

There's always a solution in steel.

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Practical Steel Metallurgy for the Structural Steel User

What you need to know about Steel Metallurgy



Doug Rees-Evans
Steel Dynamics, Inc.
Structural and Rail Division
Columbia City, IN 46725

There's always a solution in steel.





STEELDAY[®]
September 23, 2011 www.SteelDay.org

Practical Steel Metallurgy for the Structural Steel User

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Columbia City, IN 46725

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Welcome

Audience :

- ✓ Engineers / Architects
- ✓ Fabricators
- ✓ Steel Users / Purchasers
- ✓ Students
- ✓ General Interest
- ✗ Metallurgists

Approach :

- “Hit the High-Points”
 - Additional information given in slides for self-study.
- Practical Focus



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Questions

- Iron – Steel: What is the Difference ?
- Why are there multiple Grades of Steel ? Isn't steel, steel ?
- How can a mill control chemistry ? Isn't it dependent upon what scrap is used ?
 - How does a mill control the properties of a steel product ?
- If I retest a product, will I get the same results as in the MTR?



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Iron – Steel: What is the Difference ? Steel

Steels can be classified in a number of ways:

- *major alloying element(s),*
- *microstructural makeup,*
- *processing method(s),*
- *intended application(s).*



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Iron – Steel: What is the Difference ? Steel

Our discussion will be limited to Carbon-Steels

Aka:

- Carbon steel
 - Mild Steel ($\%C \leq .25\%$)
 - Medium Carbon Steel ($.25\% > \%C \geq .45\%$)
 - High Carbon Steel ($.45\% > \%C \geq 1.5\%$)
- Carbon – Manganese steel (C-Mn)
- High Strength – Low Alloy Steel (HSLA)
 - HSLA = C-Mn Steel + micro-alloy (eg. V, Nb) in low concentrations



Iron – Steel: What is the Difference ? Iron

Periodic Table of Elements

KEY:
 [] Radioactive
 [] Stable at room temp.
 [] Stable at room temp.
 [] Stable at room temp.
 [] Stable at room temp.
 [] Stable at room temp.

- a magnetic, silvery-grey metal
- 26th Element in the Periodic Table
- Symbol : Fe
(Latin: Ferrum)
- 4th most abundant naturally occurring terrestrial surface element



Iron – Steel: What is the Difference ? Iron

Periodic Table of Elements

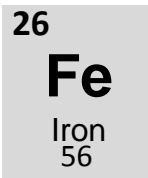
Atomic Number → 26
Chemical Symbol → Fe
Chemical Name → Iron
Atomic Weight → 56

- Very reactive (O, S, Cl), thus not found naturally occurring in the metallic state.
- Found in nature as (ores):
 - Oxides ← Ironmaking
 - Sulfides
 - Carbonates
 - Chlorides
- Ores also include impurity elements: S, P, Mn, Si, ...
- ‘pure’ metallic Iron of little commercial use.



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Iron – Steel: What is the Difference ? Iron-based Building Materials



- Mixtures (Alloys) of other elements in Iron
- Iron-based Alloys commonly classified by the major alloying constituent(s).
- **Carbon**
 - ✓ Carbon Steel
 - ✓ Cast Iron
 - ✓ Wrought Iron
 - ✓ Pig Iron (Hot Metal)
- Other than carbon (Ni, Cr, Mo, W, ...)
 - ✓ Stainless Steel
 - ✓ Alloy Steel



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Iron – Steel: What is the Difference ?

Short Answer:

<< based upon the chemical makeup of the material >>

- **Iron:** An element metal.
- **(Carbon) Steel :** a series of alloys that has more Iron (by mass) than any other element, and a maximum Carbon content of less than **2 wt%.**
 - Secondary alloying element is typically Manganese (Mn)
- **Cast Iron:** a series of alloys that has more Iron (by mass) than any other element, and a minimum carbon content of **2 wt%** (typical max: 4 wt% C).
 - Secondary alloying element is typically Silicon (Si)



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Iron – Steel: What is the Difference ?

