5 Estimating Fatigue Life of Austenitic Stainless Steels

Several models have been developed for estimating fatigue lives of austenitic SSs in LWR environments, and the models are based on roughly the same database. Although the formulation, threshold, and saturation values of the key parameters that influence fatigue life differ, differences in the estimates of fatigue life based on these models for specific loading and environmental conditions are insignificant. Any one of these models may be used to estimate fatigue life of austenitic SSs.

5.1 ANL Statistical Model

A statistical model based on the existing fatigue ϵ -N data has been developed at ANL for estimating the fatigue lives of wrought and cast austenitic SSs in air and LWR environments. The model assumes that the fatigue life in air is independent of temperature and strain rate. Separate models have been developed for Type 304 or 316 SS and Type 316NG SS. In air at temperatures up to 400°C, the fatigue data for Types 304 and 316 SS are best represented by the equation:

$$ln(N) = 6.703 - 2.030 ln(\varepsilon_a - 0.126),$$
 (4)

and for Type 316NG, by the equation

$$ln(N) = 7.433 - 1.782 ln(\varepsilon_a - 0.126).$$
 (5)

The critical parameters that influence fatigue life and the threshold values of these parameters for environmental effects to be significant have been summarized in the previous section. In LWR environments, the fatigue life of austenitic SSs depends on strain rate, DO level, and temperature. The functional forms for the effects of strain rate and temperature were based on the data trends shown in Figs. 19 and 23, respectively. For both wrought and cast austenitic SSs, the model assumes threshold and saturation values of 0.4 and 0.0004%/s, respectively, for strain rate, and a threshold value of 150°C for temperature.

The influence of DO level on the fatigue life of austenitic SSs is not well understood. As discussed in Section 3.1, the fatigue lives of austenitic SSs are decreased significantly in low–DO water, whereas in high–DO water they are either comparable or, for some steels, higher than those in low–DO water. In high–DO water, the composition and heat treatment of the steel may influence the magnitude of environmental effects on austenitic SSs. Until more data are available to clearly establish the effects of DO level on fatigue life, the effect of DO level on fatigue life is assumed to be the same in low– and high–DO water and for wrought and cast austenitic SSs.

The least–squares fit of the experimental data in water yields a steeper slope for the ϵ –N curve than the slope of the curve obtained in air. These results indicate that environmental effects are more pronounced at low than at high strain amplitudes. Differing slopes for the ϵ –N curves in air and water environments would add complexity to the determination of the environmental correction factor F_{en} , discussed later in this paper. In the ANL statistical model, the slope of the ϵ –N curve is assumed to be the same in LWR and air environments. In LWR environments, fatigue data for Types 304 and 316 SS are best represented by the equation:

$$ln(N) = 5.675 - 2.030 ln(\epsilon_a - 0.126) + T' \dot{\epsilon}' O',$$
(6)

and that of Type 316NG, as

$$ln(N) = 7.122 - 1.671 ln(\epsilon_a - 0.126) + T' \dot{\epsilon}' O',$$
(7)

where T', ε', and O' are transformed temperature, strain rate, and DO, respectively, defined as follows:

$$T' = 0$$
 $(T < 150^{\circ}C)$
 $T' = (T - 150)/175$ $(150 \le T < 325^{\circ}C)$
 $T' = 1$ $(T \ge 325^{\circ}C)$ (8)

$$\begin{array}{ll} \dot{\epsilon} = 0 & (\dot{\epsilon} > 0.4\%/s) \\ \dot{\epsilon} = \ln(\dot{\epsilon}/0.4) & (0.0004 \le \dot{\epsilon} \le 0.4\%/s) \\ \dot{\epsilon} = \ln(0.0004/0.4) & (\dot{\epsilon} < 0.0004\%/s) & (9) \end{array}$$

$$O' = 0.281$$
 (all DO levels). (10)

These models are recommended for predicted fatigue lives of $\leq 10^6$ cycles. Equations 6 and 8–10 should also be used for cast austenitic SSs such as CF-3, CF-8, and CF-8M. As noted earlier, because the influence of DO level on the fatigue life of austenitic SSs may be influenced by the material heat treatment, the statistical model may be somewhat conservative for some SSs in high–DO water.

