1350 °C (2462 °F) and continuously cooled at various rates. **(af**): 1, 5, 10, 25, 100, and 200 °C/s (1.8, 9, 18, 45, 180, and 360 °F/s).

## **Appendix D: Microhardness Measurements**

**Table 14.** Vickers Microhardness of HSLA-100 as a Function of Peak Temperature and Cooling Rate. Note: Errors are one standard deviation and values in parenthesis are the number of indents measured.

<b>Cooling Rate</b>		<b>Peak Temperature</b>								
		$\rm ^{\circ}C$ 790		<b>1000</b>	1150	<b>1350</b>				
$\rm ^{\circ}C/s$	$\mathrm{F/s}$	$\mathbf{F}$	1454	1832	2102	2462				
	1.8		$242 \pm 18(18)$	$230 \pm 13(7)$	$239 \pm 12(8)$	$236 \pm 13(65)$				
5	9		$254 \pm 12(30)$	$251 \pm 10(7)$	$268 \pm 25(10)$	$240 \pm 11$ (5)				
10	18		$249 \pm 9(21)$	$251 \pm 12(10)$	$298 \pm 14(10)$	$266 \pm 13(8)$				
25	45		$252 \pm 16(30)$	$280 \pm 12(10)$	$313 \pm 16(6)$	$310 \pm 9(12)$				
100	180		$285 \pm 19(6)$	$331 \pm 9(10)$	$327 \pm 12(6)$	$323 \pm 8(12)$				
200	360		$287 \pm 17(6)$	$326 \pm 19(10)$	$323 \pm 17(6)$	$335 \pm 8(12)$				

<span id="page-79-0"></span>

<b>Hardness</b> $(HV_{200})$	$\mathbf X$ Coord. $(\mu m)$	Y Coord. $(\mu m)$	<b>Hardness</b> $(HV_{200})$	$\mathbf X$ Coord. $(\mu m)$	Y Coord. $(\mu m)$	<b>Hardness</b> (HV <sub>200</sub> )	$\mathbf X$ Coord. $(\mu m)$	Y Coord. $(\mu m)$
232	$\overline{0}$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	245	11750	$-250$	236	11750	$-500$
234	250	$\boldsymbol{0}$	N/A	11699	132	245	12000	$-500$
231	500	$\boldsymbol{0}$	N/A	11999	135	270	12250	$-500$
234	750	$\boldsymbol{0}$	203	12299	138	273	12500	$-500$
241	1000	$\overline{0}$	207	12599	142	275	12750	$-500$
254	1250	$\boldsymbol{0}$	217	12899	145	266	13000	$-500$
257	1500	$\overline{0}$	218	13199	148	252	13250	$-500$
224	1750	$\boldsymbol{0}$	211	13499	152	239	13500	$-500$
234	2000	$\boldsymbol{0}$	222	13799	155	253	13750	$-500$
246	2250	$\boldsymbol{0}$	211	14099	158	240	14000	$-500$
231	2500	$\boldsymbol{0}$	222	14399	162	227	14250	$-500$
252	2750	$\boldsymbol{0}$	201	14699	166	228	14500	$-500$
241	12250	$\boldsymbol{0}$	214	14999	168	246	14750	$-500$
239	12500	$\boldsymbol{0}$	210	15299	172	243	14750	$-750$
234	12750	$\boldsymbol{0}$	221	15599	176	252	14500	$-750$
264	13000	$\boldsymbol{0}$	208	15898	179	248	14250	$-750$
255	13250	$\boldsymbol{0}$	226	16198	182	238	14000	$-750$
241	13500	$\boldsymbol{0}$	223	16498	186	251	13750	$-750$
240	13750	$\boldsymbol{0}$	225	16798	189	247	13500	$-750$
241	14000	$\boldsymbol{0}$	229	17098	192	249	13250	$-750$
236	14250	$\boldsymbol{0}$	244	17398	196	256	13000	$-750$
235	14500	$\boldsymbol{0}$	224	17698	199	268	12750	$-750$
238	14750	$\boldsymbol{0}$	225	17998	202	274	12500	$-750$
234	14750	$-250$	229	18298	206	267	12250	$-750$
244	14500	$-250$	213	18598	209	284	12000	$-750$
238	14250	$-250$	193	18898	212	270	11750	$-750$
238	14000	$-250$	249	19198	216	257	11500	$-750$
236	13750	$-250$	223	19498	219	243	11250	$-750$
249	13500	$-250$	234	19798	222	243	11000	$-750$
255	13250	$-250$	241	20098	226	243	10750	$-750$
276	13000	$-250$	252	20398	230	248	3750	$-750$
276	12750	$-250$	257	20698	232	241	3500	$-750$
255	12500	$-250$	267	20998	236	244	3250	$-750$
234	12250	$-250$	273	21001	$-14$	229	3000	$-750$
248	12000	$-250$	269	20702	$-17$	239	2750	$-750$

