

Naval Surface Warfare Center Carderock Division

West Bethesda, MD 20817-5700

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May 2019

Platform Integrity Department
Technical Report

Temperature-Dependent Material Property Databases for Marine Steels – Part 1: DH36

by

Daniel H. Bechetti

Jennifer K. Semple

Wei Zhang

Charles R. Fisher



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ADMINISTRATIVE INFORMATION

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 FY16 by the Office of Naval Research (ONR) and the Office of the Secretary of Defense (OSD), 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*.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The Lightweight Innovations for Tomorrow (LIFT) project entitled, Robust Distortion Control Methods and Implementation for Construction of Lightweight Metallic Structures, 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, elastic modulus, yield strength, and flow stress of alloys, from room temperature up to near melting point. 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, temperature-dependent 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 DH36 steel.

BACKGROUND

The Lightweight Innovations for Tomorrow (LIFT) project entitled, *Robust Distortion Control Methods and Implementation for Construction of Lightweight Metallic Structures*, 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, elastic modulus, yield strength, and flow stress, from room temperature up to nearly the alloy's melting point. 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 (~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.

APPROACH

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 MSC'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 DH36 steel plate procured to MIL-S-22698C [2] was analyzed for this project. The plate was acquired by Huntington Ingalls Industries – Ingalls Shipbuilding (HII – Ingalls) and was nominally 4.76 mm (3/16-in.) thick. Military grade DH36 is roughly equivalent to commercial products specified in ASTM A541 (Class 1C) [5], ASTM A131 (Grade DH36) [6], and American Bureau of Shipping (ABS) grade DH36 [7]. The room temperature yield strength, ultimate tensile strength, and elongation requirements for the alloy are 352 MPa (51 ksi), 490 to 621 MPa (71 to 90 ksi), and 19% in 200 mm (8-in.) or 22% in 50 mm (2-in.), respectively [2]. 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 temperature-dependent material properties.

Chemical Composition

The chemical composition of the base material was measured at the Edison Welding Institute (EWI) using glow discharge atomic emission spectrometry in accordance with ASTM E415 [8].

Solidus and Liquidus Analysis

The solidus and liquidus temperatures were evaluated using a single-sensor differential thermal analysis (SS-DTA) apparatus, where a 6 g (0.2 oz) button of material underwent induction levitation melting and was dropped into a copper crucible while temperature data were collected with a Type C thermocouple. This technique measures the temperature of a liquid metal sample as it rapidly cools via conduction through a water-cooled copper crucible. Phase transformations are reflected in these temperature data by non-linearity associated with the latent heat of fusion.

Heat Affected Zone Phase Transformation Analysis

Phase transformations of DH36 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 high-temperature, fine-grained region (FGHAZ2); and the coarse-grained region (CGHAZ).

Heating and cooling rates for these regions 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_{peak}) between 875 and 1350 °C (1607 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.

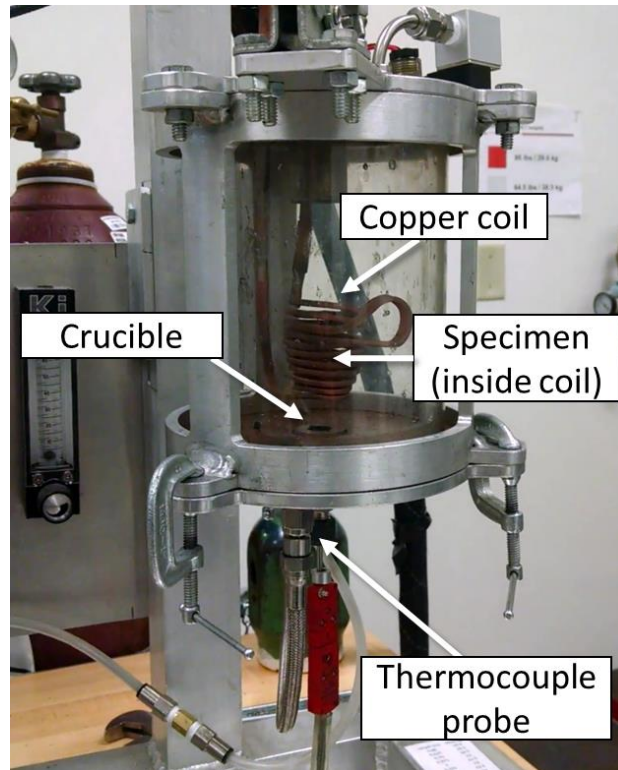


Figure 1. Induction levitation setup used in the measurement of DH36 liquidus and solidus temperatures.

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 100 and 2000 °C/s (180 and 3600 °F/s) were used to study these variations. **Table 1** shows the full test matrix utilized for HAZ CCT diagram development.

Table 1. Test matrix for HAZ CCT diagram development

Test Type	Region	Peak Temperature, °C (°F)	Heating Rate, °C/s (°F/s)	Soak Time, s	Cooling Rate, °C/s (°F/s)
A_{c1}/A_{c3} Determination	N/A	1200 (2192)	100 (180) 200 (360) 500 (900) 1000 (1800) 2000 (3600)	N/A	N/A
CCT Diagram Development	ICHAZ	875 (1607)	200 (360)	2	1 (1.8)
	FGHAZ1	1000 (1832)			5 (9)
	FGHAZ2	1150 (2102)			10 (18)
	CGHAZ	1350 (2462)			25 (45) 100 (180) 200 (360)

Execution of this test matrix was performed in tandem at NSWCCD and OSU, with both facilities employing a Gleeble thermo-mechanical 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. At NSWCCD, a Gleeble 3500 was used in combination with the apparatus's standard 'Pocket Jaw' setup, 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. A Gleeble 3800 system was used at OSU, in combination with the apparatus's 'Low Force Jaw' setup, full contact copper grips, and 70 mm (2.76-in.) long specimens with 5 mm (0.20-in.) by 11 mm (0.43-in.) rectangular cross-sections. A LVDT-type extensometer similar to that used at NSWCCD was used for dilation measurement. 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**.

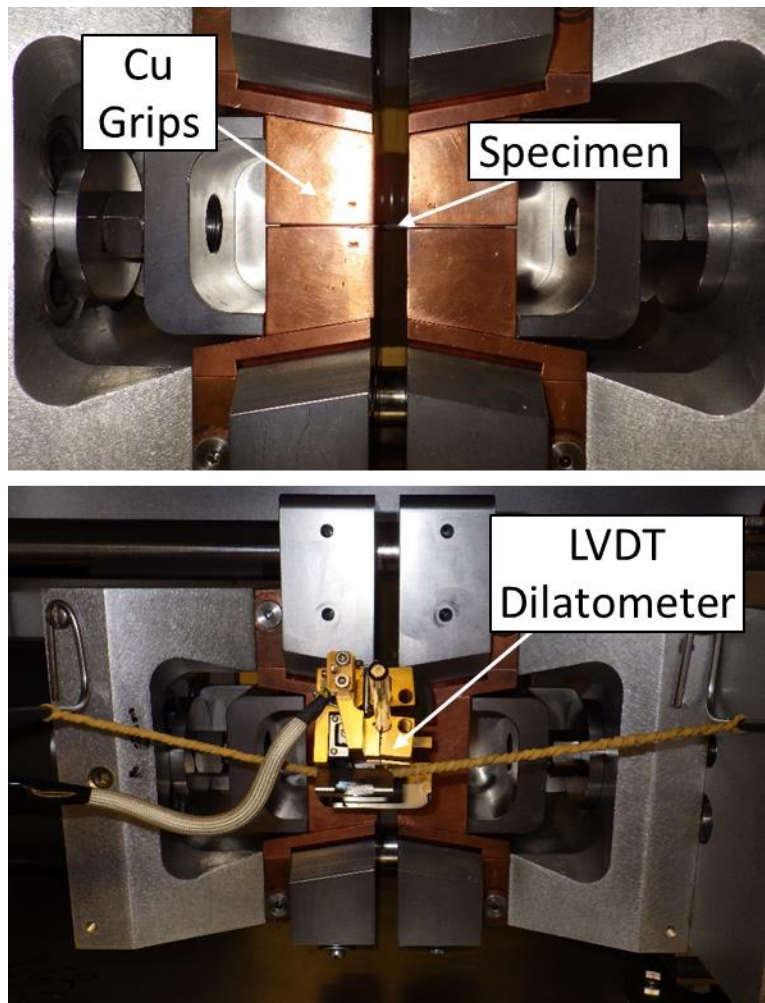


Figure 2. Photographs of the Gleeble-based dilatometry experimental set-up

Thermo-Physical Property Analysis

Specimens were sent to the Thermophysical Properties Research Laboratory, Inc. (TPRL) in West Lafayette, IN for analysis of thermal diffusivity (α) 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: 50 to 650

°C (122 to 1202 °F) for the base material microstructure, and 950 to 1200 °C (1742 to 2192 °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.

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

where $\alpha_T \equiv$ Linear coefficient of thermal expansion [$^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$]
 $\Delta d \equiv$ Change in specimen diameter over the chosen temperature range [cm]
 $d_0 \equiv$ Initial specimen diameter [cm]
 $\Delta T \equiv$ Temperature range [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]

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

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

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

V_0 was calculated assuming a side length equal to the room temperature width of OSU's dilatometry specimens. This value was chosen because, as shown in **Figure 2**, 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:

$$V(T) = [w(T)]^3 \quad (3)$$

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

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

$$\lambda = \rho \cdot c_p \cdot \alpha \quad (4)$$

where $\lambda \equiv$ Thermal conductivity [$\text{W}/\text{cm}\cdot^{\circ}\text{C}$]
 $c_p \equiv$ Specific heat capacity [$\text{J}/\text{g}\cdot^{\circ}\text{C}$]
 $\rho \equiv$ Room temperature density [g/cm^3]
 $\alpha \equiv$ Thermal diffusivity [cm^2/s]

Thermo-Mechanical Property Analysis

Tensile specimens were machined from the DH36 plates according to the dimensions shown in **Figure 3a**. 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 DH36 base material at temperatures between 22 and 1100 °C (72 and 2012 °F) was subcontracted to IMR Test Labs in Portland, OR. Room temperature testing was performed in accordance with ASTM A370 [12], and elevated temperature testing was performed in accordance with ASTM E21 [13]. Specimens were of rectangular cross-sections with gauge widths of either 6 or 3 mm (0.50 or 0.25 in.). Testing was performed in strain control mode at target rates of 0.005 min⁻¹ prior to yield and 0.05 min⁻¹ after yield.

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 DH36, microstructural analysis indicated that substantially different microstructures formed when the material was cooled at 1, 10, and 100 °C/s (1.8, 18, and 180 °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 °C/s (18 °F/s) and soaked for 10 sec. before being pulled to failure in crosshead control mode at strain rates targeting those prescribed in ASTM E21 [13]. The crosshead displacement rates used were 0.30 mm/min (0.012 in/min) through yield and 0.40 mm/min (0.016 in/min) after yield. 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 3b**.

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 indicated that for this setup, the temperature variation across the initial gauge length was 10 to 30 °C (18 to 54 °F). The typical experimental setup for the dilatometry testing is shown in **Figure 4**.

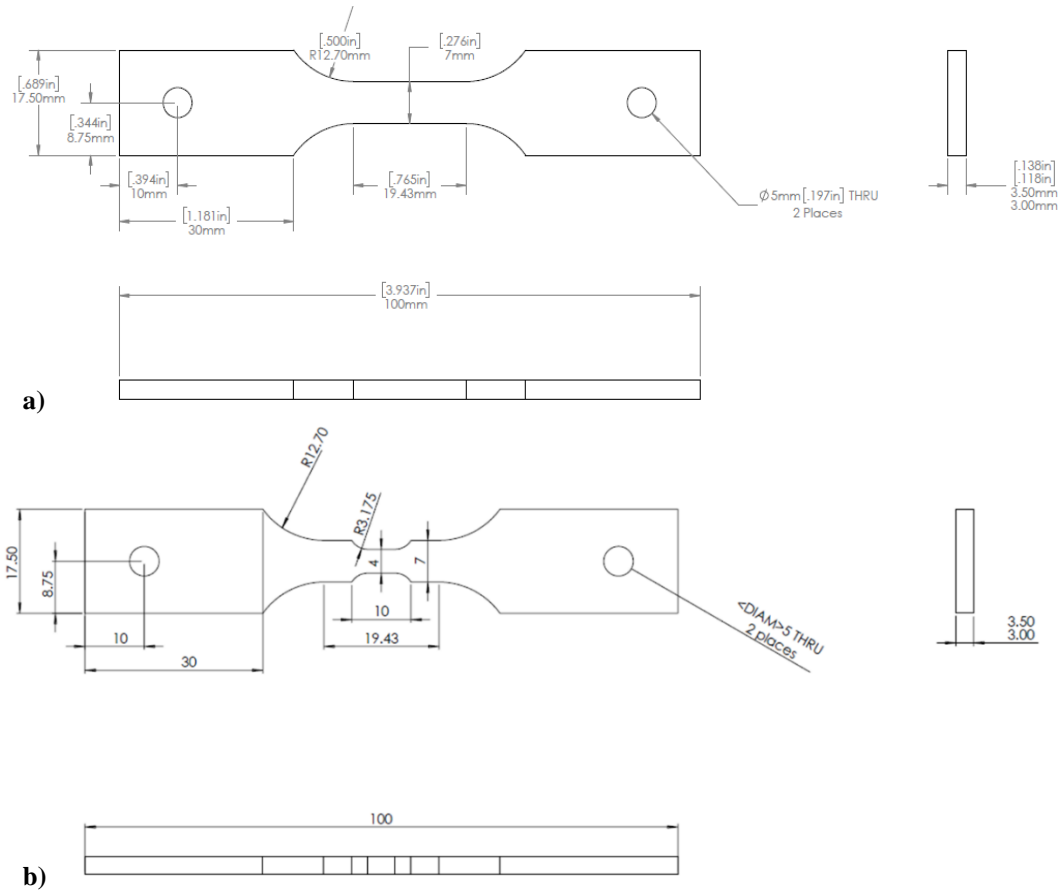


Figure 3. Specimen dimensions for Gleeble-based mechanical testing of DH36 steel: **a)** single-reduced gauge section, **b)** double-reduced gauge section (dimensions in mm).

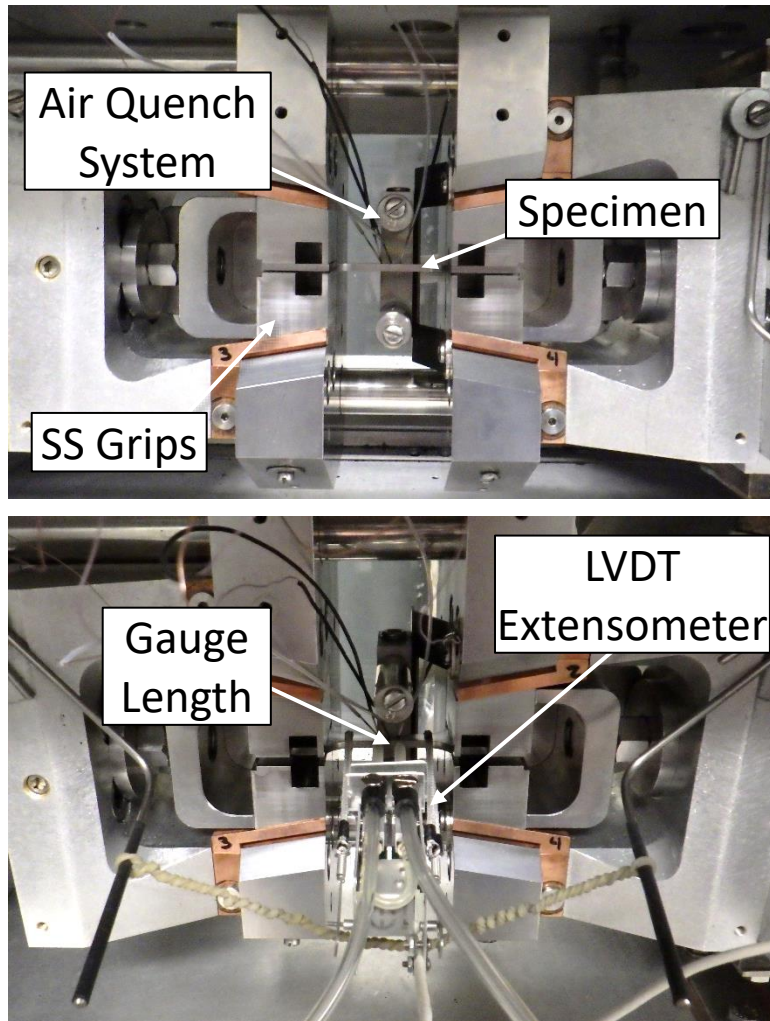


Figure 4. Photographs of the Gleeble-based mechanical testing experimental set-up.

Fabrication of Welded Specimens

Additionally, two sets of 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 5a**. Welding parameters used are given in **Table 2**. 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**. Welding parameters are given in **Table 2**. 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].

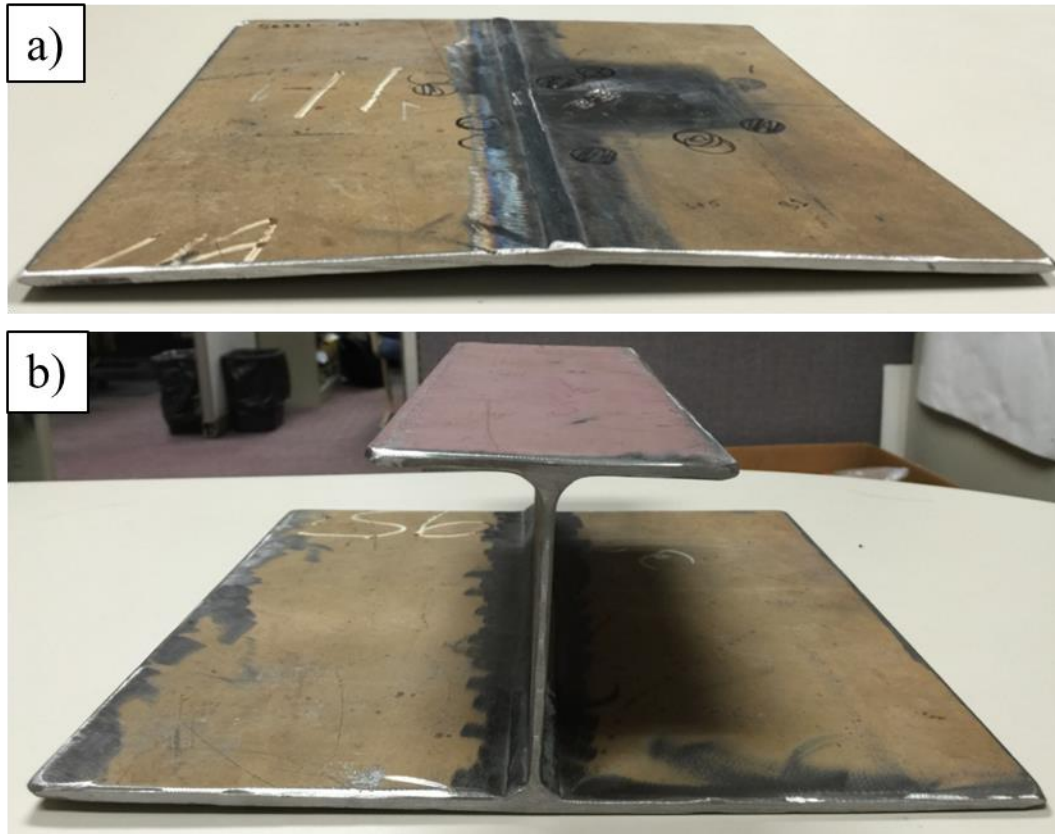


Figure 5. DH36 a) butt and b) tee joint weldments investigated for plate, weld, and HAZ microstructures.

Table 2. Nominal welding parameters used to fabricate DH36 butt and tee joints

	Butt Joint	Tee Joint
Welding Process	Submerged arc (SAW)	Flux cored arc (FCAW)
Current (A)	375	355
Voltage (V)	30	28
Travel Speed (mm/s [in/min])	12.7 (30)	10.2 (24)
Heat Input (kJ/mm [kJ/in])	0.89 (22.5)	0.98 (24.8)
Consumable Designation(s)	AWS A5.17 F7A6-EM14K	AWS A5.20 E71T-1
Filler Wire Diameter (mm [in])	3.2 (1/8)	1.6 (1/16)
Interpass Temperature, Max. (°C [°F])	93 (200)	107 (225)

Microstructural Analysis

To quantify and characterize the microstructures observed in DH36, both in the welded and non-welded state, a cross-section of each of the weldments shown in **Figure 5** was analyzed. Each specimen was metallographically prepared to a final polish of 0.05 μm using standard techniques and etched with 2% Nital solution for light optical microscopy (LOM) and scanning electron microscopy (SEM) analysis.

Vickers microhardness values at 200 g (7.05 oz) load were taken from the fusion zone through the HAZ to the base material for both weldments.

Additionally, thermally-cycled specimens from the HAZ CCT diagram development were metallographically prepared to a final polish of 0.05 μm using standard techniques and etched with 4% Picral solution followed by 2% Nital solution. 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 DH36 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

Chemical Composition

Table 3 shows the averaged results of three base material chemistry measurements for the DH36 plate, plus manufacturer's plate certification values (shown in **Appendix A**) and the MIL-S-22698C specifications for DH36 steel [2]. As expected, the measured chemical composition values generally agreed with the manufacturer's plate certification and were well within military specifications. The carbon equivalency number (CEN) was calculated according to [15].

Table 3. Chemical composition of DH36 plate material (wt%)

Type	C	Mn	P	S	Si	Cu	Ni	Cr	Mo
Measured Avg.	0.057	1.39	0.013	0.007	0.25	0.025	0.012	0.042	0.005
Plate Certificate	0.07	1.31	0.011	0.004	0.241	0.028	0.02	0.04	0.006
MIL-S-22698 DH36	< 0.18	0.90-1.60	< 0.04	< 0.04	0.10-0.50	< 0.35	< 0.40	< 0.25	< 0.08

Type	V	Ti	Al	B	Nb	N	Sn	Fe	CEN [15]
Measured Avg.	0.043	0.017	0.034	0.0008	0.050	---	---	Bal.	0.200
Plate Certificate	0.044	0.014	0.033	0.0002	0.028	0.009	0.007	Bal.	0.210
MIL-S-22698 DH36	< 0.10	---	---	---	< 0.05	---	---	Bal.	---

Solidus and Liquidus Analysis

As shown by the SS-DTA data in **Figure 6**, the solidus and liquidus temperatures for DH36 were experimentally measured to be 1453 and 1483 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ (2647 and 2701 $^{\circ}\text{F}$), respectively. To assess the ability of current CALPHAD (CALculation of PHase Diagrams) methods to predict these temperatures and supplant some of the need for physical testing, thermodynamic equilibrium simulations using the Thermo-Calc software package [16] in combination with the TCFE9 database were performed on the measured plate composition given in **Table 3**. All reported elements were included in the simulations, and only the liquid, ferrite, austenite, cementite, and MC-type carbide phases were allowed to form. The simulations predicted slightly higher solidus and liquidus temperatures than the experimental measurements, at 1471 and 1522 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ (2680 and 2772 $^{\circ}\text{F}$), respectively. The discrepancy is attributed to the rapid, non-equilibrium solidification induced by the SS-DTA, while the Thermo-Calc simulation reflects equilibrium values. Predictions from non-equilibrium solidification simulations using the Scheil Gulliver

model within Thermo-Calc predicted a solidus temperature closer to the experimental values (1430 to 1460 °C [2606 to 2660 °F], depending on the fraction of solid at which solidification was considered complete). The closer correspondence between the Scheil prediction and experimental measurement occurs because the Scheil simulations take into account the physical phenomenon of solute segregation, which suppresses the termination of solidification. However, it does not account for undercooling, so the liquidus temperature predicted by the Scheil simulation was still significantly higher than measured experimentally.

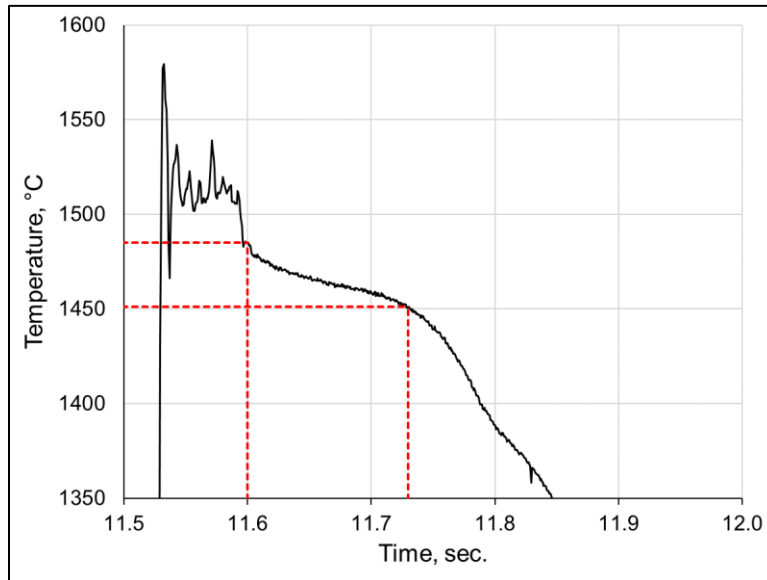


Figure 6. SS-DTA data for the solidus and liquidus measurement of DH36 steel

Base Metal Microstructure

The microstructure of the DH36 base metal is shown in the light optical and SEM micrographs of **Figures 7a** and **b**, respectively. The white-etched structure is equiaxed ferrite (84%), and the dark-etched constituent is pearlite (16%). The amount of each constituent was quantified by standard image threshold techniques applied to five fields in *ImageJ* software [17], as shown in **Figure 7c**. The average Vickers microhardness of the base metal was 187 HV₂₀₀.

Observing the DH36 base metal in both the longitudinal and transverse planes revealed slight elongation of the grains along the rolling direction. 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 (e.g., the purple circle shown in **Figure 7a**), 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 rolling texture was accounted for. Measurements were taken twice on a sample longitudinal to the rolling direction and three times on a sample transverse to the rolling direction. The average ASTM grain size was calculated to be $G = 12$.

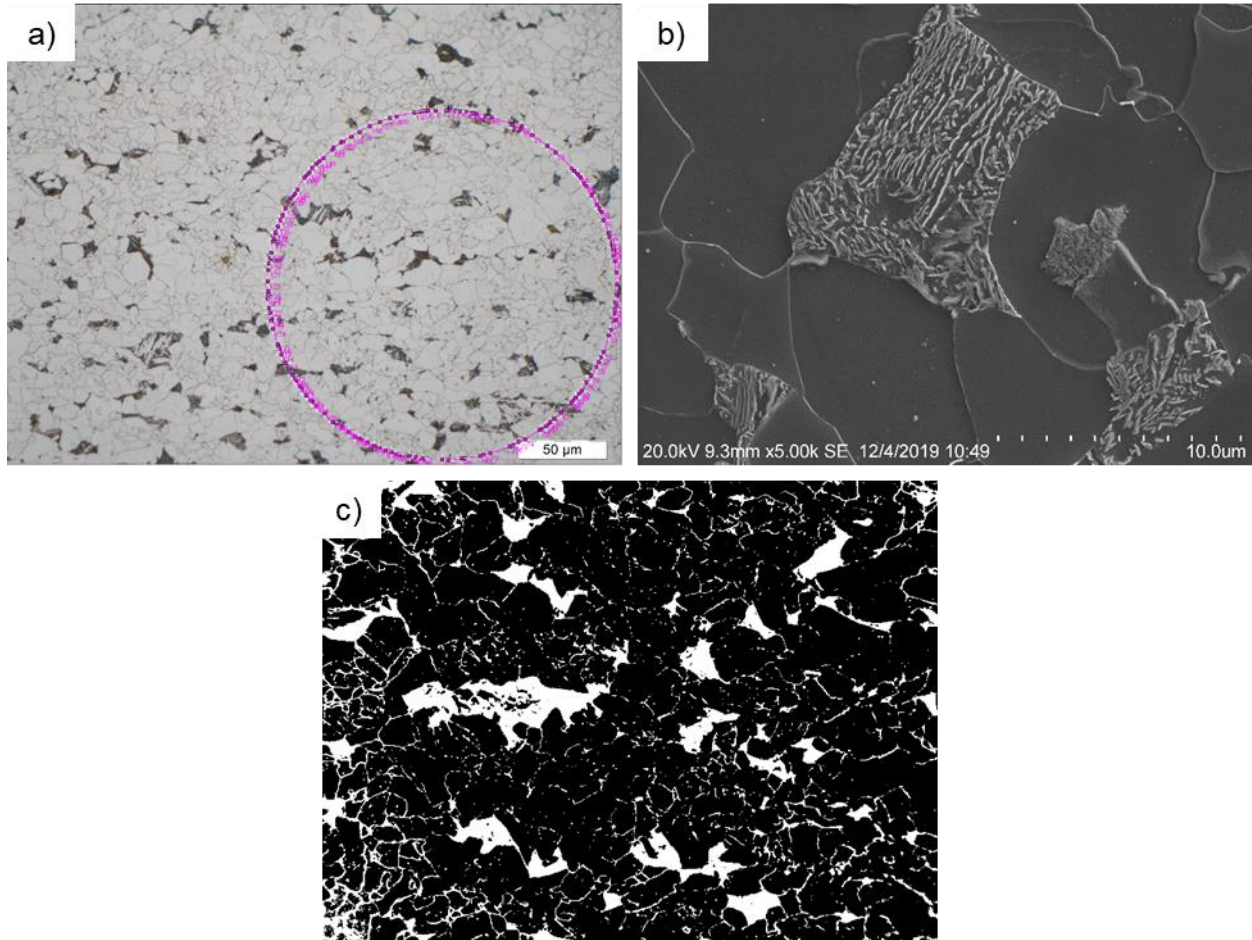


Figure 7. Representative micrographs of DH36 steel plate, showing **a)** base metal microstructure and **b)** an *ImageJ* representation of the microstructure used to calculate phase fraction. The purple circle in **a)** was used to calculate average grain size.

Heat Affected Zone Phase Transformation Analysis

Dilatation Curve Analysis Method

Figure 8 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 with temperature, and non-linearity in the curve is indicative of a phase transformation's occurrence. Non-linearity is shown in the derivative curve, as shown by the red curve (right axis). Linear extrapolations of the black curve are shown by the blue lines. In this case, the transformation of interest is that of the DH36 base metal microstructure to austenite.

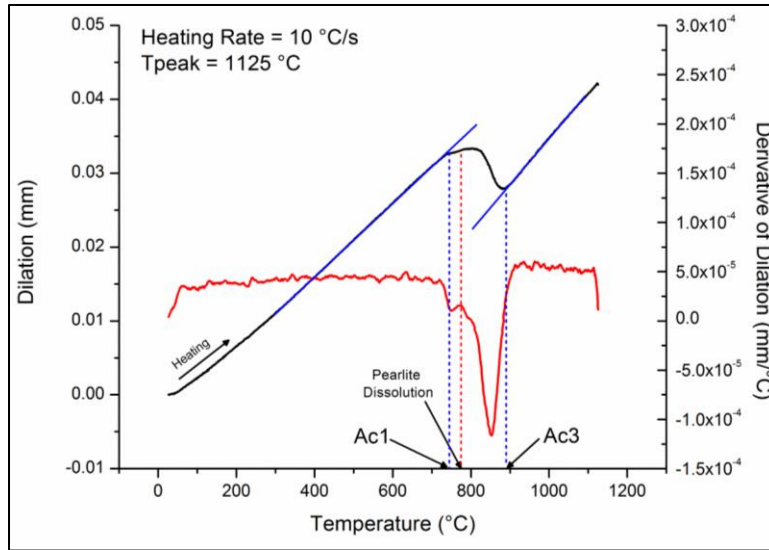


Figure 8. Representative on-heating dilatometry curve for DH36 steel, showing the linear extrapolation and derivative curve methods for evaluating the ferrite + pearlite to austenite reaction. Black curve, left axis: dilation data. Red curve, right axis: derivative of dilation data. Blue lines: extrapolation lines for determining transformation start (A_{c1}) 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 8**, where the derivative curve is displayed in red and the linear extrapolations are displayed in blue.