5.2 Japanese MITI Guidelines

The guidelines proposed by the Japanese Ministry of International Trade and Industry (MITI), for assessing the decrease in fatigue life in LWR environments, have been presented by Higuchi et al.⁴⁰ The reduction in fatigue life of various pressure vessel and piping steels in LWR environments is expressed in terms of an environmental fatigue life correction factor F_{en} , which is the ratio of the fatigue life in air at ambient temperature to that in water at the service temperature. For austenitic SSs, F_{en} is expressed in terms of strain rate $\dot{\epsilon}$ (%/s), temperature T (°C), and strain amplitude ϵ_a (%) as follows:

$$ln(F_{en}) = (C - \dot{\varepsilon}^*) T^*, \tag{11}$$

where

$$C = 1.182$$
 (BWR)
 $C = 3.910$ (PWR) (12)

$$\dot{\varepsilon}^* = \ln(\dot{\varepsilon}) \qquad (0.0004 \le \dot{\varepsilon})
\dot{\varepsilon}^* = \ln(0.0004) \qquad (\dot{\varepsilon} < 0.0004\%/s). \tag{13}$$

$$T^* = 0.000813 T$$
 (BWR)
 $T^* = 0.000782 T$ (PWR, $T \le 325$ °C)
 $T^* = 0.254$ (PWR, $T > 325$ °C) (14)

$$F_{en} = 1$$
 (2) (15)

The fatigue life in water is determined by dividing the life in air at ambient temperature by F_{en} . The fatigue life N in air is expressed in terms of the strain amplitude ϵ_a as

$$ln(N) = 6.871 - 2.118 ln(\varepsilon_a - 0.110).$$
 (16)

5.3 Model Developed by the Bettis Laboratory

A model based on available fatigue ε–N data, has been developed by the Bettis Laboratory. ⁴¹ In this model, the Smith–Watson–Topper (SWT) equivalent strain parameter ⁴² is used to predict the fatigue life of austenitic SSs in LWR environments under prototypical temperatures and loading rates. The model indicates that the fatigue life of Type 304 SS in water depends on the temperature, strain rate, applied strain amplitude, and water oxygen level. For low–DO water, the fatigue life can be reduced by as much as a factor of 13 at high temperatures and low strain rates. The Bettis model for predicting fatigue life N in LWR environments is of the following form:

$$N = A \cdot (\varepsilon_{SWT} - \varepsilon_0)^b \cdot \left[P + (1 - P) \cdot e^{-kZ^m} \right], \tag{17}$$

where A, b, P, k, ε_0 , and m are model constants, and the SWT parameter ε_{SWT} is given by

$$\varepsilon_{\text{SWT}} = (\varepsilon_{\text{a}})^{\text{c}} \cdot \left(\frac{\sigma_{\text{max}}}{\mathsf{E}}\right)^{1-\text{c}},$$
(18)

in which maximum stress σ_{max} is the sum of the cyclic stress amplitude σ_a and mean stress σ_{mean} (i.e., = $\sigma_a + \sigma_{mean}$), E is the elastic modulus, and c is a constant determined from fatigue tests in air, in some of which a mean stress had been imposed. The effects of temperature T (K) and strain rate $\dot{\epsilon}$ (s⁻¹) are incorporated into the model by using the Zener–Hollomon parameter Z, given by

$$Z = \dot{\varepsilon} \cdot e^{\frac{Q}{RT}}, \tag{19}$$

where R is the gas constant and Q is the fitted value of the activation energy. The model constants were determined from the existing fatigue ε -N data in water.⁴¹ The values are as follows:*

```
A = 1.185 \times 10^{-2}
                                   (wrought SSs, other than 316NG, in PWR water)
A = 1.185 \times 10^{-2}
                                   (wrought SSs, other than 316NG, in BWR water)
b = -2.097
\epsilon_0 = 9.068 \text{ x } 10^{-4} \text{ mm/mm}
P = 0.109
                                   (wrought SSs and welds)
c = 0.7
k = 149.0
                                   (in PWR water)
k = 383.7
                                   (in BWR water)
Q = 147.15 \text{ kJ/mol} (35.17 \text{ kcal/mol})
R = 8.314 \text{ J/mol K} (1.987 \text{ cal/mol K})
m = -0.2233.
```

