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HIGH-TEMPERATURE EXPERIMENTAL CHARACTERISATION OF XN40F FOR LIFE PREDICTION OF SPF TOOLS

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Abstract
This paper describes high temperature cyclic elastic-plastic testing of XN40F material for application to the life prediction of superplastic forming (SPF) tools. Cyclic plasticity material constitutive constants are identified from the high temperature tests across the range of 20°C to 900°C for representative predicted die conditions. These material constants are implemented within a transient, elastic-plastic-creep, thermo-mechanical analysis method for the die to furnish stress-strain-temperature cyclic data for creep-fatigue life prediction. A simulative thermo-mechanical fatigue (TMF) test, designed to represent the temperature and stress-strain cycling associated with the most damaging phase of the die cycle is presented and shown to give lives consistent with the predicted die lives.

Keywords:
Superplastic forming, plastic shakedown, heating-cooling cycles, part-forming cycles, thermo-mechanical fatigue and creep, major cycle, minor cycle, NLKH, TMF

1 INTRODUCTION
Superplastic forming tools need to withstand high temperature cyclic loading and steady mechanical loading for extended durations and therefore are manufactured (by casting) from specialized alloys, but at the same time numerous additional geometrical complexities result from weight-saving constraints (due for example to weight limitations in industrial plant related to handling capacities) and ruling section requirements for casting. The cost of tool failure is significant and tool life is an important limiting aspect in the SPF process; the SPF process is a high value-added process, rather than a mass production process.
Large SPF tools mainly suffer from distortion due to thermal cycling and high temperature creep. Creep relaxation during forming induces inelastic deformation and distortion of the tool after cooling to the ambient [1]. SPF tool distortion can lead to the forming of inaccurate parts which incurs the expense of repair and replacement of such tools. In addition to distortion, the thermo-mechanical fatigue and fatigue-creep interaction can lead to cracking. Finite element (FE) based simulation of realistic thermo-mechanical conditions is an effective method for analysing realistic large SPF tool behaviour to predict the complex temperature-stress-strain cycles and hence damage and deformation for distortion assessment and hence distortion control or minimisation. Material models are crucial for the credibility of FE predictions and hence the choice of suitable material model is important for numerical simulations.
A comparatively simple uncoupled plasticity–creep material model is investigated here to analyse the thermo-mechanical behaviour of a simplified, representative SPF tool. The salient stresses and strains are developed by thermal gradients during heating, cooling and opening/closing of the press for blank loading and part unloading operations. The cyclic plasticity during temperature transients is modelled using Chaboche non-linear kinematic hardening [4] and power law (Norton) creep is used to model the creep deformation during the dwell period of each forming cycle.
Cyclic plasticity material constitutive constants are identified from the tests across the range of relevant temperatures of 20°C to 900°C by varying the strain-ranges and the identification process is carried out for two different strain-rates, corresponding to representative predicted
conditions for SPF dies. The determined constitutive plasticity model is applied with an uncoupled creep model, for the dwell periods during forming cycles, within a previously-established transient thermo-mechanical model of the die to predict the cyclic elastic-plastic-creep behaviour. The effect of using different constitutive constants associated with the different strain-rates on die behaviour is predicted and a bi-linear strain-range partitioning method for creep-fatigue life prediction is applied to predict die life. The die life predictions using the new cyclic material data are compared with previous results. Finally, a simulative thermo-mechanical fatigue test, designed to represent the temperature and stress-strain cycling associated with the most damaging phase of the die cycle is presented and shown to give lives consistent with the predicted die lives.

2 Material testing

An Instron thermo-mechanical fatigue test rig is employed to carry out the high temperature material testing. The test machine uses a servo-electric dynamic loading system and uses an induction coil to achieve the high temperatures required to simulate the die operating conditions. Figure 1 shows the fatigue specimen employed and also the induction coil at a temperature of 900°C with the ceramic-rod extensometer in-situ to effect strain control.