Austenite Transformation Temperature Measurement

On-cooling solid-state, phase transformation temperatures and products in steels can vary substantially with peak temperature due to differences in austenite grain size at different peak temperatures [19] [20] [21] [22]. Thus, it is expected that each of the investigated HAZ regions would produce slightly different CCT diagrams. The residual stress (and subsequent distortion) that develops during weld cooling is greatly influenced by: 1) the microstructure that forms on cooling and 2) the temperature difference between the end of the on-cooling transformations and the final temperature of the component. It was therefore important to capture as much HAZ phase transformation behavior as possible in order to provide the most complete and accurate material database for welding simulations.

Figure 9 presents the variation in austenite transformation behavior as a function of heating rate for DH36 base material. As shown, the austenite transformation start (A_{c1}) temperature varies significantly over the range of experimental heating rates. This is a consequence of thermal diffusion during heating outpacing the mass diffusion required for the transformation to take place. The austenite transformation finish (A_{c3}) temperature remains relatively stable across the experimental heat rate range. The reason for the difference in heating rate response of the A_{c1} and A_{c3} temperatures in this material is not readily determined without further investigation. 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 [23] [24] [25]. 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. Thus, 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. The raw data points for **Figure 9** can be found in **Table 8** within **Appendix B**.

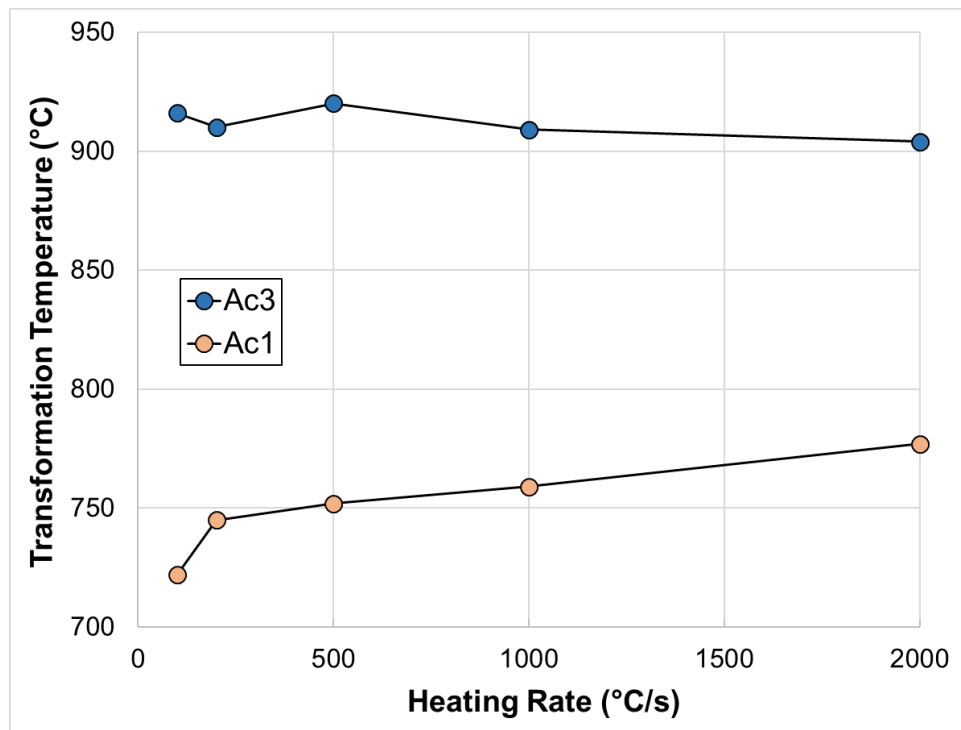


Figure 9. Variation in austenite transformation start and finish temperatures with heating rate for DH36 material.

Continuous Cooling Transformation Diagrams

CCT diagrams, assembled from dilatometry of DH36 thermally cycled to peak temperatures representative of the four selected HAZ regions, are given in **Figures 10-13**. 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 specimens. The black curves are the actual specimen cooling curves. The target cooling rates for all specimens except those cooled at 200 °C/s (360 °F/s) were maintained through the on-cooling phase transformations. The latent heat released during transformation slightly affected the cooling rate during the 200 °C/s (360 °F/s) tests, such that the target cooling rate was maintained until the start of the

transformation, but was slowed by about 15% as the transformation occurred. The raw data for these figures are given in **Tables 9-12** of **Appendix B**, and the individual dilation curves are given in **Figures 37-61** of **Appendix B**. Due to time and scope limitations, all reported data are the result of single tests. The only exception to this is a duplicate specimen heated to a peak temperature of 1000 °C (1832 °F) and cooled at 1 °C/s (1.8 °F/s). The error bars shown for this data point in the following figures represent one standard deviation from the average of the two tests.

The colored symbols in **Figures 10-13** correspond to the start and finish temperatures for the various on-cooling phase transformations. Each simulated HAZ region was subject to three regimes of on-cooling transformation start temperatures across the cooling rate range assessed in this work. The first occurred at high temperatures (650 to 750 °C [1202 to 1382 °F]) and is denoted in **Figures 10-13** by blue square symbols. The start of this transformation generally occurred near A_{c1} , though it decreased slightly with increasing peak temperature and increasing cooling rate. For all four peak temperatures, this transformation starts above A_{c1} at the slowest cooling rate (i.e., the closest to equilibrium cooling). The second type of transformation identified is indicated by red circle symbols. This transformation generally started about 100 to 150 °C (180 to 270 °F) below the start of the higher temperature transformation and about 20 to 40 °C (36 to 72 °F) prior to the completion of austenite decomposition. It appeared to follow the same trends as the high temperature transformation with respect to peak temperature and cooling rate, but was not observed for cooling rates above 10 °C/s (18 °F/s) in any specimen. The third transformation regime identified in the CCT diagrams, indicated as green triangle symbols, generally started at temperatures of 500 to 600 °C (932 to 1112 °F) and was only observed at cooling rates of 100 °C/s (180 °F/s) and higher. The start and finish temperatures vary minimally for a given peak temperature, but they both appear to decrease with increasing peak temperature. Identification of these transformations is discussed in more detail below, but for interpretation of the diagrams presented in **Figures 10-13**, the blue, red, and green symbols reflect ferrite, pearlite, and bainite transformations, respectively.

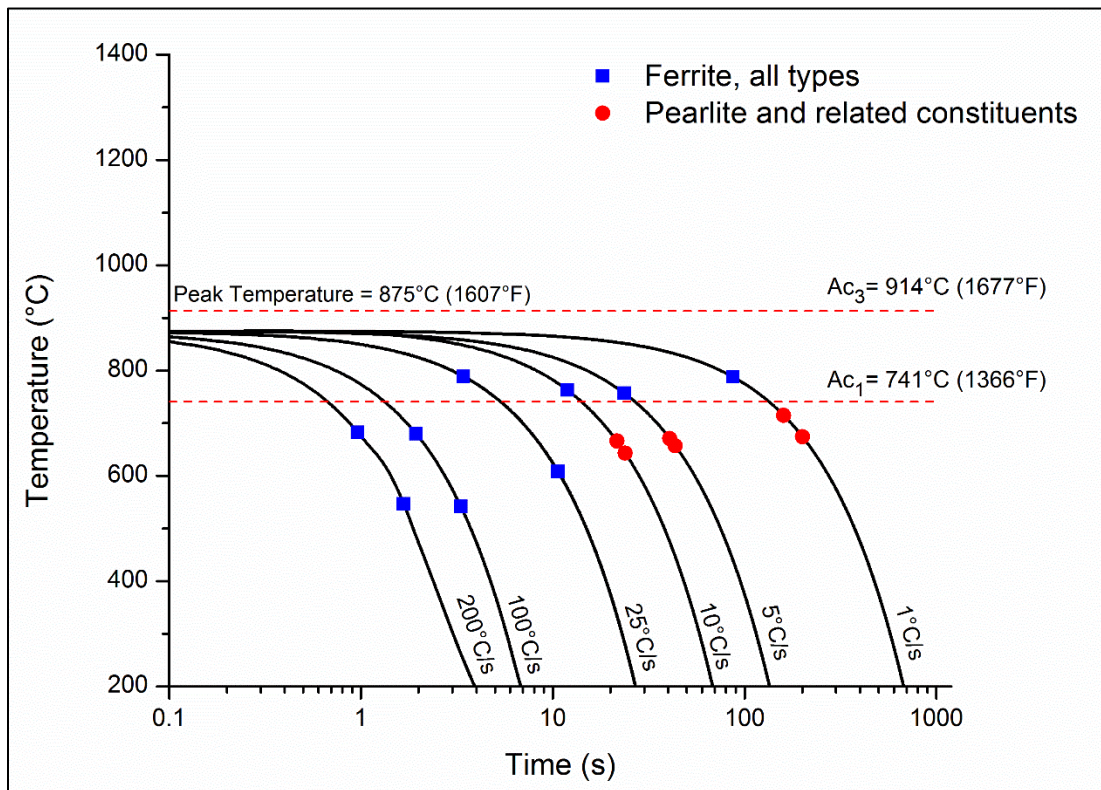


Figure 10. CCT diagram for DH36 heated to peak temperature of 875 °C (1607 °F).

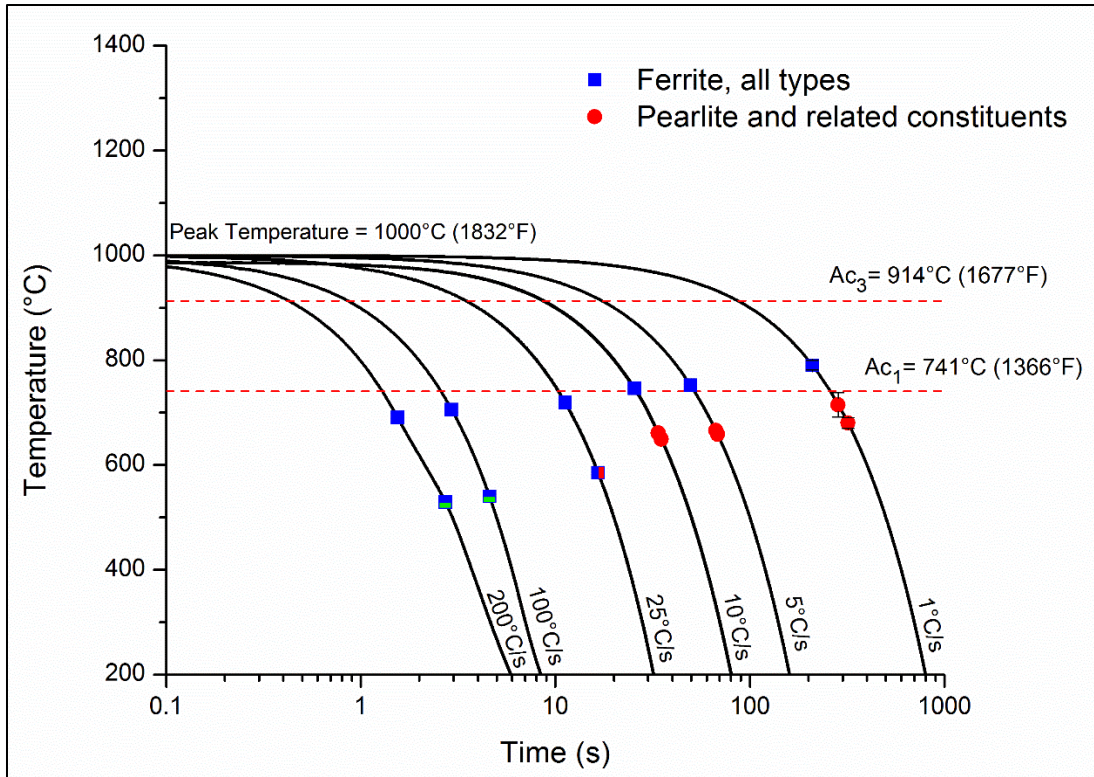


Figure 11. CCT diagram for DH36 heated to peak temperature of 1000 °C (1832 °F).

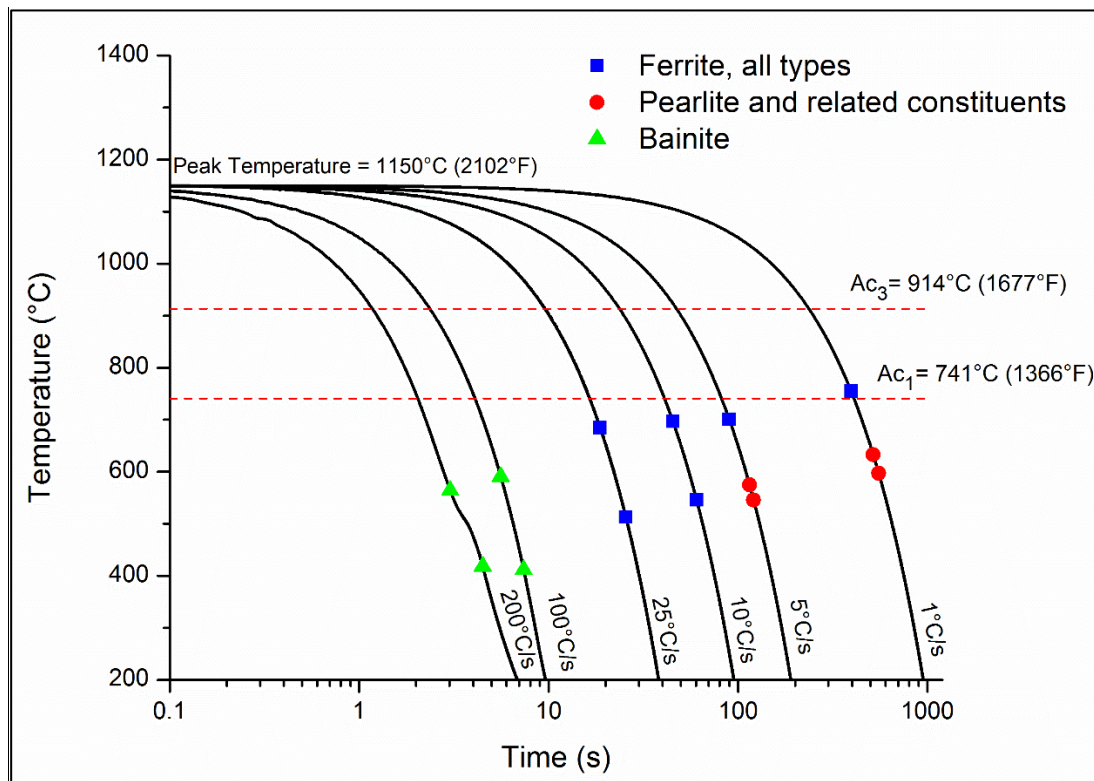


Figure 12. CCT diagram for DH36 heated to peak temperature of 1150 °C (2102 °F).

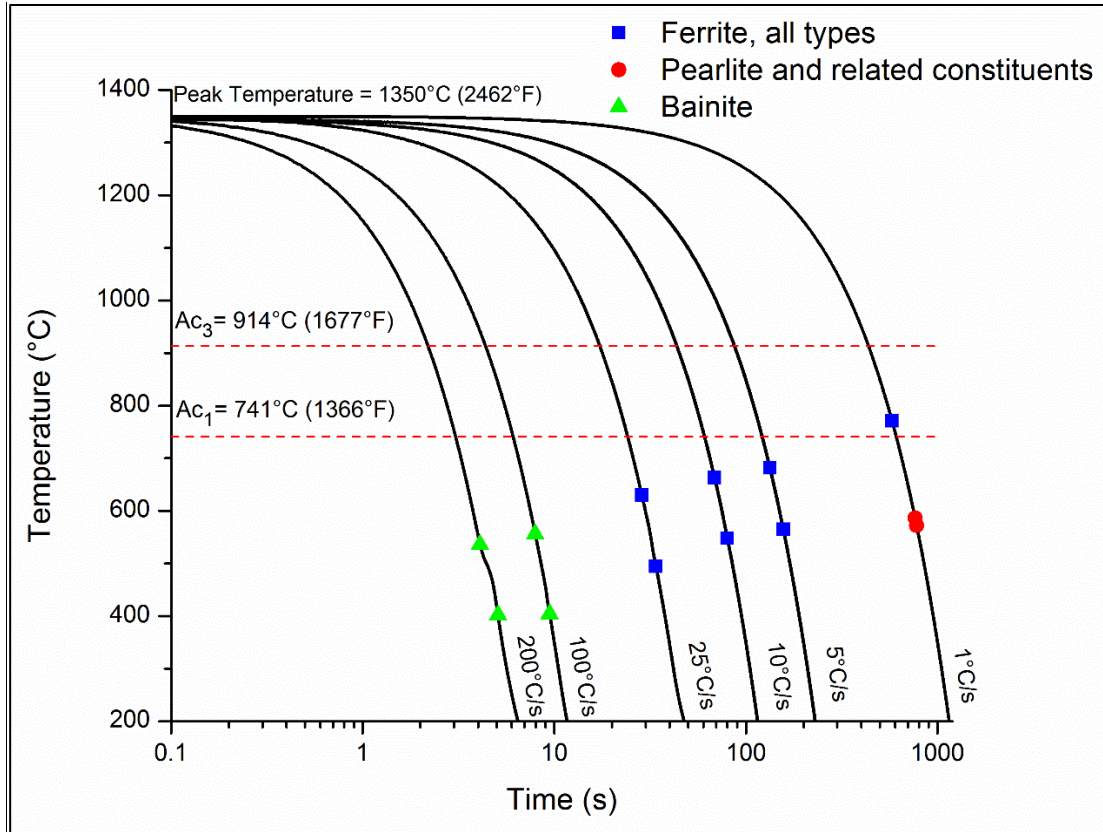


Figure 13. CCT diagram for DH36 heated to peak temperature of 1350 °C (2462 °F).

The effects described above are summarized in an alternate way in **Figures 14-17**. **Figure 14** gives the variation in transformation start temperature for the ferrite transformation as a function of peak temperature and cooling rate. As shown, for a given cooling rate, increasing the peak temperature generally suppresses the onset of the transformation, resulting in lower start temperatures. This most likely occurs because prior austenite grain (PAG) size increases with increasing peak temperature, resulting in less grain boundary area and therefore fewer nucleation sites for transformation. The onset of transformation is additionally suppressed by undercooling as cooling rate is increased. As a result, the difference in transformation start temperature between samples cooled at 5 to 25 °C/s (9 to 45 °F/s) increases from 65 to 141 °C (117 to 254 °F) when the peak temperature is increased from 875 to 1350 °C (1607 to 2462 °F).

Another notable behavior shown in **Figure 14** is the relative lack of variation in transformation start temperature for the specimens cooled at 1 °C/s (1.8 °F/s). The average transformation start temperature for the 1 °C/s specimens is 775 °C (1427 °F). This is substantially lower than the Thermo-Calc predicted equilibrium value of 856 °C (1573 °F), which indicates that 1 °C/s (1.8 °F/s) cooling is still far from slow enough to use equilibrium calculations to predict the phase transformations. However, it does appear to be slow enough to reduce the sensitivity of this transformation to peak temperature (i.e., PAG size). In addition, the measured transformation start temperature is shown to be relatively insensitive to cooling rate for specimens heated to 875 °C (1607 °F). As given in **Table 9**, the variation between specimens cooled at 1 to 25 °C/s (1.8 to 45 °F/s) is 31 °C (56 °F).

Figure 15 shows that the pearlite transformation behaved in a similar manner to that of ferrite, and decreases in the transformation start temperature were measured for both increasing cooling rates and increasing peak temperatures. However, in this case, the specimens cooled at 1 °C/s (1.8 °F/s) displayed a

much more apparent dependence on peak temperature than was observed in **Figure 14**. Finally, **Figure 17** shows how the measured transformation behavior for bainite varied. The start temperature increased slightly from the simulated low temperature FGHAZ to the high temperature FGHAZ before dropping slightly in the CGHAZ specimens. Overall, however, the start temperature for this transformation was significantly less variable than those of ferrite and pearlite.

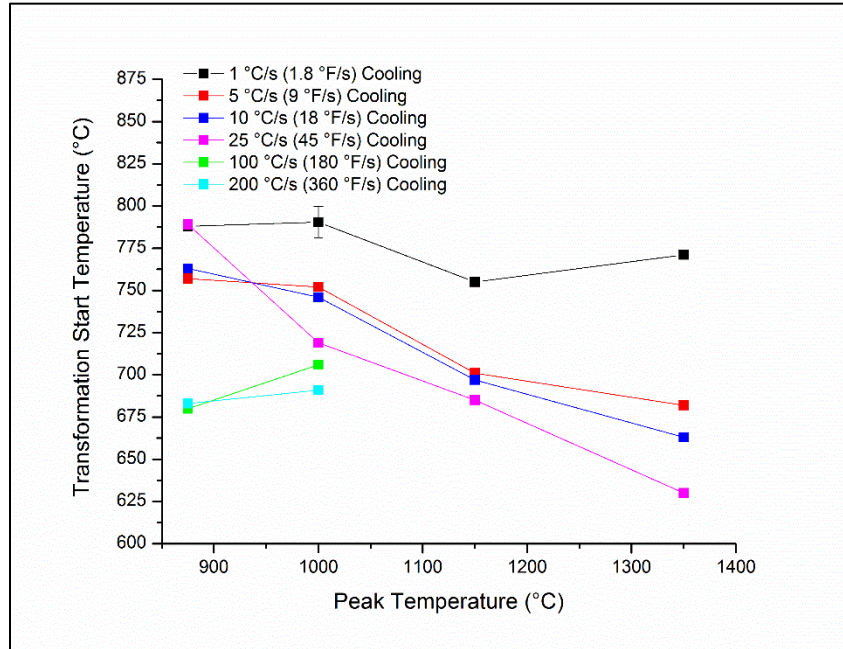


Figure 14. Variation of start temperature for the ferrite transformation shown in **Figures 10-13**.

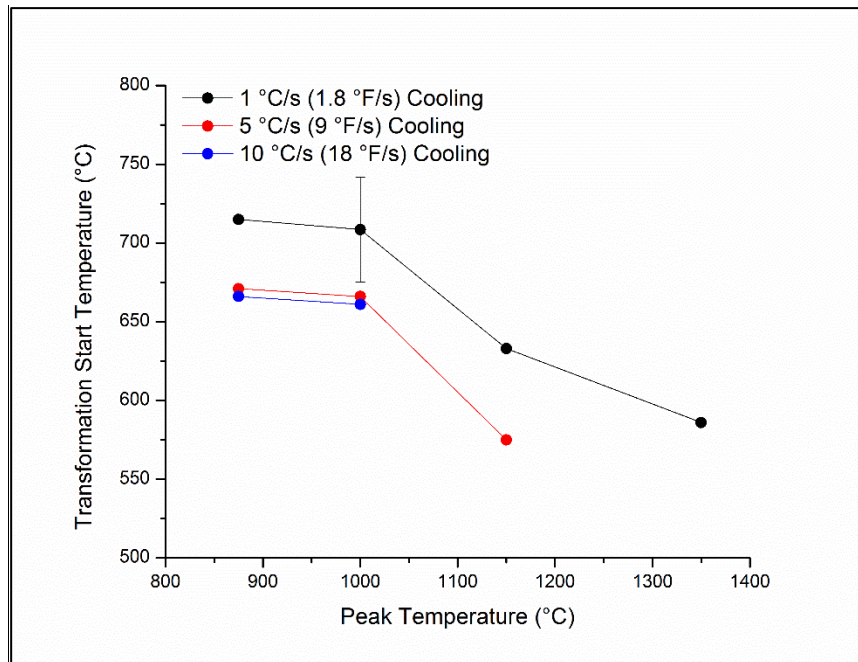


Figure 15. Variation of start temperature for the transformation to pearlite and related constituents shown in **Figures 10-13**.

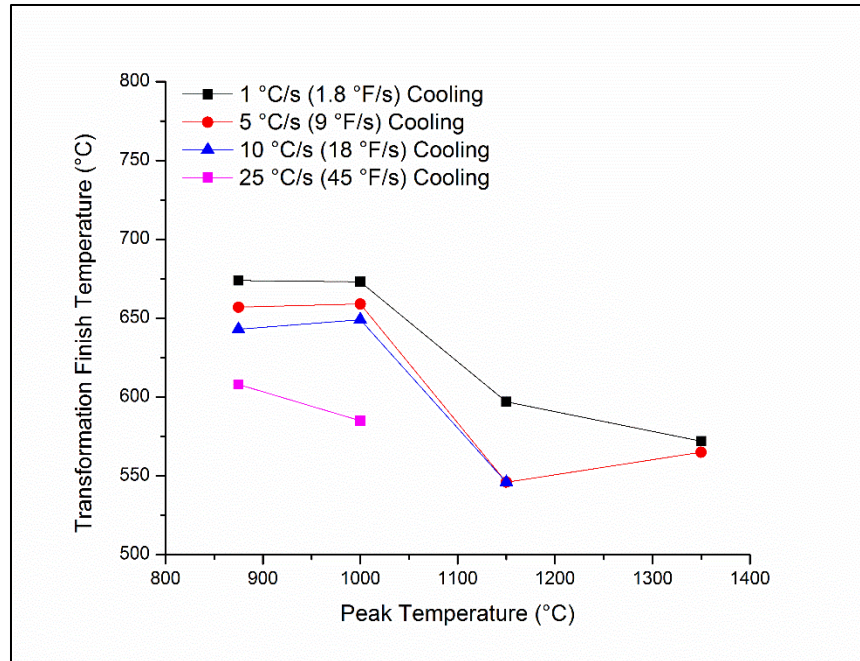


Figure 16. Variation of finish temperature for the pearlite and related constituent transformation shown in **Figures 10-13**.

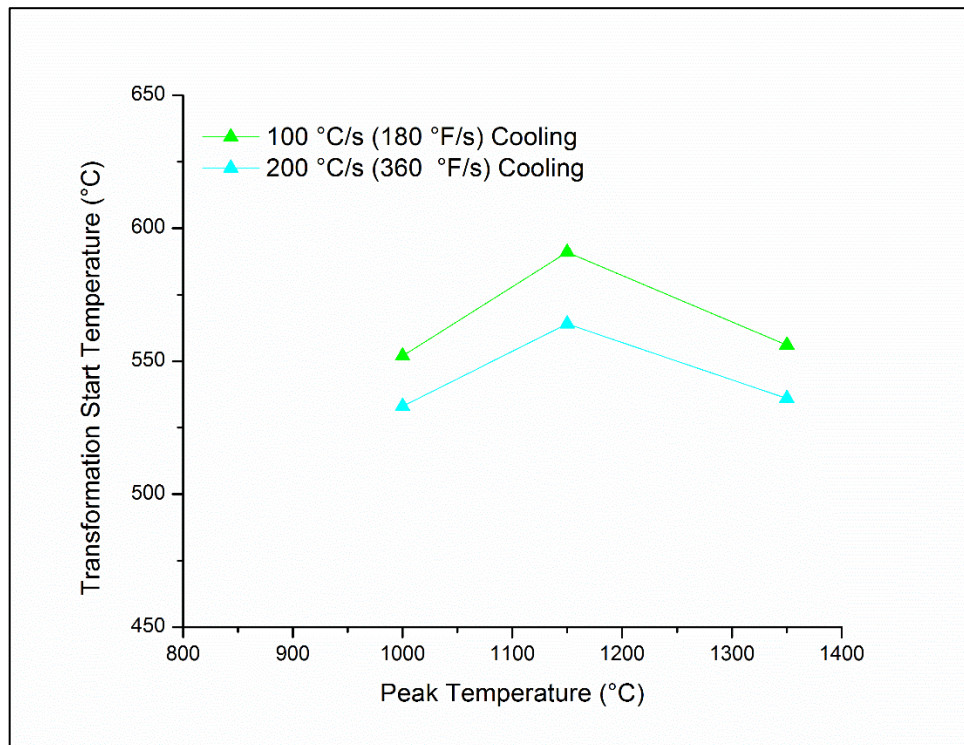


Figure 17. Variation of start temperature for the bainite transformation shown in **Figure 12-13**.

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 62-74** of **Appendix C**. Additionally, the

measured microhardness for each specimen is given in **Figure 18** below and **Table 13** of **Appendix D**. For this discussion, the following definitions for the morphology of microstructural constituents are adopted [26] [27] [28] [29] [30]. The typical definitions for crystal structure and composition of the constituents are assumed.

- Primary ferrite (F_P)* – Carbide-free grain boundary or intragranular allotriomorphic ferrite
- Widmanstätten ferrite with second phase (WF_{SP})* – High aspect ratio ferrite with either aligned or unaligned carbide
- Acicular ferrite (AF)* – Fine, interlocking structure formed by impingement of multiple Widmanstätten plates growing from intragranular inclusions
- Bainitic ferrite (F_B)* – Lath- or plate-like ferrite with either aligned or unaligned carbide
- Pearlite (P)* – Aggregate of discrete ferrite and cementite particles. Can manifest as alternating lamellae in classical pearlite or as a non-lamellar ferrite-carbide aggregate sometimes termed degenerate pearlite or ferrite-carbide aggregate [29]
- Unclassified constituent (U)* – Non-lamellar clustering of constituents of unidentified composition
- Bainite (B)* – General term for fine aggregates of ferrite laths or plates and cementite particles
- Upper bainite (B_U)* – Bainite consisting of fine (less than 0.5 μm wide) ferrite plates with carbide precipitation limited to the interlath boundaries

The microstructures of specimens heated to a peak temperature of 875 °C (1607 °F) are shown in **Figure 62**. These microstructures are intended to be representative of the ICHAZ, wherein only a partial transformation to austenite occurs on heating. This partial transformation is expected to occur via austenite nucleation at the pearlite colonies as the cementite solvus temperature is exceeded and austenite-stabilizing carbon is released into solution [28]. The specimen subjected to a cooling rate of 1 °C/s (1.8 °F/s) consisted of primary ferrite (F_P) and pearlite (P) which were very similar in appearance to those observed in the base material. The amount of pearlite seen in this specimen was small because the carbon content in DH36 is low. The pearlite reaction is promoted by rejection of carbon out of the ferrite and concomitant supersaturation of the austenite with carbon during cooling. In the case of a low carbon hypoeutectoid steel like DH36, the ferrite transformation nears completion prior to the solubility limit of carbon in austenite being exceeded. The final pearlite fraction would therefore be expected to be small and the pearlite transformation range during continuous cooling would be expected to be narrow, as observed.

A third, light-etching constituent was observed to form in addition to the F_P and P in specimens with cooling rates from 5 to 25 °C/s (9 to 45 °F/s). This constituent exhibited significantly less etching contrast than the areas identified as pearlite in the base material and 1 °C/s (1.8 °F/s) specimen but was frequently observed adjacent to pearlite colonies. This consistency in distribution suggests that locally carbon-rich regions may be a prerequisite for its formation, as is the case for pearlite. It was interrogated at higher magnifications via SEM as shown in **Figure 63-Figure 64**. As shown, the constituent does not appear to contain ferrite and is therefore consistent with neither classical lamellar pearlite nor other pearlite morphologies (e.g., degenerate). Also shown by **Figure 63-Figure 64** is evidence of an association between increased cooling rate and a qualitative shift from primarily P to primarily light-etched constituent within the F_P matrix. This implies a dependency on undercooling. **Figure 69** demonstrates an apparent transition between the cementite portion of granular pearlite and the unidentified constituent, further implying a strong association with high carbon content, but no carbides could be resolved via SEM. The slow cooling rates and high transformation temperatures would typically preclude bainitic or martensitic transformation products in DH36 steel, but solute segregation—particularly in the case of carbon—could create locally hardenable regions and thus transformation products such as martensite-austenite constituent cannot be ruled out without further investigation. Further analysis is required to positively identify the constituent, thus at this time it is simply referred to as an unclassified constituent (U). Its low volume fraction and similar formation conditions to pearlite

suggest a small effect on overall material properties, therefore its presence will be noted in the discussion portion of this report but it will not be represented in the *SYSWELD* database.