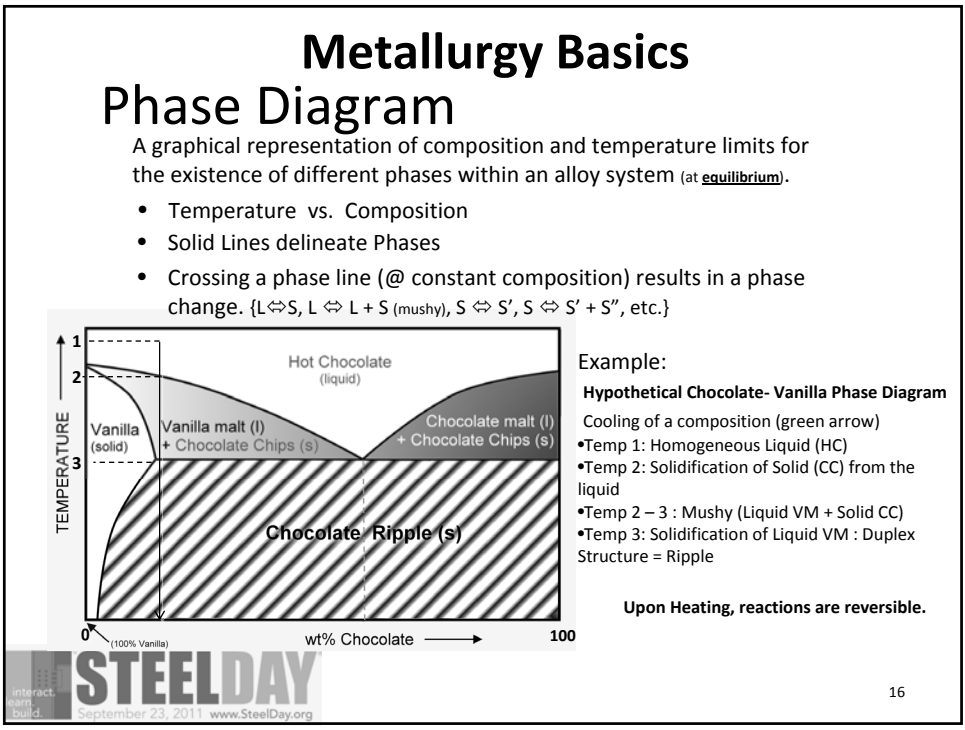
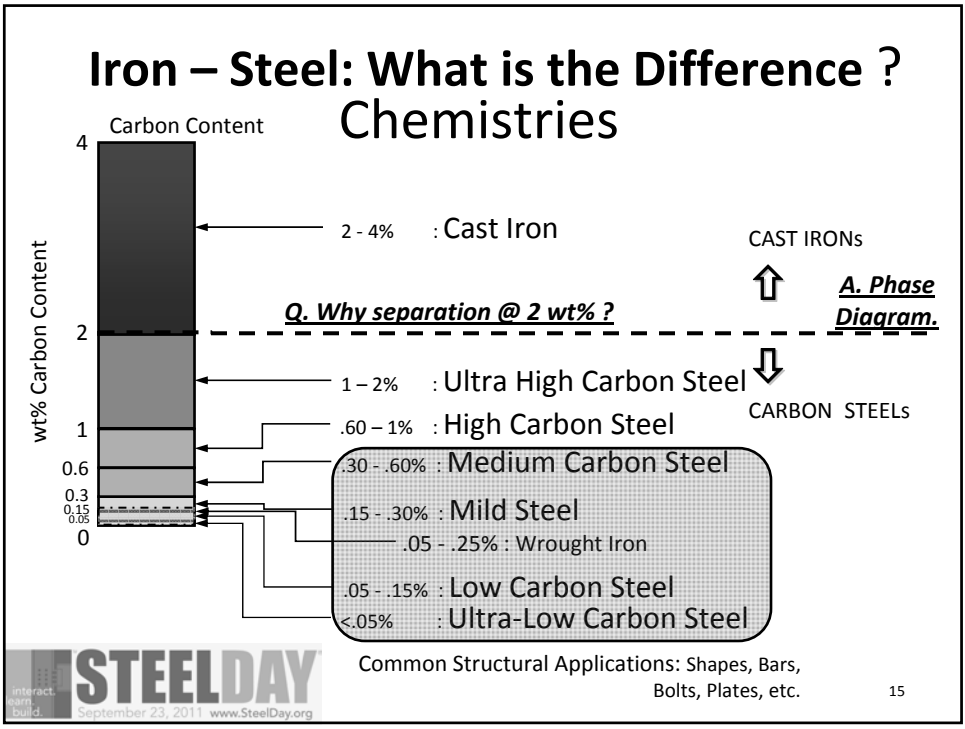
Short Answer:

