

A faint, light blue stress-strain hysteresis loop is visible in the background. The vertical axis is labeled with the Greek letter sigma ( $\sigma$ ) and the horizontal axis with the Greek letter epsilon ( $\epsilon$ ). The loop is roughly rectangular with rounded corners. At the bottom of the loop, the label  $\Delta\epsilon_{pc}$  is present.

# FATIGUE AND DURABILITY

OF METALS AT HIGH TEMPERATURES

**S.S. MANSON**  
**G.R. HALFORD**



**ASM**  
INTERNATIONAL

# **Fatigue and Durability of Metals at High Temperatures**

**S.S. Manson  
G.R. Halford**



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Shira Lisa Entis  
Jonathan Joshua Entis  
Chloe Teresa Green  
Alexandra Eugena Green  
Jennifer Lisa Ames  
Jeffrey Manson Ames  
Erin Lea Stone  
Jeremy Francis Stone  
Paul Isaac Manson  
Cecily Rose Manson  
Joshua Simon Ames

Brian Patrick Packert  
Brendan James Packert  
Colin Richard Packert  
Drew Joseph Halford  
Grace Charlotte Halford  
Rose Elise Halford

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## Preface by S.S. Manson

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When Dr. Halford and I undertook to write this book, more than two decades ago, we intended that it be all-inclusive, covering our experience in the subject of fatigue and durability. We intended that it all be in one volume. As we prepared it during the ensuing years, it became clear that the subject was too broad to be contained in one volume, especially if we were to include the relevant work of our colleagues in other institutions, even in other countries. We decided that at least two volumes would be needed, with this second volume to be dedicated to high-temperature aspects, which are gaining more and more attention with the technology expanding in that direction.

This second volume gave Dr. Halford the opportunity to address in greater depth two subjects that were of intense interest to him: treatment of strain-range partitioning using the total strain-range approach (so that the application could be extended to cases involving small strains), and devoting more discussion to applications of our new technology to practical problems on which he was daily assisting industry. We intended each of these subjects to cover long chapters. He did write most of these two chapters, but his untimely passing prevented him from completing them. On Oct. 25, 2006, he passed away. I have not altered the chapters; therefore, the volume is left diminished by the sad turn of events. The entire field covered by his work is left deprived by his passing. And, I have been deprived of a colleague, and a dear friend.

The passing of Dr. Halford before the book was completed necessitated many changes in the final processing. His numerous colleagues and my former students kindly volunteered to be as helpful as they could to complete the final editing. I wish to extend my sincere gratitude to the following for their gracious contributions throughout the writing of this book and especially in the final editing:

Dr. Sissay Hailu  
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Kejin Jung  
Marvin Hirschberg (Dec)  
And, of course, the ASM technical editor Steven Lampman

S.S. Manson  
Feb. 5, 2009

# Preface to the First Volume by S.S. Manson

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The past half century has witnessed a virtual revolution in the development of two fields which are the subject of this book: the introduction of advanced materials as structural components in severely loaded machines exposed to high temperatures and temperature gradients, and the development of technology of life computation for such components, of which one of the major failure mechanisms is fatigue. This book is based on the experience of the authors during this period. Although it emphasizes our research both as individuals and as colleagues for half a century, it also includes the work of numerous others who have provided useful results that have moved progress in these fields.

My first report on fatigue appeared in 1953. An intense interest and activity in this rapidly changing field has continued since. Collaboration with Dr. Gary Halford started in 1966 when he joined NASA at its Cleveland center where I served as Chief of the Materials and Structures Division. This cooperation continued after I retired in 1974 to join the faculty of Case Western Reserve University, and even after I retired from CWRU two decades later. We started to write this book well before I left CWRU. Thus, this book has been in the making for a long time, perhaps longer than we care to admit. But to compensate for the slowness of its progress toward publication, it is fair to say that we have been continuously adding content from our own research, and from that developed elsewhere, as warranted.

Initially this book was prepared as a text on fatigue, and its content fashioned after my regular curriculum presentations at Case Western Reserve University, short course presentations at the Pennsylvania State University, and shorter presentations at MIT, The Technion in Israel, and numerous other universities. In later-year presentations it was broadened under the title *Relation of Materials to Design* to include content developed at NASA. Its current context is still largely related to fatigue but includes other subjects representative of the material presented in these courses.

I am grateful to NASA for the support it has rendered me during my employment there, and later in grants provided to continue my activities initiated there. I am also grateful to the Oak Ridge National Laboratory, the Electric Power Research Institute, and the Metals Properties Council for their grants to conduct the research described in this book. My most heartfelt gratitude is expressed toward my co-author, Gary R. Halford. It has been a genuine joy to work with him as a colleague, friend, and co-author.

As always, I express my deep appreciation to the Almighty for the gift of life and long-time participation in the developments contained in this book.

S.S. Manson  
December 2005

# Preface to the First Volume

## by G.R. Halford

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This book and a planned second volume dealing with high-temperature durability represent the culmination of many years of collaborative research with my highly respected colleague, S.S. Manson. Few researchers have had the luxury of being able to work together continuously for as long as we have. And few colleagues have been able to work together as amicably as we have. We were fortunate to be involved in numerous advancements to the field through individual and joint publications spread over five decades. Our combined years of experience exceeds a century. This book provides a repository of the most significant of our contributions to the art and science of material and structural durability. Valuable contributions from other researchers are also included as appropriate.

I cannot sufficiently thank NASA for the rare opportunity provided me to have been allowed to work in this field for the duration of my employment. A prime advantage provided by a large government research organization was that we had valuable technical contacts with not only the aerospace industry, but also with many other industries, including electric power generation, off-highway and automotive manufacturing, metals producers, chemical and petroleum producers, and numerous other industries that faced serious material and structural durability issues. We were thus privileged to have exposure to countless durability issues of a diverse nature. From such a vantage point, it was possible to develop generic models having a broad range of applicability.

I would also like to thank the University of Illinois in Urbana-Champaign, its Department of Theoretical and Applied Mechanics, and in particular, Professor JoDean Morrow. I could never have been in a position to participate in this work without their providing me with the appropriate educational background. Finally, my late parents, Herbert C. and Faye S. Halford, brother Donald W. Halford, my wife, Pat M. Halford and our children, Kirk, Gwen, and Shawn must be acknowledged for instilling me with balanced senses of patience, work ethic, responsibility, dedication, and respect—all interspersed with a tinge of humor.

Gary R. Halford  
December 2005



## About the Authors

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**S.S. Manson** is Professor Emeritus, Case Western Reserve University. Professor Manson joined the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics (the precursor to NASA) at Langley, VA in 1941 and transferred to Cleveland in 1943. There, he performed cutting-edge theoretical and experimental stress analysis and durability research associated with the materials used in piston engines and the newly evolving gas turbine engines. His research interests drew him into the entirely new area of low-cycle fatigue, particularly thermal fatigue. The basic law of low-cycle fatigue that he developed remains in use 50 years later, i.e., the Manson-Coffin law. His research expanded into the study of creep, creep-rupture and time-temperature parameters, for which he created several of great practical value. He has received numerous awards for his work, including the Gold Medal from the Franklin Institute for development of the Manson-Coffin law of low-cycle fatigue, the NASA Exceptional Scientific Achievement Award, and the Nadai Award bestowed by the American Society of Mechanical Engineers. His book *Thermal Stress and Low-Cycle Fatigue* was published in 1966. He remained at NASA until 1974, serving most of the time as Chief of the Materials and Structures Division. At that time, he moved on to become Professor of Mechanical and Aerospace Engineering at Case Western Reserve University. There he continued to teach on the subject of the mechanical behavior of materials and perform research together with his students and colleagues to develop better durability lifeing models. He currently lives in California.

**G.R. Halford** was a Distinguished Research Associate, NASA Glenn Research Center, Cleveland, Ohio. Following his education in the Department of Theoretical and Applied Mechanics at the University of Illinois under the guidance of Professor JoDean Morrow, he joined the NASA Center in 1966. Dr. Halford, in conjunction with Professor S.S. Manson, was actively involved in research and development of advanced life prediction methods for low- and high-temperature fatigue analysis of high-performance mechanical systems. Most notable is the total strain version of the method of strain-range partitioning (SRP). That methodology sees use in several industries. Dr. Halford was involved with durability issues in virtually every



propulsion system of interest to NASA. In the aeronautics arena, he dealt with subsonic, supersonic, and hypersonic propulsion systems. In space propulsion and power, he dealt with ion engines, solid propellant rockets, liquid rockets of all sizes and description, as well as solar and nuclear energy conversion and storage systems. The severe durability limitations of these systems spawned much of his research into advanced life prediction methods that are the subject of this book. Dr. Halford authored or co-authored over 200 technical papers, coordinated over 60 grant/contractor reports, edited several technical conference volumes, and delivered over 70 invited technical lectures.

## CHAPTER 1

# Creep Under Monotonic and Cyclic Loading

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CREEP is time-dependent deformation that occurs at high temperature relative to the melting point of metallic materials. The creep regime for metals is commonly regarded to begin at a temperature of approximately half the absolute temperature (degrees Kelvin or Rankine) of the metal melting point. For example, the Rankine (R) scale of absolute temperature is related to degrees Fahrenheit as follows:  $R = 460 + T$  (in °F). Thus, the approximate onset of the creep behavior would be at temperatures greater than  $[(T_m/2) - 230]$ , where  $T_m$  is the melting point in degrees Fahrenheit. For a melting temperature of 2600 °F, the creep range would begin at a temperature of approximately 1070 °F (575 °C, or 850 K).

However, this demarcation point is not exact, and the designer must often consider lower operating temperatures to preclude the occurrence of creep. Some special metals, such as titanium, creep at temperatures of only 35% of their absolute temperature melting point. Nickel- and cobalt-base superalloys, as well as eutectic alloys such as 63Sn-37Pb solder, are creep resistant up to approximately 75% of their melting point. For polymers, a melting point does not exist in the same sense as it does for metals. Instead, the dividing temperature region between being brittle (glassy) and being very pliable (rubbery) is the glass-transition temperature. Above this temperature, polymers become weak and deform readily in a time-dependent manner (creep). Unless polymers are chemically designed specifically to resist high temperature (e.g., Kevlar,<sup>TM</sup> Dupont), creep deformation typically occurs at room or slightly elevated temperatures. In any case, for each material there is a minimum temperature above which creep should be considered.