The specimens cooled at 100 and 200 °C/s (180 and 360 °F/s, **Figures 62e-f**) contain remnant primary ferrite from the base metal microstructure, particles that appear to be dispersed carbides, and dark-etching areas. It is surmised that the dark-etching areas are located in the regions that transformed to austenite on heating. The identity of the dark-etching areas was not apparent from the LOM images, so SEM micrographs of them were acquired and are shown in **Figures 65** and **66**. They contain high aspect ratio constituents and what may be aligned carbides. Again, advanced characterization would be needed to confirm the identity of the presumed carbides. Because the measured transformation start temperatures for these specimens were high (approximately 675 °C [1247 °F]) and both their absolute hardness and the relative change in hardness over that of the 25 °C/s (45 °F/s) specimen were not very large (see **Figure 18**), the dark-etching areas are considered to be primarily Widmanstätten ferrite with second phase (WF_{SP}) [29]. The overall microstructures of the 100 and 200 °C/s (180 and 360 °F/s) specimens are therefore judged to be $F_P + WF_{SP}$. It is possible that some portion of the dark-etching areas in **Figures 62-66** are bainitic because of the carbon enrichment (and associated increase in hardenability) described above. However, this cannot be determined for certain without more detailed characterization. **Table 4** gives the measured fractions of each microstructural constituent for these specimens. Ferrite, pearlite, and carbides are not tracked separately in *SYSWELD* databases, so for the purposes of inclusion into a database for that software, all ferrite and pearlite morphologies, along with the unclassified constituent, were grouped together.

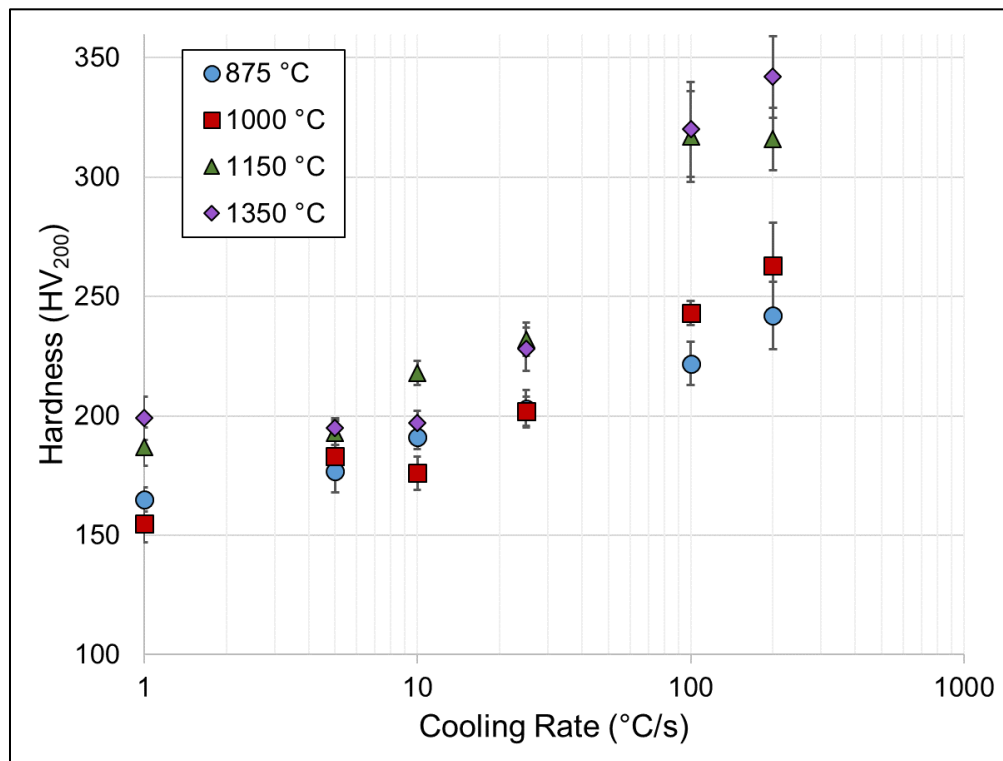


Figure 18. Measured Vickers microhardness for DH36 dilatometry specimens as a function of peak temperature and cooling rate. Error bars are one standard deviation. The number of indents per specimen ranged from 12 to 300, as given in **Table 13**.

Micrographs from DH36 specimens heated to 1000 °C (1832 °F) are shown in **Figure 67**. Cooling at 1 °C/s (1.8 °F/s) resulted in a ferrite-pearlite microstructure that was similar to the base metal.

Increasing the cooling rate to 5 and 10 °C/s (9 and 18 °F/s) introduced the unknown constituent into the microstructure and shifted the pearlite morphology from lamellar to degenerate (**Figures 68-70**). At 25 °C/s (45 °F/s) cooling, the microstructure was entirely F_P and U, with pearlite no longer identifiable. A distinct drop in the transformation finish temperature was observed, falling from 649 °C (1200 °F) in the 10 °C/s (18 °F/s) specimen to 585 °C (1085 °F) in the 25 °C/s (45 °F/s) specimen. Comparison of this transformation finish temperature with the calculated equilibrium bainite start temperature of 586 °C (1087 °F) suggests that this is not a bainitic transformation product, particularly when the effects of undercooling are considered (i.e., the bainite start temperature in a rapidly cooled sample is expected to be below the calculated equilibrium temperature). Also shown in **Figure 67b-d** is an increasing fraction of very fine (less than 5 μm diameter) ferrite grains for specimens cooled between 1 °C/s (1.8 °F/s) and 25 °C/s (45 °F/s). These likely form because 1000 °C (1832 °F) is only slightly above A_{c3} , so as cooling rate increases the newly nucleated austenite grains do not have sufficient time to reach their equilibrium size. As shown in **Figure 18**, the hardness of these four specimens was slightly lower than those of the 875 °C (1607 °F) specimens cooled at the same rates. At 100 and 200 °C/s (180 and 360 °F/s) cooling, the resultant microstructures are significantly different than those observed in the 875 °C (1607 °F) specimens because of the complete transformation of the starting microstructure to austenite. As shown in **Figure 67**, they appear to contain three separate constituents – polygonal ferrite grains (classified here as F_P), high aspect ratio ferrite with what appears to be intergranular second phase (WF_{SP}), and islands of a darker etching constituent, which are more prevalent in the 200 °C/s (360 °F/s) specimen. As in the case of simulated ICHAZ specimens, the transformation start temperature for these rapidly cooled specimens is most consistent with a ferritic reaction, which is consistent with the presence of F_P and WF_{SP} . Targeted microhardness measurement of the dark etching constituent indicated a hardness in excess of 300 HV_{25} , which was substantially harder than the averaged values for the 100 and 200 °C/s (180 and 360 °F/s) specimens. It is therefore possible that a small amount of bainite or martensite formed in specimens subjected to these combinations of peak temperature and cooling rate. A more definitive discussion of which constituent this was likely to be can be found below. **Table 5** shows the measured fractions of each microstructural constituent for the 1000 °C (1832 °F) specimens.

Representative images from the specimens heated to 1150 °C (2102 °F) are given in **Figure 72**. As shown, 1 °C/s (1.8 °F/s) cooling has resulted in a ferritic matrix with some lamellar pearlite and a dispersion of discrete particles (likely carbides) located mostly along the grain boundaries. As anticipated from increased PAG size with increasing peak temperature, the resultant ferrite grains are much larger than were observed in specimens heated to lower peak temperatures. During cooling at 5 °C/s (9 °F/s), the formation of pearlite colonies appears to be almost completely suppressed in favor of islands of particles that are in some cases aligned along ferrite grain boundaries. The ferritic matrix is now a mixture of allotriomorphic and idiomorphic F_P with areas of WF_{SP} . The differences observed between this microstructure and those at the same cooling rate but lower peak temperatures are likely tied to the PAG size. As shown in **Figure 14**, the increase in PAG size has led to a 50 °C (90 °F) decrease in the transformation start temperature, which would be expected to favor a Widmanstätten-type reaction [29]. Additionally, the large decrease (100 °C [180 °F]) in the pearlite/carbide transformation noted above (**Figure 15**) occurred beginning with specimens heated to this peak temperature. This behavior is likely related to both the decreased number of nucleation sites (grain boundaries) and the extent of carbon diffusion. When the DH36 base metal microstructure is heated above A_{c1} , the pearlite will dissolve. At temperatures close to the dissolution temperature, this carbon will remain relatively local to the position of the original pearlite colony. It will therefore need to diffuse a shorter distance to re-form Fe_3C during cooling. As peak temperature increases, so will the carbon diffusivity, such that for specimens heated to 1150 °C (2462 °F) and above, the carbon is likely to be much more homogeneously distributed in the austenite [28]. As a result, the austenite-to-pearlite/carbide transformation will be pushed to lower temperatures as the peak temperature increases and larger carbon diffusion distances are required to allow their formation. Slow cooling (e.g., 1 °C/s [1.8 °F/s]) also increases the amount of time spent above A_{c3} and permits further carbon homogenization. The pearlite transformation for specimens cooled at 1 °C/s

(1.8 °F/s) would therefore be expected to be dependent on peak temperature, as shown in **Figure 15**. The hardness of these microstructures is slightly higher than measured for the simulated low-temperature FGHAZ specimens.

Similar decreases in transformation start temperature were observed in the 10 and 25 °C/s (18 and 45 °F/s) samples relative to their lower peak temperature counterparts. The microstructures for both of these specimens appear to be primarily WF_{SP}. A higher degree of undercooling prior to the onset of transformation for the 25 °C/s (45 °F/s) specimen has given rise to finer ferrite laths, some areas consistent in morphology with acicular ferrite, and a higher hardness. A small amount of fine carbide aggregates were noted along ferrite grain boundaries in the 10 °C/s (185 °F/s) sample. There was no pearlite or carbide aggregate observed in the 25 °C/s (45 °F/s) sample. The microstructures of the 100 and 200 °C/s (180 and 360 °F/s) specimens are distinguishable from the others described so far by three observations: the scale of the laths is much finer (2 to 3 μm), the transformation start temperature is much lower (approximately 575 °C [1067 °F]), and the hardness is much higher (316 HV). Given the cooling rates associated with these transformations, they were assumed to be bainitic or martensitic.

Various constitutive equations for predicting the start temperatures for bainite and martensite transformations based on alloy chemistry are available in the literature [31] [32]. Such models are generally oversimplifications and often are only accurate for alloys similar to those used to create them, but they offer the ability to gather an initial understanding of whether this intermediate temperature transformation was likely to be bainite or martensite. As such, the models developed by Capdevilla et. al. [33] and Kirkaldy [34] were applied to the DH36 composition given in **Table 3**:

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

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

where M_s ≡ martensite start temperature (°C)
 B_s ≡ bainite start temperature (°C)
 w_i ≡ concentration of element i (wt%)

From **Equations 5** and **6**, the M_s and B_s temperatures for DH36 are predicted to be 425 and 586 °C (797 and 1087 °F), respectively. The measured transformation start temperatures for the 100 and 200 °C/s (180 and 360 °F/s) specimens were 591 and 564 °C (1096 and 1047 °F), respectively. In addition, upon inspection of the relevant dilation curves in **Appendix B**, it is seen that this transformation does not exhibit the same very high transformation rate common to martensitic transformations [29]. It is therefore concluded that the transformation observed in the 100 and 200 °C/s (180 and 360 °F/s) specimens cooled from 1150 °C (2102 °F) was bainitic. Finally, since the measured transformation start temperature is well above what is typically expected from lower bainite (250 to 400 °C [482 to 752 °F] [27]) and the LOM-level morphology is generally more consistent with that of upper bainite, it is surmised that the transformation product is B_U.

This analysis indicates that the hard, dark-etching constituent described above in specimens heated to 1000 °C (1832 °F) and cooled at 100 and 200 °C/s (180 and 360 °F/s) (**Figure 67**) was likely also bainite. However, because of the difficulty in observing the morphology of those small colonies, they are denoted here as simply ‘bainite’ (B). **Table 6** shows the measured fractions of each microstructural constituent for the 1000 °C (1832 °F) specimens.

Figure 73 presents micrographs of the dilatometry specimens heated to 1350 °C (2462 °F). As shown, cooling at 1 °C/s (1.8 °F/s) has created a microstructure consisting of areas of primary ferrite,

pearlite colonies, and very coarse WF_{SP} with what appear to be aligned carbides. Cooling at both 5 and 10 °C/s (9 and 18 °F/s) produced a primarily coarse WF_{SP} microstructure with some areas of F_p . The onset of WF_{SP} at slower cooling rates was again likely driven by increases in PAG size, which resulted in more undercooling prior to the initial on-cooling transformation, as shown in **Figure 14**. The hardness of specimens cooled at these three rates was very similar (**Figure 18**). The microstructure of the specimen cooled at 25 °C/s (45 °F/s) is primarily WF_{SP} , as was observed in the high temperature FGHAZ at the same cooling rate. Areas of AF also appear to be present in this specimen. Finally, the microstructure of the 100 and 200 °C/s (180 and 360 °F/s) specimens appears consistent with their 1150 °C (2402 °F) counterparts and are identified as upper bainite. The hardness of these microstructures are in line with those described above for the simulated high-temperature FGHAZ, and a slight decrease in transformation start temperature with peak temperature was observed, as previously reported in [35]. **Table 7** shows the measured fractions of each microstructural constituent for the 1350 °C (2462 °F) specimens.

Table 4. Measured phase fraction of DH36 CCT specimens thermally cycled to a peak temperature of 875 °C (1607 °F)

Cooling Rate		Peak Temperature = 875 °C (1607 °F)		
°C/s	°F/s	F + P	B	M
1	1.8	1	0	0
5	9	1	0	0
10	18	1	0	0
25	45	1	0	0
100	180	1	0	0
200	360	1	0	0

Table 5. Measured phase fraction of DH36 CCT specimens thermally cycled to a peak temperature of 1000 °C (1832 °F)

Cooling Rate		Peak Temperature = 1000 °C (1832 °F)		
°C/s	°F/s	F + P	B	M
1	1.8	1	0	0
5	9	1	0	0
10	18	1	0	0
25	45	1	0	0
100	180	0.60	0.40	0
200	360	0.40	0.60	0

Table 6. Measured phase fraction of DH36 CCT specimens thermally cycled to a peak temperature of 1150 °C (2102 °F)

Cooling Rate		Peak Temperature = 1150 °C (2102 °F)		
°C/s	°F/s	F + P	B	M
1	1.8	1	0	0
5	9	1	0	0
10	18	1	0	0
25	45	1	0	0
100	180	0	1	0
200	360	0	1	0

Table 7. Measured phase fraction of DH36 CCT specimens thermally cycled to a peak temperature of 1350 °C (2462 °F)

Cooling Rate		Peak Temperature = 1350 °C (2462 °F)		
°C/s	°F/s	F + P	B	M
1	1.8	1	0	0
5	9	1	0	0
10	18	1	0	0
25	45	1	0	0
100	180	0	1	0
200	360	0	1	0

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 **Figures 10-17** 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. **Figure 19** shows representative light optical micrographs highlighting the microstructural differences across the HAZ regions for the fillet weld, and the average measured microhardness from three linear traverses across the fillet weld HAZ. Note that the HAZ region labels in **Figure 19** are to allow comparison of the relative hardness of the regions only and are not reflective of their actual width because of challenges associated with collecting hardness traverses perpendicular to the non-semicircular HAZ boundaries in thin plates. **Figure 20** presents similar information for the butt joint, except that the hardness measurements could not be averaged because of the complex thermal history associated with multi-pass welding on thin plate. Both welds demonstrate monotonically increasing HAZ hardness, as is common for plain carbon and low alloy steels and was observed in the dilatometry specimens (**Figure 18**). The pass 1 ICHAZ and FGHAZ were on average approximately 10 to 15 HV harder than those of pass 2 as a result of reheating. The raw data points for **Figure 19** and **Figure 20** can be found in **Appendix D**.

The fillet weld hardness data was used for comparisons to the dilatometry results because, as a single pass weld, it was not subject to the complex microstructural evolution associated with reheating in the multi-pass butt joint. The fillet weld CGHAZ hardness fell between the hardness of the simulated CGHAZs cooled at 10 and 25 °C/s (18 and 45 °F/s). The average weldment FGHAZ hardness corresponded to that of a simulated cooling rate between 5 and 10 °C/s (9 and 18 °F/s). The average weld ICHAZ hardness was closest to that of the simulated ICHAZ cooled at 10 °C/s (18 °F/s).

Figure 21 presents representative micrographs from the fillet weld. **Figure 21a** shows that the fusion zone was a mixture of primary ferrite (along prior austenite grain boundaries) and acicular ferrite. **Figures 21b-c** show that the CGHAZ and FGHAZ were mixtures of F_P and WF_{SP} . The CGHAZ F_P was more localized to the grain boundaries, and the WF_{SP} appeared slightly coarser in the CGHAZ. **Figure 21d** shows that the fillet weld ICHAZ consisted of ferrite dispersed carbides and pearlite colonies. As such, the dilatometry specimen microstructures that most closely correspond with those observed in the fillet weld CGHAZ, FGHAZ, and ICHAZ are those associated with 10 °C/s (18 °F/s) cooling. This is in good agreement with the hardness measurements described above.

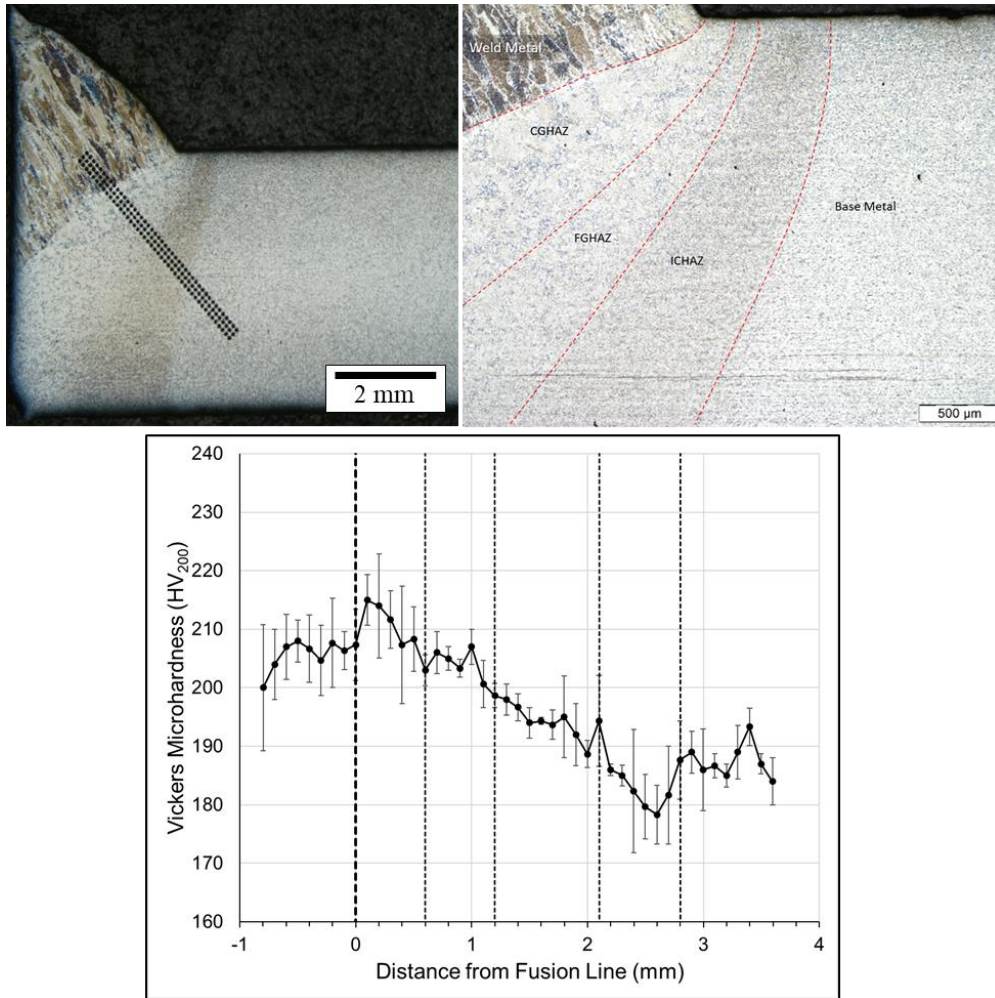


Figure 19. (Top) Light optical micrographs of the DH36 fillet weld showing the different HAZ regions and their approximate boundaries. (Bottom) Average Vickers microhardness across the three black lines in the top-left micrograph. Error bars are one standard deviation.

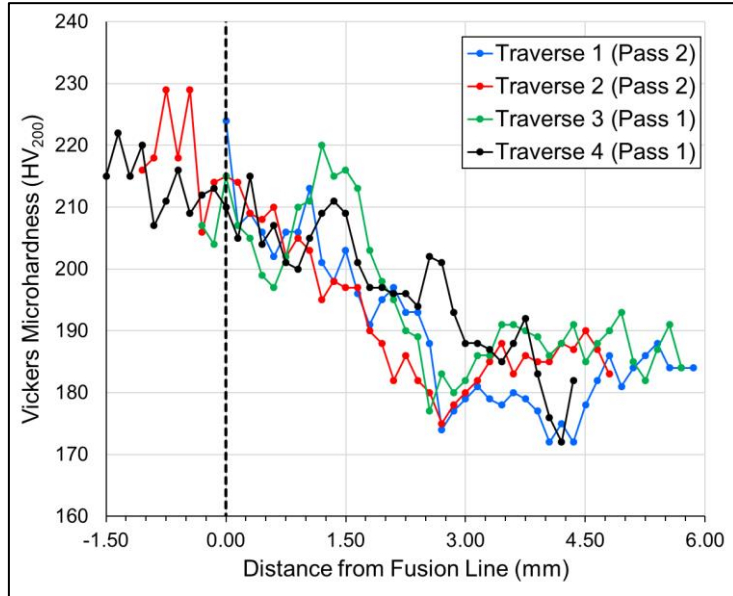
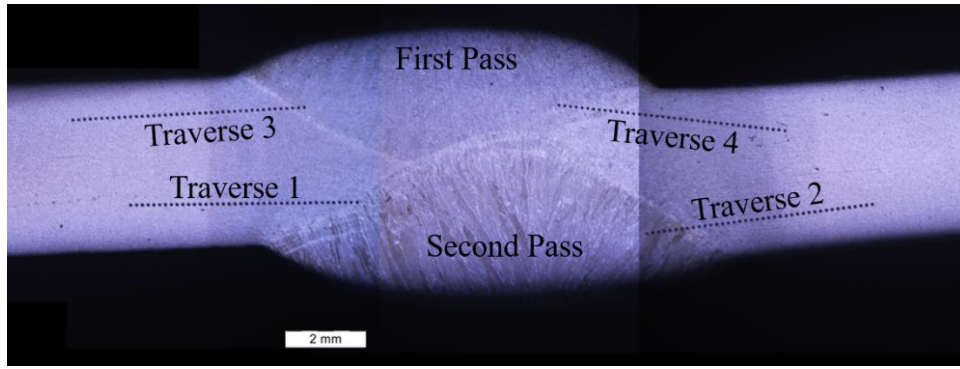


Figure 20. (Top) Light optical micrograph of the DH36 butt joint. (Bottom) Vickers microhardness traverses across the four black lines in the micrograph.

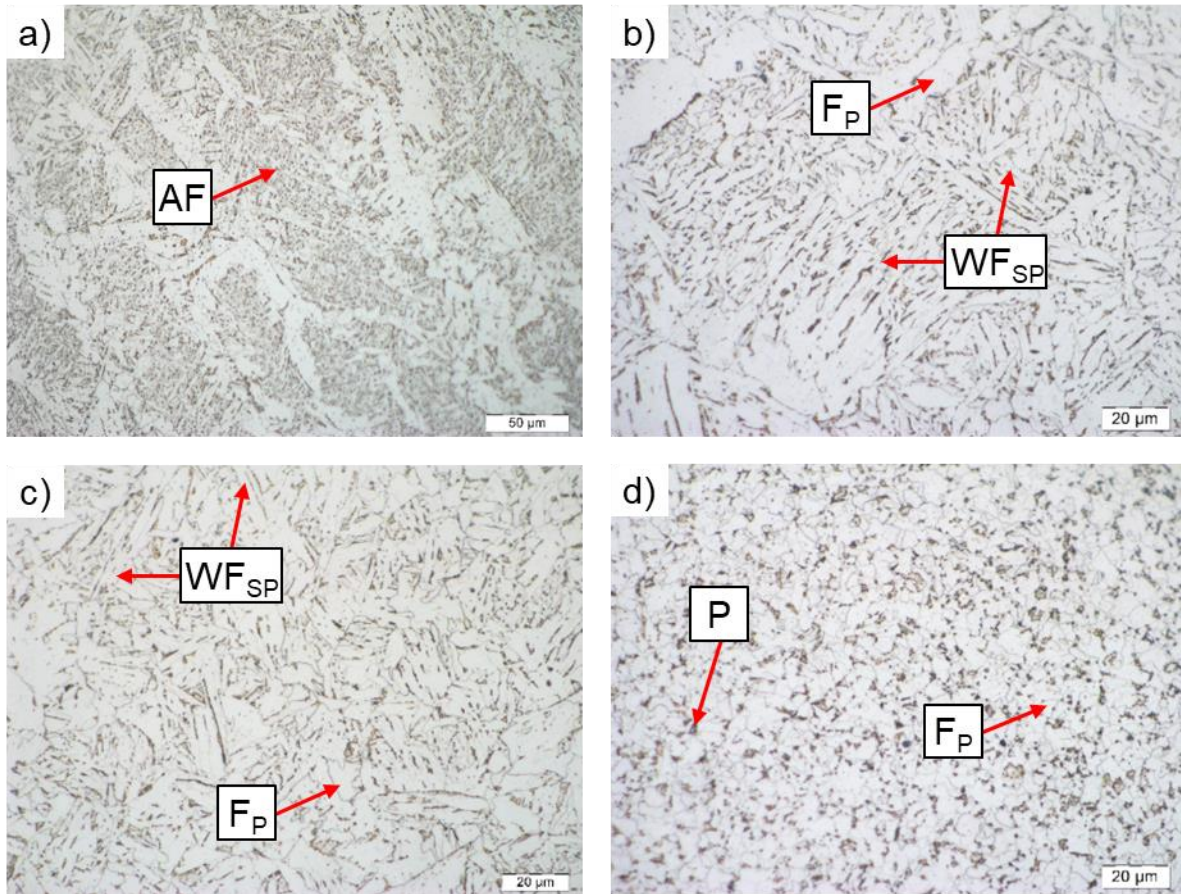


Figure 21. Representative light optical micrographs of the DH36 fillet weld a) fusion zone, b) CGHAZ, c) FGHAZ, and d) ICHAZ.

Thermo-Physical Property Analysis

The CTE values measured from the dilation curves ($n=11$) were $15.6 \times 10^{-6} \pm 0.6 \times 10^{-6} \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$ ($8.7 \times 10^{-6} \pm 0.3 \times 10^{-6} \text{ } ^\circ\text{F}^{-1}$) for the untransformed base metal below $650 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}$ ($1202 \text{ } ^\circ\text{F}$) and $20.9 \times 10^{-6} \pm 2.1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$ ($12.0 \times 10^{-6} \pm 1.2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ } ^\circ\text{F}^{-1}$) for austenite above $950 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}$ ($1742 \text{ } ^\circ\text{F}$). A representative graph showing the CTE measurement is given in **Figure 22**, and the raw data is included in **Appendix E**

Temperature-dependent density values are shown in **Figure 23**. A comparison dataset from a study conducted as part of a Navy Manufacturing Technology (ManTech) program with the Naval Metalworking Center from the mid-2000s is also included in the figure [36]. This data is labeled “CTC” for Concurrent Technologies Corporation, where the testing was conducted. Note that the comparison dataset from CTC was for DH36 controlled-rolled plate with a nominal thickness of 15.9 mm (5/8-in.). As shown, the density values generated in this work are approximately 3.5% higher than those measured by CTC. Since the slopes of the lines (i.e., the CTE) are nearly identical, this difference can be primarily attributed to a difference in the room temperature densities between the two studies.

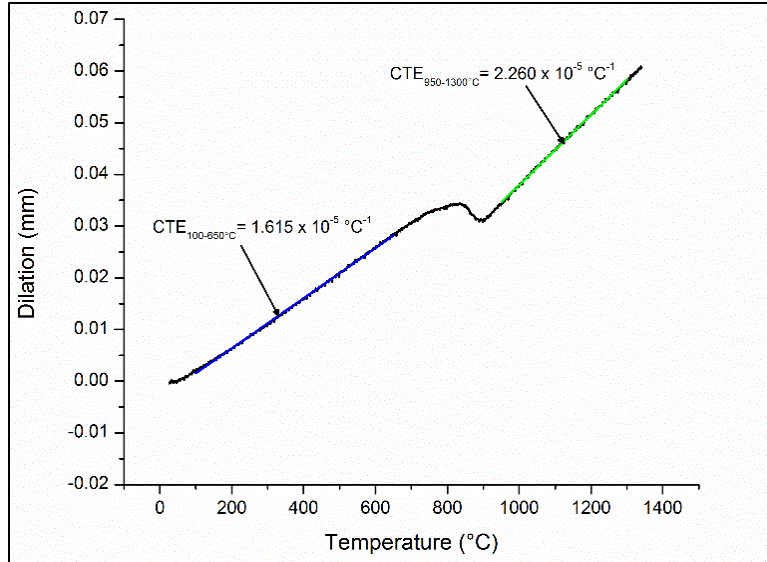


Figure 22. Representative on-heating dilatometry curve for DH36, showing typical CTE analysis and results.

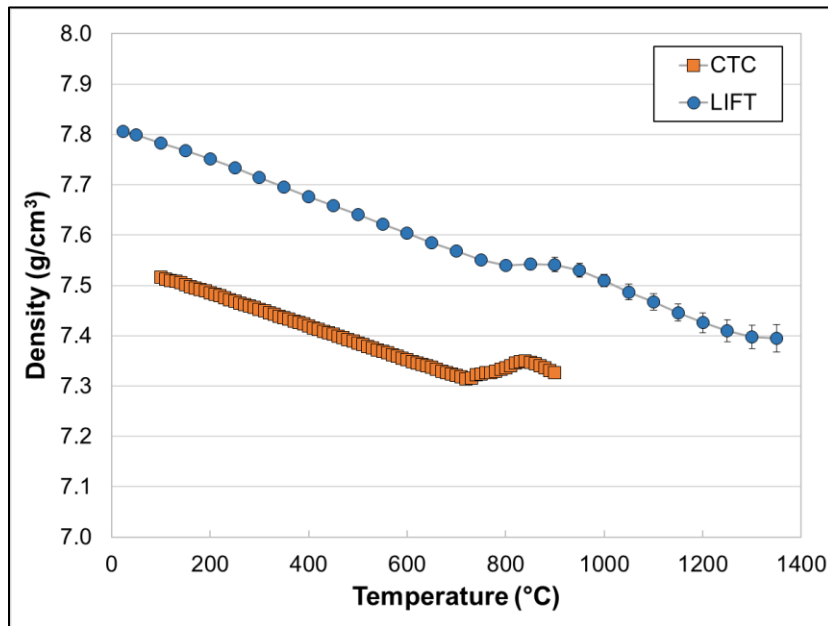


Figure 23. Density of DH36 steel as a function of temperature. LIFT data measured using analysis of Gleeble-based dilation curves in accordance with **Equations 2 and 3**. CTC data adapted from reference [36]. Error bars on LIFT data are one standard deviation from the mean of three tests.

The measured specific heat and thermal diffusivity data for DH36 can be found in **Figures 24-25**. 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 750 to 850 °C (1352 to 1562 °F) and the δ ferrite and melting transformations beginning around 1450 °C (2552 °F). The δ ferrite transformation is only visible in **Figure 24** (beginning at approximately 1340 °C [2444 °F]) and is missed by **Figure 25** because of the larger temperature increment between thermal diffusivity

measurements. Thermo-Calc equilibrium calculations predict a δ ferrite stability range of 1426 to 1466 °C (2599 to 2671 °F). As shown, the data from this program compare very well with the data generated in the Navy ManTech study.