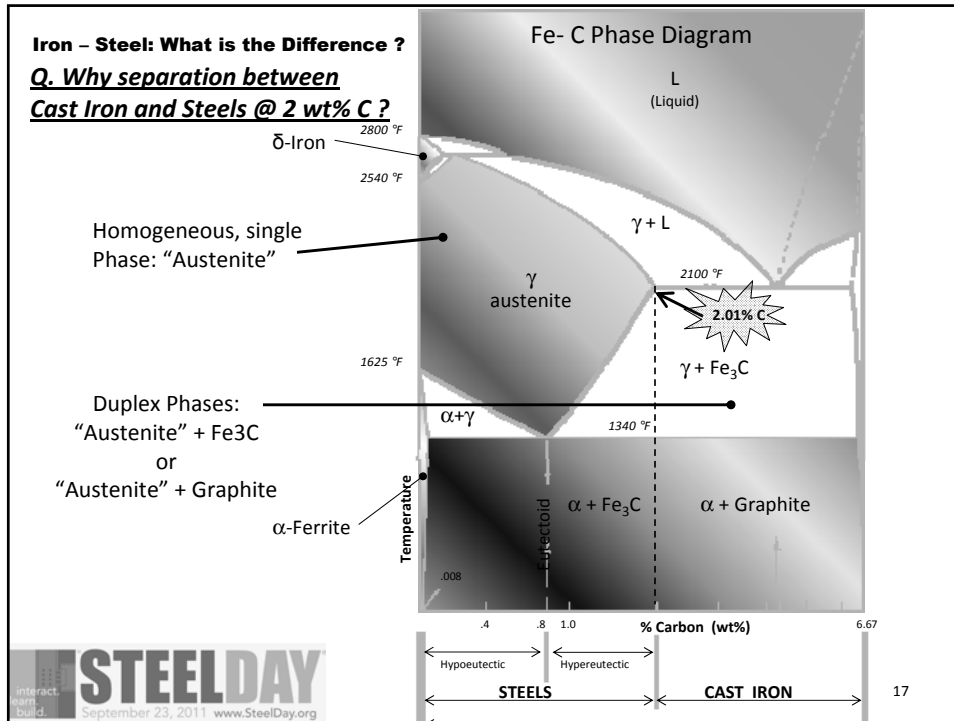
<< based upon the chemical makeup of the material >>

- **Wrought Iron :** the metallic product of the Puddle Furnace
 - Can be considered the precursor of modern low - mild carbon steels
 - OBSOLETE
- **Pig Iron:** the solid metallic product of the Blast Furnace (typically 3.5 – 4.5 wt% C, with 1 – 2.5 wt% (ea.) of Mn, and Si).
 - In the liquid state is commonly known as “**Hot Metal**”
 - No “structural” uses. Manufactured as the feed-stock for Steelmaking and Cast Ironmaking.



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Iron – Steel: What is the Difference ? Long Answer:

The properties of Iron – Carbon alloys are controlled by the **microstructure** of the material, which consequentially are determined by the chemistry and processing of the material.

Iron – Steel: What is the Difference ? Iron - Carbon Alloys

One of the most important properties of Iron is its' allotropic nature.

Allotropic = Has different crystal structures at different temperatures.

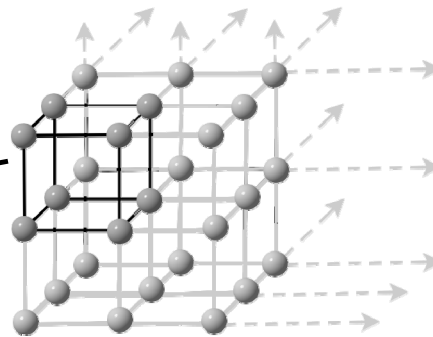
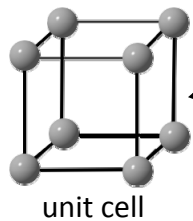


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Basic Metallurgy Nature of Metals

• **crystalline** : in the solid state, a metal's atoms are arranged in an orderly repeating 3-D pattern (crystal lattice).

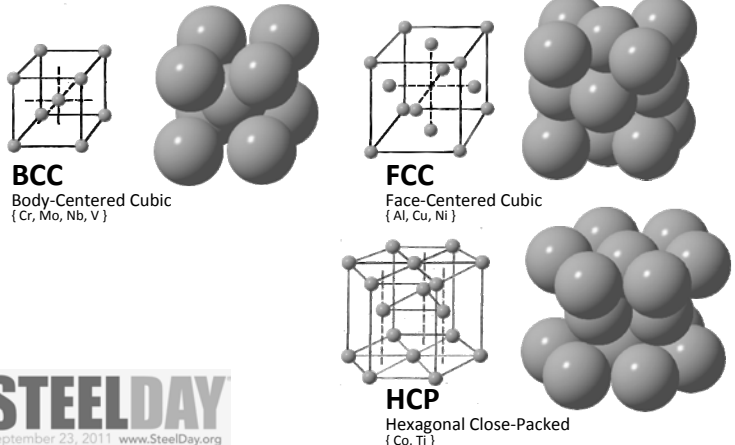
• smallest symmetric arrangement of atoms = unit cell