**Table 15.** Vickers Microhardness Measurements across the Experimental Butt Joint Weldment Illustrated in **[Figure 20](#page-41-0)** (Coordinate Frame Origin at Top Left)





















<span id="page-87-0"></span>

<b>Hardness</b> (HV <sub>200</sub> )	$\mathbf X$ Coord. $(\mu m)$	Y Coord. $(\mu m)$	<b>Hardness</b> (HV <sub>200</sub> )	$\mathbf X$ Coord. $(\mu m)$	Y Coord. $(\mu m)$	<b>Hardness</b> (HV <sub>200</sub> )	$\mathbf X$ Coord. $(\mu m)$	Y Coord. $(\mu m)$
231	$\overline{0}$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	222	14399	162	216	17402	$-54$
224	300	$\overline{4}$	N/A	11699	132	219	17102	$-57$
227	600	$\overline{7}$	N/A	11999	135	212	16802	$-60$
236	900	10	203	12299	138	204	16502	$-64$
245	1200	14	207	12599	142	208	16202	$-68$
225	1500	17	217	12899	145	216	15902	$-70$
218	1800	20	218	13199	148	219	15602	$-74$
227	2100	24	211	13499	152	220	15302	$-78$
224	2400	27	222	13799	155	213	15002	$-81$
216	2700	30	211	14099	158	215	14702	$-84$
219	3000	34	222	14399	162	211	14402	$-88$
221	3300	38	201	14699	166	217	14102	$-91$
224	3600	40	214	14999	168	224	13802	$-94$
226	3900	44	210	15299	172	214	13502	$-98$
217	4200	48	221	15599	176	212	13202	$-101$
222	4500	51	208	15898	179	206	12902	$-104$
227	4800	54	226	16198	182	228	12602	$-108$
220	5100	58	223	16498	186	263	12302	$-111$
214	5400	61	225	16798	189	262	12002	$-114$
218	5700	64	229	17098	192	246	11702	$-118$
222	6000	68	244	17398	196	244	11402	$-121$
236	6300	71	224	17698	199	239	11102	$-124$
226	6600	74	225	17998	202	241	10802	$-128$
229	6900	78	229	18298	206	250	10502	$-132$
215	7200	81	213	18598	209	263	10202	$-134$
222	7500	84	193	18898	212	263	9902	$-138$
N/A	7800	88	249	19198	216	256	9602	$-142$
N/A	11999	135	223	19498	219	262	9302	$-145$
203	12299	138	234	19798	222	249	9002	$-148$
207	12599	142	241	20098	226	241	8702	$-152$
217	12899	145	252	20398	230	246	8402	$-155$
218	13199	148	257	20698	232	243	8102	$-158$
211	13499	152	267	20998	236	255	7802	$-162$
222	13799	155	273	21001	$-14$	280	7502	$-165$
211	14099	158	269	20702	$-17$	303	7202	$-168$