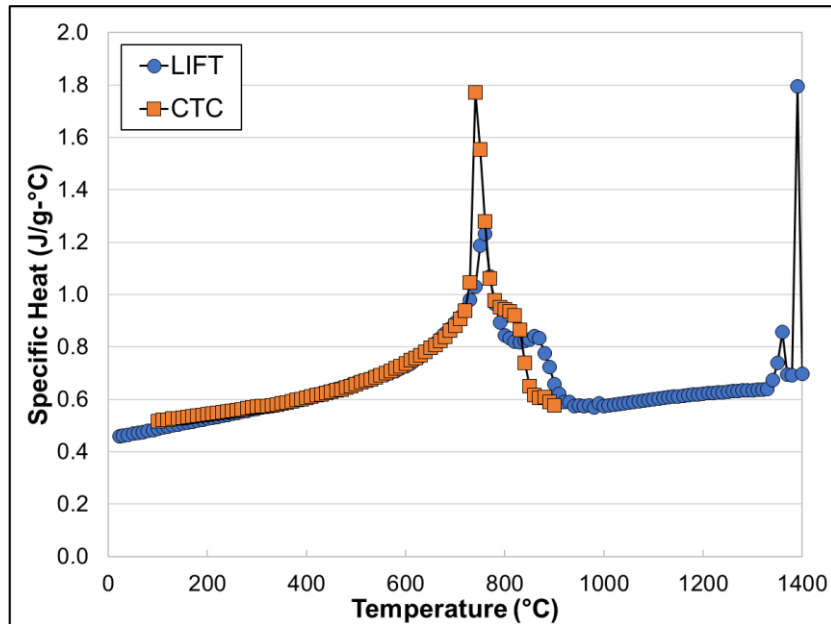


Figure 24. Measured specific heat for DH36 steel at various temperatures. CTC data adapted from reference [36].

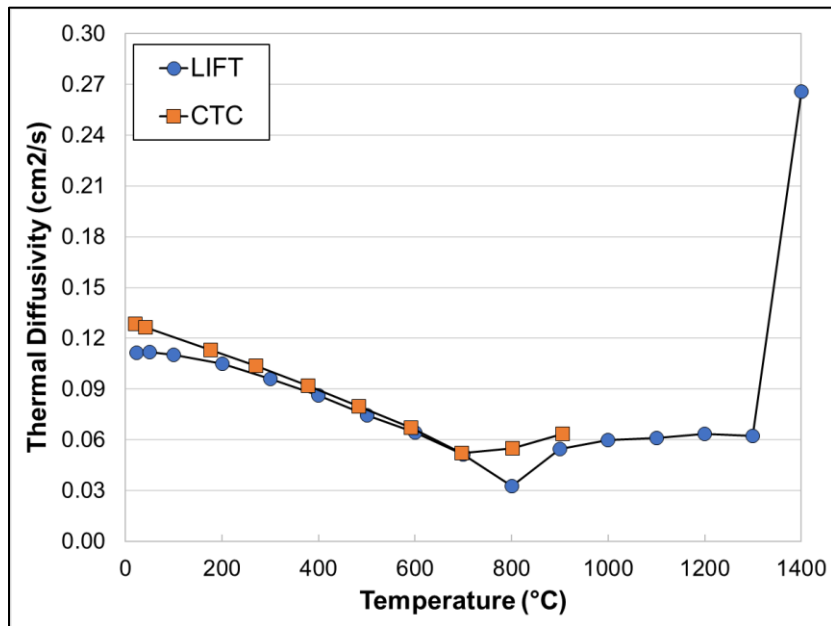


Figure 25. Measured thermal diffusivity for DH36 steel at various temperatures. CTC data adapted from reference [36].

Finally, the data from **Figures 23-25** were used in conjunction with **Equation 4** to calculate the temperature-dependent thermal conductivity as shown in **Figure 26**. Once again, the data coincides 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**.

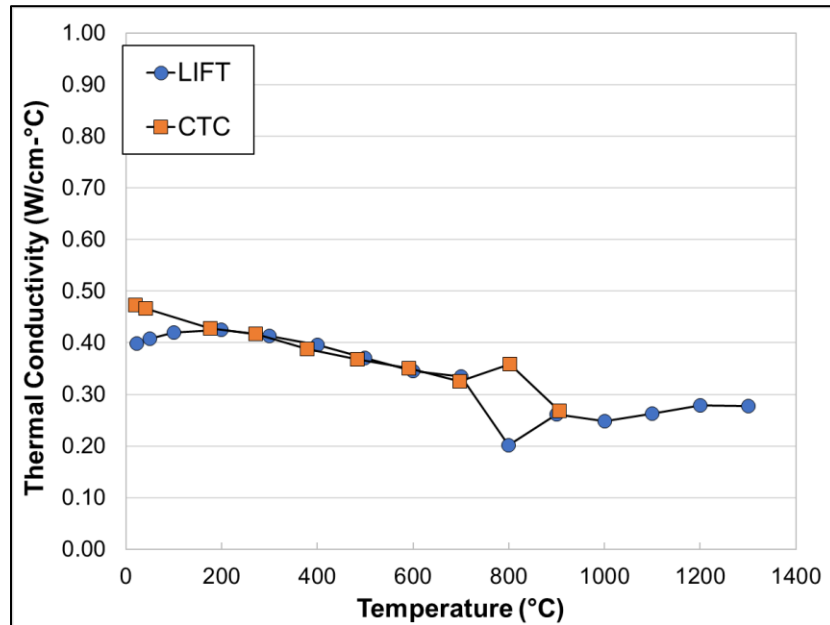


Figure 26. Calculated thermal conductivity for DH36 steel at various temperatures. CTC data adapted from reference [36].

Thermo-Mechanical Property Analysis

Figure 27 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 stricter ASTM E111 [37], 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 DH36 property database, the data in **Figure 27** were adapted from the European standard for fire design of steel structures [38] [39]. 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 [38]. It was also assumed that rigorously measured elastic moduli for DH36 steel would be very similar to data presented in **Figure 27** because elastic properties tend to be consistent within a given material class (e.g., steel). **Figure 28** shows the experimentally measured temperature-dependent 0.2% offset yield strength for DH36 base material, and **Figure 29** shows the measured temperature-dependent ultimate tensile strength (UTS). Comparison data for the measured yield strengths were found for AH36 grade plate in reference [40]. 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 only minor differences in strength with increasing temperature.

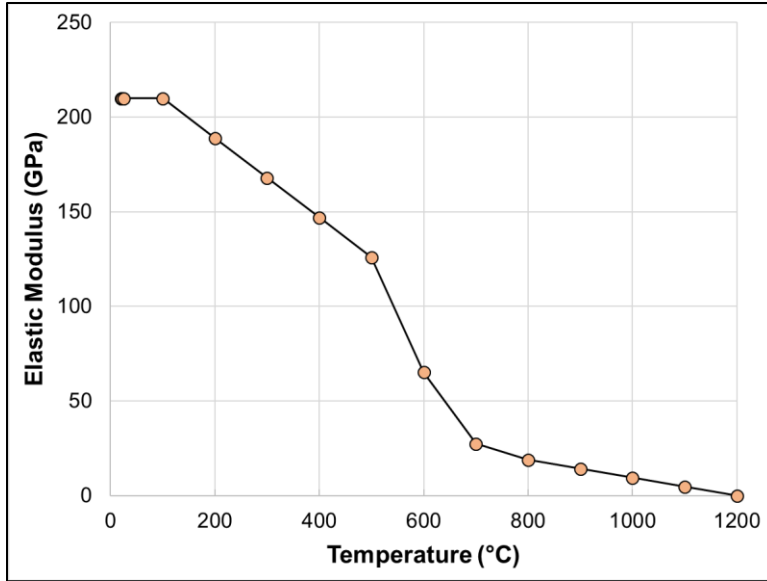


Figure 27. Assumed elevated temperature elastic modulus for DH36 steel.

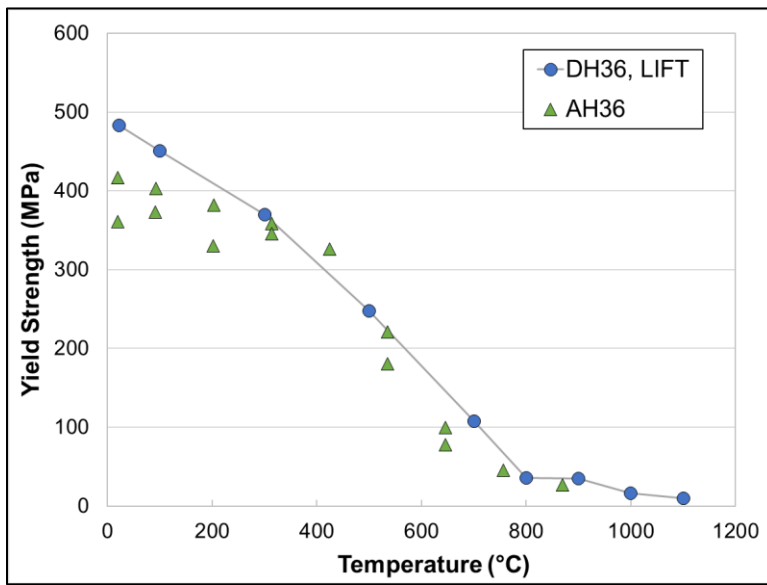


Figure 28. Measured elevated temperature 0.2% offset yield strength for DH36 steel, showing good correspondence with AH36 data adapted from reference [40].

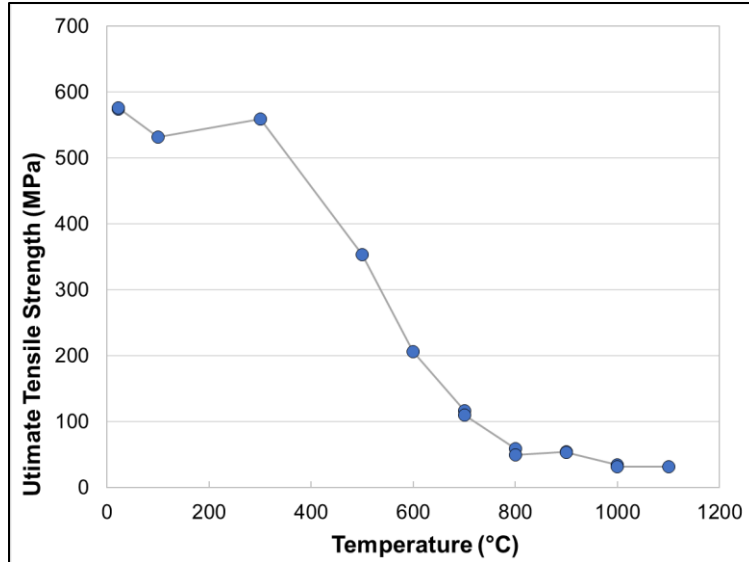


Figure 29. Measured elevated temperature ultimate tensile strength for DH36 steel.

Figure 29 shows the measured yield strengths from specimens cycled to a peak temperature of 1350 °C (2462 °F). The stress-strain curves associated with the data are given in **Figures 75-77** of **Appendix F**. At room temperature, the 100 °C/s (180 °F/s) specimen was nearly 50% stronger than the 10 °C/s (18 °F/s) specimen, but the yield strength of 10 °C/s (18 °F/s) specimen was nearly identical to that of the 1 °C/s (1.8 °F/s) specimen. The yield strengths of the slower-cooled specimens were nominally the same as the base material. These observations are consistent with the change in transformation products from various ferrite and pearlite morphologies to bainite. At 200 °C (392 °F), the 1 and 100 °C/s (1.8 and 180 °F/s) specimens experienced virtually no change in yield strength from room temperature, but the 10 °C/s (18 °F/s) specimen saw a 10% increase. It is unclear why this occurred. The 10 °C/s (18 °F/s) specimen F_P/WF_{SP} starting microstructure may have experienced some additional carbide precipitation during reheating to 200 °C (392 °F), but confirmation of that would require additional microstructural analysis. As expected, for the austenite on cooling, the yield strength was below 20 MPa (2.9 ksi).

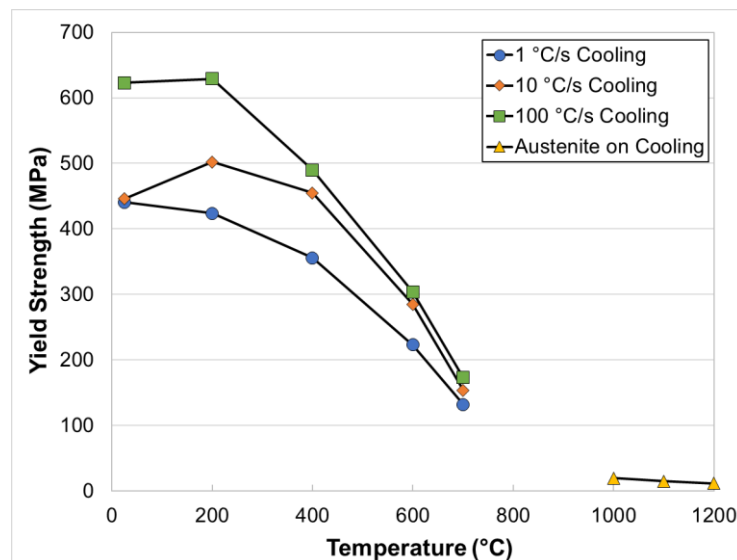


Figure 30. Yield strength of simulated DH36 CGHAZs after heating to 1350 °C (2462 °F) and cooling at different rates.

As indicated in **Figure 30**, there was a monotonic decrease in yield strength with increasing temperature for all specimens above 200 °C (392 °F). The effect of a stronger starting microstructure was wiped out for the 100 °C/s (180 °F/s) specimens above 400 °C (752 °F) as their strength converged with those of the 10 °C/s (18 °F/s) samples. The yield strengths of all specimens then converged to that of the 1 °C/s (1.8 °F/s) specimen at 700 °C (1292 °F).

On-heating flow stress measurements for the DH36 base material are shown in **Figure 31** for all temperatures, and **Figure 32** highlights the flow behavior for tests at temperatures above 700 °C (1292 °F). The raw data points for these graphs can be found in **Appendix F**. The data are true stresses and strains calculated by applying the traditional conversion equations to engineering stress-strain data provided by the test lab. The data terminate at approximately 3.5 % strain, which corresponds to removal of the extensometers from the specimens by the test lab for protective reasons. In cases where the test temperature was 500 °C (932 °F) or below, this removal occurred well before UTS was reached. As a result, the flow stress behavior is not fully characterized for those samples. It is possible, however, to extrapolate the work hardening behavior to the onset of necking using the UTS values, which are also 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.

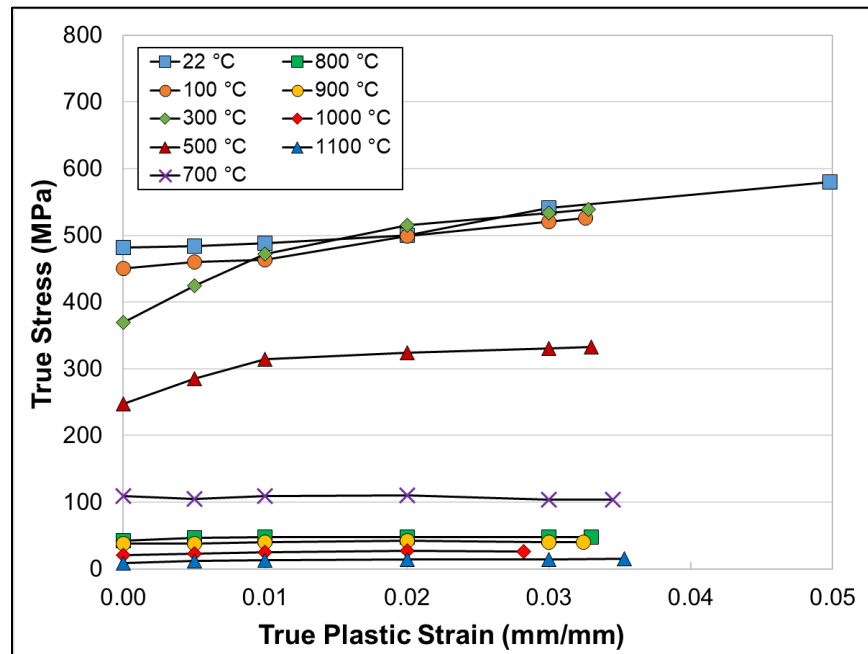


Figure 31. On-heating flow stress behavior for DH36 steel at various temperatures.

Flow stress curves for the thermally cycled DH36 are given in **Figures 33-36**. Since these tests were performed under inert atmosphere at OSU and NSWCCD, the extensometer was not removed during the tests, and more complete flow stress information is available. Once again, the data are true stresses and strains calculated by conversion from engineering stress-strain data. Such conversions are invalid past the onset of necking, so the terminal data points in **Figures 33-36** 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**.

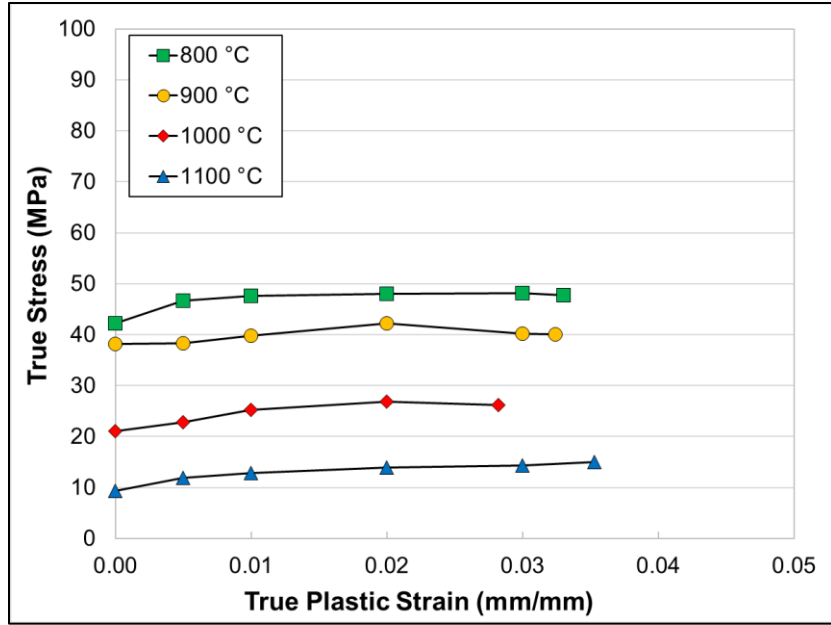


Figure 32. On-heating flow stress behavior for DH36 steel at testing temperatures above the austenitic phase transformation.

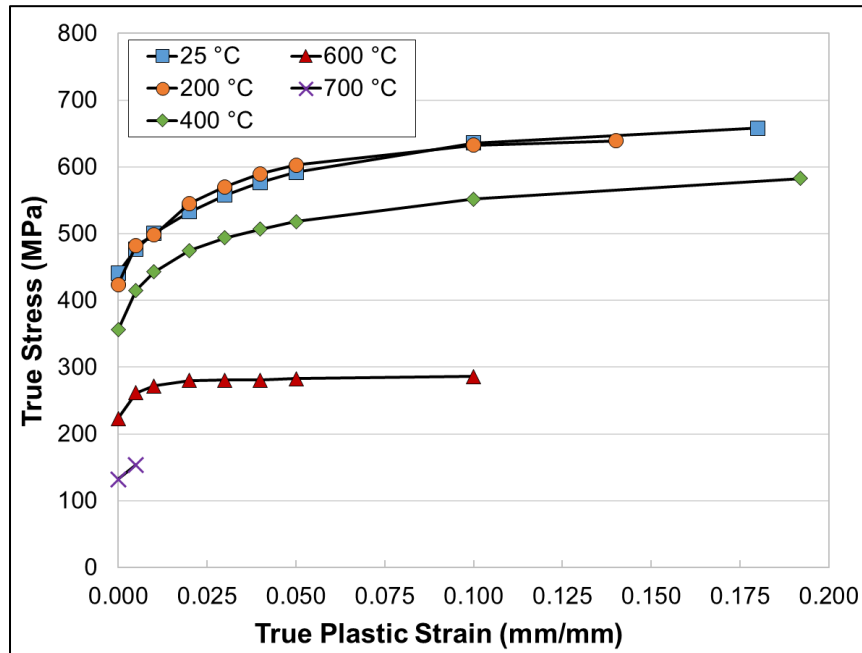


Figure 33. Flow stress behavior at various temperatures for DH36 steel after cooling at 1 °C/s (1.8 °F/s) from a peak temperature of 1350 °C (2462 °F). Terminal data points are at the UTS.

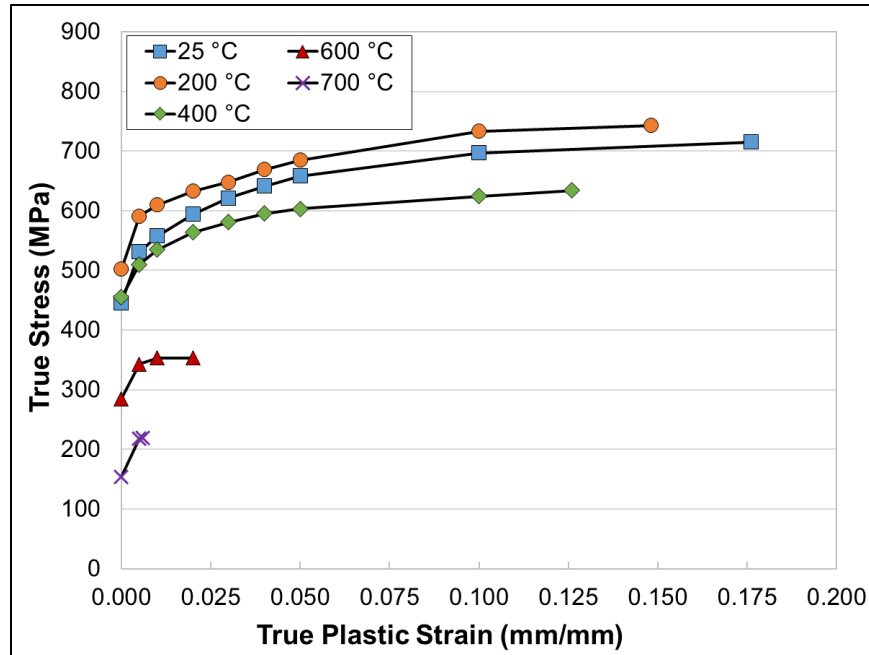


Figure 34. Flow stress behavior at various temperatures for DH36 steel after cooling at 10 °C/s (18 °F/s) from a peak temperature of 1350 °C (2462 °F). Terminal data points are at the UTS.

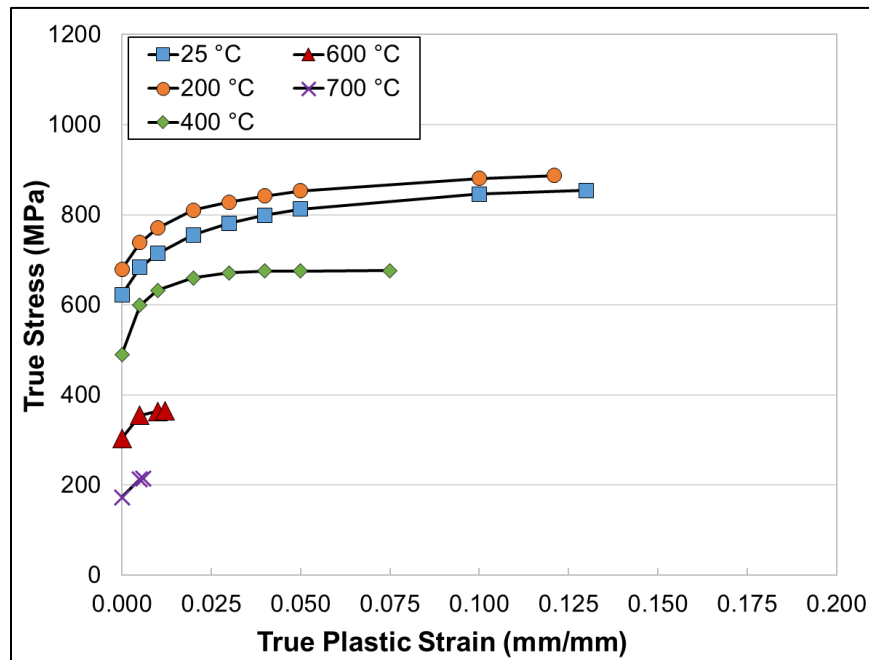


Figure 35. Flow stress behavior at various temperatures for DH36 steel after cooling at 100 °C/s (180 °F/s) from a peak temperature of 1350 °C (2462 °F). Terminal data points are at the UTS.

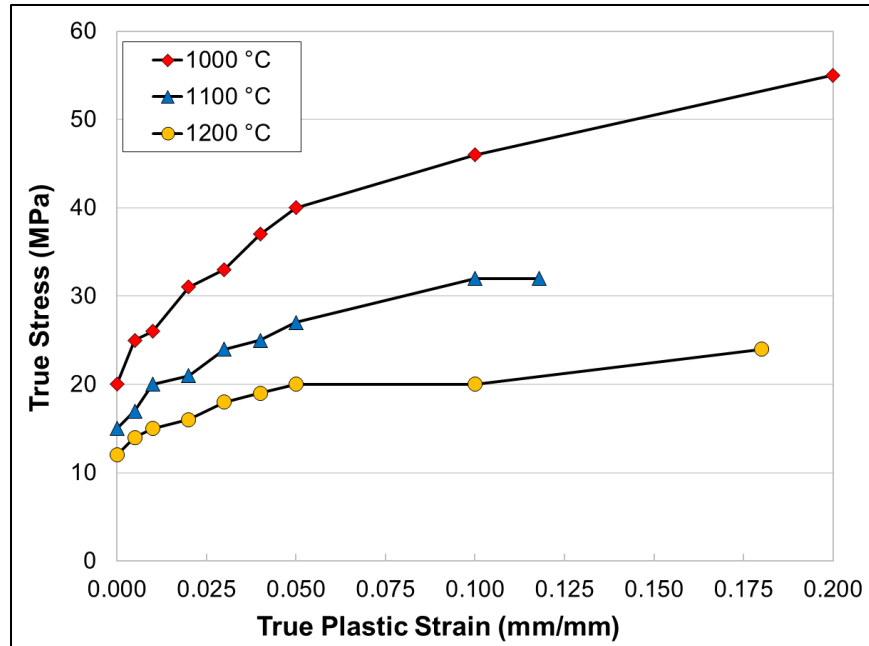


Figure 36. Flow stress behavior for austenitic DH36 steel after thermal cycling to 1350 °C (2462 °F). Terminal data points are at the UTS.

SUMMARY

Temperature-dependent material property data of a pedigreed plate of DH36 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, coefficient of thermal expansion, and density. Thermo-mechanical properties including elastic modulus, yield strength, 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 continuous cooling transformation (CCT) diagrams. Investigation of heat-affected zone 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 machine-readable 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 for DH36 Steel

ArcelorMittal Burns Harbor Plate

SHIPMENT NO.		DATE SHIPPED	CAR OR VEHICLE NO.	TRLR	PAGE
803-06510		05-20-16		806	1
S C I P T C	HUNTINGTON INGALLS INDUSTRIES INC			HUNTINGTON INGALLS INDUSTRIES INC	
	INGALLS SHIPBUILDING DIV PO BOX 149 PASCAGOULA MS 39568-0149			INGALLS SHIPBUILDING DIV C/O METALS USA PLATES & SHAPES SE I 1 FOUNDRY RD WAGGAMAN LA 70094-2349	

S E R I A L N O.	P A T N O.	H E A T N O.	N O. P C S.	S I Z E A N D Q U A N T I T Y				Y I E L D P O I N T	T E N S I L E S T R E N G T H	E L O N G.	R E D.
				T H I C K N E S S	W I D T H O R D I A.	L E N G T H	W E I G H T				

QUALITY STEEL MELTED & MANUFACTURED IN THE U. S. A.
 PLATES - MIL-S -22698C GR DH-36 MOD S.010
 MAX NO WELD REPAIR KLD FINE GRAIN
 PRAC AMEND 2 CLASS U CE=.38X PER
 IIW FORMULA, CH-V A673 FREQ (P) T
 17 FTLB AT -4F --- PLT CONTROL ROLL
 NO WELD REPAIR WAS PERFORMED ON BELOW PLATE(S)
 MFST - MFST MILL SERIAL# MFST MILL SERIAL# & PATTERN#
 MFST PPI 0045045- 0001 LIFT MAX 30 TON UNLDG
 OH-MAGNET
 CO# 902619 GH 823-2341
 OUTSIDE INSPECTION BY AMERICAN BUREAU OF SHIPPING
 B058430 821S05650 2 .1875 96 300 3062 77500 84100 2 40
 (M67)MFST CUST ITEM NO:001
 B058431 821S05650 2 .1875 96 300 3062 77500 84100 2 40
 (M67)MFST CUST ITEM NO:001
 B058432 821S05650 1 .1875 96 300 1531 77500 84100 2 40
 (M67)MFST CUST ITEM NO:001
 B058433 821S05650 2 .1875 96 300 3062 77500 84100 2 40
 (M67)MFST CUST ITEM NO:001

Q-QUENCH TEMPERATURE	T-TEMPER TEMPERATURE	N-NORMALIZE TEMPERATURE
----------------------	----------------------	-------------------------

WE HEREBY CERTIFY THAT THE MATERIAL DESCRIBED HEREIN HAS BEEN MADE BY THE ARCELORMITTAL BH PLNT TO THE APPLICABLE SPECIFICATION BY AN APPROVED PROCESS AND HAS BEEN TESTED IN ACCORDANCE WITH THE REQUIREMENTS OF THE AMERICAN BUREAU OF SHIPPING RULES FOR THE INSPECTION AND TESTING OF MATERIALS TO THE SATISFACTION OF THE SURVEYORS.

S E R I A L N O.	P A T N O.	H E A T N O.	H A R D B H N	B E N D	T H I C K N E S S I N C H E S	T Y P E	S I Z E	D I R	T E S T T E M P F	E N E R G Y F T L B S			S H E A R (%)			L A T. E X P M I L S		
										1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
B058430		821S05650			.187	V	1/3	T	-4	35	35	37						
B058431		821S05650			.187	V	1/3	T	-4	29	29	34						
B058432		821S05650			.187	V	1/3	T	-4	36	36	38						
B058433		821S05650			.187	V	1/3	T	-4	39	38	38						

H E A T N O.	C H E M I C A L A N A L Y S I S																	M Q U A I D G R A I N S I Z E
	C	Mn	P	S	Si	Cu	Ni	Cr	Mo	V	Ti	Al	B	Cb	N	Sn		
821S05650	.07	1.31	.011	.004	.241	.028	.02	.04	.006	.044	.014	.033	.0002	.028	.009	.007		
	C E																	
	.31																	

I certify that the above results are a true and correct copy of actual results contained in records maintained by ArcelorMittal Burns Harbor and are in full compliance with the requirements of the specification cited above. This test report cannot be altered and must be transmitted intact with any subsequent third party test reports, if required.

BHPLTRPT.TIF

SUPV. QUALITY ASSURANCE

R. SPANGLER II PER LSS

ArcelorMittal Burns Harbor Plate

QUALITY ASSURANCE
REPORT OF TEST AND ANALYSES

SHIPMENT NO. 803-06510	DATE SHIPPED 05-20-16	CAR OR VEHICLE NO. TRLR 806	PAGE 2
HUNTINGTON INGALLS INDUSTRIES INC INGALLS SHIPBUILDING DIV PO BOX 149 PASCAGOULA MS 39568-0149		HUNTINGTON INGALLS INDUSTRIES INC INGALLS SHIPBUILDING DIV C/O METALS USA PLATES & SHAPES SE I 1 FOUNDRY RD WAGGAMAN LA 70094-2349	

SERIAL NUMBER	PAT NO.	HEAT NUMBER	NO. PCS.	SIZE AND QUANTITY				YIELD POINT	TENSILE STRENGTH	ELONG.	RED.
				THICKNESS	WIDTH OR DIA.	LENGTH	WEIGHT				

INCHES INCHES INCHES POUNDS PSI PSI IN % %

QUALITY STEEL MELTED & MANUFACTURED IN THE U. S. A.
 PLATES - MIL-S -22698C GR DH-36 MOD S.010
 MAX NO WELD REPAIR KLD FINE GRAIN
 PRAC AMEND 2 CLASS U CE=.38X PER
 IIW FORMULA, CH-V A673 FREQ (P) T
 17 FTLB AT -4F --- PLT CONTROL ROLL
 NO WELD REPAIR WAS PERFORMED ON BELOW PLATE(S)
 MFST - MFST MILL SERIAL# MFST MILL SERIAL# & PATTERN#
 MFST PPI 0045045- 0001 LIFT MAX 30 TON UNLDG
 OH-MAGNET
 CO# 902619 GH 823-2341
 OUTSIDE INSPECTION BY AMERICAN BUREAU OF SHIPPING

B058434	821S05650	2	.1875	96	300	3062	77500	84100	2	40
(M67)MFST CUST ITEM NO:001										
B058435	821S05650	2	.1875	96	300	3062	77500	84100	2	40
(M67)MFST CUST ITEM NO:001										

Q-QUENCH TEMPERATURE	T-TEMPER TEMPERATURE	N-NORMALIZE TEMPERATURE
----------------------	----------------------	-------------------------

WE HEREBY CERTIFY THAT THE MATERIAL DESCRIBED HEREIN HAS BEEN MADE BY THE ARCELORMITTAL BH PLNT TO THE APPLICABLE SPECIFICATION BY AN APPROVED PROCESS AND HAS BEEN TESTED IN ACCORDANCE WITH THE REQUIREMENTS OF THE AMERICAN BUREAU OF SHIPPING RULES FOR THE INSPECTION AND TESTING OF MATERIALS TO THE SATISFACTION OF THE SURVEYORS.