### Special Aspects of Strain in the Creep Range

As emphasized in the companion volume on room-temperature fatigue (Ref 1.1), inelastic strain causes the degradation of a material that eventually results in fatigue crack initiation, propagation, and fracture. Inelastic strain also results in time-dependent creep deformation and rupture, as explained in this volume on fatigue at elevated temperatures. At room temperature, inelastic deformation is by external and internal forces that move the atoms around, causing them to assume new positions within the crystalline lattice. Dislocations assist in the atomic motion, as has been described in the Appendix and in Chapter 10 of Ref 1.1. At high temperature, atomic motion is assisted by the greater vibrational frequency of the atoms about their equilibrium positions. In fact, temperature is a measure of the amplitude of such vibrations; the higher the temperature, the greater is the amplitude of vibration. At high temperature, atoms can overcome the obstacles that prevent their movement by bringing to bear their energy of vibratory motion. The atoms can then move the obstacles in their plane, or they can even climb to a new plane to bypass an obstacle. Thus, at high temperature, inelastic deformation can occur that involves mechanisms that are not available at low temperatures.

**Activation Energy.** Physicists usually explain high-temperature deformation phenomena by introducing the term called activation energy. Activation energy is a measure of the resistance of a material to undergo distinct events at the atomic level. It may be regarded like the admission charge for participating in an event.

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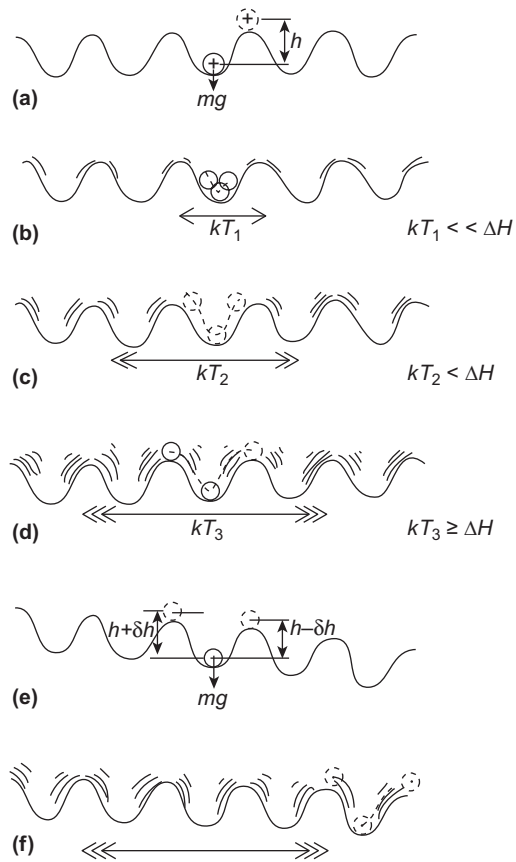
Chemical reactions, diffusion, and creep are common examples of such events. Activation energy for self-diffusion is considered first, because this energy has a major influence on the creep resistance of materials. A great amount of research has been performed by physicists using pure metals.

Activation energy,  $\Delta H$ , for self-diffusion is closely related to the energy to break atomic bonds and is a material constant. High activation energy requires a high energy source, such as temperature, to provide the driving force to induce atomic events. Bonds at a free surface are easier to break than those along a grain boundary; hence, surface diffusion occurs more readily than diffusion along grain boundaries. Similarly, atomic bonds at grain boundaries are weaker than bonds within the interior of a grain, leading to higher rates of diffusion along grain boundaries.

To overcome the activation energy, it is necessary to provide excitation energy. Thermal energy is the major driving force for the processes of immediate interest. Consequently, self-diffusion and creep are referred to as thermally activated processes. Absolute temperature,  $T$ , is a direct indicator of thermal energy, expressed as  $kT$ , where  $k$  is the Boltzmann's constant. The ratio of the activation energy to the excitation energy,  $(\Delta H/kT)$ , is a key factor in dictating the rate of occurrence of events. The actual rate is described by an exponential equation where the rate of diffusion is proportional to  $\exp(-\Delta H/kT)$ . This classical relationship for thermally activated processes is called the Arrhenius equation, after the Swedish chemist (1859–1927) who recognized the applicability of this empirical equation to many chemical processes that are time and temperature dependent. The true behavior at the atomic level is governed by the laws of statistical quantum mechanics, a topic well beyond the scope of the current chapter.

To aid in the visualization of how thermally activated, diffusion-controlled processes involve activation energy, a highly simplified mechanical model is sketched in Fig. 1.1(a). Physicists may regard this simplistic model as unnecessary. However, it is a helpful analogy for engineers to grasp the macroscopic causes and effects due to thermally activated creep. A ball, representing an atom of mass  $m$ , sits in a trough with troughs on either side. A measure of the activation energy  $\Delta H$  for the ball to jump to another trough is the potential energy required to lift the ball up and over the barrier of height  $h$ . If the troughs

Potential energy ( $mg \times h$ ) = Activation energy ( $\Delta H$ )



**Fig. 1.1** Schematic of thermal activation energy using a mechanical energy analogy

are oscillated back and forth at temperature  $T_1$  with an energy representative of the thermal energy  $kT_1$ , the ball will roll back and forth, forcing it to roll part way up the sides of the trough (Fig. 1.1b). With greater excitation energy, as indicated by the increased amplitude of oscillation (simulating increased atomic activity as temperature is increased to  $T_2$ ), the ball will roll even further up the side of the trough (Fig. 1.1c). With further increase in temperature to  $T_3$ , the point is eventually reached where the ball can pass over the top edge of the barrier (Fig. 1.1d), enabling it to drop into the adjoining trough, and the event is completed. At this temperature, the available excitation energy  $kT_3$  equals or exceeds the activation energy  $\Delta H$  required of the event. (The simple model gives the erroneous impression that no diffusion occurs at the macroscopic level until a discrete temperature is reached. In fact, discrete behavior occurs only

## Chapter 1: Creep Under Monotonic and Cyclic Loading / 3

for any one given atom out of the billions and billions of atoms participating in the process. While each atom requires the same action energy to permit a jump, the nature of the thermal excitation is not discrete. A broad statistical spectrum of “temperatures” exist at the individual atom level. The vibrational activity of each atom can be significantly different from its siblings. This variation gives rise to a few atoms jumping at a relatively low statistically average temperature. Similarly, it gives rise to a few atoms not jumping, even at very high temperatures. As a result, there is no discrete temperature at which diffusion commences. The Arrhenius equation describes the spectrum of temperatures over which diffusion transitions from negligible to dominant. It should also be recognized that lattice site jumping is not done by an atom but rather by a vacancy, which is the absence of an atom at a lattice site.) As either the amplitude or frequency of oscillation is further increased, the time it takes to cause the ball to change troughs will decrease. In a given period of time, more jumps will take place. After a period of oscillations, the location of the ball will be random, since, in this simplified model, there is no bias to cause the ball to move either to the right or the left. This simple aid is adequate to envision the random process of self-diffusion, a process that results in the homogenization of the state of the material at the macroscopic level. Diffusion processes are the main requisites for creep. However, creep is also significantly affected by mechanical stresses applied to the atomic lattice; the greater the stress, the higher the rate of creep. The simple model thus requires modification to accommodate the influence of mechanical stress activation.

If a slight tilt is given to the troughs (Fig. 1.1e), the ball would have a small bias to progress more easily in the downhill direction than uphill. This is due to the slight difference in potential energy associated with uphill  $h + \delta h$  and downhill  $h - \delta h$  jumps. Thus, after a lengthy period of exposure to oscillations, the ball would eventually progress downhill to a lower potential energy state (Fig. 1.1f).

There is an analogy to the creep process during which diffusion is responsible for time-dependent strain occurring in the direction of the biasing creep stress. Obviously, if no stress is applied, there will be no creep; that is, the material will not change its dimensions with time. Application of stress, however, creates such a bias. This bias takes the form of a dilation of

the atomic lattice, particularly at a diffusion-susceptible grain boundary having a component of normal tensile stress. The atomic dilation slightly reduces the atomic bond strength locally, thus negligibly reducing the apparent activation energy. However, the net result is that, for a constant thermal excitation, the creep rate will be greater the greater the biasing stress. When activation energies are determined experimentally, their numerical values are virtually insensitive to the minor mechanical energy contributions from stress. In fact, at low temperatures where the thermal excitation energy is very low, the application of stresses approaching the ultimate tensile strength of a material is insufficient to cause measurable diffusion-controlled creep. In other words, the mechanical excitation energy, even under extremely high-stress conditions, is usually insignificant compared to the required energy to activate significant diffusional processes associated with creep.

The tipping of the trough in the mechanical model shown in Fig. 1.1 is analogous to stress causing a biasing of the motion of the otherwise random atomic jumps during creep. At a given temperature and zero stress, atoms are in a constant stage of agitation and can jump randomly from one atomic position to another. The actual motion is really facilitated by the result of the motion of vacancies. They are present in the lattice in large numbers and are in thermodynamic equilibrium at high temperatures. The higher the temperature, the greater the number of vacancies. The end result of this random jumping process would be no net change of position of the atoms over a long period of time, unless a biasing stress is present.

The presence of a biasing tensile stress also alters the atomic spacing. Tensile stress opens the spacing of atoms in the direction of the stress (Fig. 1.1f), facilitating atomic jumps in that direction because less energy is required for diffusion in this dilated state. At the same time, the Poisson contraction perpendicular to the stress draws the atoms closer together in the transverse direction, making atomic jumps in that direction more difficult and hence less likely to occur. With more jumps of atoms into positions aligned with the tensile stress direction, the length of the material will increase in that direction. This extension is creep deformation. The greater the stress bias, a greater amount of creep strain accumulates in a given time; thus, the creep rate is greater. Similarly, at a given stress, the higher the temperature, the greater is the

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thermal excitation energy and the more events that can occur in a given period of time (i.e., the creep rate increases).