![Fig. 1 Geometry of thermo-mechanical fatigue test specimen and induction coil with extensometer.](image)

Temperature uniformity over the gauge length of ±10°C for 200 °C to 900°C has been achieved using careful design of the induction coil. The specified heating and cooling rates of the test machine are 50±10 °C/sec and 25±10 °C/sec, respectively. Automated thermal strain compensation and Young’s modulus determination to impose the target mechanical strain are implemented within the system according to the ASTM thermo-mechanical fatigue testing standard.

The SPF tool is cast from XN40F material. The composition of XN40F tool material is given in Table 1 [2] while the thermal properties are given in Table 2 [3]. Thermal properties such as thermal conductivity and specific heat at different temperatures are required to predict the thermal histories of the SPF tool. The material data from high temperature tensile tests is shown in Table 3. The tensile tests were carried out for four different temperatures; 20°C, 500°C, 700°C and 900°C which span the temperature range for the SPF process; the average strain rate applied is 8×10^-4 s^-1. The elongation to failure increases significantly with increasing temperature. Brittle fracture occurs below 700°C and ductile fracture occurs at 900°C [5]. Short term tensile tests at lower strain rates of 8×10^-5 s^-1 and 8×10^-4 s^-1 at 900°C were carried out to determine the short term creep properties as shown in Table 4.
Table 1. Composition of the SPF tool material XN40F [2]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elements</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>Ni</th>
<th>Cr</th>
<th>Fe</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Weight %</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>Balance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Thermal properties of XN40F material at different temperatures [2].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Temperature [°C]</th>
<th>Thermal conductivity [W/m/K]</th>
<th>Temperature 0°C</th>
<th>Thermal expansion x10^-6/°C</th>
<th>Specific heat [J/kg/K]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>20-100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20-500</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>850</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>20-850</td>
<td>17.35</td>
<td>850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>950</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>20-950</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>950</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Monotonic mechanical properties of XN40F material at different temperatures for strain rate of 8×10^-4/s [2].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Temperature [°C]</th>
<th>Young's modulus [GPa]</th>
<th>0.2% Yield strength [MPa]</th>
<th>UTS [MPa]</th>
<th>Elongation [%]</th>
<th>$C = \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial \varepsilon}$/[MPa]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>332</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>700</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>900</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Measured creep behaviour and constants of XN40F material of 900°C [2].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strain rates [s^{-1}]</th>
<th>Stress [MPa]</th>
<th>$A$ [MPa·s^{-1}]</th>
<th>$n$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8×10^-4</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>9.14×10^{-14}</td>
<td>4.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8×10^-5</td>
<td>83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cyclic multiple strain range isothermal tests at 20°C, 500°C, 700°C and 900°C for two strain rates, 5×10^3 s^{-1} and 5×10^4 s^{-1}, are carried out here to characterise the temperature-dependent cyclic stress-strain behaviour of the XN40F alloy. Lower strain-ranges were employed for the lower temperatures, consistent with anticipated relevant in-situ conditions. Figure 2 shows the cyclic stress-strain curves obtained from the tests at different temperatures. Table 5 summarises the complete test programme.
3 IDENTIFICATION OF MATERIAL CONSTITUTIVE CONSTANTS

The material constitutive model employed here is a temperature-dependent, non-linear
kinematic hardening (NLKH) model, with uncoupled secondary (Norton) creep during the
dwell time at 900°C. The Ziegler kinematic hardening law within ABAQUS [3] is used to
simulate the translation of the yield surface in the stress space, through the back stress, $\alpha$.
The total strain rate is decomposed into elastic and plastic strain rates, as follows:

$$\dot{\varepsilon} = \dot{\varepsilon}_{el} + \dot{\varepsilon}_{pl}$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)

with the linear elastic behaviour defined as:

$$\sigma = D^{el} : \dot{\varepsilon}^{el}$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

where $D^{el}$ is the material stiffness matrix and the yield surface is defined by:

$$f(\sigma - \alpha) = k$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

where $k$ is the size of the yield surface and $f(\sigma - \alpha)$ is the equivalent Mises stress with
respect to the back stress $\alpha$ defined as:

$$f(\sigma - \alpha) = \frac{3}{2} \left[ S - \alpha^{dev} \right] : \left[ S - \alpha^{dev} \right]$$  \hspace{1cm} (4)

where $\alpha^{dev}$ is the deviatoric part of the back stress and $S$ is the deviatoric stress tensor. The
flow-rule equation is:

$$\dot{\varepsilon}_{pl} = \frac{\partial f(\sigma - \alpha)}{\partial \sigma} \dot{\varepsilon}_{pl}$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)

where $\dot{\varepsilon}_{pl}$ is the equivalent plastic strain rate defined as follows:

$$\dot{\varepsilon}_{pl} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \dot{\varepsilon}_{pl}$$  \hspace{1cm} (6)
The size of the yield surface is a function of temperature $T$ and the generalised Ziegler’s rule for an-isothermal case is given in the equation below:

$$\dot{\sigma} = C T_{\text{eq}} \left[ \frac{1}{k} (\sigma - \alpha) - \gamma \alpha T_{\text{eq}} \right]$$ \hspace{1cm} (7)

where $C(T)$ is the temperature-dependent hardening modulus of the isothermal uni-axial stress-strain response, $\frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial T_{\text{eq}}}$, measured at different temperatures, $\dot{C}$ is the rate of change of $C$ with respect to temperature and $\gamma \alpha T_{\text{eq}}$ is a recall term to introduce non-linearity in the evolution law.

Steady state (secondary) creep behaviour is introduced during the (minor cycle) dwell time at the constant temperature of 900ºC using power-law (Norton) creep $\dot{\varepsilon}_{\text{cr}} = Aq_d^m$ where $A, n$ and $m$ are temperature dependent material constants, $\dot{\varepsilon}_{\text{cr}}$ is the uniaxial equivalent creep strain rate, $q$ is the equivalent (von Mises) stress, and $t$ is the total time. A value of $m = 0$ is assumed here, so that only secondary creep is considered.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test No.</th>
<th>Test type</th>
<th>Temperature</th>
<th>Test Specifications</th>
<th>Material parameters</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Isothermal strain controlled fatigue tests</td>
<td>20ºC, 500ºC, 700ºC, 900ºC</td>
<td>$R_i = -1$ $\dot{\varepsilon} = 0.3%$, 0.8%, 1.0%, 1.2% Rate: 2.5$×$10^{-4}$s $\times 10^{-4}$s</td>
<td>Life based on 10% load drop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>TMF OP test with hold period in compression</td>
<td>750 – 900 ºC</td>
<td>$R_i = -1$ $\dot{\varepsilon} = 0.3%$, 0.8%, 1.0%, 1.2% Rate: 2.5$×$10^{-4}$s $\times 10^{-4}$s</td>
<td>Life based on 10% load drop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>TMF OP test</td>
<td>750 - 900ºC</td>
<td>$R_i = -1$ $\dot{\varepsilon} = 0.8%$, 1.0%, 1.2% Rate: 2.5$×$10^{-4}$s $\times 10^{-4}$s</td>
<td>Life based on 10% load drop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Isothermal strain controlled fatigue test without hold period</td>
<td>900ºC</td>
<td>$R_i = -1$ $\dot{\varepsilon} = 0.8%$, 1.0% Rate 2.5e-4/s</td>
<td>Life based on 10% load drop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>TMF OP (Mimic stress-strain loop from FE) With mean strain</td>
<td>750 – 900 ºC</td>
<td>$R_i = -1$ $\dot{\varepsilon} = 0.3%$ Rate $=1$e-4/s Hold = 120 sec (compression)</td>
<td>Life based on 10% load drop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Creep tests</td>
<td>600, 700 and 900ºC</td>
<td>Short term stress control tests to get secondary creep constants</td>
<td>Secondary Creep constants</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The material constants for non-linear kinematic hardening (NLKH) are identified from the stabilised hysteresis loops corresponding to different strain amplitudes of multi-strain range isothermal cyclic tests carried out at 20ºC, 500ºC, 700ºC and 900ºC. The material constant $k$ for a particular temperature is determined as the mean of the individual $k$ values for each strain range, which are readily estimated from the stabilised stress-strain loops.