SERIAL NUMBER	PAT NO.	HEAT NUMBER	HARD BHN	BEND	THICKNESS INCHES	TYPE	SIZE	DIR	TEST TEMP F	CHARPY IMPACT								
										ENERGY FT LBS			SHEAR(%)			LAT. EXP MILS		
										1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
B058434		821S05650			.187	V	1/3	T	-4	38	36	37						
B058435		821S05650			.187	V	1/3	T	-4	35	34	37						

HEAT NUMBER	CHEMICAL ANALYSIS														MQUAID GRAIN SIZE		
	C	Mn	P	S	Si	Cu	Ni	Cr	Mo	V	Ti	Al	B	Cb		N	Sn
821S05650	.07	1.31	.011	.004	.241	.028	.02	.04	.006	.044	.014	.033	.0002	.028	.009	.007	
	CE																
	.31																

I certify that the above results are a true and correct copy of actual results contained in records maintained by ArcelorMittal Burns Harbor and are in full compliance with the requirements of the specification cited above. This test report cannot be altered and must be transmitted intact with any subsequent third party test reports, if required.

Appendix B: Continuous Cooling Transformation Curves

Table 8. Austenite transformation temperatures illustrated in **Figure 9**.

Heating Rate (°C/s)	A _{c1} (°C)	A _{c3} (°C)
100	722	916
200	745	910
500	752	920
1000	759	909
2000	777	904

Table 9. Experimentally measured on-cooling transformation temperatures for DH36 dilatometry specimens cooled from 875 °C (1607 °F). Colors correspond to the transformation products discussed in **Figures 10-17**.

Cooling Rate (°C/s) [°F/s]	1 [1.8]	5 [9]	10 [18]	25 [45]	100 [180]	200 [360]
Transformation Temperature (°C) [°F]	788 [1450]	757 [1395]	763 [1405]	757 [1395]	680 [1256]	683 [1264]
	715 [1319]	671 [1240]	666 [1231]	657 [1215]	542 [1008]	547 [1017]
	674 [1245]	657 [1215]	643 [1189]			

Table 10. Experimentally measured on-cooling transformation temperatures for DH36 dilatometry specimens cooled from 1000 °C (1832 °F). Colors correspond to the transformation products discussed in **Figures 10-17**.

Cooling Rate (°C/s) [°F/s]	1 [1.8]	1 [1.8], Retest	5 [9]	10 [18]	25 [45]	100 [180]	200 [360]
Transformation Temperature (°C) [°F]	784 [1443]	797 [1467]	752 [1386]	746 [1345]	719 [1326]	706 [1303]	691 [1276]
	685 [1265]	732 [1350]	666 [1231]	661 [1221]	585 [1085]	552 [1026]	533 [991]
	673 [1243]	687 [1269]	659 [1218]	649 [1200]		540 [1004]	529 [984]

Table 11. Experimentally measured on-cooling transformation temperatures for DH36 dilatometry specimens cooled from 1150 °C (2102°F). Colors correspond to the transformation products discussed in **Figures 10-17**.

Cooling Rate (°C/s) [°F/s]	1 [1.8]	5 [9]	10 [18]	25 [45]	100 [180]	200 [360]
Transformation Temperature (°C) [°F]	755 [1391]	701 [1294]	697 [1287]	685 [1265]	591 [1096]	564 [1047]
	633 [1171]	575 [1067]	546 [1015]	513 [955]	412 [774]	418 [784]
	597 [1107]	546 [1015]				

Table 12. Experimentally measured on-cooling transformation temperatures for DH36 dilatometry specimens cooled from 1350 °C (2462°F). Colors correspond to the transformation products discussed in **Figures 10-17**.

Cooling Rate (°C/s) [°F/s]	1 [1.8]	5 [9]	10 [18]	25 [45]	100 [180]	200 [360]
Transformation Temperature (°C) [°F]	771 [1420]	682 [1260]	663 [1225]	630 [1166]	556 [1033]	536 [997]
	586 [1087]	565 [1049]	548 [1018]	495 [923]	404 [759]	402 [756]
	572 [1062]					

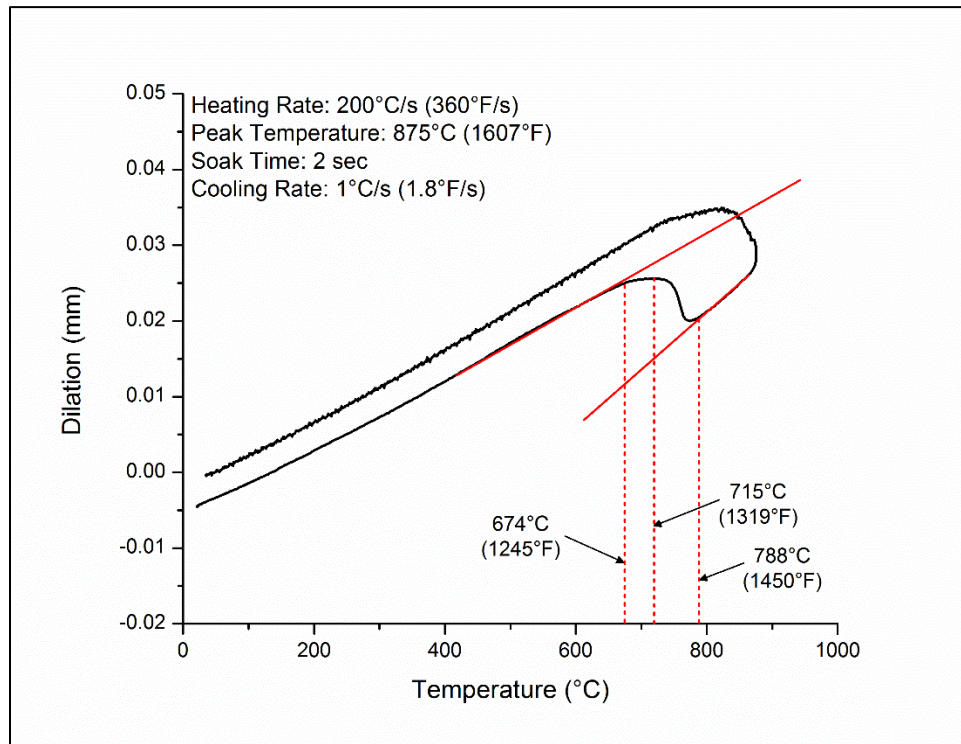


Figure 37. Dilatation curve from a DH36 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 875 °C and cooled at 1 °C/s.

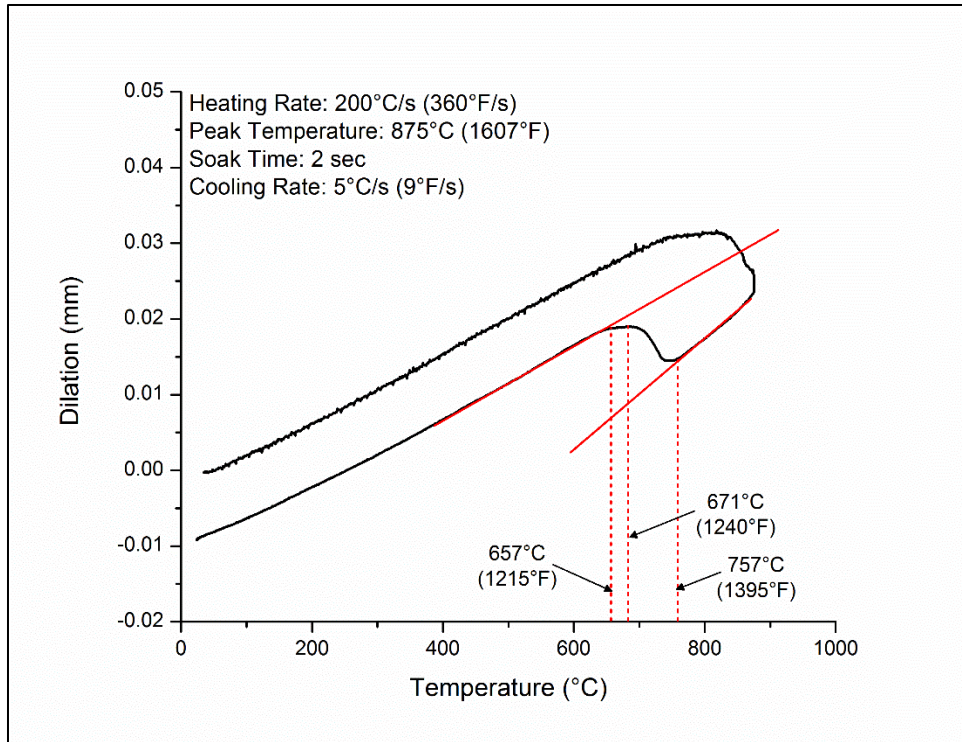


Figure 38. Dilation curve from a DH36 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 875 °C and cooled at 5 °C/s.

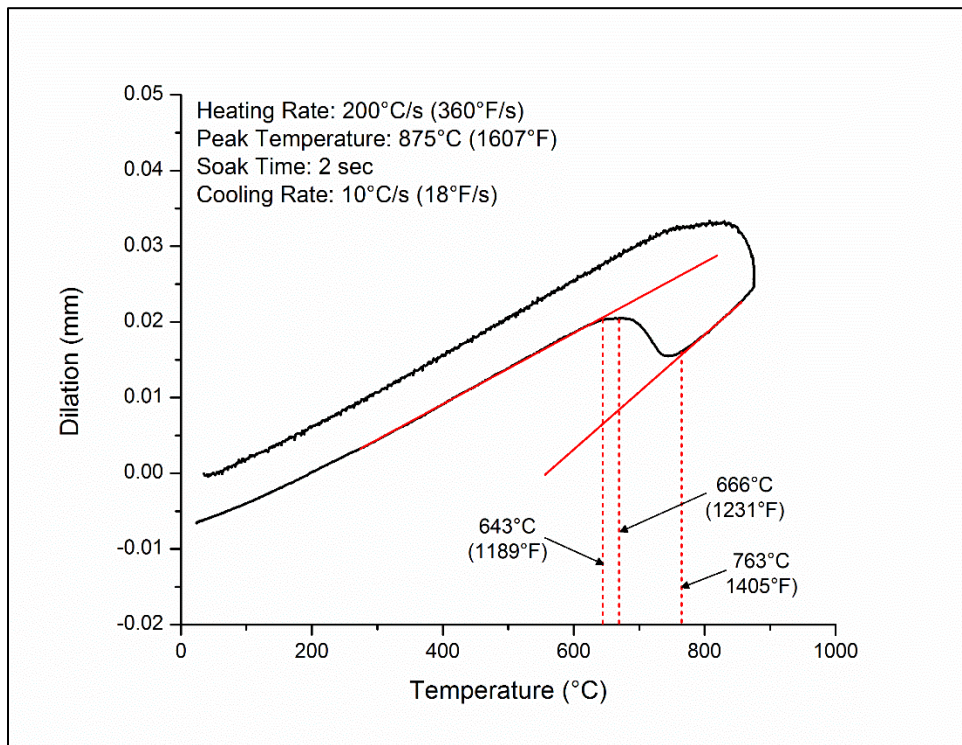


Figure 39. Dilation curve from a DH36 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 875 °C and cooled at 10 °C/s.

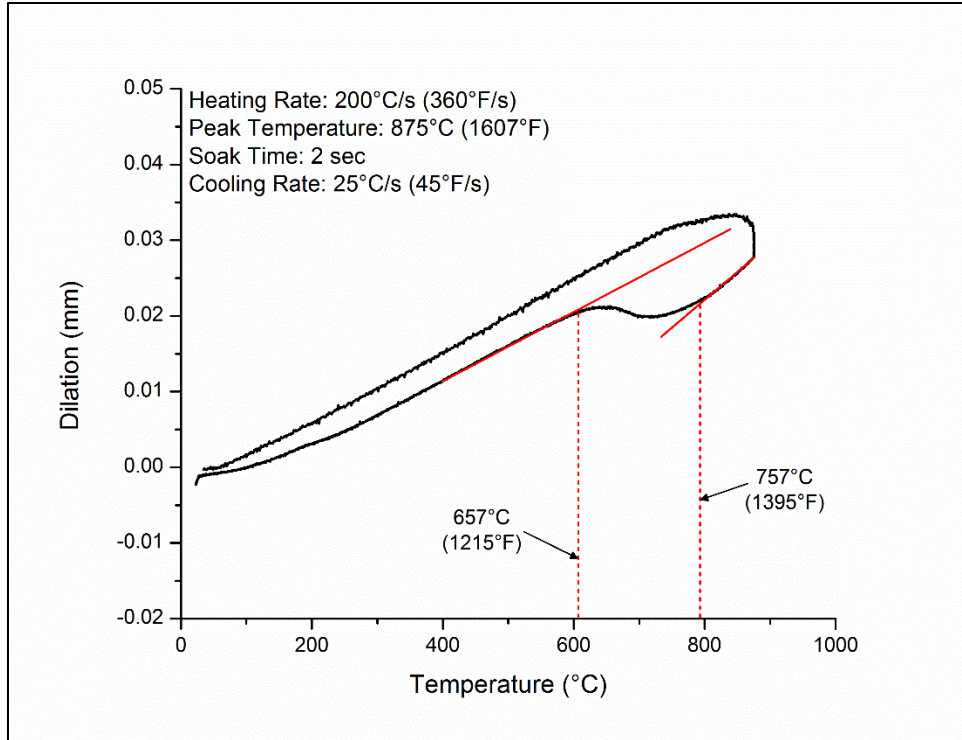


Figure 40. Dilation curve from a DH36 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 875 °C and cooled at 25 °C/s.

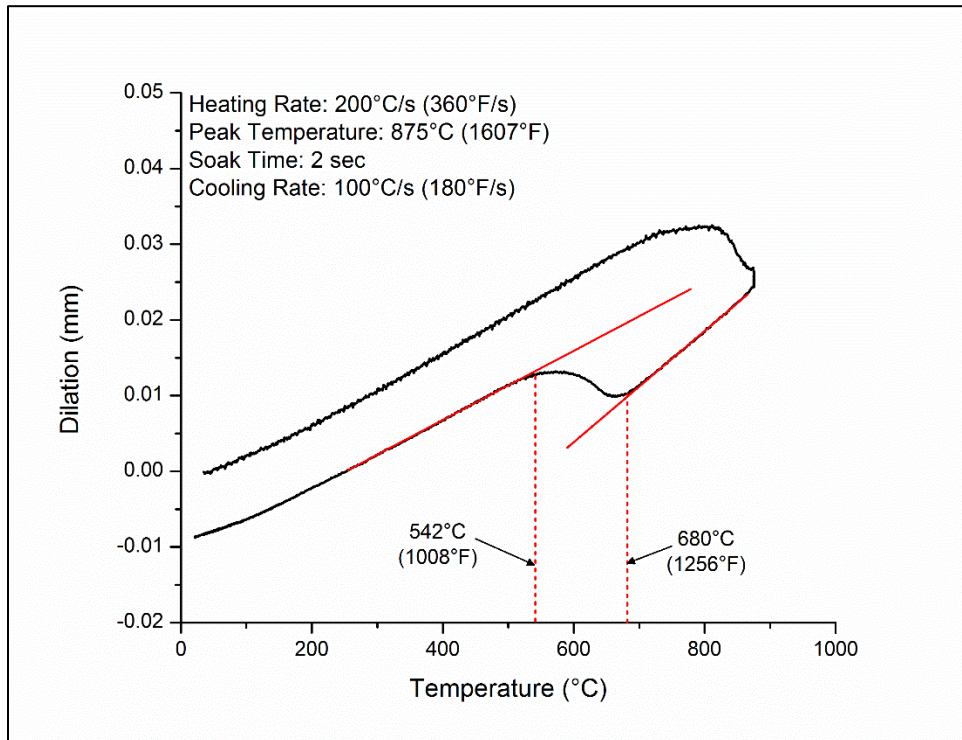


Figure 41. Dilation curve from a DH36 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 875 °C and cooled at 100 °C/s.

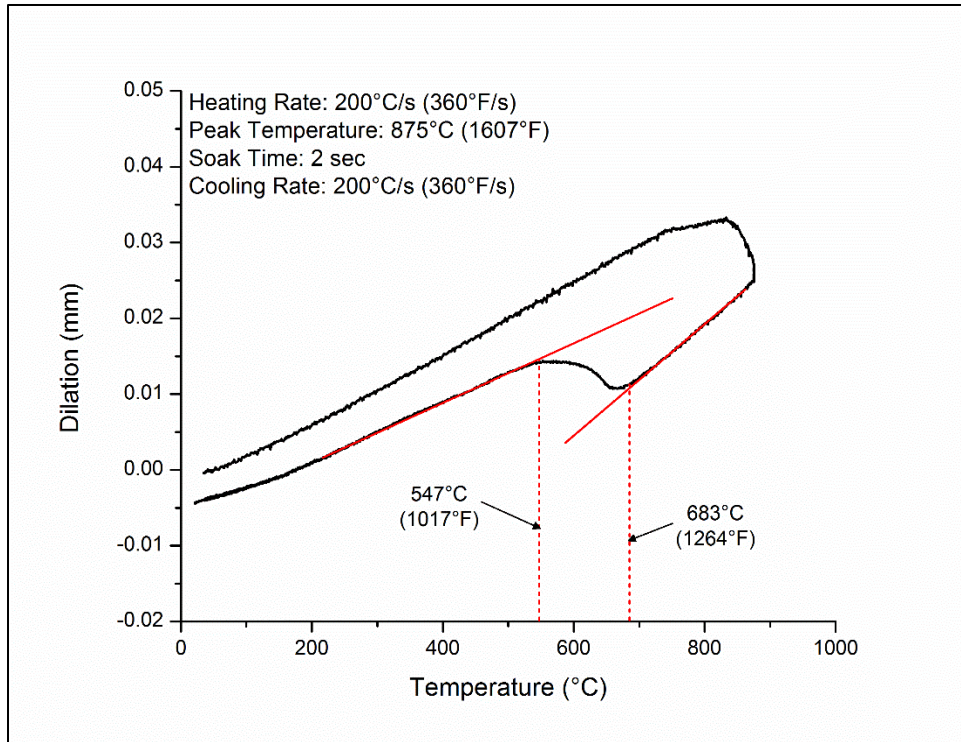


Figure 42. Dilatation curve from a DH36 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 875 °C and cooled at 200 °C/s.

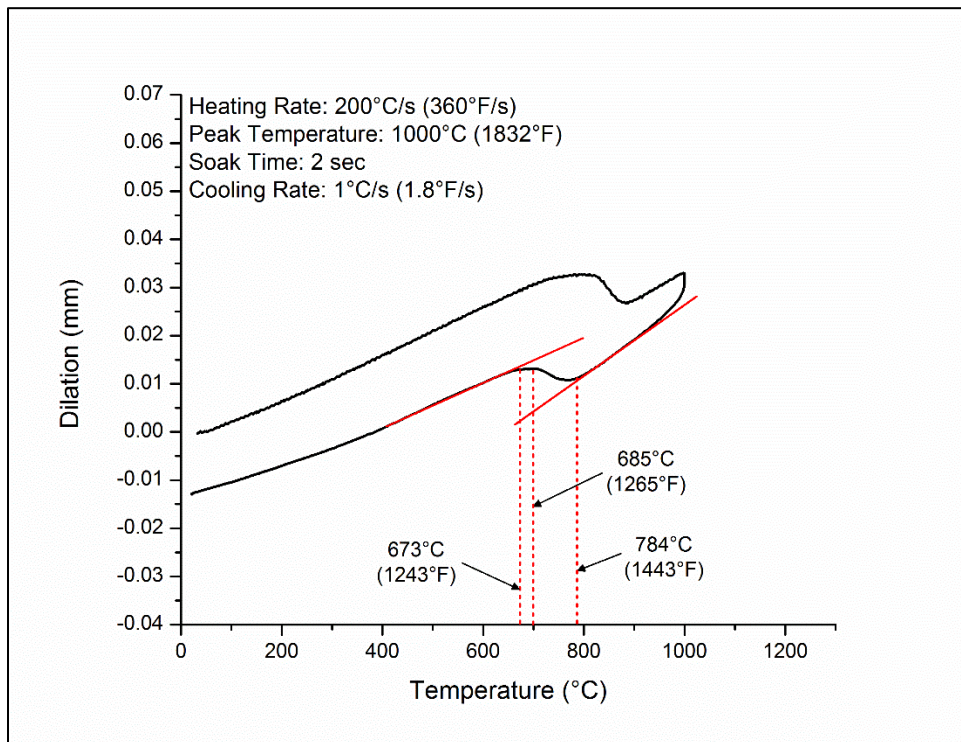


Figure 43. Dilatation curve from a DH36 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1000 °C and cooled at 1 °C/s.

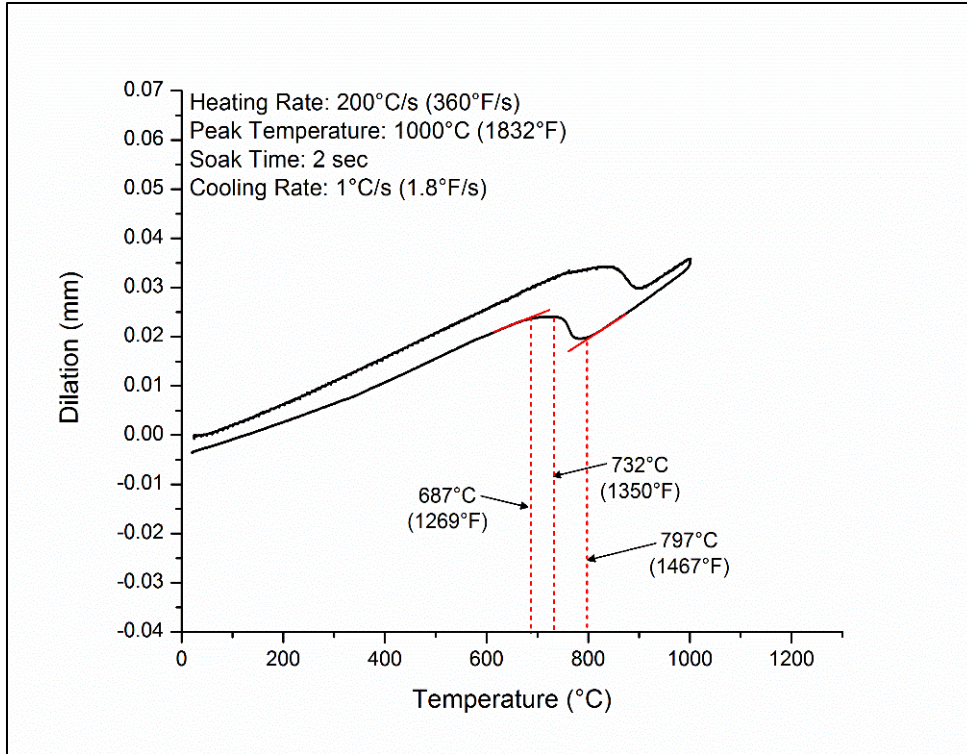


Figure 44. Dilatation curve from duplicate DH36 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1000 °C and cooled at 1 °C/s.

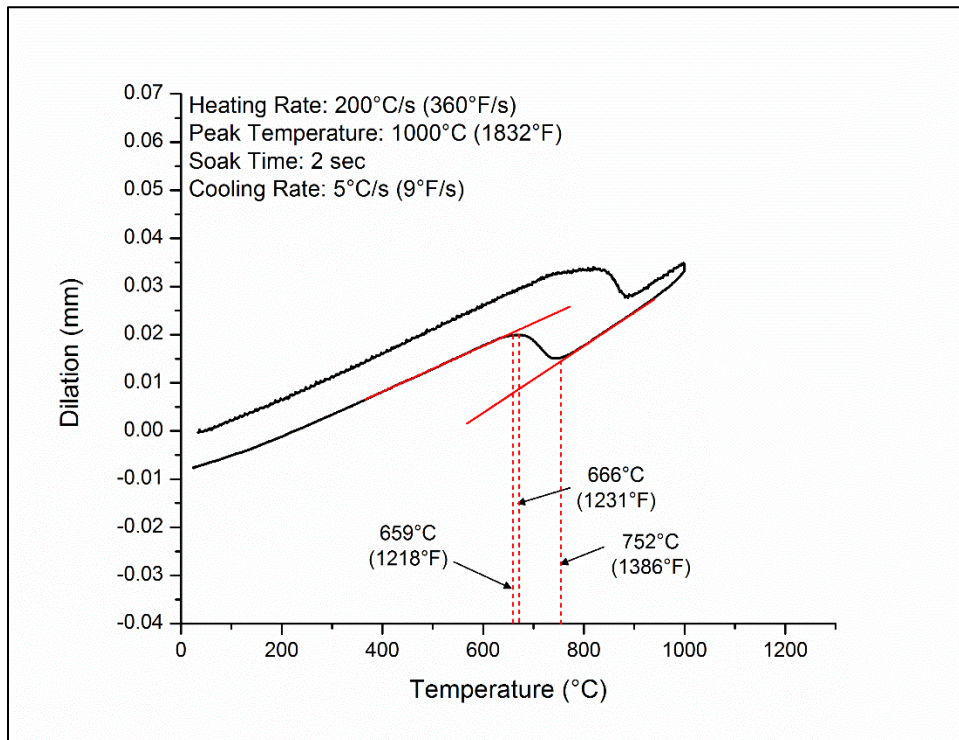


Figure 45. Dilatation curve from a DH36 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1000 °C and cooled at 5 °C/s.

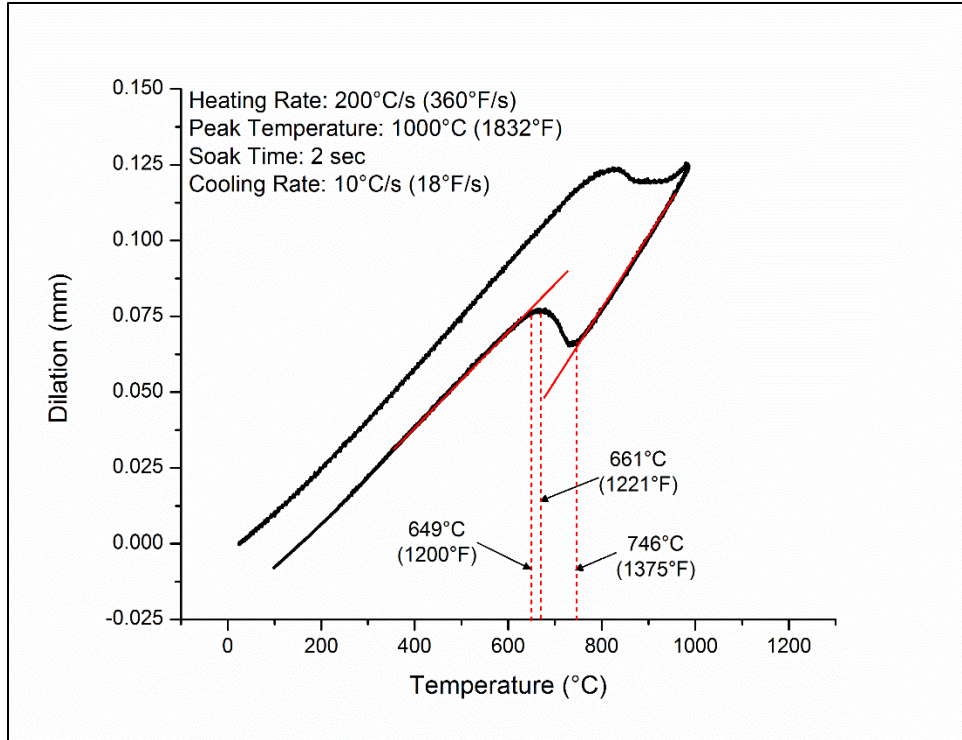


Figure 46. Dilatation curve from a DH36 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1000 °C and cooled at 10 °C/s.

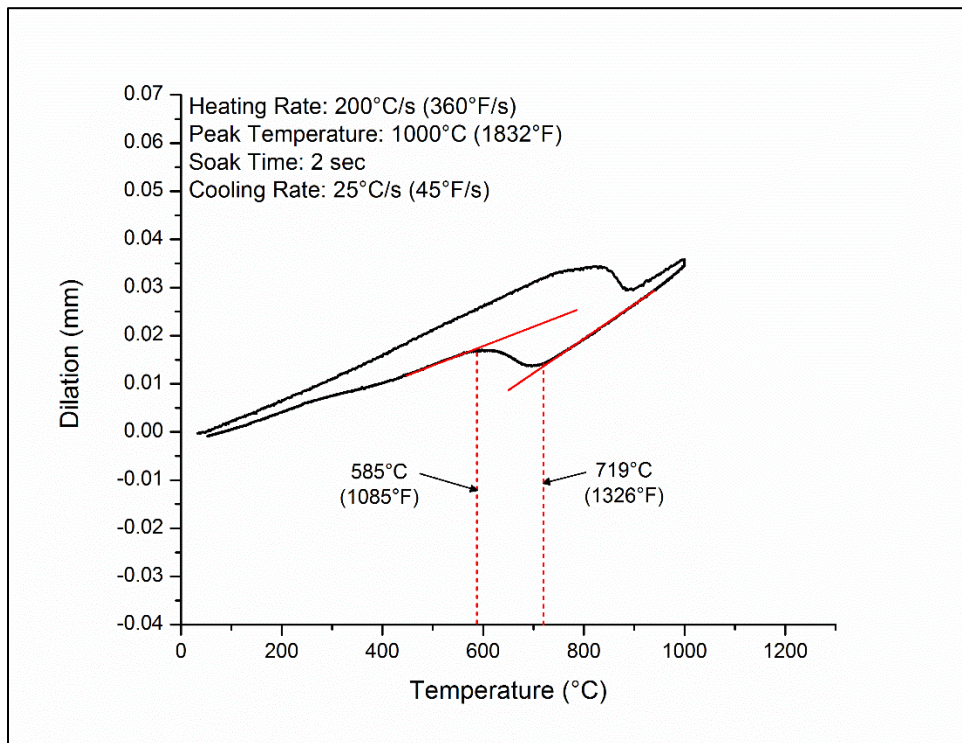


Figure 47. Dilatation curve from a DH36 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1000 °C and cooled at 25 °C/s.

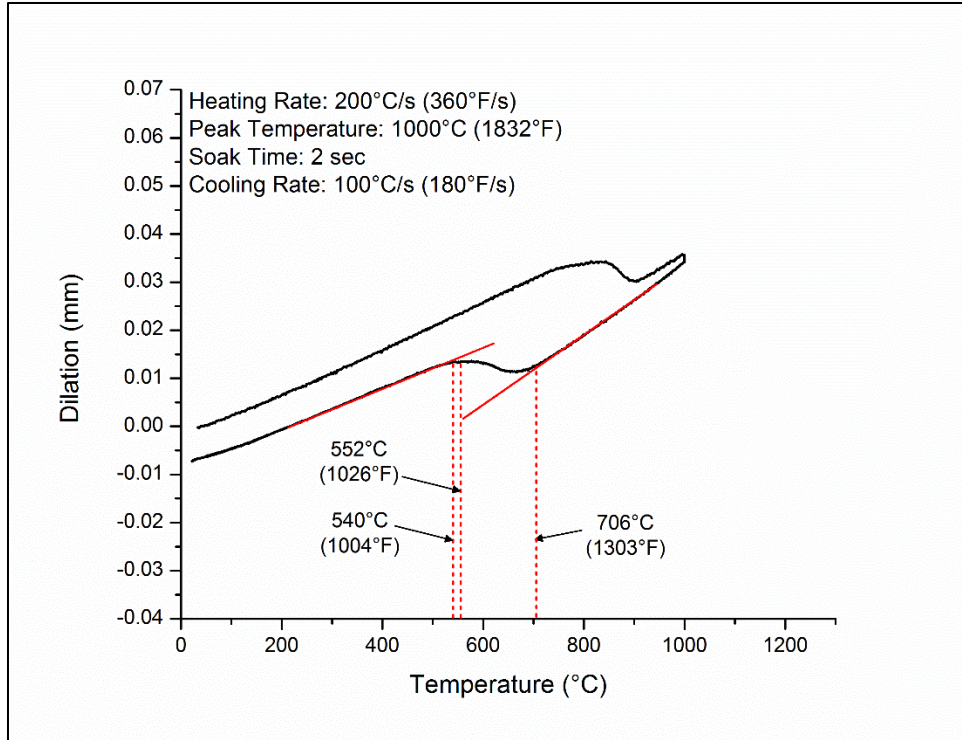


Figure 48. Dilation curve from a DH36 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1000 °C and cooled at 100 °C/s.