The classical exponential rate equation of Arrhenius is used to relate creep rate to activation energy ( $\Delta H$ ) and thermal excitation energy ( $kT$ ):

$$\text{Creep rate} \propto \exp(-\Delta H/kT)$$

If the temperature is decreased to a low enough level, the number of atomic jumps that are possible decreases to a point wherein the time between jumps becomes so great, from a practical engineering point of view, that creep does not occur. Thus, two major factors are involved at high temperature:

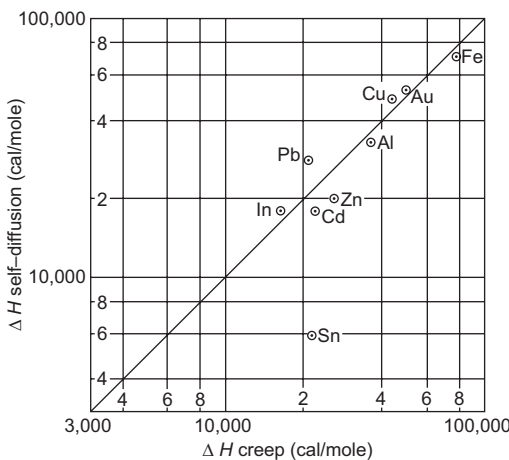
- The activation energy for diffusion
- The stress that biases the direction of the diffusion

For pure metals, there is a direct relationship between the activation energy for self-diffusion and creep, as shown in Fig. 1.2. The activation energy for creep of pure metals is approximately the same as the activation energy for self-diffusion, as demonstrated by Dorn (Ref 1.3) and his coworkers in 1956.

**Types of Creep Involved in Engineering Analysis.** In the engineering problems we shall discuss, consideration is given to four types of creep: primary, secondary, tertiary, and recovery, as shown in Fig. 1.3(a). The four curves, labeled curve 1 through curve 4, prominently display each of the four types of creep deformation with time at a constant tensile stress and tem-

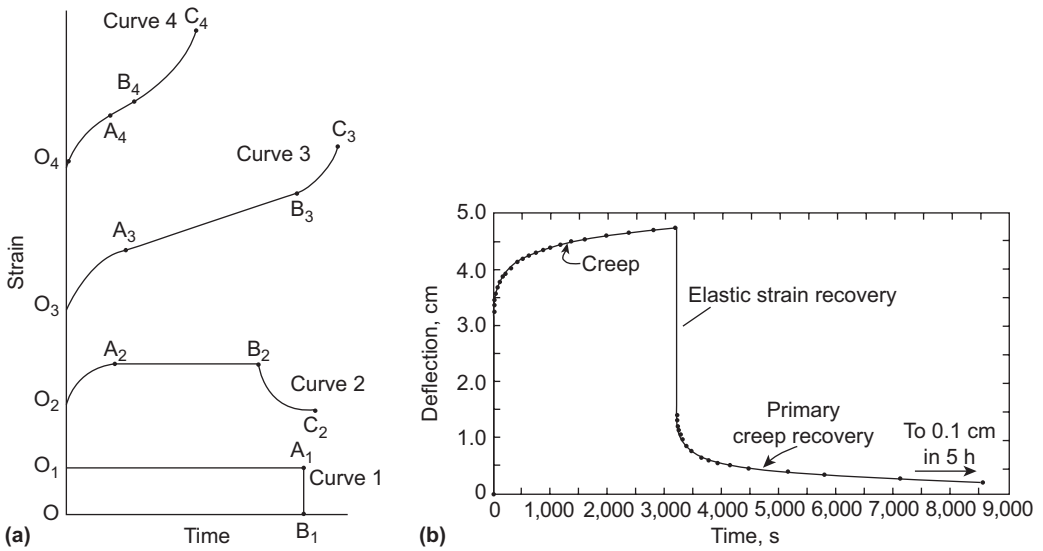
perature. For each curve, there is a point A that represents the instantaneous strains (both elastic and plastic) induced upon initial loading:

- *Curve 1:* For curve  $O_1A_1$  in Fig. 1.3(a), the stress and temperature are too low to cause time-dependent deformation; only instantaneous elastic strain is present when stress is applied. Upon removal of stress, the strain would return to zero (point  $B_1$ ).
- *Curve 2:* For curve  $O_2A_2B_2C_2$  in Fig. 1.3(a), the instantaneous strain ( $OO_2$ ) is elastic with negligible plasticity. The combination of stress and temperature, however, is sufficient to cause, with time, a form of nonlinear strain that is called primary or first-stage creep ( $O_2A_2$ ). Because the rate of accumulation of primary or first-stage creep strain diminishes with time, it is also referred to as transient creep. For this curve, the stress is low enough that negligible strain is accumulated beyond  $A_2$ , and the segment of the creep curve is horizontal. At point  $B_2$ , the stress is abruptly decreased to zero, and the initial elastic strain ( $OO_2$ ) is retrieved ( $B_2C_2 = OO_2$ ). An interesting event also occurs during unloading; a portion of the original transient creep strain ( $B_2C_2$ ) is recovered with time under zero applied stress. This recovered creep strain has been termed anelastic strain. Kennedy (Ref 1.4) devotes a lengthy chapter to modeling of anelasticity.
- *Curve 3:* The curve  $OO_3A_3B_3C_3$  represents the most commonly encountered creep behavior of engineering interest. Segment  $OO_3$  contains the instantaneous elastic and any plastic strain response to an applied tensile stress. Transient creep strain dominates the primary or first stage of creep deformation ( $O_3$  to  $A_3$ ). After  $A_3$ , the creep curve becomes a linear function of time until point  $B_3$  is reached. This linear region is called secondary or steady-state creep. After point  $B_3$ , the creep rate accelerates, and the curve becomes concave upward, and rupture (failure) is imminent at  $C_3$ . This stage of creep deformation is referred to as third-stage or tertiary creep.
- *Curve 4:* This curve represents an extreme case. There is a very little steady-state (secondary) creep regime ( $A_4B_4$ ), and the creep curve transitions rapidly from first-stage to third-stage creep. This case is not common, but it can occur if a very high creep stress is applied.



**Fig. 1.2** One-to-one relationship of activation energy for self-diffusion with activation energy for creep of pure metals. Source: Ref 1.2

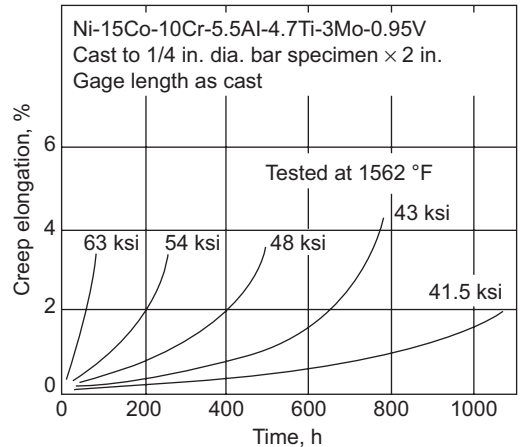
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**Fig. 1.3** Time-dependent deformation and recovery of primary creep. (a) Schematics of various time-dependent deformation. (b) Curve of primary creep recovery for polycrystalline aluminum in torsional creep at 175 °C (347 °F). Source: Ref 1.2

The creep behavior for most pure metals and alloys can be described by the aforementioned curves. However, alloys such as the nickel- and cobalt-base superalloys tend to exhibit limited amounts of primary creep strain, a less well-defined secondary creep regime, and a long but slowly accelerating tertiary creep behavior. These alloys have been purposely engineered to withstand very high homologous temperatures [ $T/T_m$ , where the service temperature ( $T$ ) on the Kelvin scale (K) is expressed as a ratio of the melting temperature ( $T_m$ ), also in absolute temperature]. Alloys with a high degree of creep resistance at higher homologous temperatures are used in applications such as aircraft gas turbine engines. To achieve their creep resistance, the microstructures are trapped in a metastable hardened state. At sufficiently high temperature and stress, creep will occur. However, under these conditions, the microstructure can also change, weakening the built-in creep resistance. The end result is a slow degradation of the original creep resistance superimposed on the more conventional creep behavior, resulting in what appears to be tertiary creep. Typical creep curves for the cast nickel-base superalloy IN-100 at 850 °C (1560 °F) are shown in Fig. 1.4 (Ref 1.5).

The subject of creep is very complicated and has been studied extensively both by scientists and engineers. Numerous books have been devoted to this subject, among them Dorn (Ref 1.2),



**Fig. 1.4** Creep curves for a typical nickel-base superalloy, IN-100, at 850 °C (1562 °F). Source: Ref 1.5

Kennedy (Ref 1.4), Garafalo (Ref 1.6), Gittus (Ref 1.7), Kocks et al. (Ref 1.8), Nabarro (Ref 1.9), Poirier (Ref 1.10), Raj et al. (Ref 1.11), Raj (Ref 1.12), Caillard and Martin (Ref 1.13), and Kassner and Perez-Prado (Ref 1.14). In this chapter, the main objective is to present just those concepts that enable an understanding of methodologies in assessing creep fatigue, creep rupture, and thermal stress. No attempt is made to provide exhaustive coverage on the subject of creep deformation, but those desiring further

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exposure to this subject are referred to the aforementioned publications.

### Creep Mechanisms and Representations of Special Interest

**Diffusion.** The intense vibration of the atoms at high temperature (by definition, temperature is a measure of the intensity of atomic vibration) means that atoms can diffuse more readily from one site to another. Strictly speaking, it is the vacancies that diffuse, but the end effect is the same. The role of the applied stress is to bias the direction of diffusion. Thus, what we observe as creep deformation is the gradual displacement of the atoms in the direction of the applied stress, changing dimension in the direction of the force as well as in the directions transverse to the stress in order to maintain approximate constancy of volume. Evidence of diffusion involvement in creep was demonstrated for pure metals in Fig. 1.2. For complex alloys, several types and sizes of atoms diffuse in accordance with their respective diffusion rates, thus complicating the interpretation of creep results in terms of a unique activation energy. Nevertheless, it can readily be accepted that diffusion is generally involved in the creep process.