Table 16. Vickers Microhardness Measurements across the Experimental Tee Joint Weldment Illustrated in **[Figure 22](#page-43-0)** (Coordinate Origin in Top Left Corner)













**Y** 







**Y Coord. (µm)**

#### **[Table 16,](#page-87-0) Continued.**





10836 -3128 10536 -3131 10236 -3134

8736 -3152

8136 -3158

# **Appendix E: Thermo-Physical Property Datasets for HSLA-100**





Temperature $(^{\circ}C)$	<b>Thermal Diffusivity</b> (cm <sup>2</sup> /sec)	Density $(g/cm^3)$	<b>Thermal Conductivity</b> $(W/cm-C)$		
23	0.09606	7.4653	0.32163		
50	0.09585	7.4608	0.32917		
100	0.09528	7.4466	0.34121		
200	0.09096	7.4169	0.34893		
300	0.08414	7.3858	0.34335		
400	0.07571	7.3527	0.33245		
500	0.06691	7.3190	0.32106		
600	0.05623	7.2854	0.30532		
700	0.04121	7.2545	0.28957		
800	0.05367	7.2617	0.23435		
900	0.05984	7.2764	0.26774		
1000	0.06135	7.2326	0.29117		
1100	0.06296	7.1933	0.31154		
1200	0.05834	7.1540	0.31190		
1300		7.1147			

**Table 18.** Experimentally Measured Thermal Properties of HSLA-100

# **Appendix F: Thermo-Mechanical Properties**

**Table 19.** Assumed Elevated Temperature Elastic Modulus for HSLA-100 Base Material. Note: Data are based on an assumed room temperature modulus of 210 GPa (30.5 Msi) as shown in **[Figure 28](#page-47-0)**.



**Table 20.** Elevated Temperature Mechanical Properties of HSLA-100 Base Material. Data as shown in **[Figures](#page-48-0) 29[-30](#page-48-1)**.







**Table 22.** On-Heating Flow Behavior of HSLA-100 Base Material. Note: Data as shown in **[Figures](#page-51-0) 32[-33](#page-52-0)**.

22 °C (72 °F)		200 °C (392 °F)		400 °C (752 °F)			600 °C (1112 °F)	700 °C (1292 °F)	
$\epsilon_{\rm p, \, true}$	$\sigma$ (MPa)								
0.000	720	0.000	665	0.000	550	0.000	320	0.000	100
0.005	735	0.005	759	0.005	610	0.005	390	0.005	158
0.010	750	0.010	782	0.010	635	0.010	410	0.010	171
0.020	780	0.020	815	0.015	644	0.020	420	0.020	186
0.030	805	0.030	850					0.030	189
0.040	825	0.040	875					0.040	191
0.050	842	0.050	896					0.050	193
0.100	900							0.100	195
0.200	960							0.109	195
0.250	973								





25 °C (77 °F)		200 °C (392 °F)			400 °C (752 °F)		600 °C (1112 °F)	700 °C (1292 °F)	
$\epsilon_{\rm p, \, true}$	$\sigma$ (MPa)	$\epsilon_{\rm p, \, true}$	$\sigma$ (MPa)	$\epsilon_{p,\, true}$	$\sigma$ (MPa)	$\epsilon_{\rm p,\, true}$	$\sigma$ (MPa)	$\epsilon_{\rm p, \, true}$	$\sigma$ (MPa)
$\mathbf{0}$	541	$\bf{0}$	580	$\mathbf 0$	498	$\boldsymbol{0}$	407	$\mathbf{0}$	235
0.005	644	0.005	637	0.005	568	0.005	462	0.0048	272
0.01	681	0.01	666	0.01	606	0.01	469		
0.02	732	0.02	695	0.02	653	0.105	470		
0.03	760	0.03	710	0.03	686				
0.04	780	0.04	723	0.04	718				
0.05	793	0.0473	731	0.5	740				
0.056	800			0.0907	791				

Table 24. Flow Stress of Simulated HSLA-100 CGHAZs after Heating to 1350 °C (2462 °F) and Cooling at 10 °C/s (18 °F/s). Note: Data as illustrated in **[Figure 35](#page-53-0)** and terminal values are at the UTS.