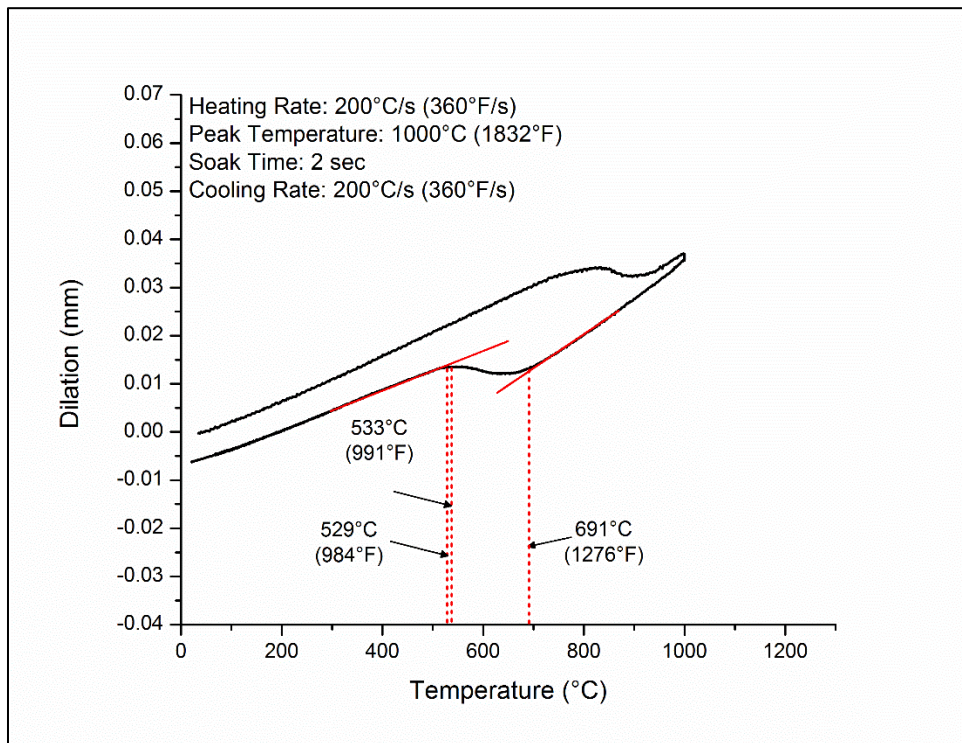


Figure 49. Dilation curve from a DH36 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1000 °C and cooled at 200 °C/s.

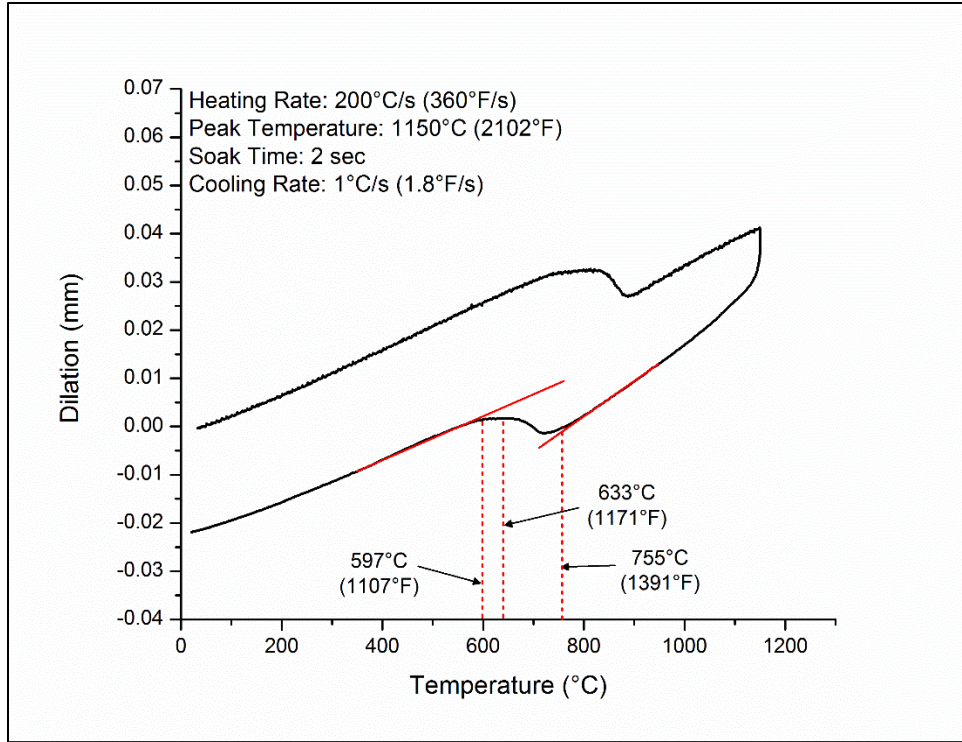


Figure 50. Dilatation curve from a DH36 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1150 °C and cooled at 1 °C/s.

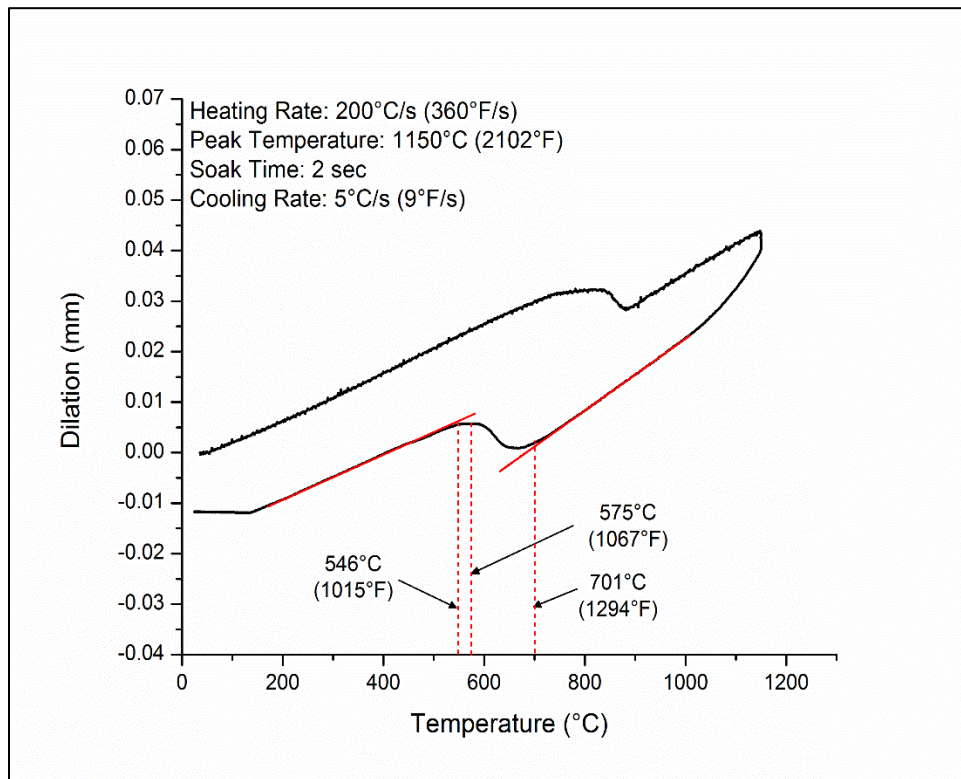


Figure 51. Dilatation curve from a DH36 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1150 °C and cooled at 5 °C/s.

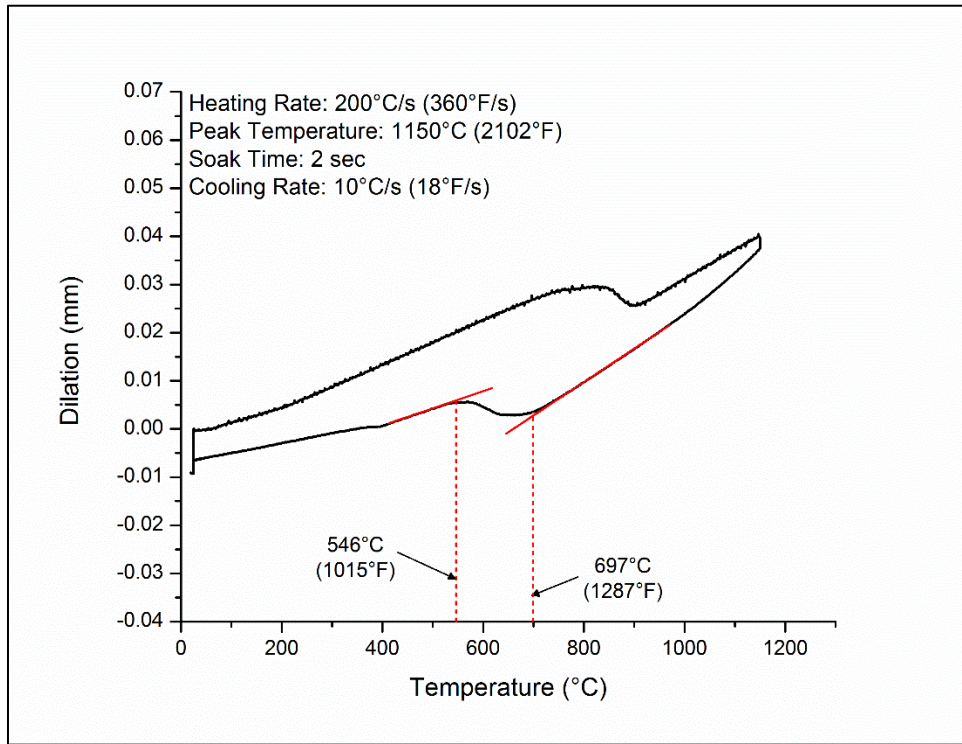


Figure 52. Dilation curve from a DH36 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1150 °C and cooled at 10 °C/s.

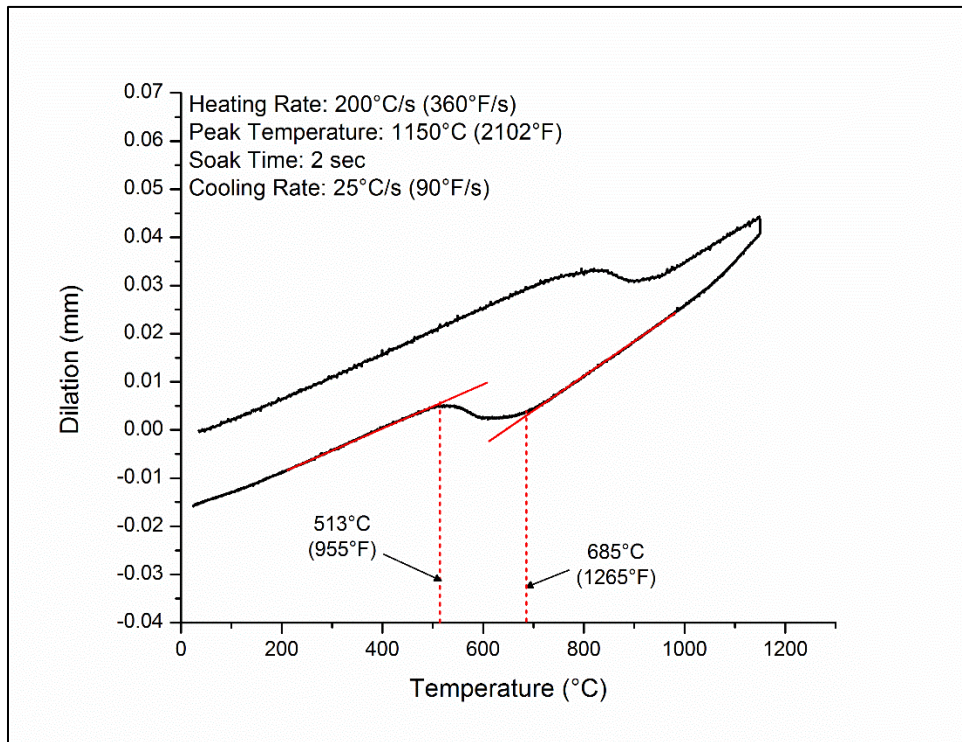


Figure 53. Dilation curve from a DH36 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1150 °C and cooled at 25 °C/s.

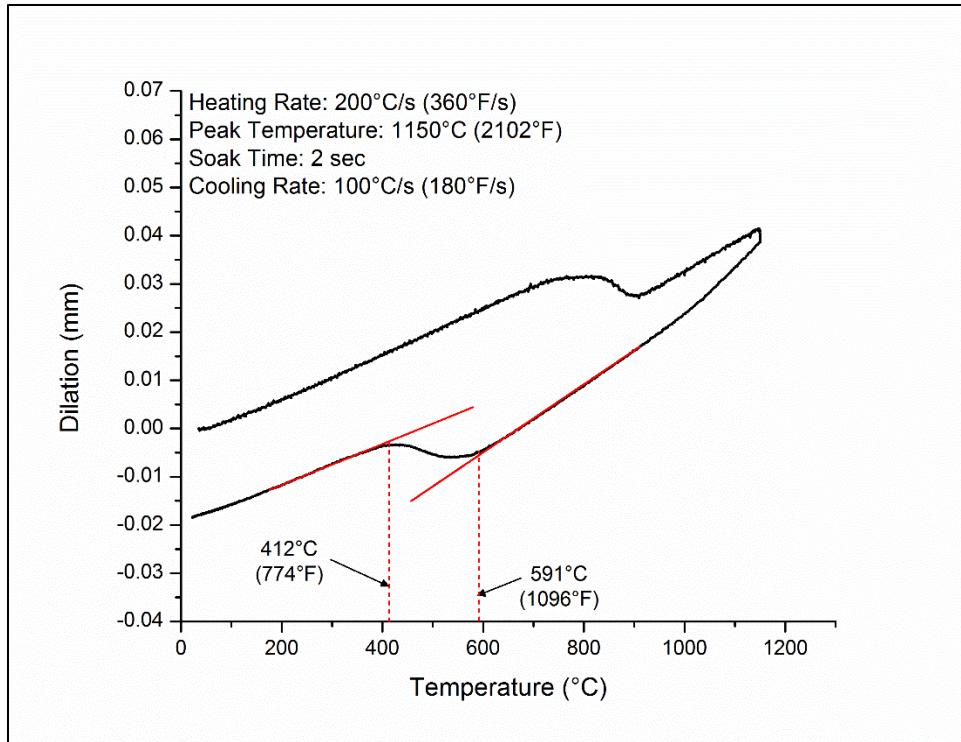


Figure 54. Dilatation curve from a DH36 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1150 °C and cooled at 100 °C/s.

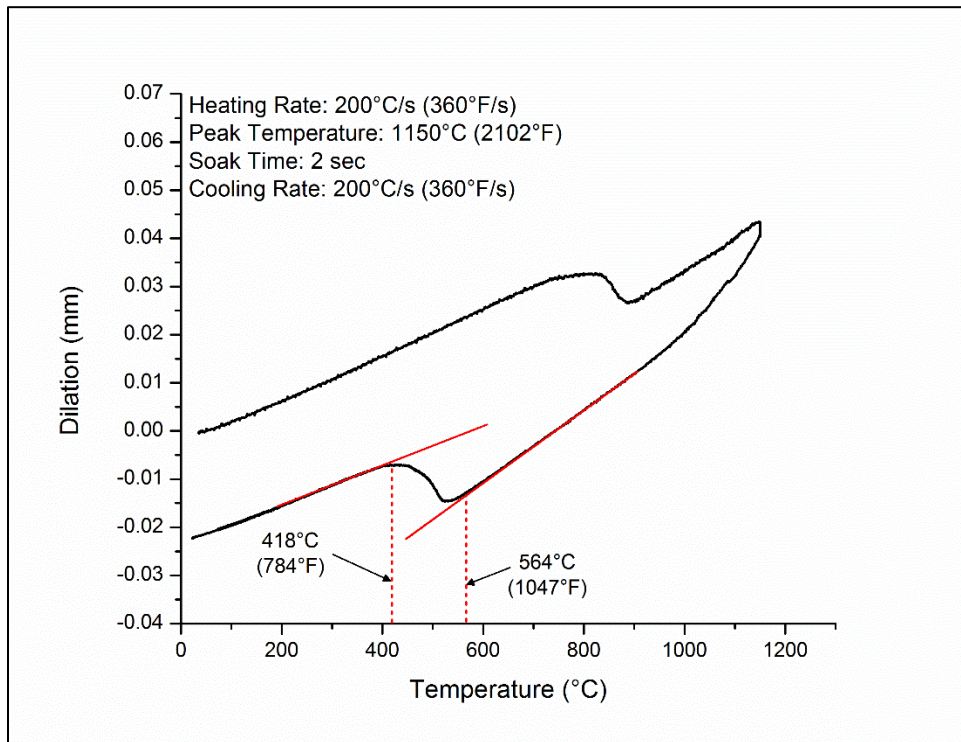


Figure 55. Dilatation curve from a DH36 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1150 °C and cooled at 200 °C/s.

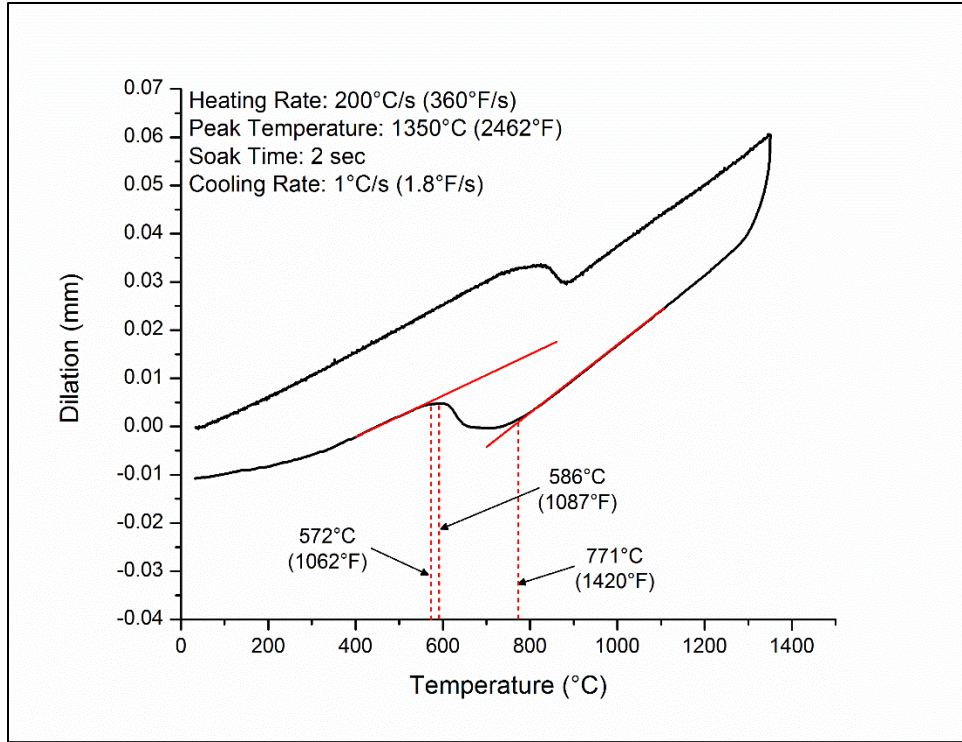


Figure 56. Dilation curve from a DH36 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1350 °C and cooled at 1 °C/s.

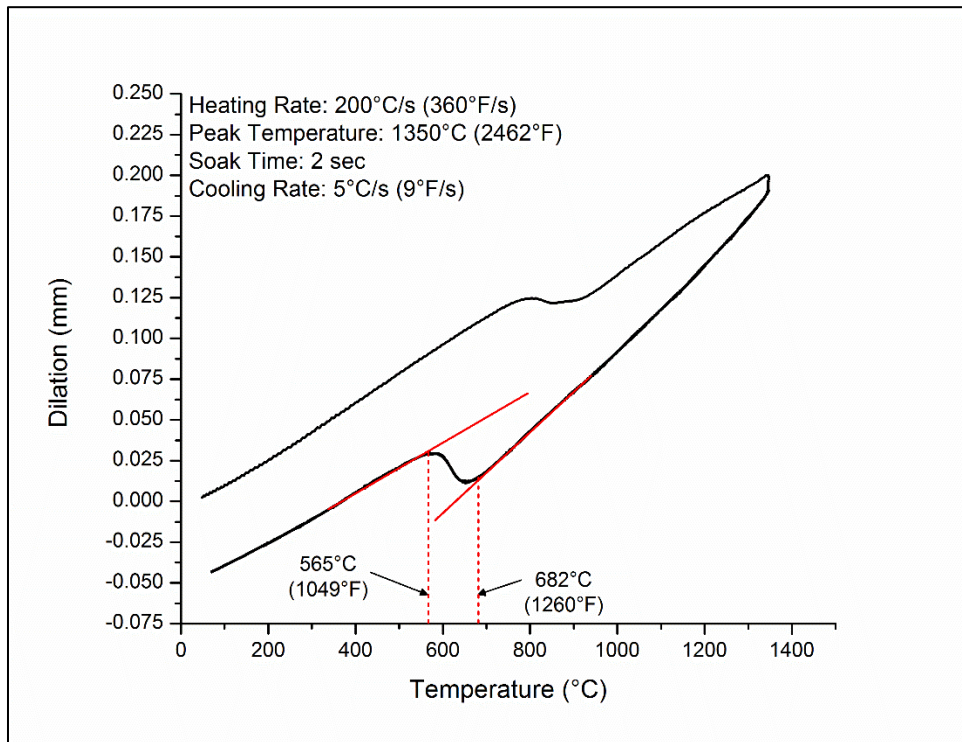


Figure 57. Dilation curve from a DH36 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1350 °C and cooled at 5 °C/s.

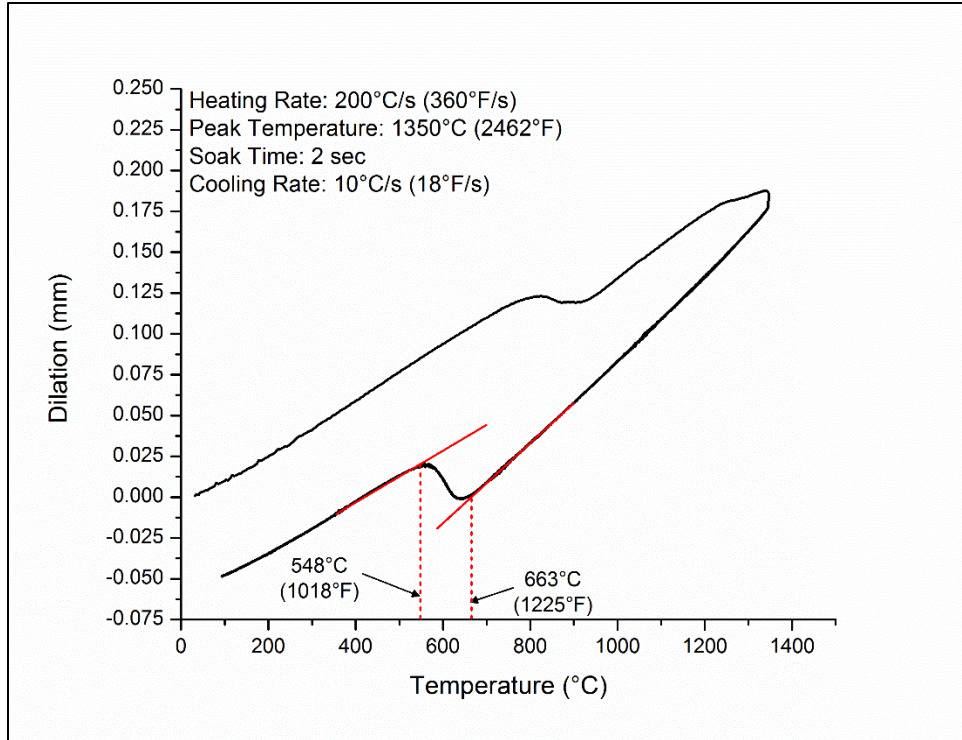


Figure 58. Dilatation curve from a DH36 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1350 °C and cooled at 10 °C/s.

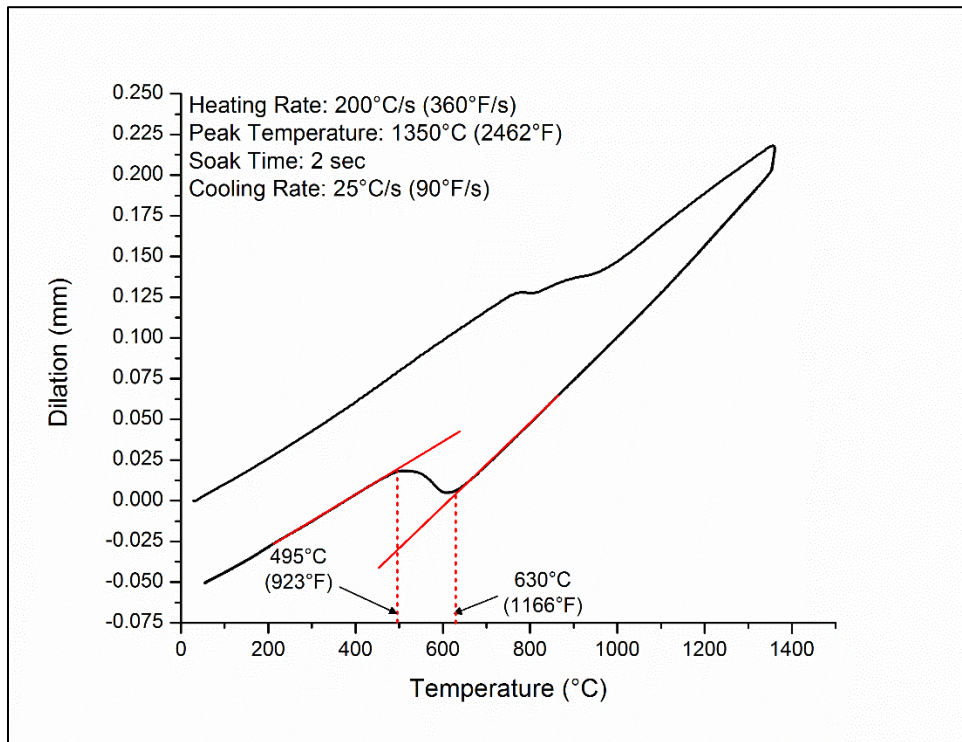


Figure 59. Dilatation curve from a DH36 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1350 °C and cooled at 25 °C/s.

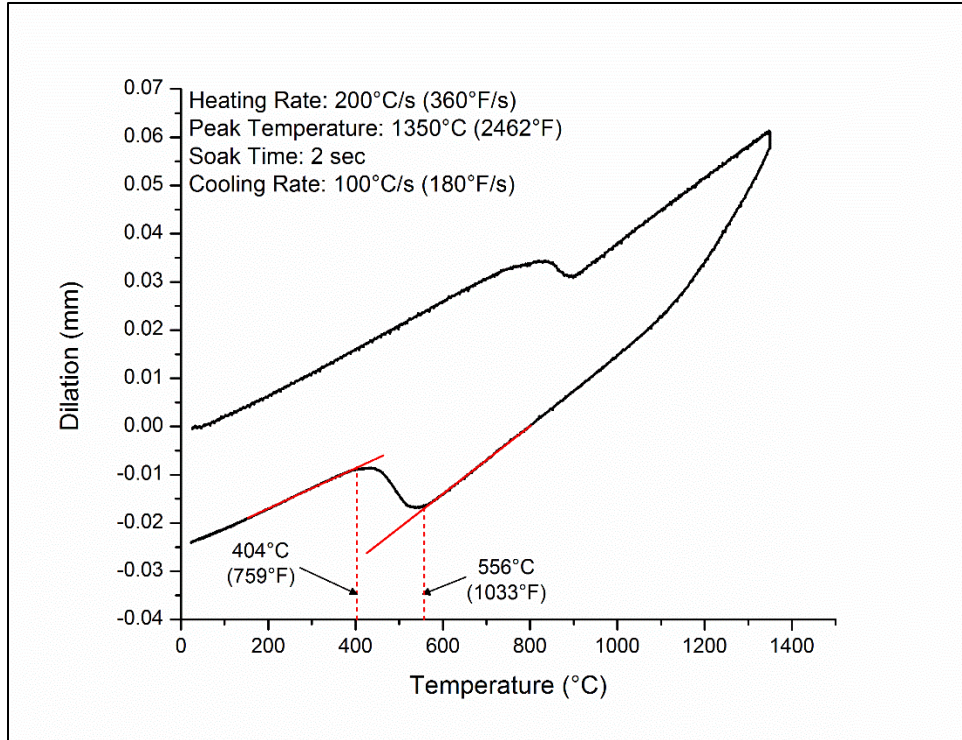


Figure 60. Dilatation curve from a DH36 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1350 °C and cooled at 100 °C/s.

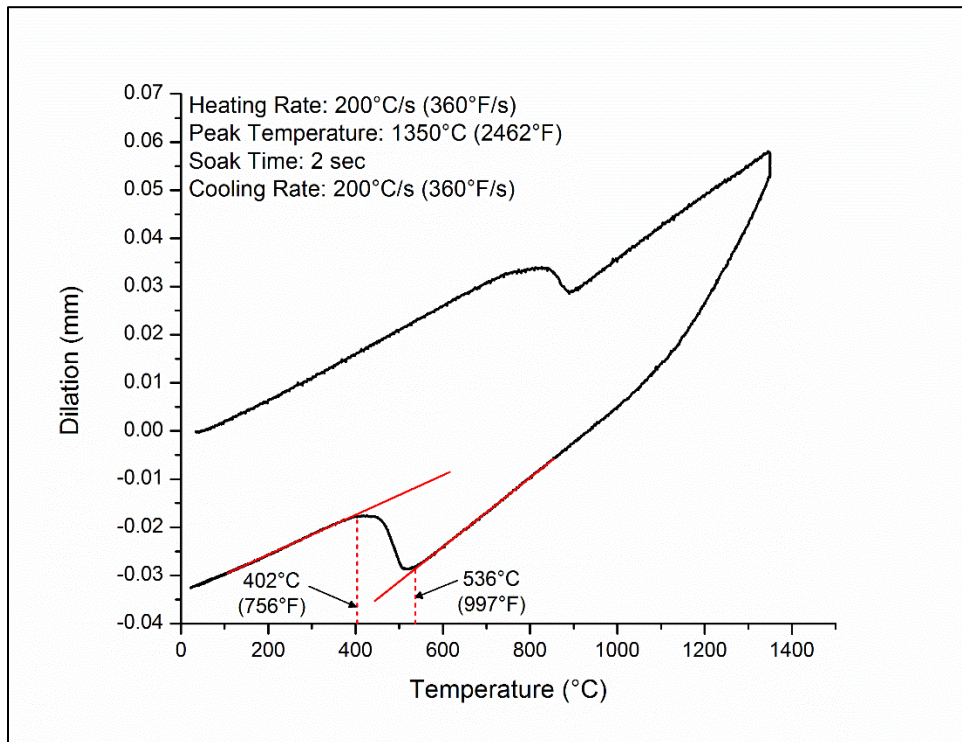


Figure 61. Dilatation curve from a DH36 Gleeble sample heated to a peak temperature of 1350 °C and cooled at 200 °C/s.