**Dislocation Movement.** As at room temperature, the movement of dislocations at high temperature results in strain, but some dislocations can be blocked temporarily and thus are unable to contribute to strain. At high temperature, however, such immobilized dislocations can be unlocked by climbing to a plane above an obstacle. The time dependency of this process derives from the time it takes for the set of atoms along the line of the dislocation to move to other sites through the vacancy diffusion process and to allow the dislocation to climb over the obstacle and continue its motion.

The diffusion of vacancies can occur within grains or within the grain boundaries. When they occur in the regular crystal lattice within a grain, the resulting creep is referred to as Nabarro-Herring creep (as discussed by Raj and Ashby in Ref 1.15). In this case, the creep rate is proportional to stress ( $\sigma$ ) and inversely proportional to the square of the grain size ( $d$ ):

$$\dot{\epsilon} = C \frac{\sigma}{d^2} \quad (\text{Eq 1.1})$$

If the diffusion is along grain boundaries, it results in Coble creep (Ref 1.16), and the creep

rate is proportional to stress but inversely proportional to the cube of the grain size:

$$\dot{\epsilon} = C' \frac{\sigma}{d^3} \quad (\text{Eq 1.2})$$

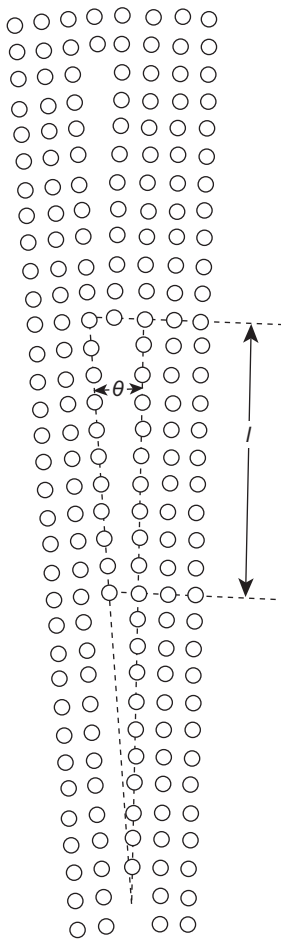
Thus, it is clear that materials with fine grain size are very susceptible to creep, while coarse-grained materials are more resistant to creep. It is for this reason that turbine blades were initially made from very coarse-grained castings. It is also one of the reasons why turbine blades were later made by directional solidification to minimize the number of grain-boundary numbers, especially to avoid them in a direction normal to tensile stress. It is also a reason for the subsequent introduction of single-crystal turbine blades with no grain boundaries at all. Other reasons are discussed in Chapter 6, "Total Strain-Based Strain-Range Partitioning—Isothermal and Thermomechanical Fatigue," of this book. This subject has also been briefly discussed in Chapter 11, "Avoidance, Control, and Repair of Fatigue Damage," in the companion volume (Ref 1.1).

**Special Role of Grain Boundaries in Creep.** To emphasize the role of grain boundaries, we include the next two illustrative figures. A small-angle tilt boundary is shown in Fig. 1.5, illustrating how edge dislocations combine to make it possible for adjacent grains to have different crystallographic orientations. Grain boundaries can, in general, be thought of as planar arrays of edge dislocations, and the greater the difference in the angle between the crystallographic orientations of adjacent crystals, the larger will be the number of dislocations required to accommodate the misfit.

Figure 1.6 shows an interesting result, which demonstrates the role of sliding in the grain boundary of a bicrystal. The white lines are straight fiducial marks scribed on the surface before the deformation is imposed. After some time under force, the two grains slide along their mutual boundary, producing steps in the fiducial lines across the grain boundary. Various methods have been used to study grain-boundary sliding in bicrystals, among them those shown in Fig. 1.7. Because of the high slip activity in the grain boundaries, it is not uncommon to observe heavy cracking in some materials after creep deformation. Figure 1.8 shows the grain-boundary cracking for aluminum and a stainless steel. Not all materials fail in an intergranular manner, and even the same



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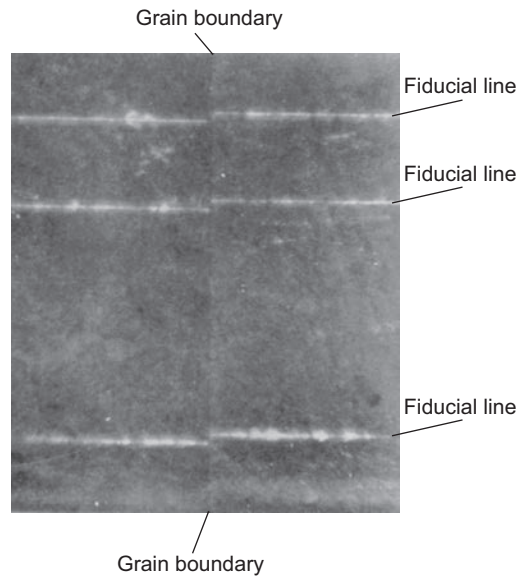


**Fig. 1.5** Arrangement of atoms in a small-angle tilt boundary to demonstrate that grain boundaries contain many edge dislocations. Source: Ref 1.2

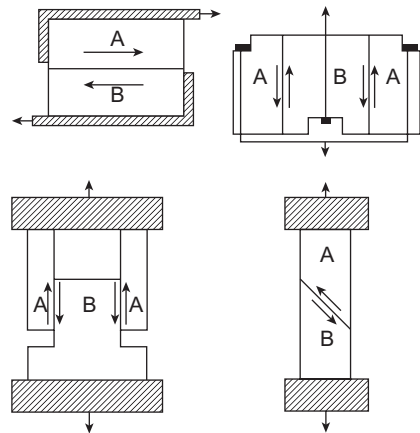
material does not always fail intergranularly under all conditions, but it is a common form of failure.

**Deformation Maps.** Ashby and coworkers (Ref 1.20) developed a convenient map that readily displays the regions wherein the various mechanisms contribute to the complex deformation associated with the inclusive designation “creep.” Figure 1.9 shows, in principle, the concept behind these maps. The horizontal coordinate is the homologous temperature ( $T/T_m$ ). The vertical scale is the ratio of stress to shear modulus (at each value of homologous temperature). The map is divided into four regions:

- In region A, the deformation is basically the same as the common dislocation glide encountered at room temperature. Vacancies



**Fig. 1.6** Sliding along the boundary of tin bicrystal after 50 h under a shear stress of  $590 \text{ g/cm}^2$  at  $222 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ . Original magnification approximately  $20\times$ . White lines are fiducial marks. Source: Ref 1.17

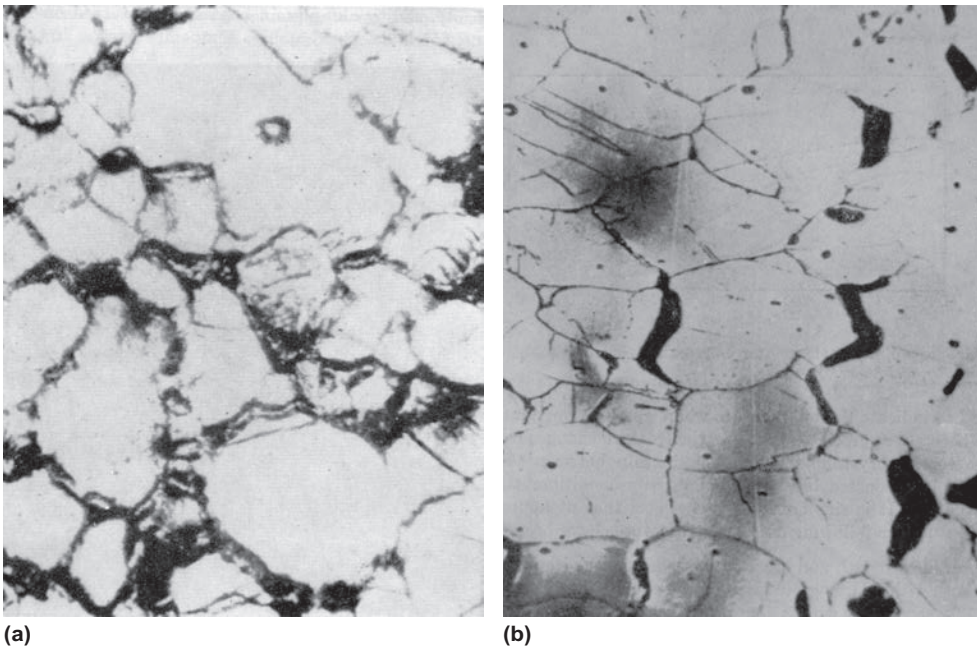


**Fig. 1.7** Schematic of the types of tests used to study sliding in bicrystals. Source: Ref 1.2

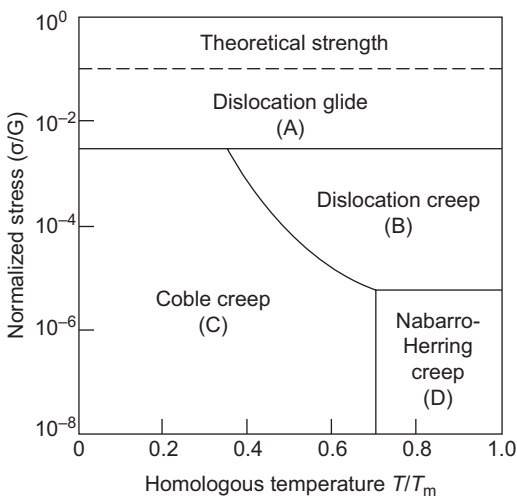
in the lattice are brought into configuration by the deformation itself. It is essentially plastic flow behavior dominating the entire temperature range.

- In region B, the mechanism of straining is still the same as in region A, except that the creep is enhanced by diffusion of atoms and vacancies due to the agitation of the lattice at high temperature. The main driving force is still dislocation glide, and thus, the movement requires a relatively high stress.