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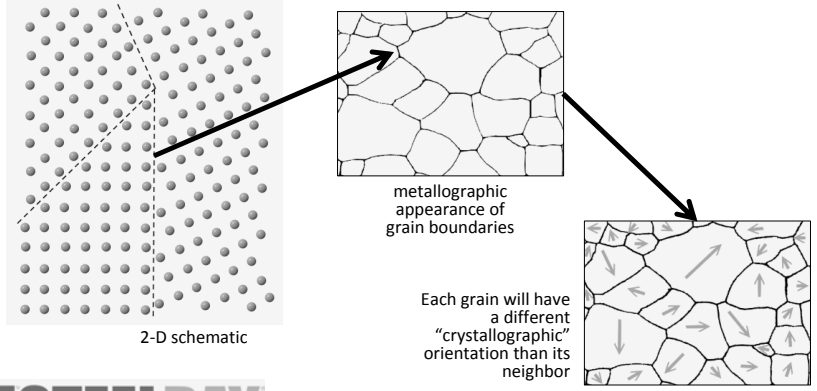
Basic Metallurgy Crystal Space Lattices

- 14 different types of crystal "space lattices".
- 3 most common (favored by metals)



Basic Metallurgy Nature of Metals

- intersection of crystal lattices of differing spatial orientations create grain boundaries



Iron – Steel: What is the Difference ? Iron Allotropism

the existence of two or more different physical forms

Phase Diagram of "Pure" Iron

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Original source: [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Pure_iron_phase_diagram_\(EN\).png](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Pure_iron_phase_diagram_(EN).png)

2 "BCC" Allotropes (Phases)

- δ-Iron (2541 - 2800°F)
- α-Iron (≤ 1670°F)

1 "FCC" Allotrope (Phase)

- γ-Iron (1670 - 2541 °F)

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Basic Metallurgy Carbon in an Iron Crystal Lattice

Atomic radii (Angstroms)

Carbon : 0.7

FCC - Austenite

Iron : 1.4

Defect in Crystal Structure:

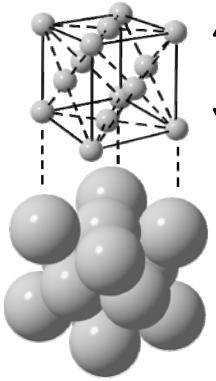
A: Interstitial Solute C: Dislocation (planar)
B: Substitution Solute D: Vacancy

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Basic Metallurgy Iron Allotropism

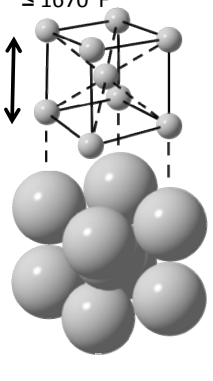
γ -Iron (FCC) "Austenite"

> 1670°F




α -Iron (BCC) "Ferrite"

≤ 1670°F

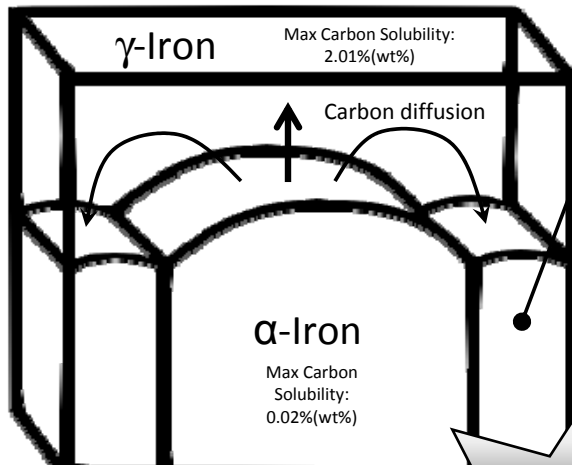


3.57	Unit Cells (Angstroms)	2.57
2.01%	Max Carbon Solubility (wt%)	0.02%

Problem upon Cooling:
Carbon Solubility Difference
(2 orders of magnitude)


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Basic Metallurgy Austenite to Ferrite Phase Transformation



γ -Iron
Max Carbon Solubility:
2.01%(wt%)

Carbon diffusion

α -Iron
Max Carbon Solubility:
0.02%(wt%)

"New Phase"

- C-rich

Morphology ?

Volume % and spacing
Dependent upon:


- Wt% C
- Other alloying elements
- Cooling rate.