The ratio $\frac{C}{\gamma}$ is determined as the asymptotic value of $\Delta \sigma$ $\frac{2}{k}$ plotted against $\Delta \varepsilon_p$ $\frac{2}{k}$, corresponding to the saturated value of back stress. The coefficients $C$ and $\gamma$ are the identified by fitting the following equation, which represents the NLKH relationship between cyclic stress and strain to the measured cyclic stress-strain data [4]:

Carcassonne, France from 3-5 September 2008
\[
\frac{\Delta \sigma}{2} - k = C \frac{\tanh \left( \frac{\gamma \Delta \varepsilon_p}{2} \right)}{\gamma}
\]

(8)

Table 6. Non-linear kinematic hardening material constants of XN40F material at different temperatures from strain controlled cyclic tests.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strain rate, [s(^{-1})]</th>
<th>(k) [MPa]</th>
<th>(C) [MPa]</th>
<th>(\gamma)</th>
<th>Temperature [(^\circ)C]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5\times10(^{-3})</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>125000</td>
<td>892</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>160</td>
<td>38000</td>
<td>422</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>155</td>
<td>21000</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>90</td>
<td>9000</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>175</td>
<td>82000</td>
<td>656</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>154</td>
<td>55000</td>
<td>393</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>151</td>
<td>32000</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>60</td>
<td>8000</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>900</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 5\times10\(^{-4}\)       |               |              |       |                  |

Figure 3 shows the identification of the coefficients \(C\) and \(\gamma\) for the XN40F tool material at 20\(^\circ\)C, 500\(^\circ\)C, 700\(^\circ\)C and 900\(^\circ\)C for the strain rate of 5\times10\(^{-4}\) s\(^{-1}\). Similarly the material constants are identified for the strain rate of 5\times10\(^{-3}\) s\(^{-1}\). The identified material constants are summarised in Table 6. The material constants for the strain rate of 5\times10\(^{-4}\) s\(^{-1}\) are used in the SPF tool analysis presented here, although the effect of using the 5\times10\(^{-3}\) s\(^{-1}\) data on the predicted die stress-strain cycle is also presented. Figures 4 and 5 show the comparison of the NLKH material model predictions (using the latter identified constants) with the experimental stabilized loops over the range of temperatures and strain-ranges for the 5\times10\(^{-4}\) s\(^{-1}\) case. The correlation for the 5\times10\(^{-3}\) s\(^{-1}\) case was of equivalent quality. Figure 6 shows the measured and predicted effect of strain-rate on the cyclic stress-strain relationship at 900\(^\circ\)C.

![Figure 3](image_url)

Fig. 3 Identification of coefficients \(C\) and \(\gamma\) for strain rate 5\times10\(^{-4}\) s\(^{-1}\).
Fig. 4 Validation of identified constitutive constants for different strain-ranges at 20°C and 500°C.
Fig. 5 Validation of identified constitutive constants for different strain-ranges at 700°C and 900°C.

Fig. 6 Effect of strain-rate on cyclic material behaviour and constitutive model at 900°C.

Fig. 7 Underside view of FE model of simplified representative SPF half-tool.
4 Thermo-mechanical analysis of SPF tool

A realistic SPF tool is represented in a geometrically simplified form, as shown in Figure 7. The main simplifications relate to the omission of local features, such as hangings and alignment lugs, so that the dominant deformation mechanisms are still captured, since the objective here is to address the major cracks observed in real tools. A lower half of the SPF tool is modelled assuming symmetry between the upper and lower tool. The platen-tool contact is defined as a mechanical boundary condition in the FE model. This representative tool has five cavities of 100 mm depth on the underside of the tool. The longest side is approximately 2 m long.