25 °C (77 °F)		200 °C (392 °F)			400 °C (752 °F)		600 °C (1112 °F)	700 °C (1292 °F)	
$\epsilon_{\rm p, \, true}$	$\sigma$ (MPa)	$\epsilon_{\rm p, \, true}$	$\sigma(MPa)$	$\epsilon_{p,\, true}$	$\sigma$ (MPa)	$\epsilon_{p,\, true}$	$\sigma$ (MPa)	$\epsilon_{\rm p, \, true}$	$\sigma$ (MPa)
$\mathbf 0$	753	$\boldsymbol{0}$	766	$\boldsymbol{0}$	709	$\mathbf{0}$	418	$\mathbf{0}$	177
0.005	860	0.005	889	0.005	785	0.005	493	0.005	213
0.01	906	0.01	943	0.01	813	0.010	509	0.0074	216
0.02	937	0.02	995	0.02	840				
0.03	964	0.03	1017	0.03	854				
0.04	969	0.04	1027	0.0311	857				
0.05	977	0.05	1036						
0.059	977	0.10	1057						
		0.111	1057						

Table 25. Flow Stress of Simulated HSLA-100 CGHAZs after Heating to 1350 °C (2462 °F) and Cooling at 25 °C/s (45 °F/s). Data as illustrated in **[Figure 36](#page-53-1)** and terminal values are at the UTS.



Table 26. Flow Stress of Simulated HSLA-100 CGHAZs after Heating to 1350 °C (2462 °F) and Cooling at 100 °C/s (180 °F/s). Data as illustrated in **[Figure 37](#page-54-0)** and terminal values are at the UTS.

25 °C (77 °F)		200 °C (392 °F)			400 °C (752 °F)		600 °C (1112 °F)	700 °C (1292 °F)	
$\epsilon_{\rm p, \, true}$	$\sigma$ (MPa)	$\epsilon_{\rm p, \, true}$	$\sigma$ (MPa)	$\epsilon_{\rm p, \, true}$	$\sigma$ (MPa)	$\epsilon_{\rm p,\, true}$	$\sigma$ (MPa)	$\epsilon_{\rm p, \, true}$	$\sigma$ (MPa)
$\mathbf 0$	773	$\mathbf{0}$	854	$\bf{0}$	731	$\bf{0}$	458	$\mathbf 0$	204
0.005	917	0.005	958	0.005	817	0.005	504	0.0047	223
0.01	967	0.01	1007	0.01	849	0.0066	508		
0.02	1012	0.02	1058	0.02	877				
0.03	1031	0.03	1079	0.0258	885				
0.035	1037	0.04	1092						
		0.041	1096						

**Table 27.** Engineering Fracture Strain for the Specimens Shown in **[Figures](#page-52-1) 34[-36](#page-53-1)**.





Figure 68. Uniaxial tension stress-strain curves from Gleeble tensile samples thermally cycled to a peak temperature of 1350 °C (2462 °F), cooled at 1 °C/s (1.8 °F/s), then reheated to the test temperature.



**Figure 69.** Uniaxial tension stress-strain curves from Gleeble tensile samples thermally cycled to a peak temperature of 1350 °C (2462 °F), cooled at 10 °C/s (18 °F/s), then reheated to the test temperature.



Figure 70. Uniaxial tension stress-strain curves from Gleeble tensile samples thermally cycled to a peak temperature of 1350 °C (2462 °F), cooled at 25 °C/s ( $\overline{45}$  °F/s), then reheated to the test temperature.



Figure 71. Uniaxial tension stress-strain curves from Gleeble tensile samples thermally cycled to a peak temperature of 1350 °C (2462 °F), cooled at 100 °C/s (180 °F/s), then reheated to the test temperature.