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**Fig. 1.8** Typical examples of grain-boundary cracking in creep tests (dark areas are voids at grain boundaries). (a) Evidence of grain-boundary activity in an aluminum specimen after 210 h creep under a stress of 19 MPa (1.4 ton/in.<sup>2</sup>) at 250 °C (480 °F). Original magnification 150×. Source: Ref 1.18. (b) Intergranular fissures near fracture surface of austenitic stainless steel at 750 °C (1380 °F). Source: Ref 1.19



**Fig. 1.9** Simplified deformation mechanism map. Source: Adapted from Ref 1.20

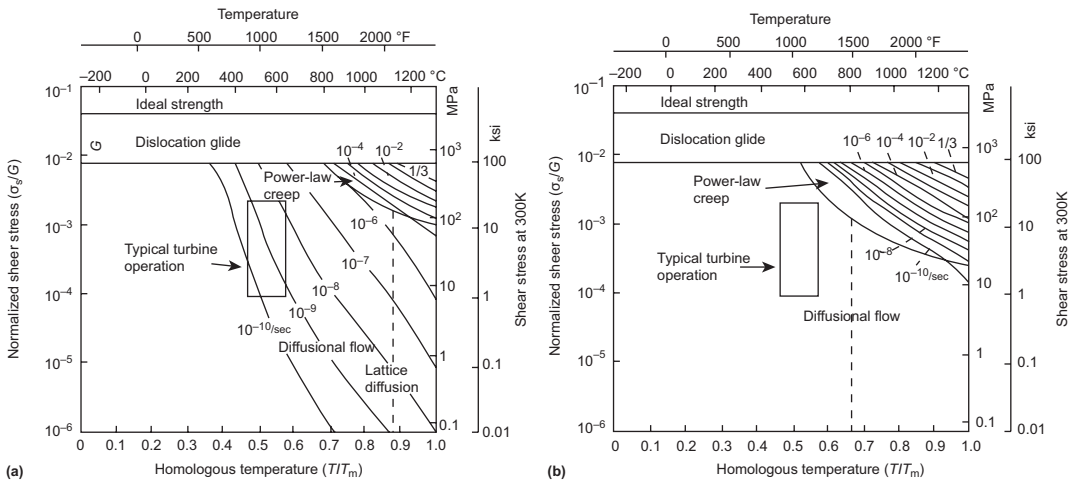
- In region C, the controlling mechanism is diffusion within the grain boundaries where the atoms are in considerable disarray, so that diffusion can occur even at very low stresses. This type of creep was described by

Coble (Ref 1.16) and was therefore labeled in his honor.

- In region D, the deformation is controlled primarily by diffusion, because the temperature is so high that minimal stress is needed to cause the deformation, although the direction of the deformation is biased by the direction of applied stress. Nabarro (Ref 1.21) and Herring (Ref 1.22) first made reference to this type of deformation.

Deformation maps for MAR-M200, a nickel-base superalloy once commonly used for aircraft turbine blades, are shown in Fig. 1.10. In Fig. 1.10(a), the grain size is quite small (100 μm); in Fig. 1.10(b), a large grain size of 1 cm is shown. Also shown in these figures are lines of constant creep rate and the boundaries of typical turbine blade operation. It is clear that for the very small grain size, the Coble creep ranges are greatly enhanced because of the many grain boundaries, while for the coarse-grained material, there is minor Coble creep or even Nabarro-Herring creep due to the absence of many grain boundaries. For the same range of creep rates (10<sup>-10</sup> to 1.0 s<sup>-1</sup>), the coarse-grained material requires much higher stresses and temperatures

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**Fig. 1.10** Creep deformation maps for MAR-M200. (a) Grain size = 100  $\mu\text{m}$ . (b) Grain size = 1 cm. Source: Ref 1.7

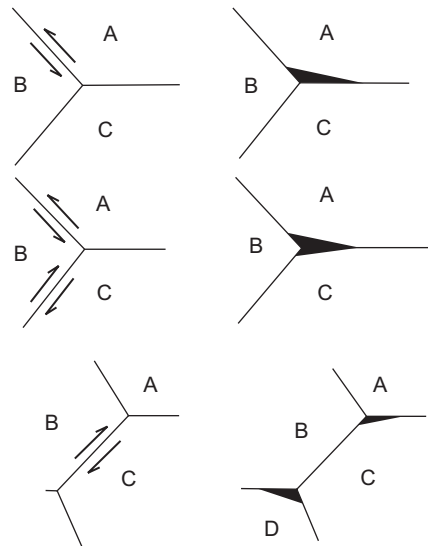
than the fine-grained material. Considerable creep can occur within the stress and temperature range encountered in typical turbine blade applications for the fine-grained material but not for the coarse-grained alloy. As discussed earlier, this reason, among others, is why a coarse grain size is more desirable for turbine blades. Even better are directionally solidified or single-crystal structures. While the fundamental understanding of the role of grain-boundaries motivated the concept of minimizing grain-boundaries as a means of reducing grain-boundary creep, representation by plots such as Fig. 1.10(b) helps to quantify the phenomenon.

**Physical Damage Associated with Creep.**

The creep process produces various modes of internal damage in the material. One such mode is cracking in the grain boundaries, where several types of discontinuities can develop. First, there are the incompatibilities of the sliding of adjacent grains at their intersections (triple points) (Fig. 1.11). A case of actual triple-point cracking in an aluminum alloy was shown in Fig. 1.8.

Other types of intergranular cracking, designated w-type (wedge) and r-type (round), can also develop (Fig. 1.12). In w-type cracking, a crack penetrates from boundary into a grain, so that the crack is within one grain only. In r-type cracking, the cracks are simply circular holes in a grain boundary due to the agglomeration of coalesced vacancies.

In addition, the grain boundaries contain many uncombined elements that did not partici-

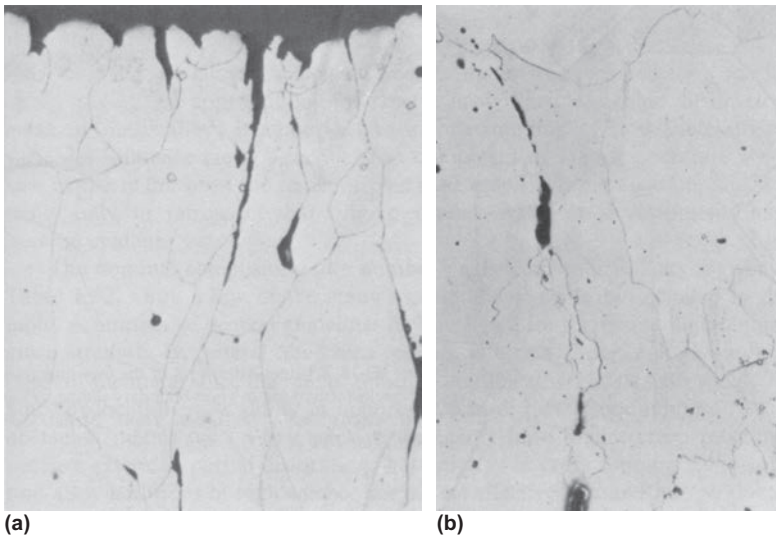


**Fig. 1.11** Schematic drawings of the way intergranular cracks form due to grain-boundary sliding. Source: Ref 1.23

pate in the chemical and metallurgical reaction during formation of the base material. They are therefore available to react with other elements and compounds (sometimes impurities form brittle compounds) and consequently appear in the grain boundaries as many small cracks that result from failure of these compounds.

Ashby (Ref 1.20) has developed fracture mechanism diagrams for numerous materials. The regions delineate wherein different types of

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**Fig. 1.12** Two types of creep cracks found in grain boundaries: (a) w-type cracks and (b) r-type cracks. Source: Ref 1.24

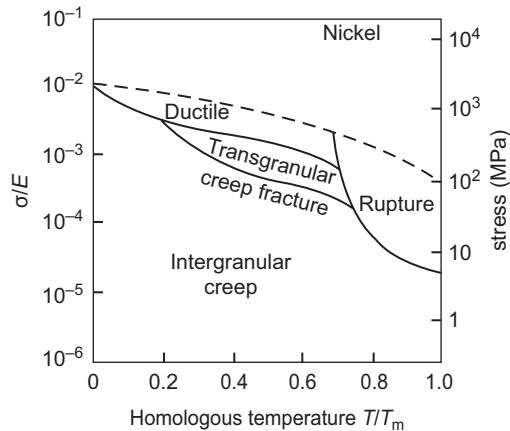
cracking can occur. A typical example is shown in Fig. 1.13 for nickel.

**Representation of Creep Behavior**

**Monotonic Creep.** Many attempts have been made to represent creep curves and creep-rate processes by mathematical expressions to aid analytical studies. One of the first was Andrade (Ref 1.25), who, in 1914, investigated the early stages of creep (primary creep) and who is especially noted for the  $(t)^{1/3}$  term so often used in creep representation. Kennedy (Ref 1.4, pages 151–153) has summarized many proposals from the literature, as shown in Tables 1.1 to 1.3.

Conway and Sjødahl (Ref 1.55) have provided a compendium of mathematical procedures for obtaining the constants in various choices of these equations. Graham and his co-workers (Ref 1.39) have provided elaborate procedures for very accurate representation of any curve using a large number of terms. However, it should be emphasized that the mere mathematical fitting of a curve, while useful in numerical analysis, does not necessarily reflect the validity of the physical process implied by the equations.