Appendix C: Representative Microstructures of DH36 CCT Specimens

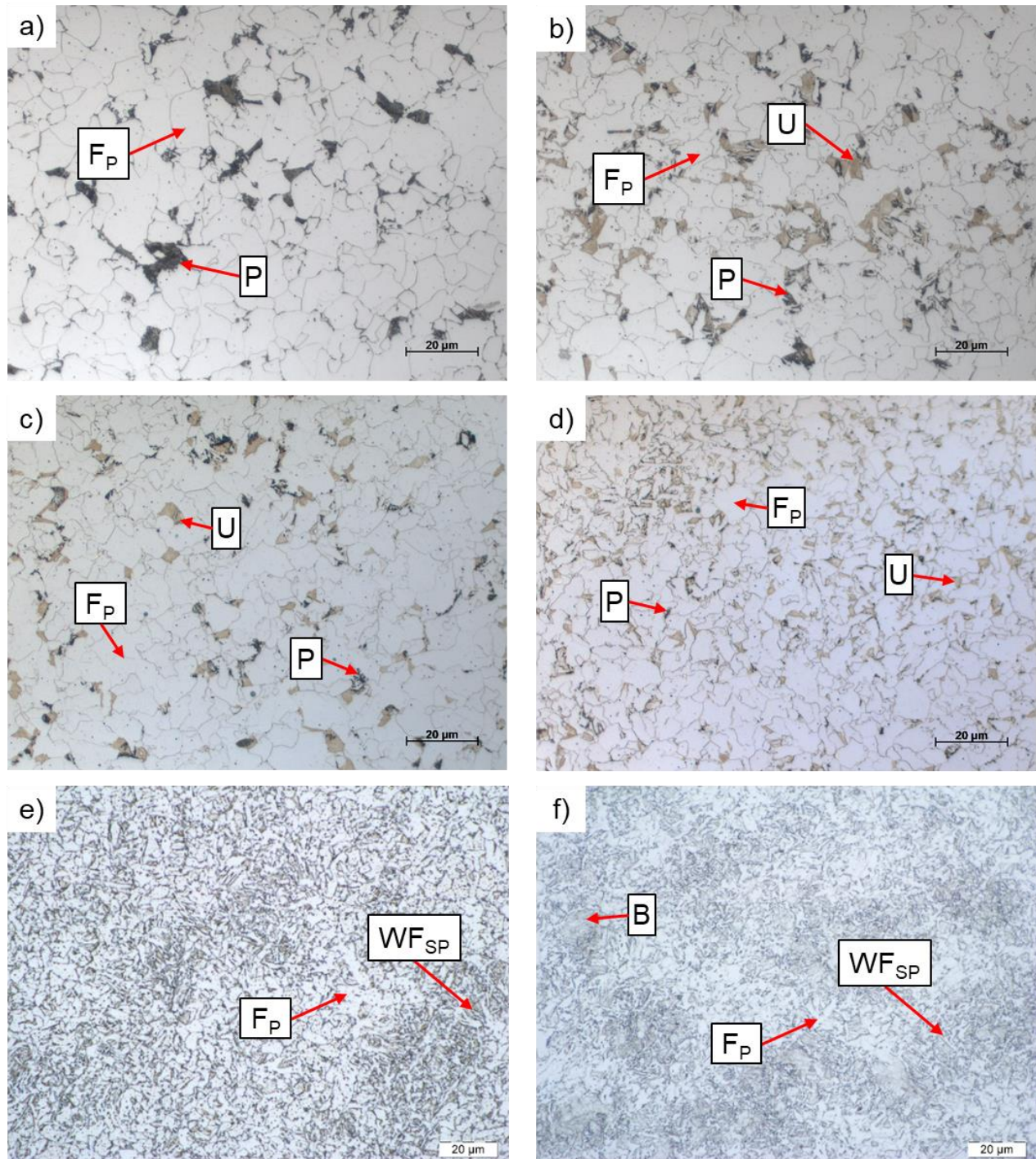


Figure 62. Representative microstructures from DH36 dilatometry specimens heated to a peak temperature of 875 °C (1607 °F) and continuously cooled at various rates. (a-f): 1, 5, 10, 25, 100, and 200 °C/s (1.8, 9, 18, 45, 180, and 360 °F/s).

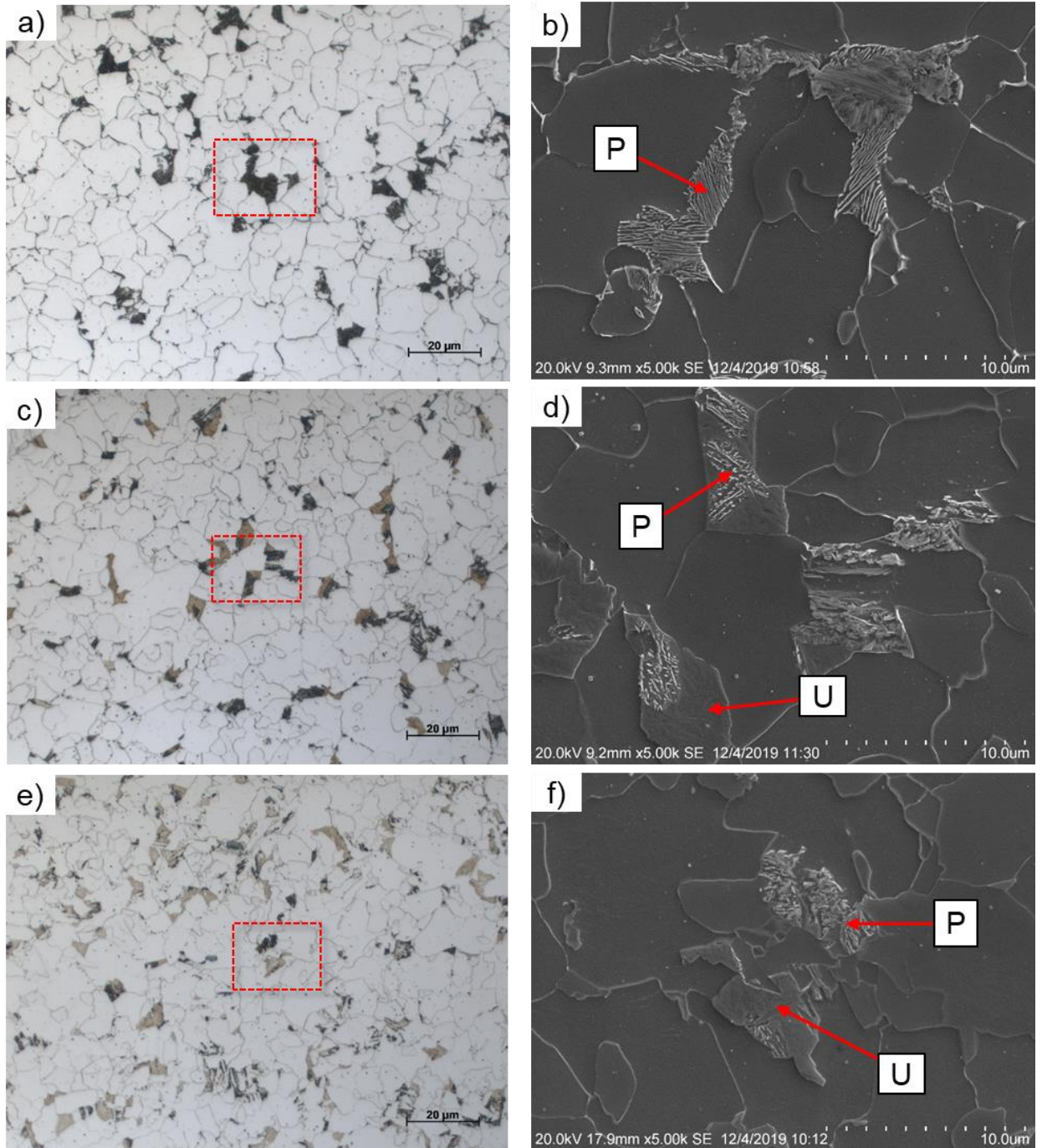


Figure 63. Corresponding LOM and SEM images of the pearlite (P) and light etching microstructural constituents (U) in a DH36 dilatometry specimen heated to a peak temperature of 875 °C (1607 °F) and cooled at 1, 5, and 10 °C/s (1.8, 9, and 18 °F/s). Boxes in the left images highlight the regions presented in the right images.

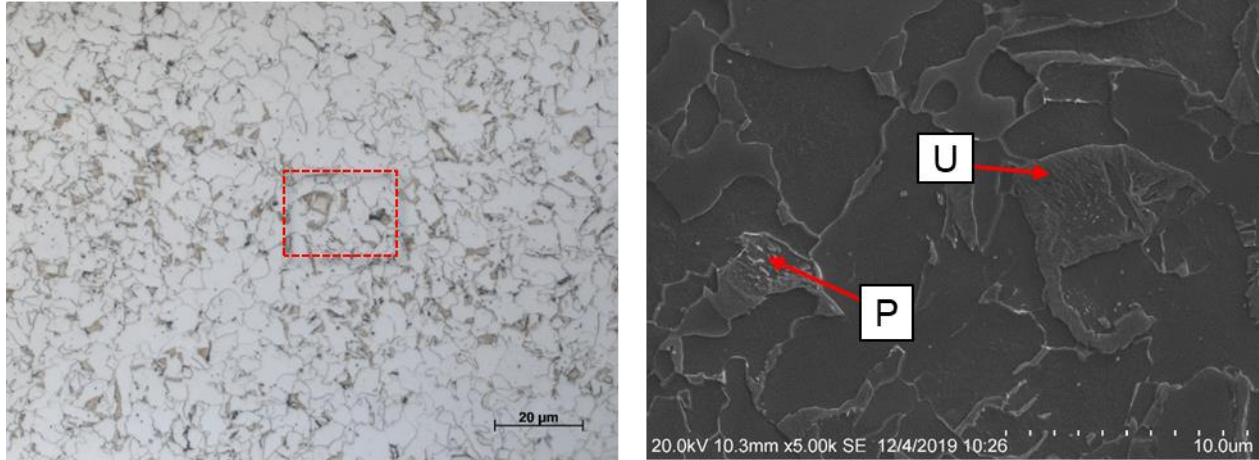


Figure 64. Corresponding LOM and SEM images of the pearlite (P) and light etching microstructural constituents (U) in a DH36 dilatometry specimen heated to a peak temperature of 875 °C (1607 °F) and cooled at 25 °C/s (45 °F/s). Box in the left image highlights the region presented in the right image.

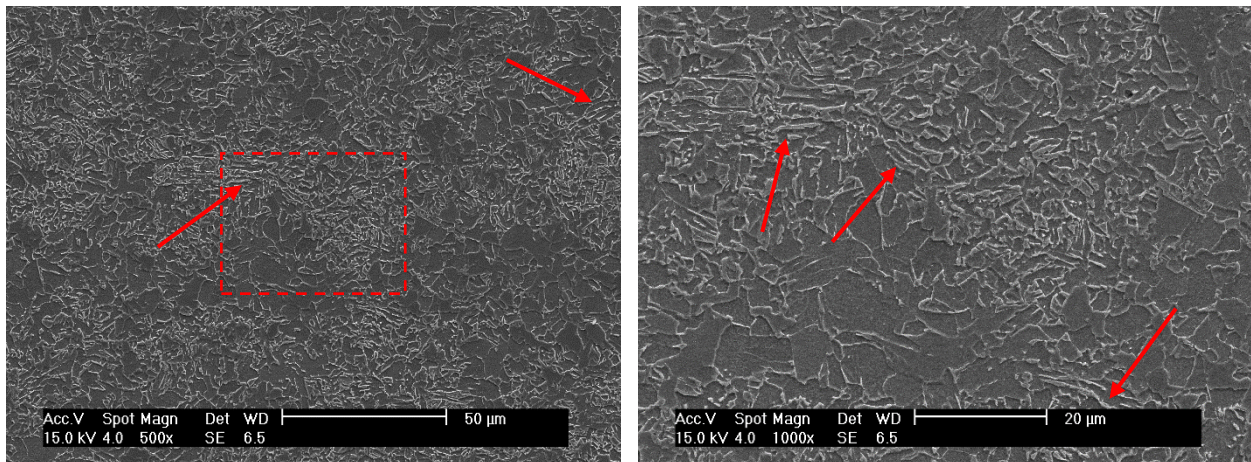


Figure 65. SEM images of the microstructure of a DH36 dilatometry specimen heated to a peak temperature of 875 °C (1607 °F) and cooled at 100 °C/s (180 °F/s). Arrows indicate high aspect ratio constituents. Box in the left image highlights the region presented in the right image.

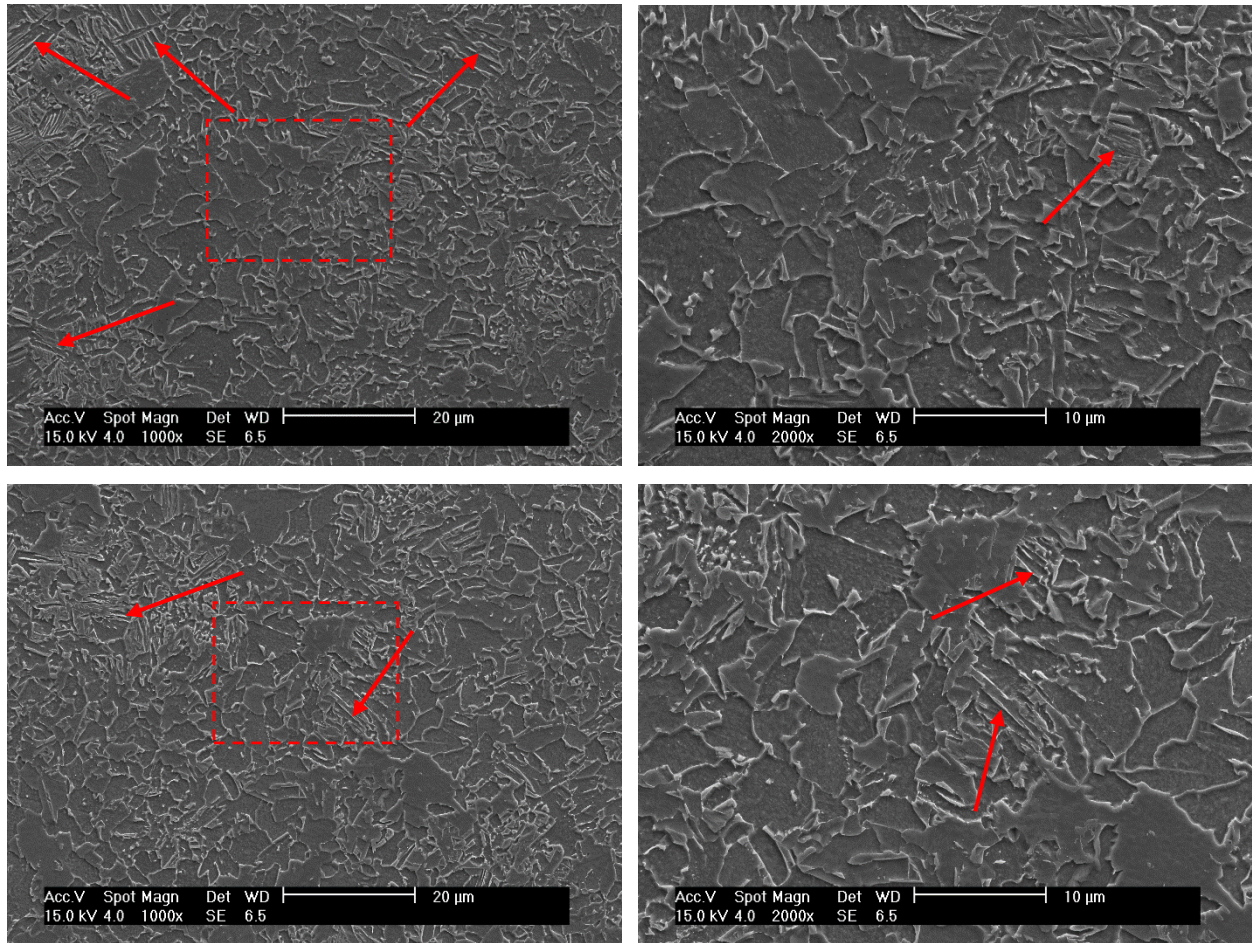


Figure 66. SEM images of microstructure of a DH36 dilatometry specimen heated to a peak temperature of 875 °C (1607 °F) and cooled at 200 °C/s (360 °F/s). Arrows indicate high aspect ratio constituents and possible aligned carbides. Boxes in the left images highlight the regions presented in the right images.

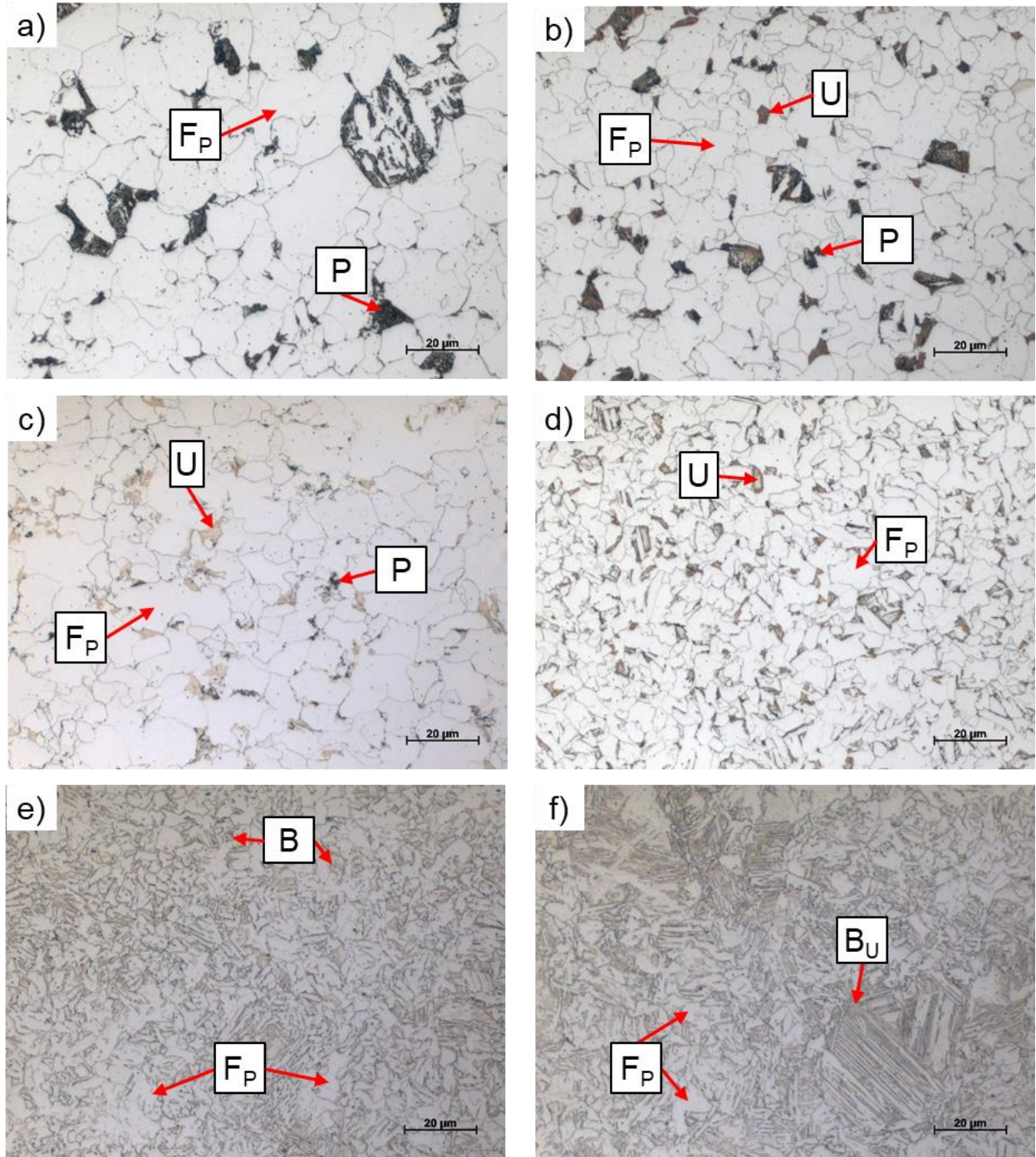


Figure 67. Representative microstructures from DH36 dilatometry specimens heated to a peak temperature of 1000 °C (1832 °F) and continuously cooled at various rates. **(a-f)**: 1, 5, 10, 25, 100, and 200 °C/s (1.8, 9, 18, 45, 180, and 360 °F/s).

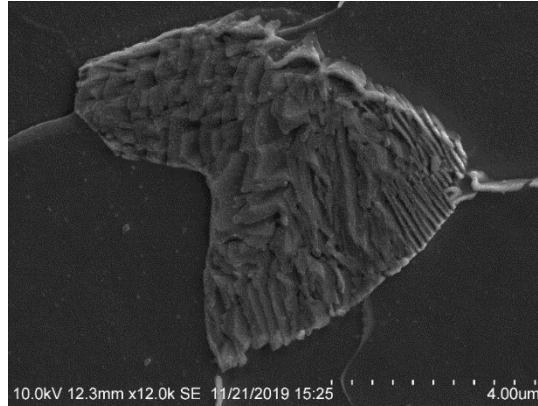


Figure 68. SEM image of a lamellar pearlite colony in a DH36 dilatometry specimen heated to a peak temperature of 1000 °C (1832 °F) and cooled at 1 °C/s (1.8 °F/s).

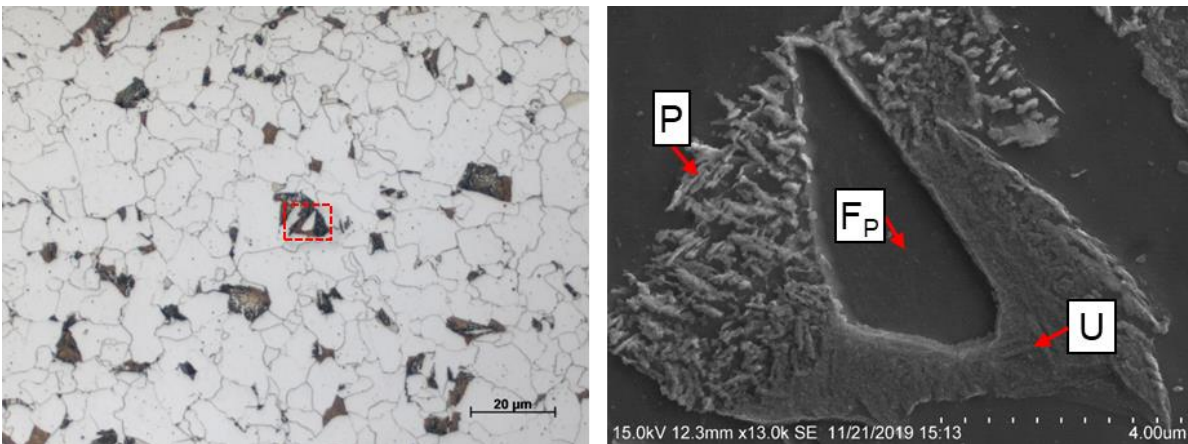


Figure 69. Corresponding LOM and SEM images of degenerate pearlite (P), primary ferrite (F_p) and light-etching carbide aggregate (C) in the microstructure of a DH36 dilatometry specimen heated to a peak temperature of 1000 °C (1832 °F) and cooled at 5 °C/s (9 °F/s). Box in the left image highlights the region presented in the right image.

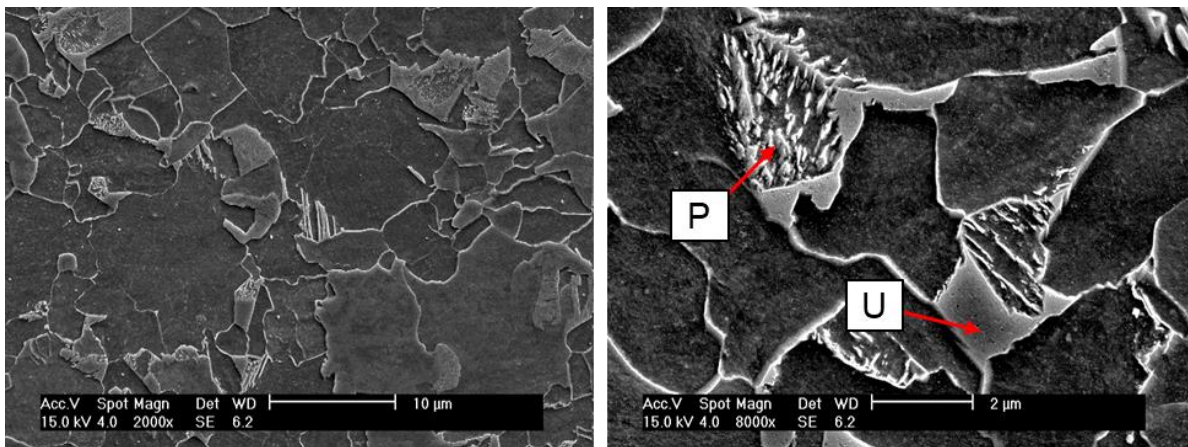


Figure 70. SEM images of degenerate pearlite and light etching carbide aggregate in the microstructure of a DH36 dilatometry specimen heated to a peak temperature of 1000 °C (1832 °F) and cooled at 10 °C/s (18 °F/s).

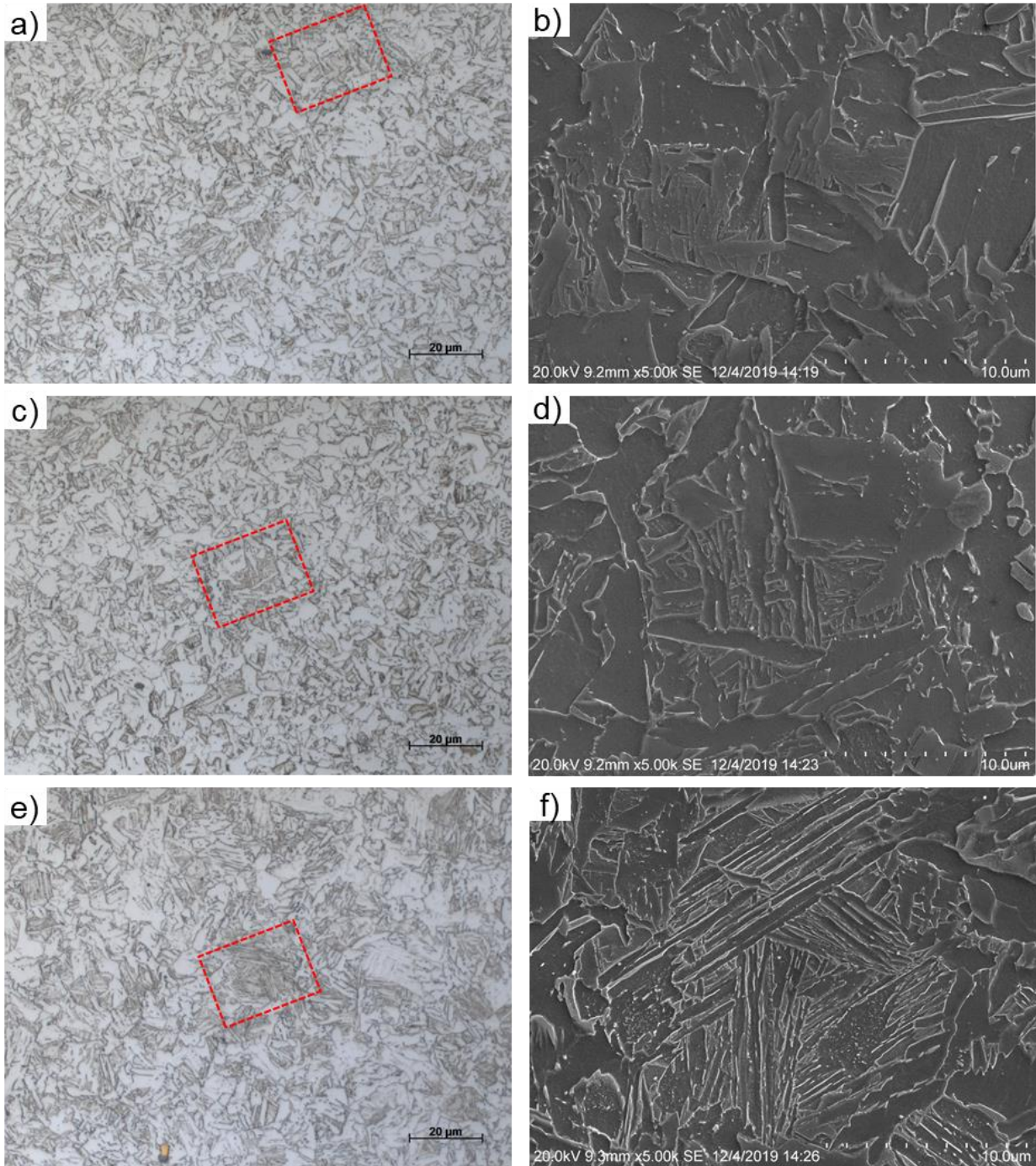


Figure 71. Corresponding LOM and SEM images of degenerate pearlite and light etching carbide aggregate in the microstructure of a DH36 dilatometry specimen heated to a peak temperature of 1000 °C (1832 °F) and cooled at (a-d): 100 °C/s (180 °F/s), (e-f): 200 °C/s (360 °F/s). Boxes in the left images highlight the regions presented in the right images.

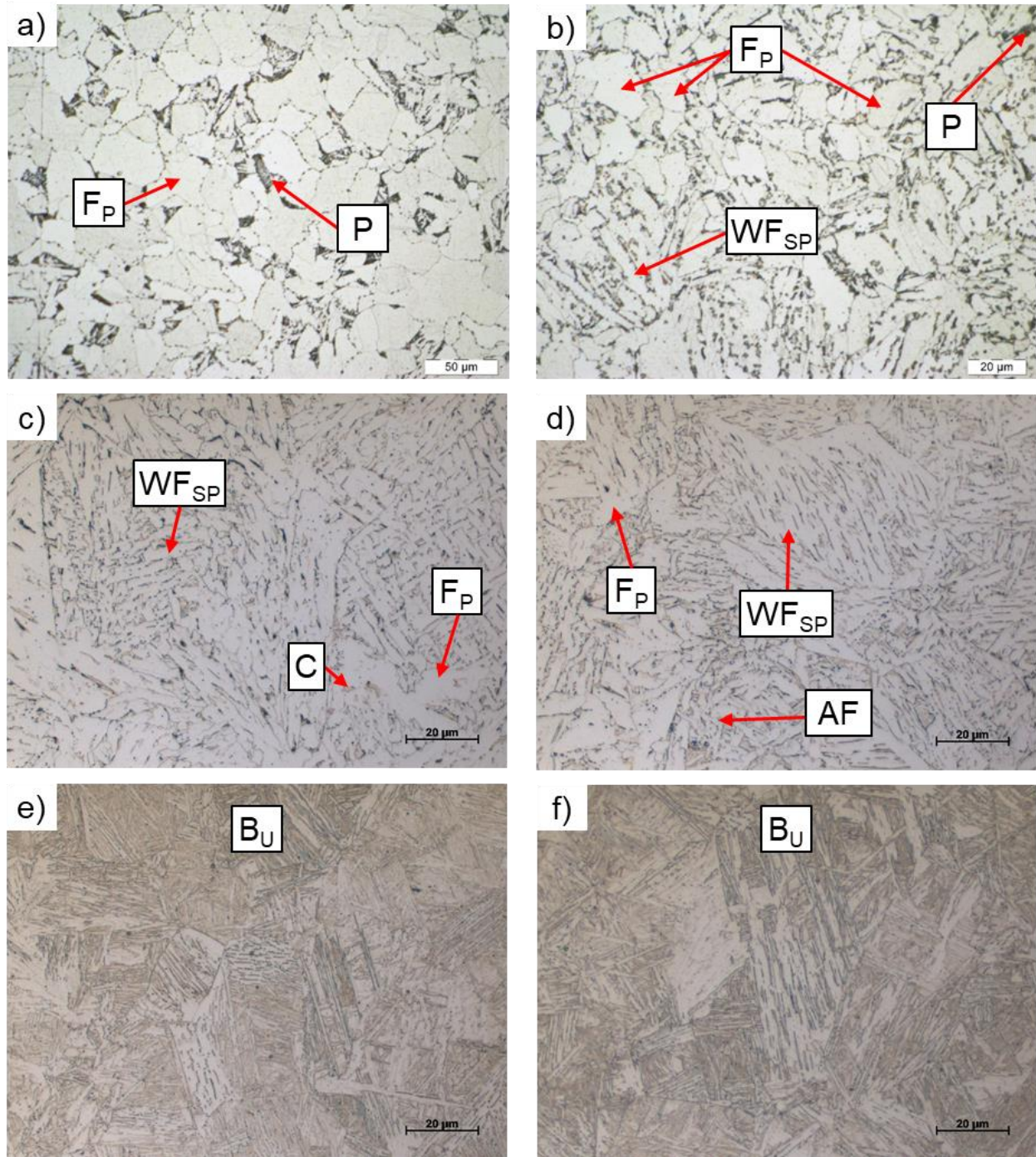


Figure 72. Representative microstructures from DH36 dilatometry specimens heated to a peak temperature of 1150 °C (2102 °F) and continuously cooled at various rates. **(a-f):** 1, 5, 10, 25, 100, and 200 °C/s (1.8, 9, 18, 45, 180, and 360 °F/s).