The cyclic stress amplitude σ_a (MPa) corresponding to a given strain amplitude ε_a (mm/mm), is obtained from the cyclic stress–vs.–strain curves in air, given by

$$\sigma_{a} = (175 - 0.342 \text{ T} + 7.10 \text{ x} 10^{-4} \text{ T}^{2}) + (24010 - 4.54 \text{ x} 10^{-2} \text{ T}^{2} + 156 \sigma_{\text{mean}}) \varepsilon_{a}, \tag{20}$$

^{*} T. R. Leax and D. P. Jones, Development of a Water Environment Fatigue Design Curve for Austenitic Stainless Steels, presented to ASME Subgroup on Fatigue Strength of Subcommittee Design, Sept. 24, 2002.

where T is the temperature (°C), and σ_m is the mean stress (MPa). This cyclic stress–strain curve is valid for stresses above the proportional limit. Below the proportional limit, the stress amplitude is simply the product of the elastic modulus and strain amplitude. The fatigue ϵ -N curve at zero mean stress can be obtained from Eqs. 17–20 by substituting a value of zero for σ_{mean} in Eqs. 18 and 20.

6 Incorporating Environmental Effects into Fatigue Evaluations

The effects of LWR coolant environments may be incorporated into the ASME Section III fatigue evaluations by either developing a new set of environmentally adjusted fatigue design curves or by using a fatigue life correction factor F_{en} to adjust the current ASME Code fatigue usage values for environmental effects. For both approaches, the magnitude of key loading and environmental parameters that influence fatigue life must be known. Estimates of fatigue life based on the two approaches may differ because of differences between the ASME mean curves used to develop the current design curves and the best–fit curves to the existing data that are used to develop the environmentally adjusted curves. However, either method provides an acceptable approach to account for environmental effects.

6.1 Fatigue Design Curves

A set of environmentally adjusted fatigue design curves may be developed from the best–fit of stress–vs.–life curves to the experimental data in LWR environments by following the procedure that was used to develop the current ASME Code fatigue design curves. The stress–vs.–life curve is obtained from the ε –N curve, e.g., stress amplitude is the product of strain amplitude and elastic modulus. The best–fit experimental curves are first adjusted for the effect of mean stress. As mentioned earlier the current ASME Code fatigue design curve for austenitic SSs does not include a mean stress correction below 10^6 cycles because, for the current Code mean curve, the fatigue strength at 10^6 cycles is greater than the monotonic yield strength of these steels. The best–fit curve in a specific environment is corrected for mean stress effects with the modified Goodman relationship given by:

$$S_a' = S_a \left(\frac{\sigma_u - \sigma_y}{\sigma_u - S_a} \right) \qquad \text{for } S_a < \sigma_y,$$
 (21)

and

$$S'_a = S_a$$
 for $S_a > \sigma_y$, (22)

where S_a' is the adjusted value of stress amplitude, and σ_y and σ_u are yield and ultimate strengths of the material, respectively. Equations 21 and 22 assume the maximum possible mean stress and typically give a conservative adjustment for mean stress, at least when environmental effects are not significant. The fatigue design curves are then obtained by lowering the adjusted best–fit curve by a factor of 2 on stress or 20 on cycles, whichever is more conservative, to account for differences and uncertainties in fatigue life that are associated with material and loading conditions. S_a'

For environmentally adjusted fatigue design curves, a minimum threshold strain is defined, below which environmental effects are insignificant. The Pressure Vessel Research Council steering committee for Cyclic Life Environmental Effects* has endorsed this threshold value and proposed a ramp for the threshold strain: a lower strain amplitude below which environmental effects are insignificant, a slightly higher strain amplitude above which environmental effects decrease fatigue life, and a ramp between the two values. The two strain amplitudes are 0.10 and 0.11% for austenitic SSs (both wrought and cast).