Upon Heating:
 $\alpha \rightarrow \gamma$

Fully reversible

$\alpha \leftarrow \gamma$
Upon cooling

**BASIS OF THE HEAT-TREATMENT
OF Fe-C ALLOYS**


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Basic Metallurgy

Austenite to Ferrite Phase Transformation

At equilibrium in Steel

Fe₃C | Cementite :

- 6.67 wt% C
- Strong
- Hard
- Wear-Resistant
- Brittle
- Un-Weldable

α-Iron | Ferrite :

- 0.02 wt% C
- Weaker
- Soft
- Ductile
- Weldable

Typical Metallographic Appearance of Pearlite

Dark = Cementite
Light = Ferrite

Pearlite: a two-phased, lamellar structure composed of alternating layers of ferrite and cementite.
“technically: is a colony – not a “grain”.

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Basic Metallurgy

Equilibrium Microstructures

Varying Carbon content yields varying microstructures

0.02 wt% C

Fully Ferritic

~ 0.20 wt% C

predominately Ferritic, small volume fraction of pearlite

~ 0.40 wt% C

approx. 50-50 ferrite - pearlite

~ 0.80 wt% C

100% pearlitic (eutectic)

~ 1.00 wt% C

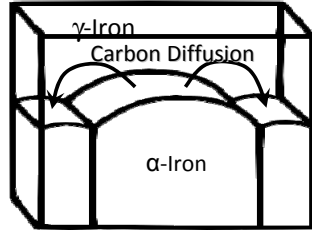
predominately pearlitic, small volume fraction of ferrite along grain boundaries.

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Basic Metallurgy

Austenite to Ferrite Phase Transformation



Carbon Solubility: γ (2.01%) \rightarrow α (0.02%)

Diffusion:

Temperature • Time Reaction

If insufficient Time or Temperature is provided (ie. Rapid cooling), carbon will be "trapped" in a non-equilibrium position

Non-Equilibrium Steel Phases:

- Upper & Lower Bainite
 - Highly variable microstructures (dependent upon alloy content and cooling rates)
 - + (low C): low temp toughness, improved strength, weldability.
- Martensite
 - Low: ductility, & fracture toughness
 - + Very: strong, hard, & wear resistant

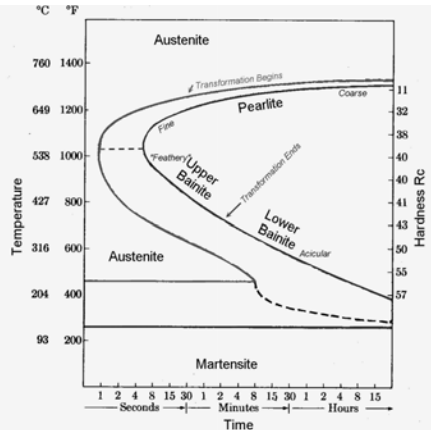


Basic Metallurgy

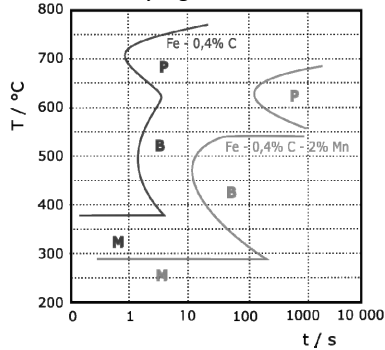
Austenite to Ferrite Phase Transformation

Non-equilibrium in Steel

TTT Diagram for Eutectic Steel



- Curve shapes shift and change shape in response to alloying additions



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 Author: Metallos
 Source: <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:T-T-T-diagram.svg>

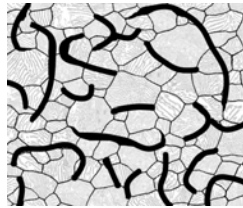


Basic Metallurgy Austenite to Ferrite Phase Transformation

At equilibrium in Cast Iron

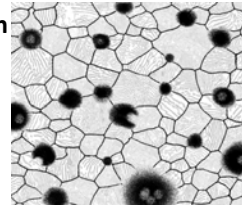
Gray Iron

- 3D network of graphite flakes in Pearlitic matrix



Ductile / Nodular Iron

- addition of elements (Mg) result in formation of graphite nodules instead of flakes.



- × Graphite = soft, low strength, acts like a “void”.
- × Flakes morphology = stress risers
- × Low Strength
- × **Low Ductility**
- × **LOW NOTCH TOUGHNESS**
- ✓ Excellent machinability
- ✓ Good compressive strength
- ✓ Excellent “castability”



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Cast Iron

Historic Structural Uses

Static / Compressive

19th Century Cast (Gray) Iron Building Facades
Greene Street SoHo, Manhattan,
New York City, New York, USA



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Cast Iron

Historic Structural Uses

“Iron Bridge”

across the River Severn
Coalbrookdale, Shropshire, UK

1st CAST IRON BRIDGEWORK


Opened: 1781
Closed to traffic: 1934, still standing
UNESCO “World Heritage Site”

Length: 60m,
Longest Span: 30.5m,
Clearance: 18m


800+ casting : 379 tons of iron

**built on carpentry joinery principles
(mortise and tenon, blind dovetails)**

Cost (in 1781): £6,000



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Cast Iron

Historic Structural Uses

After example of the 1781 “Iron Bridge” :

1830’s – 1840’s: 1,000’s of Cast Iron based bridges put into RR service.