The transient heat transfer methodology used here is the same as that previously validated against the measured heating and cooling experiments for a model die at the University of Nottingham [5]. A realistic SPF thermal history is modelled in the commercial, general-purpose, non-linear FE code, ABAQUS, using conduction, convection and radiation mechanisms.

The SPF tool temperature cycling is complex and is therefore idealised here as divided into two types. The two types are (i) lower frequency cycles, referred to here as major cycles, broadly associated with heating and cooling from ambient, and (ii) higher frequency cycles, referred to here as minor cycles, which are associated with opening and closing of the press doors for blank inserts and removal of formed parts. In reality these cycles are not easy to standardize since they are not automated and are carried out by manual operation. Therefore, there can be significant variations in the time periods, in particular, associated with these idealised cycles. Nonetheless, for the purposes of analyses here, they are idealised as follows.

Major cycle

Step 1: The tool is heated in a pre-heat furnace to 500˚C at a controlled rate of 50˚C/hr and then allowed to reach steady state by soaking at 500˚C. The heating process is mainly controlled by conduction with the temperature boundary condition applied to the bottom surface of the tool. The open radiation and free convection mechanisms are also applied with an ambient temperature of 500˚C during the soak time.

Step 2: The tool is transferred to the SPF press in 3 minutes. During this time-period all external surfaces except the top surface of the tool are exposed to the ambient via open radiation and free convection mechanisms.

Step 3: The tool arrives in the SPF press and is heated to 900˚C, again at 50˚C/hr, until a uniform temperature is achieved. This process is again controlled through the conductive heating of the tool via temperature control of the bottom surface nodes.

Step 4: The tool is control-cooled to 500˚C at 50˚C/hr in the SPF press and then removed from the press to cool to ambient temperature via free convection and open radiation.

These four (major cycle) steps are illustrated in Figure 8. Direct heating and cooling to 500˚C in the SPF press is always implemented by controlled temperature variation of the tool bottom surface nodes. The contact with the platen is assumed to be adiabatic.
**Minor cycle**

**Step 1:** The SPF press is opened to unload the formed component. This consists of allowing the two longest sides of the tool (facing the press doors) to cool via free convection and open radiation with the ambient for a period of 5 minutes.

**Step 2:** The press is closed again and the tool is heated back to 900˚C.

**Step 3:** The press is opened again to load the new blank. This again allows the two longest sides to cool via free convection and open radiation for 5 minutes.

**Step 4:** The press is closed again and the tool is heated back to 900˚C along with the new blank sheet.

**Step 5:** The tool and the blank temperature is maintained at a constant temperature of 900˚C for 7 hours corresponding to the forming cycle of one component.

Only the lower half of the tool is modelled, as a first approximation and on the basis of approximate symmetry between the two halves. The presence of the upper tool is modelling via the clamping pressure applied along the top edge of the lower tool during the dwell time. The gas pressure during forming is not modelled as the stresses induced by the forming pressure are considered to be negligible [1]. Tool gravity is modelled along with frictional contact (COF = 0.2) between the tool bottom surface and platen where the platen is considered as an analytically rigid surface.

Figure 9 shows the FE-predicted accumulated equivalent plastic strain at the end of three major cycles, each including five minor cycles. Clearly, plasticity is predicted to occur along the top interface edges of the two sides of the tool facing the press doors. The temperature drops along these edges during part loading and unloading (from 900˚C to 744˚C), leading to large temperature gradients. A local co-ordinate system is defined in Figure 9 where the $X$ direction (also referred to as 1 direction) is parallel to the edge of the tool on which EL C is present and the $Y$-direction (also referred to as 2-direction) is parallel to the thickness of the tool. The temperature drop to 744˚C along the top interface edges of the two sides of the tool facing the press doors, leads to plasticity deformation, as shown in Figure 9, due to the thermal stresses exceeding the temperature-dependent yield stress. In fact, the plastic deformation occurs while the temperature drops to 744˚C. The stress is seen to relax from 62 MPa to 8 MPa during the dwell time at 900˚C, due to creep deformation as shown in Figure 10. The constant clamping pressure of 4 MPa across the edges of the top four sides of the tool is also introduced during the dwell time at 900˚C. Figure 10 shows the predicted local $\sigma_{11}$ stress versus inelastic strain, $\varepsilon_{11}^{in}$, for EL C for three major cycles, including the associated minor cycles. Plastic shakedown is predicted to occur for this combination of stress-strain components, which essentially represents the normal stress-inelastic strain response parallel to
the side of the long side of the die. This suggests that low cycle fatigue is a likely failure mode in this direction.