Misleading results can sometimes be obtained from simple curve fits to the experimental data. As an example, the creep curves of



**Fig. 1.13** Fracture mechanism map for nickel. Source: Ref 1.24

0.3Mo-0.23V steel in Fig. 1.14 were analyzed by Manson and Sissay Hailu (then a graduate student at Case Western Reserve University) to show how misleading results can sometimes be obtained from pure curve fitting. Initially, the purpose was simply to show how creep curves could be represented analytically. As one possibility, the following equation was chosen for curve fitting:

$$\epsilon = A(t)^{1/3} + B(t)^{2/3} + C(t) \tag{Eq 1.3}$$

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**Table 1.1 Creep strain versus time representations listed by Kennedy**

<b>Simple functions</b>		
$\epsilon = at/(1 + bt)$	Freudenthal	Ref 1.26
<b>Logarithmic functions</b>		
$\epsilon = a + b \log t$	Phillips	Ref 1.27
	Boas and Schmid	Ref 1.28
	Smith	Ref 1.29
	Chevenard	Ref 1.30
$\epsilon = a\{\log[1 + bt]\}$	Laurent and Eudier	Ref 1.31
$\epsilon = \log t + bt + c$	Mott and Nabarro	Ref 1.32
	Weaver	Ref 1.33
<b>Exponential functions</b>		
$\epsilon = a + bt - c \exp(-dt)$	McVetty	Ref 1.34
$\epsilon = at + b[1 - \exp(-ct)]$	Soderberg	Ref 1.35
$\epsilon = a[1 - \exp(-bt)] + c[1 - \exp(-dt)]$	McHenry	Ref 1.36
<b>Power function</b>		
$\epsilon = a + bt^n$	Swift and Tyndall	Ref 1.37
and, in particular,	Cottrell and Aytakin	Ref 1.38
$\epsilon = a(1 + b^{1/3}) \exp kt$	Andrade	Ref 1.25
<b>Power series</b>		
$\epsilon = at^m + bt^n - ct^p$	Graham	Ref 1.39
simplifying to the special case		
$\epsilon = a + b^{1/3} + ct + dt^3$ (thus approximating Andrade's form)		
<b>Logarithmic plus power functions</b>		
$\epsilon = a \log t + bt^m$	Wyatt (particularly $n = 1/3$ )	Ref 1.40

$\epsilon$ , tensile creep strain;  $t$ , time;  $d\epsilon/dt$ , minimum creep rate;  $e$ , base of natural logarithms;  $\sigma$ , stress; and  $T$ , absolute temperature (K). Other letters denote material constants. Note: The use of the same symbol in different equations does not mean that these constants have the same value. Source: Ref 1.4

**Table 1.2 Creep strain/strain rate versus temperature-dependent relationships, from Kennedy**

<b>Exponential temperature functions</b>		
$d\epsilon/dt = a \exp(-Q/RT)$	Mott	Ref 1.41
$\epsilon = a[t \exp(-Q/RT)]^n$	Kauzmann	Ref 1.42
$d\epsilon/dt = aT \exp(-Q/RT)$	Nowick and Machlin	Ref 1.43
	Dorn	Ref 1.44
	Dushman et al.	Ref 1.45
	Stowell	Ref 1.46
<b>Simple temperature functions</b>		
$\epsilon = aT^{2/3} f(t)$	Mott and Nabarro	Ref 1.47
$\epsilon = aT f(t)$	Smith	Ref 1.48
$\epsilon = f[T(a + \log t)]$	Larson and Miller	Ref 1.49
$\epsilon = f[(T - a)/(\log t - b)]$	Manson and Haferd	Ref 1.50
<b>Hyperbolic temperature functions</b>		
$d\epsilon/dt = a \exp(-Q/RT) \sinh(b/RT)$	Feltham	Ref 1.51
$\epsilon = cf[t(T - T')^{-B}]$	Graham	Ref 1.39

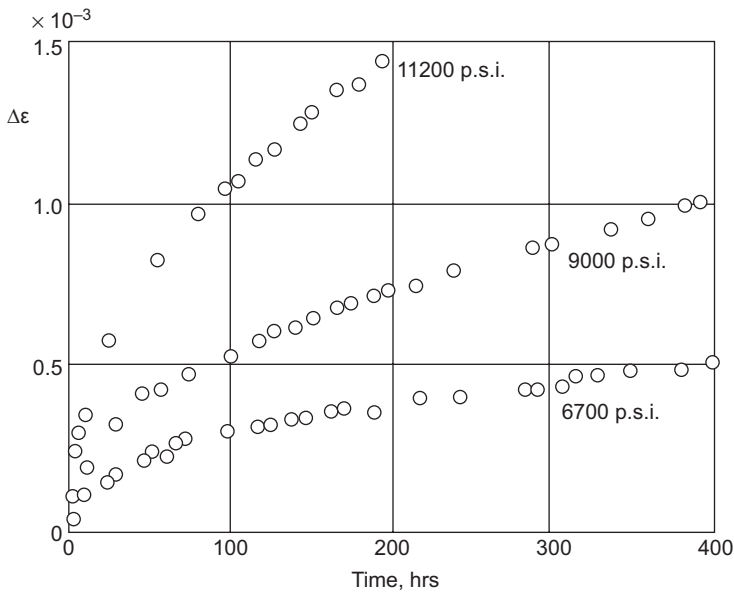
Source: Ref 1.4

**Table 1.3 Creep strain/strain rate versus stress-dependent relationships, from Kennedy**

<b>Exponential stress functions</b>		
$\epsilon = af(t) \exp(b\sigma)$	Dorn (high stresses)	Ref 1.44
$d\epsilon/dt = a \exp(b + c\sigma)$	Dushman et al.	Ref 1.45
$d\epsilon/dt = a[\exp(b\sigma) - 1]$	Soderberg	Ref 1.35
<b>Power-law stress functions</b>		
$\epsilon = af(t) \sigma^p$	Norton	Ref 1.52
	Bailey	Ref 1.53
	Dorn (low stresses)	Ref 1.44
	Graham	Ref 1.39
<b>Hyperbolic stress functions</b>		
$d\epsilon/dt = a \sinh(b\sigma)$	Nadai	Ref 1.54
$d\epsilon/dt = a \sinh(b\sigma/RT)$	Feltham	Ref 1.51

Source: Ref 1.4

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**Fig. 1.14** Creep curves for 0.3Mo-0.23V steel at 645 °C. Source: Ref 1.4

where  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  were to be determined as functions of stress and temperature. In one procedure, we simply chose a number of points for testing stress (e.g., at 9.0 ksi) and determined  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  by a least-squares fit. This fit to the same experimental data was also very good, as shown by Fig. 1.15.

However, contemplation of the physical significance of the terms led to an inconsistency. The term  $C(t)$  should, in some way, be representative of the steady-state creep behavior, and having it result in a negative analytic value, while the stress was positive, did not seem reasonable or accurate.

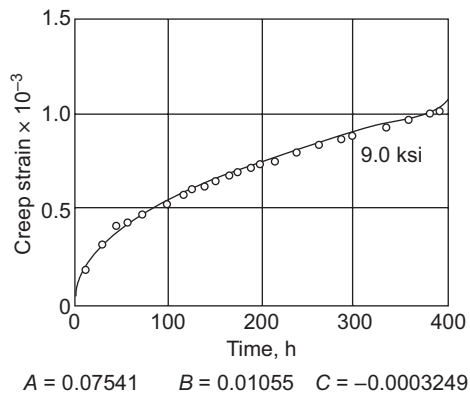
An alternate analysis was then made using the equation:

$$\epsilon = A(t)^{1/3} + B(t) \tag{Eq 1.4}$$

The constants  $A$  and  $B$  were easily determined by least-squares analysis, choosing any desired number of numerical values along a curve. An even easier procedure is to divide both sides of the equation by  $t$ , resulting in:

$$\frac{\epsilon}{t} = A(t)^{-2/3} + B \tag{Eq 1.5}$$

Thus, a plot of  $\epsilon/t$  versus  $(t)^{-2/3}$  should result in a straight line of slope  $A$  and intercept  $B$ . For this example, good straight lines were obtained, as shown in Fig. 1.16. The agreement between the

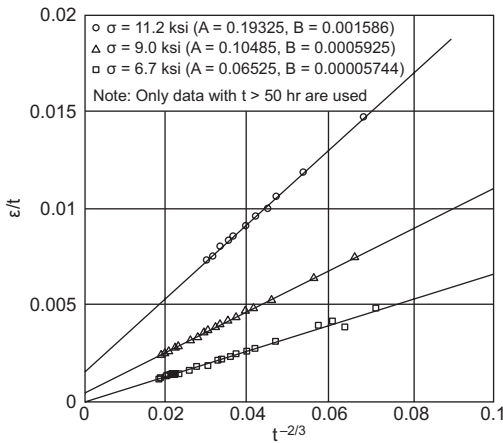


**Fig. 1.15** Fitting the creep curves of 0.3Mo-0.23V steel at 9000 psi and 645 °C by an equation in the form  $\epsilon = A(t)^{1/3} + B(t)^{2/3} + C(t)$ . Source: Prepared by S. Hailu

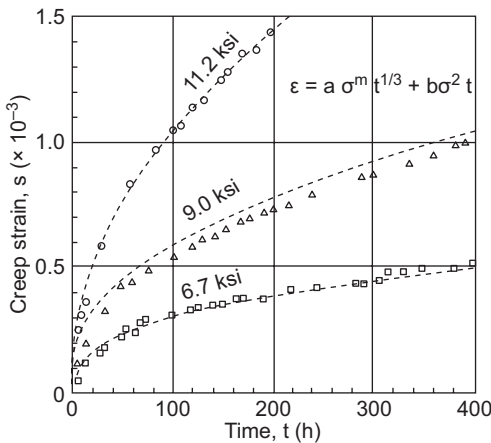
computed curves and the experimental data is again very good, as is shown in Fig. 1.17.

Additional analysis was needed to determine the variation of the constants  $A$  and  $B$  with stress, as shown in Fig. 1.18. Using a logarithmic scale for stress is seen to produce reasonably good correlation and straight lines, that is, a power-law relationship for these constants as a function of stress.