Cast Iron Bridge Experiences: 1830 - 1891

Dee Bridge, Chester, Cheshire, UK
Opened to Rail traffic: Sept 1846.
Failure: 24 May 1847. 5 fatalities. Fracture of CI beam


Wootton Bridge, Wootton, UK
Failure: 11 June 1860. 2 fatalities. Fracture of CI beam

Bull Bridge, Ambergate, UK
Failure: 26 Sep 1860. 0 fatalities. Fracture of CI beam

Ashtabula River Bridge, Ashtabula, OH
Failure: 29 Dec 1876. 92 fatalities, 64 injuries.
Fatigue (?) of CI beam.

Tay Rail Bridge, Dundee, Scotland
Failure: 28 Dec 1879. 75 fatalities.
Wind load - Failure of CI to wrought iron connections.

Norwood Jnct Rail Bridge, Norwood, UK
Fracture & Repair of CI beams due to derailment (impact ?): Dec 1876
Failure: 1 May 1891. 0 fatalities.
Failure of CI beams.




11 June 1860 ● Wootton Bridge Collapse
This file is in the public domain due to expired copyright.

After 2nd Norwood Junction Rail Bridge “incident”, UK “Board of Trade” issues circular recommending gradual replacement of CI bridgework.

CAST IRONS not suitable for Tension nor Cyclic Loading

- xGraphite = soft, low strength, acts like a “void”.
- xFlakes morphology = **stress risers**
- xLow Strength, **Low Ductility**
- x**LOW NOTCH TOUGHNESS**



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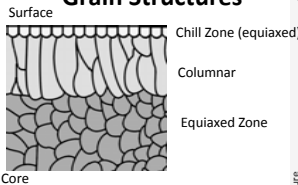
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Iron – Steel: What is the Difference ?

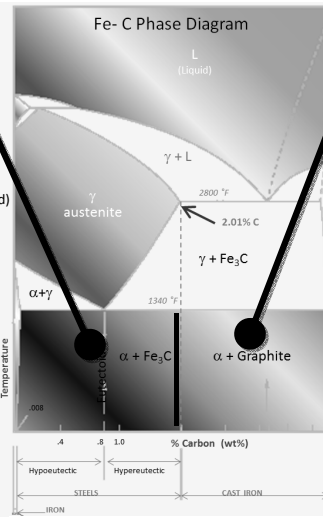
CAST Steel ≠ CAST Iron

Cast Steels

- Any "steel" composition
- Variable Cast Grain Structures

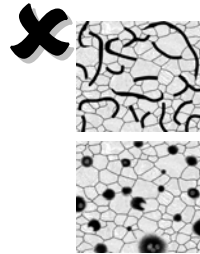


- ✓ Ferrite
- Pearlite



Cast Iron

- Pearlite + Graphite

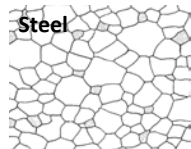


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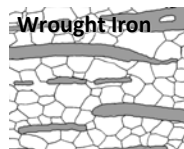
Iron – Steel: What is the Difference ?

Low C / Mild Steel vs. WROUGHT Iron

- Steel – Bessemer, Open Hearth, BOF, EAF (from the liquid)
- Wrought Iron = Puddling (not fully liquid – "pasty") ⇒ Rolling ⇒ Slitting ⇒ Stacking ⇒ Reheating ⇒ Forging/Re-Rolling (Merchant Bar)
 - Chemistry (typical – wt%): C ≤ .25, Mn ≤ .05, S ≤ .03, P .10 - .12, Si .10 - .15
Period literature reports: .05 - .15 wt% C as usual analysis
 - Mechanical Properties (typical – wt%):
 - Strength: Yield – 23ksi Tensile – 46ksi
 - Elongation (in 8"): 26%
 - High fraction (typ. 2-3% volume fraction) of oriented slag inclusions
Period literature claims slag content benefits ductility and malleability – more likely due to very low C / Mn.
 - OBSOLETE – (quality and manufacturing cost)



Microstructure: Ferrite + Pearlite



Microstructure: Ferrite + Slag

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Iron – Steel: What is the Difference ?