#### **REFERENCES**

- [1] L. F. Andersen, "Residual Stresses and Deformations in Steel Structures," Doctoral Thesis, Department of Naval Architecture and Offshore Engineering, University of Denmark, 2000.
- [2] MIL-S-22698C, "Military Specification: Steel Plate, Shapes, and Bars, Weldable Ordinary Strength and Higher Strength: Structural," 29 June 1988.
- [3] ASTM A945/M-16, "Standard Specification for High-Strength Low-Alloy Structural Steel Plate with Low Carbon and Restricted Sulfur for Improved Weldability, Formability, and Toughness," ASTM International, West Conshohocken, PA, 2016.
- [4] NAVSEA Technical Publication T9074-BD-GIB-010/0300 Rev. 2, "Base Materials for Critical Applications: Requirements for Low Alloy Steel Plate, Forgings, Castings, Shapes, Bars, and Heats of HY-80/100/130 and HSLA-80/100," 18 December 2012.
- [5] D. H. Bechetti, J. K. Semple, C. R. Fisher and W. Zhang, "Temperature-Dependent Material Property Databases for Marine Steels - Part 1: DH36," NSWCCD-61-TR-2019/03, 2019.
- [6] J. K. Semple, D. H. Bechetti, W. Zhang and C. R. Fisher, "Temperature-Dependent Material Property Databases for Marine Steels - Part 2: HSLA-65," NSWCCD-61-TR-2020/03, 2020.
- [7] J. K. Semple, D. H. Bechetti, W. Zhang and C. R. Fisher, "Temperature-Dependent Material Property Databases for Marine Steels - Part 3: HSLA-80," NSWCCD-61-TR-2020/24, 2020.
- [8] ASTM E417-17, "Standard Test Method for Analysis of Carbon and Low-Alloy Steel by Spark Atomic Emission Spectrometry," ASTM International, West Conshohocken, PA, 2017.
- [9] G. R. Eisler and P. W. Fuerschbach, "SOAR: An Extensible Suite of Codes for Weld Analysis and Optimal Weld Schedules," in *Seveth International Conference on Computer Technology in Welding*, San Francisco, CA, 1997.
- [10] ASTM E1461-13, "Standard Test Method for Thermal Diffusivity by the Flash Method," ASTM International, West Conshohocken, PA, 2013.
- [11] ASTM E1269-11 (2018), "Standard Test Method for Determining Specific Heat Capacity by Differential Scanning Calorimetry," ASTM International, West Conshohocken, PA, 2018.
- [12] ASTM A370-18, "Standard Test Methods and Definitions for Mechanical Testing of Steel Products," ASTM International, West Conshohocken, PA, 2018.
- [13] ASTM E21-17, "Standard Test Methods for Elevated Temperature Tension Tests of Metallic Materials," ASTM International, West Conshohocken, PA, 2017.
- [14] T. D. Huang, M. Harbison, S. Scholler, H. Rucker, J. Hu, P. Dong, M. Collette, H. Chung, M. Groden, W. Zhang, J. Semple, R. Kirchain, R. Roth, M. Bustamante, Y. Yang, R. Dull, Y. Gooroochurn, M. Doroudian, C. F. Fisher, M. Sinfield, D. Kihl and A. Gonzalez, "Robust Distortion Control Methods and Implementation for Construction of Lightweight Metallic Structures," *SNAME Transactions,* 2016.
- [15] J. J. Valencia and C. Papesch, "Thermophysical Properties and High Temperature Tensile Properties of HSLA-100 Steel Plate," Naval Metalworking Center as operated by Concurrent Technologies Corporation, Johnstown, PA, 2007.
- [16] N. Yurioka, S. Oshita and H. Tamehiro, "Determination of Necessary Preheating Temperature in Steel Welding," *Welding Journal,* vol. 52, no. 6, pp. 147-s to 153-s, 1983.
- [17] X. Yue, J. C. Lippold, B. T. Alexandrox and S. S. Babu, "Continuous Cooling Transformatoin Behavior in the CGHAZ of Naval Steels," *Welding Journal,* vol. 91, no. 3, pp. 67-s to 75-s, 2012.