For this particular material and range of stresses, it was thus concluded that a two-term representation would be better than a three-term



**Fig. 1.16** Determination of constants  $A$  and  $B$  for creep equation  $\epsilon = A(t)^{1/3} + B(t)$  for Mo-V steel of Fig. 1.14. In this figure, only the data at times higher than 50 h were used in order to get the best results. Similar analysis using all the data also gave reasonably good results but not as well as that shown in this figure. Calculated from Fig. 1.14. Source: Prepared by S. Hailu



**Fig. 1.17** Determination of constants  $A$  and  $B$  for creep equation  $\epsilon = A(\sigma)^m(t)^{1/3} + B(\sigma)^n(t)$  for 0.3Mo-0.23V steel of Fig. 1.14. Calculated from Fig. 1.14. Source: Prepared by S. Hailu

representation, even though the latter may be slightly better to represent all the data over the entire range. Furthermore, from a theoretical point of view, the two-term representation may be better if one regarded the  $(t)^{1/3}$  term (in Eq 1.4) to be related to transient creep and the  $(t)$  term to be related to the steady-state creep.

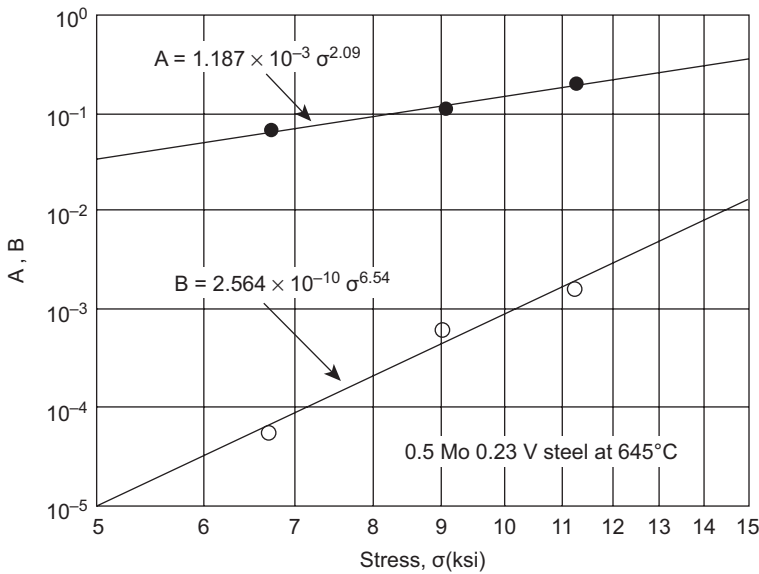
Additional analysis of the Kennedy data, especially as it relates to temperature, is not considered. Further analysis in terms of temperature becomes too complicated for the purpose here.

The complication is the recognition that the activation energy for primary creep may differ from the activation energy for steady-state creep. This would not serve the general purpose under discussion. The purpose here is to indicate that there are many choices for representing creep stress under steady loading as a function of time, stress, and temperature, but that care must be exercised in the choice of the equation selected if it is desired to relate behavior to processes.

**Consideration of Creep under Cyclic Loading.** While extensive literature exists for creep studies under monotonic loading, little exists for cyclic loading in which stress is held for periods of time and alternated between tension and compression. This area is, of course, quite relevant to the study of high-temperature fatigue wherein time-dependent creep deformation is well known to be deleterious to cyclic deformation (strain) resistance. The earliest reported cyclic creep studies dealt with the behavior of low-melting temperature materials, for example, alloys of lead (homologous temperature of 0.5 at room temperature) used as sheathing materials for transatlantic cables. In 1951, Eckel (Ref 1.56) and coworkers designed a unique bending test to apply very low-frequency strain cycling to arsenic-lead specimens. By testing in bending, differences between tensile and compressive stresses and their individual effect on creep rates are masked. Cyclic creep deformation as a major contributor to low-frequency failures was evidenced by the dominant intergranular cracking observed by Eckel.

A decade later, two definitive papers were published at the Joint International Conference on Creep, detailing creep strain response to repeated reversals of the sign of the creep stress. The first paper in the proceeding was by Morrow and Halford (Ref 1.57), and it dealt with the behavior of chemical lead tested at room temperature in reversed torsion of tubular specimens. The nature of the stress state (simple shear) prevented assessment of the individual influences of tensile and compressive stresses. However, the effect of repeated alternating direction of torsion significantly increased the creep rate per reversal. Creep rates steadily increased by an order of magnitude from the 2nd reversal (fatigue half-cycle) to the 100th, as shown in Fig. 1.19. The cyclic torsion tests were not carried to failure during those experiments. Subsequent torsion tests conducted to failure by Kitagawa (Ref 1.58) on the same heat of chemical lead

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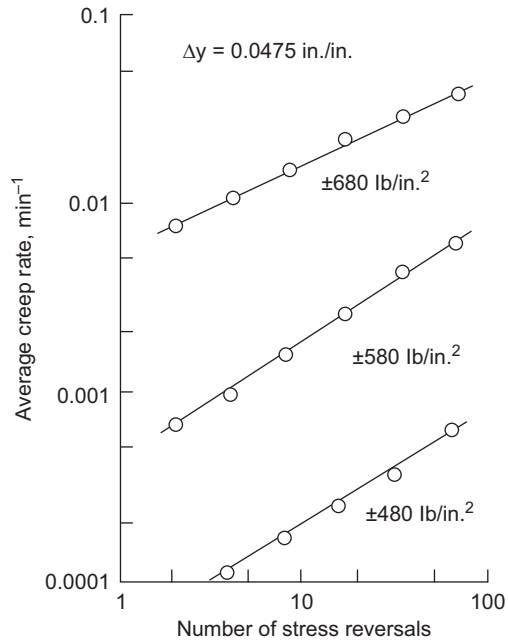


**Fig. 1.18** Dependence of *A* and *B* on stress when temperature is constant (0.3Mo-0.23V steel of Fig. 1.14). Based on Fig. 1.14. Source: Prepared by S. Hailu

clearly revealed that cyclic fractures were due to intergranular creep cracking. Similar intergranular cracking was reported by Grant and his students at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Ref 1.59) for 99.99% Al tested at 425 °C (800 °F) in axial tension-compression strain cycling. All failures were preceded by extensive cyclic grain-boundary migration. Grain boundaries continuously migrated until they formed 45° angles with the loading axis, thus bringing them into alignment with the direction of the maximum shear stress and permitting faster creep rates. Figure 1.20 is a dramatic example of the extent of grain-boundary migration observed.

The second paper in the 1963 International Creep Conference dealing with the relationship of cyclic creep to monotonic creep was by Swindeman (Ref 1.60) of the Oak Ridge National Laboratories. Axially loaded specimens of Inconel were tested at 815 °C (1500 °F) in monotonic tensile creep-rupture and time-to-rupture recorded. The monotonic results were then compared to failure times of cyclic creep-rupture tests in which alternate tensile and compression stresses were held constant and the specimen was allowed to creep until a fixed strain limit was reached. At that point, the direction of the stress was reversed, and creep occurred in the opposite direction.

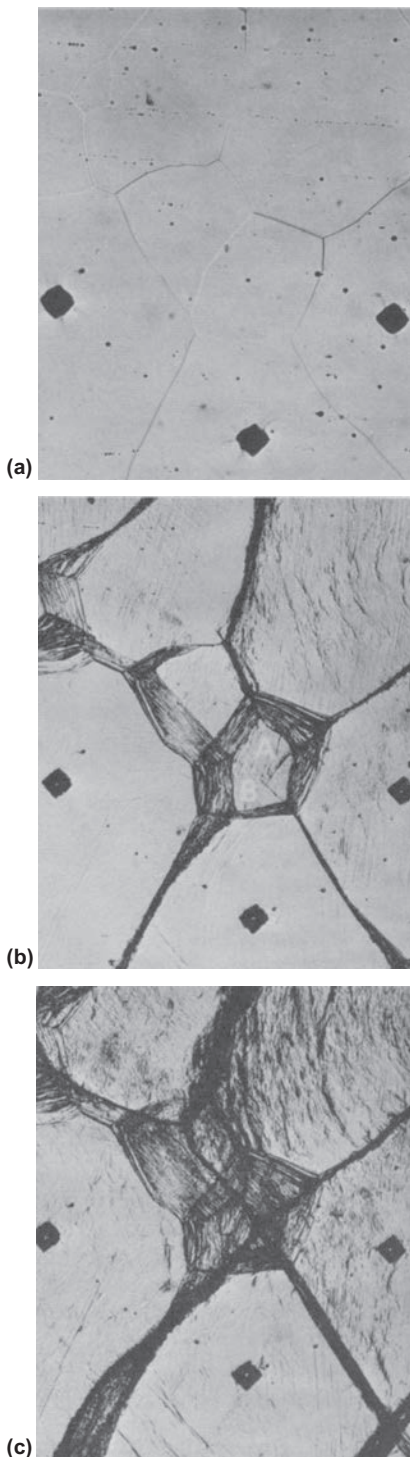
This sequence was followed until the specimen ruptured. For this Inconel alloy and test



**Fig. 1.19** Effect of shear stress amplitude and number of stress reversals on the average creep rate of acid lead at 29 °C (84 °F). Source: Ref 1.57

temperature, the time to rupture at a given cyclic stress was determined to be greater than the rupture time at monotonic creep. Increases of rupture time were on the order of a factor of 4 at high stresses and only 2 at the lowest stresses.





**Fig. 1.20** Surface markings indicative of grain-boundary migration for coarse-grained pure aluminum at 427 °C (800 °F) at a cyclic strain rate of 5% per minute. Black squares are diamond-pyramid indentations used to locate the area studied. (a) Before testing. (b) After 20 cycles. (c) After 100 cycles. Original magnification approximately 40X. Source: Ref 1.59

The rationale was proposed by Swindeman that the differences in time to rupture depended on the fact that the true stress in the monotonic tests was constantly increasing as creep progressed, whereas in the cyclic tests, the true stress remained constant because net extension of the specimen was controlled to be zero.

It was observed that the cyclic creep rates increased above those for monotonic testing, and that the primary or first-stage creep was the principal contributor, although the cyclic steady-state creep rates did increase somewhat. Only tensile creep rate was measured and compared to the monotonic rate at a given stress. At that time, there was little concern for compressive creep damage, because the fledgling Time- and Cycle-Fraction Rule for creep-fatigue interaction, proposed two years earlier by Taira (Ref 1.61), considered only tensile creep. Swindeman concluded from his cyclic and monotonic creep-rupture tests that the ratio (i.e., fraction) of time under cyclic tensile stress relative to the time-to-rupture (in monotonic tension) was a reasonable measure of creep damage during creep-fatigue loading.