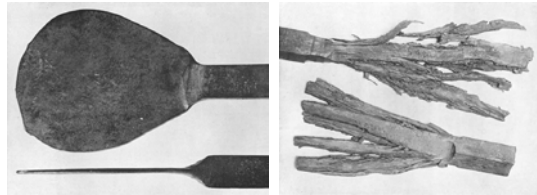
WROUGHT Iron

The Eiffel Tower
Paris, France
Built 1889
Designer: Gustave Eiffel
Material: Puddle (Wrought) Iron

“Heated and Hammered Bars”

From:

Sir Henry Bessemer, F.R.S.
AN AUTOBIOGRAPHY WITH A CONCLUDING CHAPTER.
Universal Press, London 1905.



“Mild” Bessemer Steel

Puddle (Wrought) Iron

Wrought Iron = prone to “delaminate”

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Iron – Steel: What is the Difference ?

“Long Answer”: The difference is.....

- **Iron is an Element;**
 - ✓ Steel is a series of alloys based on the element Iron
- **If referring to “Cast Irons” as “Iron” :**
 - ✓ Cast Irons differ greatly from steel in chemistry (carbon content), and microstructure.
 - ✓ Cast STEEL ≠ Cast IRON.
- **If referring to “Wrought Iron” as “Iron” :**
 - Although similar in carbon content to low carbon / mild steels, Wrought Iron differs greatly in bulk chemistry, method of manufacture, and microstructure (large slag volume content); and consequently applicability.



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Questions

- ✓ Iron – Steel: What is the Difference ?
- Why are there multiple Grades of Steel ? Isn't steel, steel ?
- How can a mill control chemistry ? Isn't it dependent upon what scrap is used ?
 - How does a mill control the properties of a steel product ?
- If I retest a product, will I get the same results as in the MTR?



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Why Multiple Grades?

What is a Grade ?

Webster's

Grade \ 'grād \ n (1659) **1**: to arrange in a scale or series

(1796) **2a**: a position in a scale of rank or qualities.

b: a standard of quality

Examples of Structural Steel Grades

A572 - Grades 42,50,60,65

A588 - Grades 'A','B','C','K'

A36, A992

} definition 1, 2a

} Standard loosely definition 2b



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Why Multiple Grades?

What is a Grade ?

Classification / systematic arrangement / division of steels into groups based upon some common characteristic(s).

Characteristics:

- Composition / Chemistry
 - Principle alloying element :
 - C-Steels, Ni-Steels, Cr-Steels, Cr-V-Steels, etc.
 - Quantity of principle alloying element:
 - Low-C, Mild, Med-C, High-C, etc.
- Manufacturing / processing method(s)
 - Rimmed / Capped / semi-killed / killed
 - Hot Rolled / Cold rolled
 - Heat treated
- Product Form
 - Bar, plate, sheet, strip, tubing, structural shape, etc.



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Why Multiple Grades?

What is a Grade ?

Metal classifications, other than Carbon and Alloys Steels, are generally made by:

- **Grade:** denotes chemical composition
- **Type:** denotes deoxidation method
- **Class:** denotes some other attribute
 - Strength, etc...

Our industry, however, tends to use grade, type and class interchangeably.

Eg: ASTM A572 grade 50 (A572-50): "50" is a strength level (min 50ksi fy).

"A572" = "Standard Specification" | "ASTM" = Specification Issuing/Controlling body

Grade: Specification detailing chemical and mechanical property requirements/restrictions



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Why Multiple Grades? Specification Issuing Bodies

Focus

AASHTO	Association of American State Highway Transportation Officials	⇐ Bridge & Highway
ABS	American Bureau of Shipping	⇐ Ship Building
API	American Petroleum Institute	⇐ Petroleum Industry
ASTM	ASTM International	⇐ General/Specific
CSA	Canadian Standards Association	⇐ For use in Canada
SAE	Society of Automotive Engineers	⇐ Automotive

+ many others.



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Why Multiple Grades?

The different Specification Issuing Organizations may adopt & adapt different “grades”

Example: AASHTO **M270M/M270** vs ASTM **A709/A709M** vs ASTM **A572/A572M**

- ASTM controls and issues Specification A572
- ASTM A572 has various strength levels: eg. 50 [345] (ksi [MPa]).
- ASTM A572 = riveted, welded, bolted structures (general applications).
- AASHTO has incorporated ASTM A572 gr 50 into their M270M/M270 specification for use in bridge construction (**M270M gr 345**).
- By agreement, the AASHTO M270M/M270 specification is republished by ASTM as specification A709/A709M.

Thus:

ASTM **A709-50** ≈* AASHTO **M270M-345** ≈* ASTM **A572-50**

* some differences may exist due to committee activity and publishing cycles and actual intended applications.



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Why Multiple Grades?