![Fig. 9 Equival...](image)

![Fig. 10. Local...](image)

To understand the minor cycle and anisothermal stress-strain response, the local stress-strain response is plotted for the first minor cycle of the first major cycle in Figure 11, for EL C, Compressive stresses are predicted during the heating-up process to 900ºC, because EL C is on the surface and heats up slower than the bottom surface of the die.

![Fig. 11 Local stress...](image)

![Fig. 12 Effect of...](image)

Very small compressive plastic strain is predicted to occur during this period which comprises slow heating up to 500ºC in the pre-heat oven, tool transfer from the preheat oven to the SPF press and slow heating up to 900ºC in the SPF press. During tool transfer from the pre-heat oven to the SPF press, tensile stress is predicted due to the bottom surface cooling faster than the top surface, which is modelled as being in contact with the upper half of the tool (via an adiabatic boundary condition). During part loading and unloading, a tensile stress is predicted due to the temperature dropping to 744ºC, the bulk of the tool (i.e. away from the doors) remaining at 900ºC. Elastic recovery followed by compressive plastic strain is predicted during re-heat back to 900ºC after every (minor cycle) part load and unload operation. Compressive creep is predicted to follow the compressive plasticity during the dwell time while the stress relaxation is predicted due to creep. Hence, the analyses predict low cycle
fatigue and fatigue-creep interaction damage. Figure 12 shows the effect of the NLKH material constants corresponding to the two strain rates of $5 \times 10^4 \text{s}^{-1}$ and $5 \times 10^3 \text{s}^{-1}$ on the predicted anisothermal stress-strain cycles for the die. Clearly, the higher strain rate gives higher maximum stress and lower cyclic strain ranges.

5 SPF TOOL LIFE PREDICTION

Shang [6] has proposed a bi-linear creep-fatigue interaction approach for the present XN40F die material. From the finite element modeling (Fig 11), it can be seen that the SPF tool experiences both $\Delta \epsilon_{pp}$ and $\Delta \epsilon_{pc}$ cyclic inelastic strain ranges, i.e. cyclic strain ranges with plastic strain reversed by plastic strain ($\Delta \epsilon_{pp}$) and cyclic strain ranges with plastic strain reversed by creep strain ($\Delta \epsilon_{pc}$). Associated with these are two damage components, $D_{pc} = \frac{1}{N_{pc}}$ and $D_{pp} = \frac{1}{N_{pp}}$, which represent the damage per cycle associated with $\Delta \epsilon_{pp}$ and $\Delta \epsilon_{pc}$, respectively, and where $N_{pp}$ is the number of cycles of $\Delta \epsilon_{pp}$ to failure and $N_{pc}$ is the number of cycles of $\Delta \epsilon_{pc}$ to failure. The bi-linear damage summation equations, as shown in Figure 13, are as follows:

$$N_f = N_{pp} + N_{pc} = \begin{cases} N_{pp} & \text{for } N_f \leq N_{pp} \\ N_{pc} & \text{for } N_f > N_{pp} \end{cases}$$

(9)

where $N_f$ is the number of combined cycles to failure and where $\alpha$ is a constant greater than 1.

![Bi-linear strain range partitioning](image)

Fig. 13 Bi-linear strain range partitioning: (a) schematic plot of bi-linear damage assumption approach and (b) measured $\alpha$ values from combined creep-fatigue tests [2, 6].