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^{*} Welding Research Council Progress Report, Vol. LIX No. 5/6, May/June 1999.

An example of fatigue design curves for austenitic SSs in LWR environments at 289°C is shown in Fig. 29. Because the fatigue life of Type 316NG is superior to that of Types 304 or 316 SS at high strain amplitudes, the design curves in Fig. 29 may be somewhat conservative for Type 316NG SS.

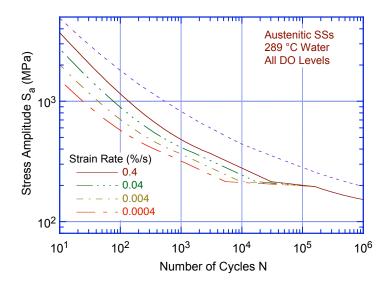


Figure 29. Fatigue design curves developed from statistical model for austenitic stainless steels in LWR environments at 289°C under service conditions where all threshold values are satisfied.

6.2 Fatigue Life Correction Factor

The effects of reactor coolant environments on fatigue life have also been expressed in terms of a fatigue life correction factor F_{en} , which is defined as the ratio of life in air at room temperature to that in water at the service temperature. Values of F_{en} can be obtained from the statistical model, where:

$$\ln(F_{\text{en}}) = \ln(N_{\text{RTair}}) - \ln(N_{\text{water}}). \tag{23}$$

The fatigue life correction factor for austenitic SSs, based on the ANL model, is given by

$$F_{en} = \exp(1.028 - T' \dot{\epsilon}' O'),$$
 (24)

where the constants T', $\dot{\epsilon}$ ', and O' are defined in Eqs. 8–10. F_{en} based on the MITI guidelines is given in Eqs. 11–15. To incorporate environmental effects into a Section III fatigue evaluation, the fatigue usage for a specific stress cycle, based on the current Code fatigue design curve, is multiplied by the correction factor.

7 Summary

Fatigue tests have been conducted on two heats of Type 304 SS under various material conditions to determine the effect of heat treatment on fatigue crack initiation in these steels in air and LWR environments. A detailed metallographic examination of fatigue test specimens was performed, with special attention to crack morphology at the sites of initiation, the fracture surface, and the occurrence of striations.

The results indicate that heat treatment has little or no effect on the fatigue life of Type 304 SS in air and low–DO PWR environments. In a high–DO BWR environment, fatigue life is lower for sensitized SSs; life continues to decrease as the degree of sensitization is increased. The cyclic strain–hardening behavior of Type 304 SS under various heat treatment conditions is identical, only the fatigue life varies in different environments.

In air, irrespective of the degree of sensitization, the fracture mode for crack initiation (crack lengths up to $\approx\!200~\mu m$) and crack propagation (crack lengths >200 μm) is transgranular (TG), most likely along crystallographic planes, leaving behind relatively smooth facets. With increasing degree of sensitization, cleavage–like or stepped TG fracture, and occasionally ridge structures on the smooth surfaces were observed. In the BWR environment, the initial crack appeared intergranular (IG) for all heat–treatment conditions, implying a weakening of the grain boundaries. For all four conditions tested, the initial IG mode transformed within 200 μm into a TG mode with cleavage–like features. It appears, however, that the size of the IG portion of the crack surface increased with the degree of sensitization. By contrast, for all of the samples tested in PWR environments, the cracks initiated and propagated in a TG mode irrespective of the degree of sensitization. Prominent features of all fracture surfaces in the PWR case were highly angular, cleavage–like fracture facets that exhibited well–defined "river" patterns. Intergranular facets were rarely observed, but when they were found, it was mostly in the more heavily sensitized alloys.