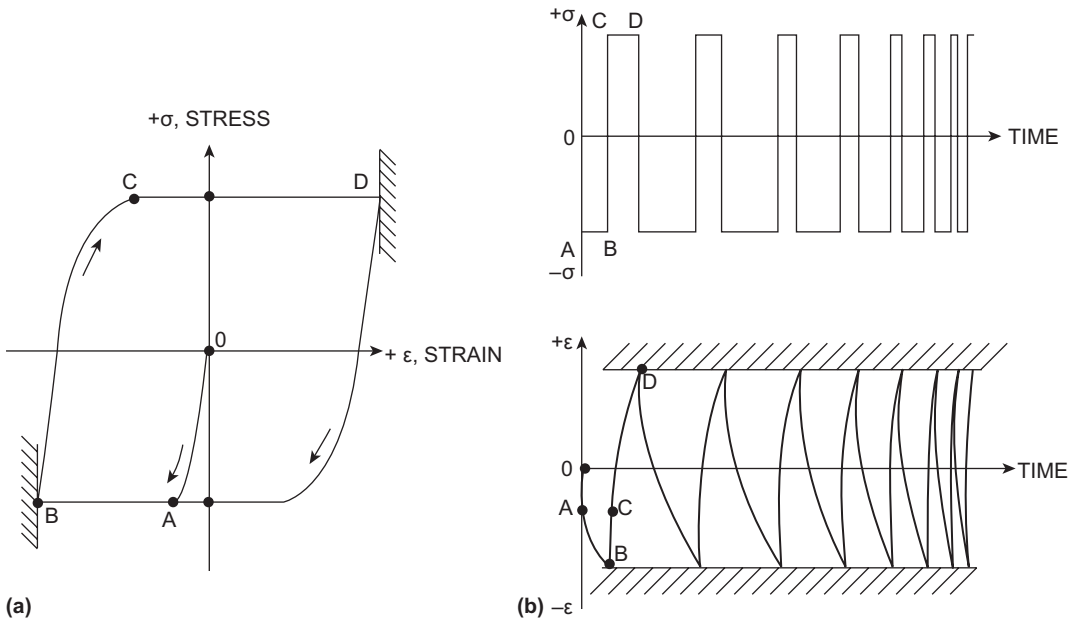
The cyclic creep results discussed previously raised two important issues in connection with cycling loading:

- What is the relationship between the compressive component of the cycle and the tensile component (tensile creep has been studied extensively)?
- How does compressive creep contribute to the damage of the cycle?

During research on compressive creep at the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) in Cleveland during the late 1960s, the authors contemplated how to improve creep analyses for cyclic loading. As with Swindeman, the authors recognized that as axial strain progresses in a monotonic creep test, the specimen cross-section continually contracts, thus significantly increasing the true tensile stress and the subsequent creep rate. Large cross-sectional changes rarely occur in structural components undergoing cyclic loading at high temperature.

For this reason, the authors proposed an alternating-stress, creep-rupture test (Fig. 1.21a) to determine cyclic creep-rupture resistance (Ref 1.62). Starting in compression, the stress is increased rapidly, then servo-controlled held constant upon reaching point A. As compressive

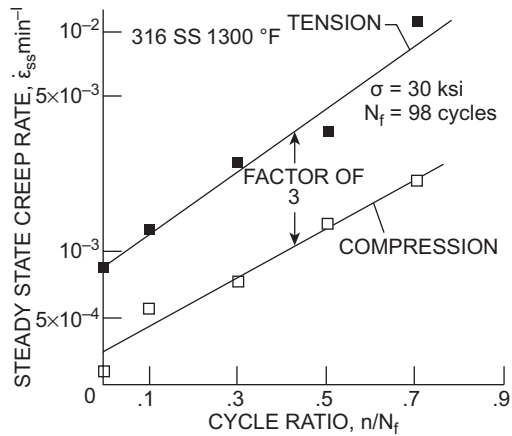
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**Fig. 1.21** Early concept of cyclic creep-rupture testing (a) Hysteresis loop. (b) Imposed cyclic stress history and cyclic strain response. Source: Ref 1.62

creep occurs, a compressive strain limit (**B**) is reached that triggers the servo-controller to reverse the sign of the stress to tension at **C**. Tensile creep takes place along **CD**. At **D**, a tensile strain limit is reached, causing the sign of the stress to again be reversed to reach the compressive stress at **A**. From there on, the sequence is repeated until failure occurs. Typical stress-versus-time and strain-versus-time patterns then emerge, as shown in Fig. 1.21(b). Throughout the duration of the cyclic creep-rupture test, the cross-sectional area varies only slightly about its original mean value. Thus, a nominally constant true stress is maintained for the entire test duration.

Two variables that we recognized, but at first ignored, were that the magnitude of the compressive stress could influence our results, and that we had added a component of fatigue damage to the creep damage for which we were seeking documentation. Then, two unanticipated results developed. First, within the same cycle, the compressive creep rate was always lower (by a factor of approximately 3) than the tensile creep rate; thus, the time per cycle for compressive creep was correspondingly greater than the tensile time. The relationship between the creep rate in tension and compression is shown in

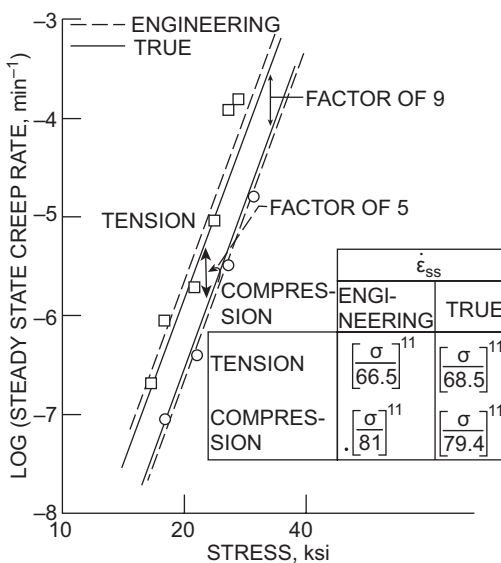


**Fig. 1.22** Creep-rate response in tension and compression of a cyclic creep-rupture test of 316 stainless steel (heat 1) at 705 °C (1300 °F). Source: Ref 1.62

Fig. 1.22. Second, both the tensile and compressive creep times per cycle continuously decreased in successive cycles (i.e., there was a substantial cyclic creep softening). Despite this significant cycle-to-cycle acceleration of creep, the summed tensile creep time to failure was considerably greater than the monotonic creep-rupture time at the same value of nominal tensile stress.

These results intrigued us because constitutive modeling efforts at that time assumed equal creep rates in tension and compression for a given stress and temperature. We sought to extend the program to study more variables as well as additional alloys of engineering interest. Unfortunately, we had exhausted all the specimens of heat 1 of the 316 stainless steel on which the first set of data were conducted. We subsequently procured a new heat (labeled heat 2) of the same alloy. Testing of the new heat revealed an even greater difference (by more than a factor of 6, based on the applied engineering stresses) between the tensile and compressive cyclic creep rates, as shown in Fig. 1.23 (Ref 1.62). The conclusion was incontrovertible that, at least for some classes of materials, large differences can occur between tension and compression creep rates.

Two simple mechanical models were examined that may explain why there could be differences in the tensile and compressive creep rates. First, the cross-sectional area changes at the extremes of the strain ranges involved were used to compute the true stresses. Figure 1.23 displays the creep-rate results for both true stress and engineering stress. As can be seen, making the correction for true stress does bring the tensile and compressive creep rates into closer coincidence. However, they are still different by a large factor of 5.



**Fig. 1.23** Comparison of tensile/compressive creep rates of a cyclic creep-rupture test of 316 stainless steel (heat 2) at 705 °C (1300 °F). Source: Ref 1.62

The second simple model we considered used a friction analogy of a mass sliding on a horizontal surface. If an upward force is applied to the mass (but not enough to lift it from the surface), the frictional force to sliding is reduced. Adding downward force (compression) increases the frictional force to sliding. If grain-boundary sliding along the 45° boundaries is the creep deformation mechanism of an axially deformed specimen, then the maximum resolved shear stress in either tension or compression would be nominally identical. While an axial specimen is in tension, there is a tensile stress normal to the 45° boundary, and the shearing process is easier as the atoms along the grain boundary are being pulled apart, thus affording less “friction.” Similarly, when the axial specimen is in compression, there is a compressive stress across the 45° boundary that gives rise to greater difficulty of creeping by shear, because there is more “friction.” While the “friction” and “true stress” models offer qualitative explanation, quantitative answers require a more mechanistically oriented, physics-based analysis.

Although these early studies were conducted within the framework of exploring differences between creep in tension and compression, the authors later recognized that the test depicted in Fig. 1.21 was basically what was later identified as a CT-CC test, for creep in tension (CT) and creep in compression (CC) within the framework of strain-range partitioning that is introduced in Chapter 3 and detailed in Chapters 4 to 6 of this book. Subsequently, multiple CC tests were conducted on other materials. These extensive cyclic creep results have led us to believe that compressive creep rates are not approximated well enough, knowing only tensile rates. Both directions need to be evaluated separately. Ideally, the difference between the creep rates in tension and compression should be measured and incorporated into sophisticated viscoplastic models that have the capability of distinguishing behavior in tension from that in compression. Consideration of direct measurement of creep rates at various points within complex high-temperature loading cycles is discussed in subsequent chapters on strain-range partitioning.

# Chapter 1: Creep Under Monotonic and Cyclic Loading

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# Chapter 2: Creep Rupture

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# Chapter 3: Strain-Range Partitioning— Concepts and Analytical Methods

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# Chapter 9: Obstacles to High-Temperature Structural Durability of Continuous-Fiber Metal-Matrix Composites

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# Chapter 10: Aerospace Applications— Example Fatigue Problems

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