These equations can be further expanded using Miner’s rule to linearly combine major and minor cycle damage, as follows:

$$N_f \left[ a \left( \frac{1}{N_{pp}^{maj}} + \frac{2n}{N_{pp}^{min}} \right) + \frac{1}{N_{pc}^{maj}} + \frac{n}{N_{pc}^{min}} \right] = 1$$

(10)

where $n$ is the number of minor cycles in a major cycle. A typical value of $n = 20$, which is representative of industrial practice for the present application, is considered here for predicting the number of major cycles. The total number of minor cycles is $2n$ to take into account the fact that the press doors are opened and closed separately for blank sheet loading and part unloading operations. Strain-controlled fatigue and fatigue-creep interaction tests on
XN40F material were carried out at 700°C and 900°C by Shang [6] and the resulting cyclic strain-life equations at 900°C are employed here in the bilinear strain-range partitioning approach, as follows:

\[ N_{pp}(\Delta \varepsilon_{pp})^{1.340} = 1.745 \]  
\[ N_{pc}(\Delta \varepsilon_{pc})^{1.518} = 0.462 \]  

(11)  
(12)

Additional tests at 900°C, specially devised to simulate the interaction between \( \Delta \varepsilon_{pp} \) and \( \Delta \varepsilon_{pc} \) strain ranges for the die, were employed by Shang [6], to show that \( \frac{N_f}{N_{pp}} < \frac{N_f}{N_{pc}} \) for the die material and to identify the relevant value of \( \alpha \) for Equation 90, as shown in Figure 13b. The resulting mean value of \( \alpha = 4.53 \) is employed here. Figure 12 also shows the inelastic strain ranges \( \Delta \varepsilon_{min}^{pp} \) and \( \Delta \varepsilon_{min}^{pc} \), \( \Delta \varepsilon_{maj}^{pp} \) and \( \Delta \varepsilon_{maj}^{pc} \) are negligible in the present case.

Figure 14 shows the typical strain and temperature loading history used for the out-of-phase (OP) TMF tests. Figure 15 shows the resulting stabilized anisothermal stress-strain loop for the same loading conditions and Figure 16 shows that the corresponding FE-predicted response, based on the isothermally-identified material constants of Table 6, give reasonable agreement with the test data.

Based on the results of Figure 12, the same OP TMF test (with hold period of 120 s) with \( \Delta \varepsilon \) of 0.3 %, is considered to be ‘simulative’ of the most damaging phase of the die thermo-
mechanical loading history, viz. the temperature variations associated with the open/closing of the die for insertion/removal of sheet material. Table 7 summarises the creep-fatigue life predictions from the bi-linear strain range partitioning method, using both monotonic data and stabilised cyclic data, along with the life prediction from the simulative OP TMF test. The predicted creep-fatigue life using the cyclic data (NLKH model) is lower than using the monotonic data (linear kinematic hardening) presented in previous work done by the authors [9].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Monotonic data</th>
<th>Cyclic data</th>
<th>Simulative OP TMF test for die</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>178</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 6 Conclusion

- Isothermal cyclic elastic-plastic characterisation of XN40F under representative strain range, temperature and strain-rate conditions has been presented
- The test data has permitted identification of non-linear kinematic hardening constants across the relevant range of temperatures
- The identified isothermal constants have been validated against the cyclic tests and show reasonable correlation with the largest discrepancies occurring at the high temperatures, due presumably to the omission of rate-dependent effects
- A ‘simulative’ thermo-mechanical test for the critical damaging phase of part removal-insertion shows good correlation with the predicted die life
- Interpolation with respect to temperature using isothermal NLKH data and creep data within the anisothermal FE analysis is shown to give close correlation with the measured anisothermal stress-strain cycles from an out-of-phase thermo-mechanical fatigue test.
- The use of cyclic data predicts only slightly lower creep-fatigue lives than monotonic data for the material and loading cases considered here
- Future work should address the implementation of (i) a unified cyclic viscoplasticity model, e.g. [10], (ii) anisothermal damage accumulation or life prediction methods and (iii) validation against a realistic die geometry or a representative die geometry, e.g. small-scale dies.

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### References