Fatigue striations normal to the crack advance direction were clearly visible beyond $\approx\!200~\mu m$ on the fracture surfaces for all material and environmental conditions. Striations were found on both the TG and IG facets of the samples tested in BWR conditions, or co-existing with the "river" patterns specific to the samples tested in the PWR environment. Evidence of extensive rubbing due to repeated contact between the two mating surfaces was also found.

The orientation of the cracks as they initiated at the specimen surface was also a function of the test environment. For air tests, cracks initiated obliquely, approaching 45°, with respect to the tensile axis. By contrast, for tests in either BWR or PWR environment cracks tended to initiate perpendicular to the tensile axis. In all environments, the overall orientation of the crack became perpendicular to the tensile axis as the crack grew beyond the initiation stage.

In air, the fatigue lives of Types 304 and 316 SS are comparable; those of Type 316NG are superior to those of Types 304 and 316 SS at high strain amplitudes. The fatigue lives of austenitic SSs in air are independent of temperature in the range from room temperature to 427°C. Also, variation in strain rate in the range of 0.4–0.008%/s has no effect on the fatigue lives of SSs at temperatures up to 400°C. The fatigue ϵ –N behavior of cast SSs is similar to that of wrought austenitic SSs.

Review of the available data show that the fatigue lives of cast and wrought austenitic SSs are decreased in LWR environments; the decrease depends on strain rate, DO level in water, and temperature.

A minimum threshold strain is required for environmentally assisted decrease in the fatigue life of SSs, and this strain appears to be independent of material type (weld or base metal) and temperature in the range of $250-325^{\circ}$ C. Environmental effects on fatigue life occur primarily during the tensile-loading cycle and at strain levels greater than the threshold value. Strain rate and temperature have a strong effect on fatigue life in LWR environments. Fatigue life decreases logarithmically with decreasing strain rate below 0.4%s. The effect saturates at 0.0004%s. Similarly, the fatigue ϵ -N data suggest a threshold temperature of 150° C; in the range of $150-325^{\circ}$ C, the logarithm of life decreases linearly with temperature.

The fatigue lives of wrought and cast austenitic SSs are decreased significantly in low–DO (i.e., <0.01 ppm DO) water. In these environments, the composition or heat treatment of the steel has little or no effect on fatigue life. However, in high–DO water the environmental effects on fatigue life are influenced by the composition and heat treatment of the steel. For a high–carbon heat of Type 304 SS, environmental effects were significant only for the sensitized steel. For a low–carbon heat of Type 316NG SS, some effect of environment was observed even for MA steel in high–DO water, although the effect was smaller than that observed in low–DO water. Limited fatigue ϵ –N data indicate that the fatigue lives of cast SSs are approximately the same in low– and high–DO water and are comparable to those observed for wrought SSs in low–DO water.

Statistical models for the fatigue life of austenitic SSs as a function of material, loading, and environmental parameters have been developed. The functional form of the model and bounding values of the important parameters are based on experimental observations and data trends. The models are recommended for predicted fatigue lives of $\leq 10^6$ cycles. Consistent with previous work by Jaske and O'Donnell, the present results indicate that even in air the ASME mean curve for SSs is not consistent with the experimental data. The ASME curve is nonconservative. The results that correspond to the 50th percentile of the statistical model are considered to be the best fit to the experimental data.

Two approaches are presented for incorporating the effects of LWR environments into ASME Section III fatigue evaluations. In the first approach, environmentally adjusted fatigue design curves are developed by adjusting the best–fit experimental curve for the effect of mean stress and by setting margins of 20 on cycles and 2 on strain to account for the uncertainties in life associated with material and loading conditions. These curves provide allowable cycles for fatigue crack initiation in LWR coolant environments. The second approach considers the effects of reactor coolant environments on fatigue life in terms of an environmental correction factor F_{en} , which is the ratio of fatigue life in air at room temperature to that in water under reactor operating conditions. To incorporate environmental effects into the ASME Code fatigue evaluations, a fatigue usage factor for a specific load set, based on the current Code design curves, is multiplied by the correction factor.

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