- [18] ASTM E1382-97 (2015), "Standard Test Methods for Determining Average Grain Size Using Semiautomatic And Automatic Image Analysis," ASTM International, West Conshohocken, PA, 2015.
- [19] R. R. Mohanty, N. Fonstein and O. Girina, "Effect of Heating Rate on the Austenite Formation in Low-Carbon High-Strength Steels Annealed in the Intercricial Region," *Metallurgical and Materials Transactiona A,* vol. 42A, no. 12, pp. 3680-3690, 2011.
- [20] F. L. G. Oliveira, M. S. Andrade and A. B. Cota, "Kinetics of Austenite Formation during Continuous Heating in a Low Carbon Steel," *Materials Characterization,* vol. 58, pp. 256-261, 2007.
- [21] C. A. Apple and G. Krauss, "The Effect of Heating Rate on the Martensite to Austenite Transformation in Fe-Ni-C Alloys," *Acta Materialia,* vol. 20, pp. 849-856, 1972.
- [22] Bainite Committee of The Iron & Steel Institute of Japan, "Atlas for Bainitic Microstructures, Vol. 1: Continuous-Cooled Microstructures of Low Carbon HSLA Steels," The Iron & Steel Institute of Japan, 1992.
- [23] H. K. D. H. Bhadeshia and R. W. K. Honeycombe, Steels: Microstructure and Properties, 3 ed., Oxford, UK: Butterwoth-Heinemann, 2006.
- [24] A. K. Sinha, Ferrous Physical Metallurgy, Stoneham, MA: Butterworth Publishers, 1989.
- [25] G. Thewlis, "Classification and Quantification of Microstructures in Steels," *Materials Science and Technology,* vol. 20, pp. 143-160, 2004.
- [26] International Institute of Welding, Compendium of Weld Metal Microstructures and Properties: Submerged-arc Welds in Ferritic Steel, Cambridge, UK: Woodhead Publishing, 1985.
- [27] A. Bhagat, S. Pabi, S. Ranganathan and O. Mohanty, "Aging Behaviour in Copper Bearing High Strength Low Alloy Steels," *ISIJ International,* vol. 44, no. 1, pp. 115-122, 2004.
- [28] M. Sun, Y. Xu and J. Wang, "Effect of Aging Time on Microstructure and Mechanical Properties in a Cu-Bearing Marine Engineering Steel," *Materials,* vol. 13, no. 16, pp. 1-12, 2020.
- [29] S. Das, A. Ghosh, S. Chatterjee and P. Ramachandra Rao, "Evolution of microstructure in an ultralow carbon Cu bearing HSLA forging," *Scandinavian Journal of Metallurgy,* vol. 31, pp. 272-280, 2002.
- [30] J. Valencia and C. Papesch, "Apparent Specific Heat and Thermal Expansion During Heating of HSLA-80 and DH-36 Steel Plates," Concurrent Technologies Corporation, Johnstown PA, 2005.
- [31] J. O. Andersson, T. Herlander, L. Hoglund, P. F. Shi and B. Sundman, "Thermo-Calc & DICTRA, Computational Tools for Materials Science," *Calphad,* vol. 26, pp. 92-101, 2002.
- [32] M. Shome and O. N. Mohanty, "Continuous cooling Transformation Diagrams Applicable to the Heat-Affected Zone of HSLA-80 and HSLA-100 Steels," *Metallurgical and Materials Transactions A,* vol. 37A, pp. 2159-2169, 2006.
- [33] G. Spanos, R. Fonda, R. Vandermeer and A. Matuszeski, "Microstructural Changes in HSLA-100 Steel Thermally Cycled to Simulate the Heat-Affected Zone during Welding," *Metallurgical and Materials Transactions A,* vol. 26A, pp. 3277-3293, 1995.
- [34] M. Peet, "Prediction of Martensite Start Temperature," *Materials Science and Technology,* vol. 31, no. 11, pp. 1370-1375, 2014.
- [35] S. Kang, S. Yoon and S.-J. Lee, "Prediction of Bainite Start Temperature in Alloy Steels with Difference Grain Sizes," *ISIJ International,* vol. 54, no. 4, pp. 997-999, 2014.
- [36] C. Capdevilla, F. G. Caballero and C. Garcia de Andres, "Determination of Ms Temperature in Steels: A Bayesian Neural Network Model," *ISIJ International,* vol. 42, pp. 894-902, 2002.