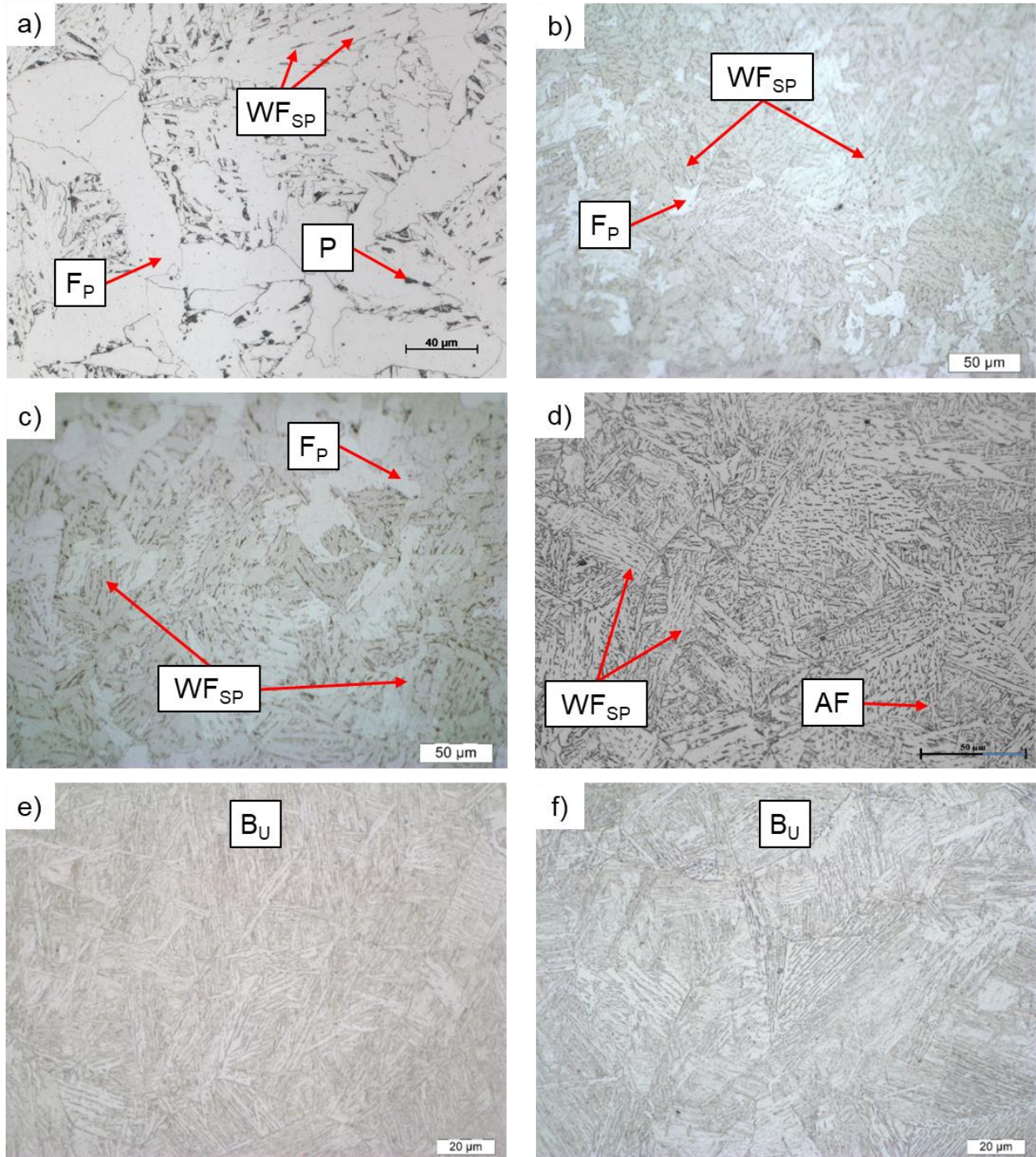


Figure 73. Representative microstructures from DH36 dilatometry specimens heated to a peak temperature of 1350 °C (2462 °F) and continuously cooled at various rates. **(a-f)**: 1, 5, 10, 25, 100, and 200 °C/s (1.8, 9, 18, 45, 180, and 360 °F/s).

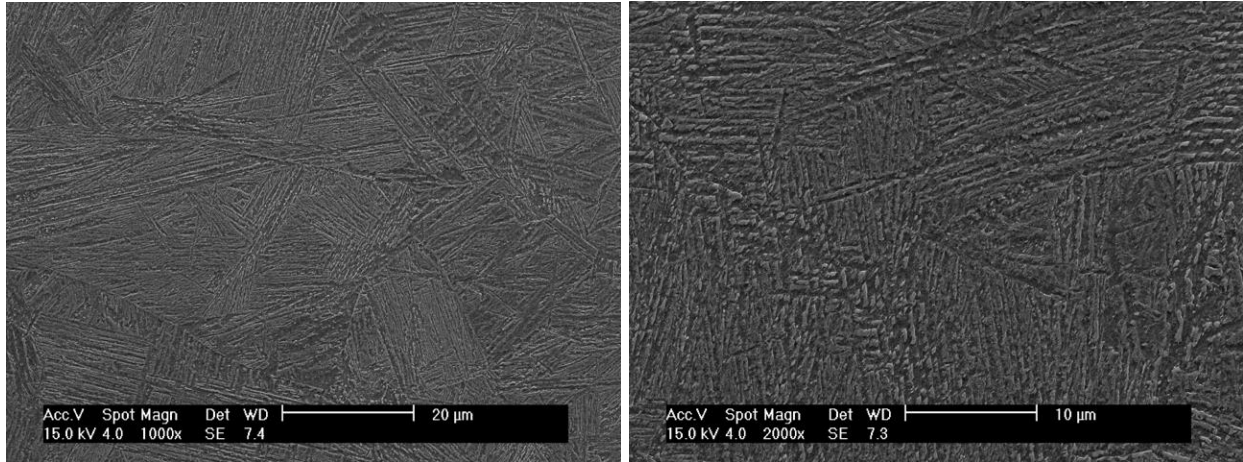


Figure 74. SEM images of the microstructure of a DH36 dilatometry specimen heated to a peak temperature of 1350 °C (2462 °F) and cooled at 100 °C/s (180 °F/s) showing a morphology that appears to be consistent with upper bainite.

Appendix D: Microhardness Measurements

Table 13. Vickers microhardness of DH36 as a function of peak temperature and cooling rate. Errors are one standard deviation. Values in parenthesis are the number of indents measured.

Cooling Rate		Peak Temperature				
		°C	875	1000	1150	1350
°C/s	°F/s	°F	1607	1832	2102	2432
1	1.8	165 ± 5 (45)	155 ± 8 (20)	187 ± 8 (51)	199 ± 9 (15)	
			146 ± 5 (24)			
5	9	177 ± 9 (15)	183 ± 7 (25)	193 ± 5 (40)	195 ± 4 (200)	
10	18	191 ± 5 (20)	176 ± 7 (297)	218 ± 5 (27)	197 ± 5 (100)	
25	45	203 ± 8 (15)	202 ± 6 (30)	232 ± 7 (18)	228 ± 9 (25)	
100	180	222 ± 9 (31)	243 ± 5 (12)	317 ± 19 (39)	320 ± 20 (195)	
200	360	242 ± 14 (40)	263 ± 18 (20)	316 ± 13 (52)	342 ± 17 (115)	

Table 14. Microhardness measurements across the experimental tee joint weldment illustrated in **Figure 19**.

Location	Distance from Fusion Line (μm)	Traverse 1 Hardness (HV)	Traverse 2 Hardness (HV)	Traverse 3 Hardness (HV)
Fusion Zone	-799.03	188	209	203
	-700.2	198	210	204
	-599	202	213	206
	-500	204	209	211
	-400	200	210	210
	-300	211	199	204
	-200	201	206	216
	-99	205	204	210
Fusion Line	0	206	214	202
CGHAZ	100	217	210	218
	201	211	224	207
	300	214	215	206
	399	215	211	196
	500	214	203	208
	600	204	205	200
	700	209	207	202
FGHAZ	799	207	203	205
	899	202	203	205
	1000	204	210	207
	1101	196	203	203
	1199	197	201	198
ICHAZ	1300	197	201	196
	1399	198	198	194
	1499	195	196	191
	1600	194	194	195
	1698	194	191	196
	1799	200	198	187
	1899	194	186	196
	1998	186	190	190
	2099	192	188	203
	2198	185	187	186
2299	186	186	183	
Base Metal	2398	172	193	182
	2497	176	186	177
	2598	179	173	183
	2698	172	187	186
	2797	182	186	195
	2899	193	188	186
	2997	194	181	183
	3098	186	189	185
	3198	185	187	183
	3296	188	194	185
	3398	191	192	197
	3496	188	185	188
3597	180	188	184	

Table 15. Microhardness measurements across the experimental butt joint weldment illustrated in **Figure 20**.

Traverse 1		Traverse 2		Traverse 3		Traverse 4	
Hardness (HV)	Distance (μm)	Hardness (HV)	Distance (μm)	Hardness (HV)	Distance (μm)	Hardness (HV)	Distance (μm)
183	4799.78	224	3.91	182	4350.37	207	-300.12
187	4650	207	155	172	4200	204	-150
190	4500	209	304	176	4050	215	0
187	4350	206	454	183	3900	207	151
188	4200	202	604	192	3750	205	301
185	4050	206	754	188	3600	199	451
185	3901	206	904	185	3450	197	601
186	3750	213	1054	187	3300	202	751
183	3601	201	1205	188	3150	210	900
188	3450	198	1354	188	3000	211	1050
185	3300	203	1504	193	2850	220	1200
182	3150	196	1654	201	2701	215	1351
180	3000	191	1803	202	2550	216	1500
178	2850	195	1954	194	2400	213	1650
175	2700	197	2104	196	2250	203	1800
180	2550	193	2253	196	2100	198	1950
182	2400	193	2404	197	1950	195	2100
186	2250	188	2554	197	1800	190	2250
182	2100	174	2704	201	1650	189	2400
188	1950	177	2854	209	1499	177	2550
190	1800	179	3004	211	1350	183	2700
197	1650	181	3154	209	1200	180	2850
197	1500	179	3304	205	1050	182	2999
198	1350	178	3454	200	900	186	3150
195	1200	180	3603	201	751	186	3300
203	1051	179	3754	207	600	191	3450
205	900	177	3904	204	450	191	3600
202	751	172	4054	215	301	190	3749
210	600	175	4203	205	151	189	3900
208	450	172	4354	210	0	186	4049
209	300	178	4503	213	-149	188	4200
214	150	182	4654	212	-300	191	4349
215	0	186	4803	209	-450	185	4500
214	-150	181	4953	216	-601	188	4650
206	-300	184	5104	211	-750	190	4799
229	-449	186	5253	207	-899	193	4950
218	-600	188	5404	220	-1050	185	5099
229	-751	184	5553	215	-1200	182	5250
218	-900	184	5704	222	-1349	187	5399
216	-1049	184	5854	215	-1500	191	5550
						184	5699

Appendix E: Thermo-Physical Property Datasets for DH36

Table 16. Experimentally measured coefficient of thermal expansion (CTE) of DH36.

Facility	Temperature Range (°C)	Derived CTE (10 ⁻⁶ °C ⁻¹)	Average CTE (10 ⁻⁶ °C ⁻¹)	1σ (10 ⁻⁶ °C ⁻¹)
NSWCCD	100-650	16.0	16.0	0.4
		16.2		
		16.3		
		16.1		
		15.9		
		15.3		
	950-1300	21.7	20.8	1.4
		22.6		
		21.7		
		19.1		
		19.6		
		20.4		
Ohio State	100-650	15.5	15.2	0.5
		15.5		
		15.6		
		14.8		
		14.4		
	950-1300	18.9	21.0	2.9
		17.6		
		20.6		
		24.3		
		23.8		
Combined	100-650	-	15.6	0.6
	950-1300	-	20.9	2.1

Table 17. Experimentally measured specific heat of DH36.

Temperature (°C)	c_p (J/g·°C)	(°C)	c_p (J/g·°C)	(°C)	c_p (J/g·°C)	(°C)	c_p (J/g·°C)
23	0.4587	370	0.5932	720	0.9436	1070	0.5940
30	0.4607	380	0.5978	730	0.9796	1080	0.5965
40	0.4647	390	0.6023	740	1.0293	1090	0.5989
50	0.4686	400	0.6072	750	1.1881	1100	0.6013
60	0.4718	410	0.6135	760	1.2325	1110	0.6036
70	0.4758	420	0.6192	770	1.0689	1120	0.6059
80	0.4798	430	0.6255	780	0.9652	1130	0.6080
90	0.4840	440	0.6308	790	0.8932	1140	0.6102
100	0.4882	450	0.6348	800	0.8451	1150	0.6123
110	0.4923	460	0.6406	810	0.8336	1160	0.6143
120	0.4964	470	0.6462	820	0.8215	1170	0.6162
130	0.5004	480	0.6512	830	0.8173	1180	0.6181
140	0.5042	490	0.6577	840	0.8231	1190	0.6200
150	0.5080	500	0.6639	850	0.8293	1200	0.6218
160	0.5117	510	0.6705	860	0.8423	1210	0.6233
170	0.5153	520	0.6746	870	0.8327	1220	0.6249
180	0.5189	530	0.6811	880	0.7754	1230	0.6265
190	0.5227	540	0.6904	890	0.7238	1240	0.6280
200	0.5263	550	0.6926	900	0.6575	1250	0.6296
210	0.5302	560	0.6959	910	0.6212	1260	0.6312
220	0.5339	570	0.7031	920	0.5904	1270	0.6324
230	0.5378	580	0.7085	930	0.5914	1280	0.6336
240	0.5416	590	0.7193	940	0.5747	1290	0.6348
250	0.5454	600	0.7273	950	0.5783	1300	0.6360
260	0.5491	610	0.7365	960	0.5753	1310	0.6372
270	0.5530	620	0.7518	970	0.5774	1320	0.6384
280	0.5568	630	0.7622	980	0.5687	1330	0.6392
290	0.5607	640	0.7813	990	0.5838	1340	0.6742
300	0.5645	650	0.7977	1000	0.5752	1350	0.7384
310	0.5682	660	0.8159	1010	0.5780	1360	0.8572
320	0.5719	670	0.8340	1020	0.5808	1370	0.6955
330	0.5762	680	0.8529	1030	0.5836	1380	0.6923
340	0.5801	690	0.8715	1040	0.5863	1390	1.7954
350	0.5844	700	0.8929	1050	0.5889	1400	0.6988
360	0.5889	710	0.9152	1060	0.5915		

Table 18. Experimentally measured thermal properties of DH36.

Temperature (°C)	Thermal Diffusivity (cm²/sec)	Density (g/cm³)	Thermal Conductivity (W/cm-°C)
23	0.11136	7.806	0.3987
50	0.11193	7.798	0.4090
100	0.11040	7.783	0.4195
200	0.10490	7.751	0.4279
300	0.09607	7.714	0.4183
400	0.08621	7.677	0.4019
500	0.07468	7.641	0.3788
600	0.06414	7.603	0.3547
700	0.05114	7.569	0.3456
800	0.03279	7.540	0.2089
900	0.05456	7.541	0.2705
1000	0.05974	7.510	0.2581
1100	0.06113	7.467	0.2745
1200	0.06356	7.426	0.2935
1300	0.06235	7.397	0.2933
1400	0.26576	--	--

Appendix F: Thermo-Mechanical Properties

Table 19. Assumed elevated temperature elastic modulus for DH36 base material, as shown in Figure 27. Data are based on an assumed room temperature modulus of 210 GPa (30.5 Msi).

Temperature (°C [°F])	Fraction of Room Temperature Modulus	Elastic Modulus (GPa [Msi])
23 (73)	1.0000	210 (30.5)
100 (212)	1.0000	210 (30.5)
200 (392)	0.9000	189 (27.4)
300 (572)	0.8000	168 (24.4)
400 (752)	0.7000	147 (21.3)
500 (932)	0.6000	126 (18.3)
600 (1112)	0.3100	65 (9.4)
700 (1292)	0.1300	27 (4.0)
800 (1472)	0.0900	19 (2.7)
900 (1652)	0.0675	14 (2.1)
1000 (1832)	0.0450	9 (1.4)
1100 (2012)	0.0225	5 (0.7)
1200 (2192)	0.0000	0 (0)

Table 20. Elevated temperature mechanical properties of DH36 base material, as shown in Figures 28-29.

Specimen ID	Test Temperature (°C [°F])	Yield Strength (MPa [ksi])	Tensile Strength (MPa [ksi])	Elongation in 1 in. (%)
1088-RTT1	22 (72)	483 (70.0)	574 (83.2)	34.5
1088-RTT2	22 (72)	483 (70.1)	576 (83.5)	33.5
1088-ETT1	100 (212)	451 (65.4)	532 (77.1)	21.0
1088-ETT2	300 (572)	370 (53.6)	559 (81.0)	36.0
1088-ETT3	500 (932)	248 (35.9)	354 (51.3)	39.0
01788-ETT1	600 (1112)	171 (24.8)	206 (29.8)	40.5
1088-ETT4	700 (1292)	108 (15.6)	117 (17.0)	48.0
01788-ETT2		108 (15.6)	110 (15.9)	34.5
1088-ETT5	800 (1472)	42 (6.1)	59 (8.5)	66.0
01788-ETT3		48 (7.0)	50 (7.2)	24.5
1088-ETT6	900 (1652)	38 (5.5)	54 (7.9)	65.0
01788-ETT4		42 (6.1)	53 (7.7)	46.5
1088-ETT7	1000 (1832)	21 (3.1)	35 (5.1)	77.0
01788-ETT5		19 (2.8)	32 (4.6)	34.0
1088-ETT8	1100 (2012)	9.7 (1.4)	32 (3.1)	49.0

Table 21. Yield strength of simulated DH36 CGHAZs after heating to 1350 °C (2462 °F) and cooling at different rates, as illustrated in **Figure 30**.

Temperature (°C) [°F]	Yield Strength (MPa)			
	1 °C/s Cooling	10 °C/s Cooling	100 °C/s Cooling	Austenite on Cooling
25 [77]	441	446	623	
200 [392]	424	502	629	
400 [752]	356	455	490	
600 [1112]	223	285	304	
700 [1292]	132	154	173	
1000 [1832]				20
1100 [2012]				15
1200 [2192]				12

Table 22. On-heating flow behavior of DH36 base material, as shown in **Figures 31-32**.

22 °C (72 °F)		100 °C (212 °F)		300 °C (572 °F)		500 °C (932 °F)		700 °C (1292 °F)	
$\epsilon_{p, true}$	σ (MPa)	$\epsilon_{p, true}$	σ (MPa)	$\epsilon_{p, true}$	σ (MPa)	$\epsilon_{p, true}$	σ (MPa)	$\epsilon_{p, true}$	σ (MPa)
0.0000	482	0.0000	451	0.0000	369	0.0000	247	0.0000	110
0.0050	484	0.0050	460	0.0050	424	0.0050	285	0.0050	105
0.0100	488	0.0100	464	0.0100	472	0.0100	314	0.0100	109
0.0200	500	0.0200	499	0.0200	515	0.0200	324	0.0200	110
0.0300	541	0.0300	521	0.0300	534	0.0300	330	0.0300	104
0.0498	580	0.0326	526	0.0328	539	0.0330	333	0.0345	104

800 °C (1472 °F)		900 °C (1652 °F)		1000 °C (1832 °F)		1100 °C (2012 °F)	
$\epsilon_{p, true}$	σ (MPa)	$\epsilon_{p, true}$	σ (MPa)	$\epsilon_{p, true}$	σ (MPa)	$\epsilon_{p, true}$	σ (MPa)
0.0000	42	0.0000	38	0.0000	21	0.0000	9
0.0050	47	0.0050	38	0.0050	23	0.0050	12
0.0100	48	0.0100	40	0.0100	25	0.0100	13
0.0200	48	0.0200	42	0.0200	27	0.0200	14
0.0300	48	0.0300	40	0.0282	26	0.0300	14
0.0330	48	0.0324	40			0.0353	15

Table 23. Flow stress of simulated DH36 CGHAZs after heating to 1350 °C (2462 °F) and cooling at 1 °C/s (1.8 °F/s), as illustrated in **Figure 33**. 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)	
$\epsilon_{p, \text{true}}$	σ (MPa)	$\epsilon_{p, \text{true}}$	σ (MPa)	$\epsilon_{p, \text{true}}$	σ (MPa)	$\epsilon_{p, \text{true}}$	σ (MPa)	$\epsilon_{p, \text{true}}$	σ (MPa)
0.0000	441	0.0000	424	0.0000	356	0.0000	223	0.0000	132
0.0050	477	0.0050	482	0.0050	415	0.0050	262	0.0050	154
0.0100	501	0.0100	498	0.0100	443	0.0100	272		
0.0200	533	0.0200	545	0.0200	475	0.0200	280		
0.0300	558	0.0300	570	0.0300	494	0.0300	281		
0.0400	577	0.0400	590	0.0400	507	0.0400	281		
0.0500	592	0.0500	603	0.0500	518	0.0500	283		
0.1000	636	0.1000	632	0.1000	552	0.1000	286		
0.1800	658	0.14	639	0.1920	583				

Table 24. Flow stress of simulated DH36 CGHAZs after heating to 1350 °C (2462 °F) and cooling at 10 °C/s (18 °F/s), as illustrated in **Figure 34**. Terminal values are at the UTS.

25 °C		200 °C		400 °C		600 °C		700 °C	
$\epsilon_{p, \text{true}}$	σ (MPa)	$\epsilon_{p, \text{true}}$	σ (MPa)	$\epsilon_{p, \text{true}}$	σ (MPa)	$\epsilon_{p, \text{true}}$	σ (MPa)	$\epsilon_{p, \text{true}}$	σ (MPa)
0.0000	446	0.0000	502	0.0000	455	0.0000	285	0.0000	154
0.0050	531	0.0050	591	0.0050	510	0.0050	343	0.0050	218
0.0100	558	0.0100	610	0.0100	535	0.0100	353	0.0060	219
0.0200	594	0.0200	633	0.0200	564	0.0200	353		
0.0300	621	0.0300	648	0.0300	581				
0.0400	641	0.0400	669	0.0400	595				
0.0500	658	0.0500	685	0.0500	603				
0.1000	697	0.1000	733	0.1000	624				
0.1760	715	0.1480	743	0.1260	634				

Table 25. Flow stress of simulated DH36 CGHAZs after heating to 1350 °C (2462 °F) and cooling at 100 °C/s (180 °F/s), as illustrated in **Figure 35**. Terminal values are at the UTS.

25 °C		200 °C		400 °C		600 °C		700 °C	
ϵ_p	σ (MPa)	ϵ_p	σ (MPa)	ϵ_p	σ (MPa)	ϵ_p	σ (MPa)	ϵ_p	σ (MPa)
0.0000	623	0.0000	679	0.0000	490	0.0000	304	0.0000	173
0.0050	683	0.0050	738	0.0050	599	0.0050	355	0.0050	213
0.0100	714	0.0100	771	0.0100	632	0.0100	364	0.0060	214
0.0200	755	0.0200	810	0.0200	660	0.0120	365		
0.0300	781	0.0300	828	0.0300	671				
0.0400	799	0.0400	842	0.0400	675				
0.0500	813	0.0500	853	0.0500	675				
0.1000	846	0.1000	881	0.0750	676				
0.1300	854	0.1210	887						

Table 26. Flow stress of austenitic DH36 CGHAZs after heating to 1350 °C (2462 °F), as illustrated in **Figure 36**. Terminal values are at the UTS.

1000 °C		1100 °C		1200 °C	
ϵ_p	σ (MPa)	ϵ_p	σ (MPa)	ϵ_p	σ (MPa)
0.0000	20	0.0000	15	0.0000	12
0.0050	25	0.0050	17	0.0050	14
0.0100	26	0.0100	20	0.0100	15
0.0200	31	0.0200	21	0.0200	16
0.0300	33	0.0300	24	0.0300	18
0.0400	37	0.0400	25	0.0400	19
0.0500	40	0.0500	27	0.0500	20
0.1000	46	0.1000	32	0.1000	20
0.2000	55	0.1180	32	0.1800	24

Table 27. Engineering fracture strain for the specimens shown in **Figures 33-35**.

Temperature (°C) [°F]	Fracture Strain, $\epsilon_{f, eng}$ (mm/mm)		
	1 °C/s Cooling	10 °C/s Cooling	100 °C/s Cooling
25 [77]	0.44	0.41	0.40
200 [392]	0.30	0.32	0.29
400 [752]	0.51	0.44	0.33
600 [1112]	0.33	0.13	0.11
700 [1292]	0.17	0.11	0.16

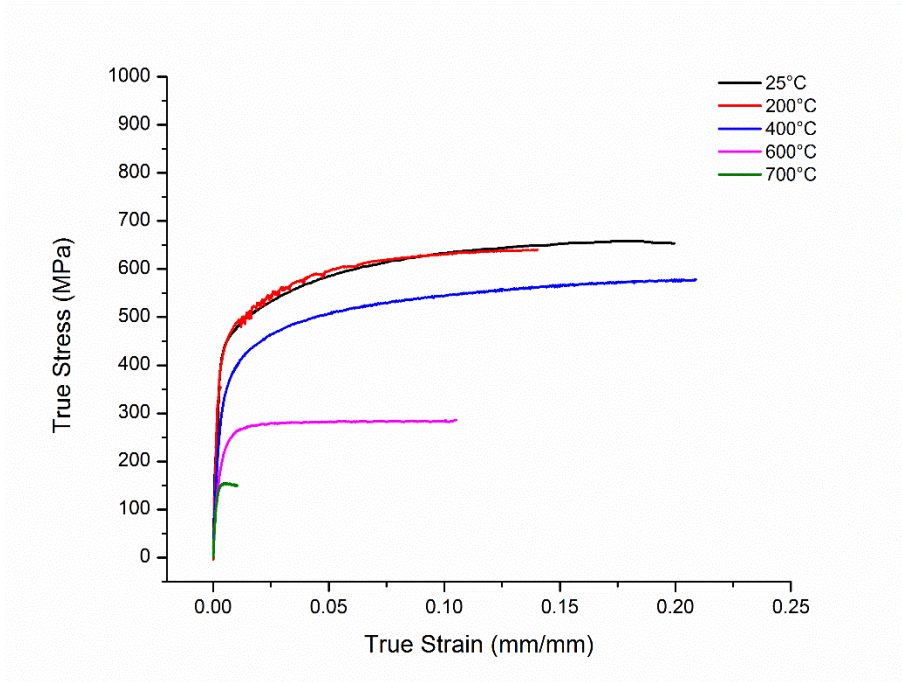


Figure 75. Uniaxial tension stress-strain curves from Gleeble tensile samples thermally cycled to a peak temperature of 1350 °C (2462 °F), cooled at 1 °C/s (1.8 °F/s), then reheated to the test temperature.

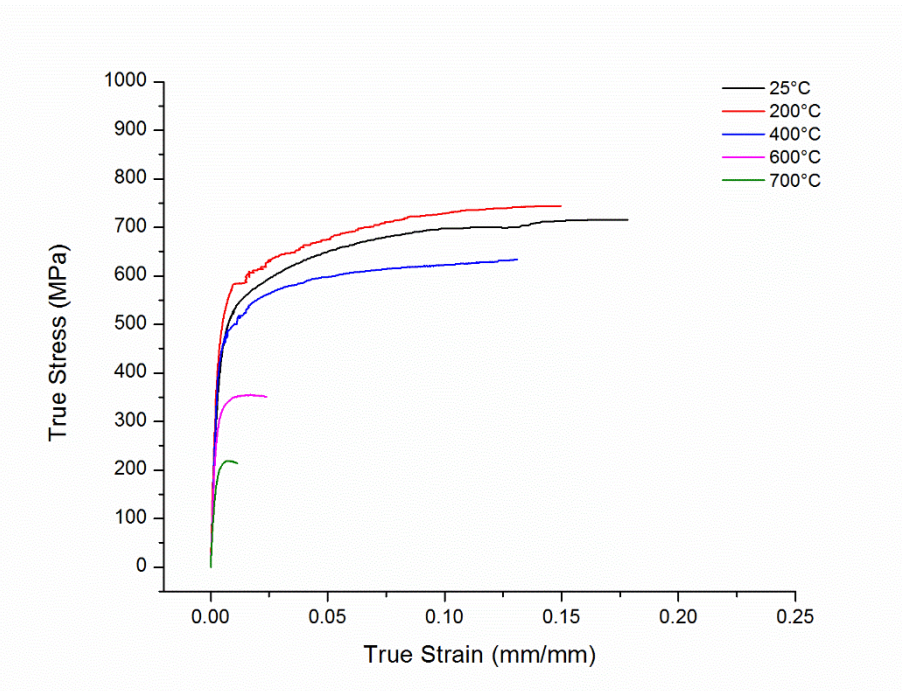


Figure 76. Uniaxial tension stress-strain curves from Gleeble tensile samples thermally cycled to a peak temperature of 1350 °C (2462 °F), cooled at 10 °C/s (18 °F/s), then reheated to the test temperature.

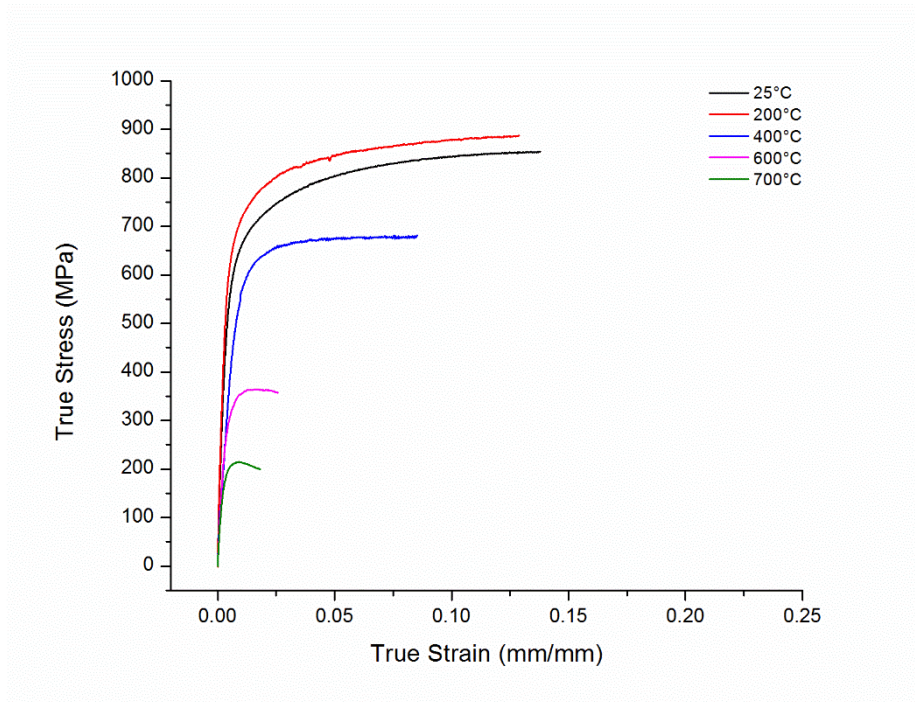


Figure 77. Uniaxial tension stress-strain curves from Gleeble tensile samples thermally cycled to a peak temperature of 1350 °C (2462 °F), cooled at 100 °C/s (180 °F/s), then reheated to the test temperature.

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