- [37] J. S. Kirkaldy and D. Venugopalan, "Phase Transformations in Ferrous Alloys," in *Phase Transformations in Ferrous Alloys: Proceedings of an International Conference*, Philadelphia, PA, 1984.
- [38] ASTM E111-17, "Standard Test Method for Young's Modulus, Tangent Modulus, and Chord Modulus," ASTM International, West Conshohocken, PA, 2017.
- [39] E. 1993-1-1, "Eurocode 3: Design of steel structures Part 1-1: General rules and rules for buildings," 2005.
- [40] E. 1993-1-2, "Eurocode 3: Design of steel structures Part 1-2: General rules Structural fire design," 2005.
- [41] ASTM A541/M-05 (2015), "Standard Specification for Quenched and Tempered Carbon and Alloy Steel Forgings for Pressure Vessel Components," ASTM International, West Conshohocken, PA, 2015.
- [42] ASTM A131/M-14, "Standard Specification for Structural Steel for Ships," ASTM International, West Conshohocken, PA, 2014.
- [43] American Bureau of Shipping, "Rules for Materials and Welding (Part 2)," Houston, TX, 2016.
- [44] W. S. Rasband, "ImageJ," U. S. National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA, 1997-2018. [Online]. Available: https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/.
- [45] C. Heinze, A. Pittner, M. Rethmeiri and S. S. Babu, "Dependency of Martensite Start Temperature on Prior Austenite Grain Size and Its Influence on Welding-Induced Residual Stress," *Computational Materials Science,* vol. 69, pp. 251-260, 2013.
- [46] B. Taljat, B. Radhakrishnan and T. Zacharia, "Numerical Analysis of GTA Welding Process with Emphasis on Post-Solidification Phase Transformation Effects on Residual Stress," *Materials Science and Engineering A,* vol. A246, pp. 45-54, 1998.
- [47] S.-J. Lee, J.-S. Park and Y.-K. Lee, "Effect of Austenite Grain Size on the Transformation inetics of Upper and Lower Bainite in a Low-Alloy Steel," *Scripta Materialia,* vol. 59, no. 1, pp. 87-90, 2008.
- [48] P. Holsberg, "An Overview of Some Current Research on Welding Residual Stresses and Distortion in the U.S. Navy," Naval Surface Warfare Center, Carderock Division, West Bethesda, MD, 1997.
- [49] J. Valencia and C. Papesch, "Thermophysical Properties Characterization of HSLA-65 Rolled Plate," Concurrent Technologies Corporation, 2005.
- [50] J. Valencia and C. Papesch, "Thermophysical Properties and High Temperature Tensile Properties of HSLA-65 Steel Plate," Concurrent Technologies Corporation, 2007.
- [51] K. Sampath, "An Understanding of HSLA-65 Plate Steels," *Journal of Materials Engineering and Performance,* vol. 15, no. 1, pp. 32-40, 2006.

*This page intentionally left blank*
## NSWCCD-61-TR-2021/10

## **DISTRIBUTION**

## **EXTERNAL**

ATTN: Zhang

## **NSWCCD INTERNAL DISTRIBUTION**