Specific Product Application

Example : ASTM **A709-50** vs ASTM **A709-50T_x** vs ASTM **A709-50F_x**

* "x" = 1, 2, or 3 – represents specific "zone" / minimum service temperature

- A709-50 = "base grade" – "general" bridge
- Due to SPECIFIC product application, SPECIFIC additional requirements (CVN Testing) is required.
- Non-Fracture Critical: (Grade designation: A709-50T_x)
 - main load carrying member
 - Has redundancy or failure not expected to cause collapse
- Fracture Critical: (Grade designation: A709-50F_x)
 - main load carrying tension member or tension component of bending member
 - Failure expected to lead to collapse



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Why Multiple Grades?

Specific Product Application

Example : ASTM **A709-50** vs ASTM **A709-50T_x** vs ASTM **A709-50F_x**

A709 CVN Testing Requirements
(≤ 2" Shape)

Fracture "Condition"		Minimum Average Energy (ft-lbf)		
		Zone 1	Zone 2	Zone 3
Non- Critical	(T)	15 @ 70°F	15 @ 40°F	15 @ 10°F
Critical	(F)	25 @ 70°F	25 @ 40°F	25 @ 10°F
Service Temperature (°F)		0°F	>0°F to -30°F	>-30°F to -60°F

A709-50T1 = A709-50 + T1 CVN requirements (min 15 ft-lbf @ 70°F)

- Redundant main load carrying member (non-fracture critical) for use at or above 0°F

A709-50F3 = A709-50 + F3 CVN requirements (min 25 ft-lbf @ 10°F)

- Non-Redundant main load carrying tension member (**Fracture Critical**) for use between -30 to -60°F



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Why Multiple Grades?

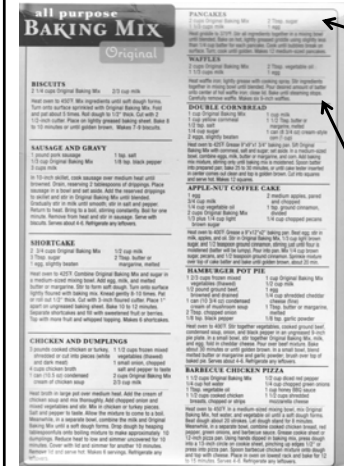
Additions / Restrictions

Example : ASTM **A572-50** vs ASTM **A992** (Structural Shapes)

- ASTM **A572-50** vs ASTM **A992** = both 50ksi [345 MPa] min fy
- ASTM **A572-50**
 - Originally published by ASTM 1966
 - Predominately OH and BOF mills, limited EAF mills (domestic production)
 - HSLA (Nb-V) C-Mn Steel
 - Low residuals (Cu, Ni, Cr, Mo) - \$\$ to add
- ASTM **A992**
 - Originally published by ASTM 1998 (W Shapes)
 - (1998 domestic production) : No OH nor BOF. 100% EAF
 - residuals (Cu, Ni, Cr, Mo) in feed stock (scrap)
 - A572-50 "based" w/ restrictions:
residuals, max fy, max yield/tensile ratio, max CE.

Why Multiple Grades?

Different Products



Pancakes:
 2 Cups Baking Mix 2 Tbsp. sugar
 1 1/3 cups milk 1 egg
 • Stir ingredients together until blended.
 • Bake on hot, lightly greased griddle ...

Waffles:
 2 Cups Baking Mix 2 Tbsp. sugar
 1 1/3 cups milk 1 egg
 • Stir ingredients together until blended.
 • Pour onto hot waffle iron...

Same "chemistry"
 Similar processing
 Different product

- Same chemistry
- Deviation in Processing – Different Product
- ☐ Might or Might Not be in same specification.

Why Multiple Grades? Multi-Certification

What is the W16x36's MTR Grade?

		*ASTM Specification / Grade								W16x36 MTR analysis		
		A36 ⁰⁸		A572-50 Type 2 ⁰⁷		A709-50 Type 2 ¹⁰		A992 ^{06a}				
"... " denotes no requirement(s)		min	max	min	max	min	max	min	max			
Chemical Requirements	C	wt%26232323	.09	
	Mn	wt%	1.35	...	1.35	.50	1.50	.89	
	S	wt%050505045	.021	
	P	wt%040404035	.013	
	Si	wt%404040	.10	.40	.22	
	Cu	wt%60	.24	
	Ni	wt%45	.09	
	Cr	wt%35	.10	
	Mo	wt%15	.028	
	V	wt%01	.15	.01	.1515	.019	
	Nb	wt%05	.001	
	V+Nb	wt%15	.020	
	Sn	wt%	"report"	.01	
	CE	wt%45	.29	
Mechanical Reqmnt's	f _y	ksi	36	...	50	...	50	...	50	65	60	61
	f _u	ksi	58	80	65	...	65	...	65	...	73	75
	f _y /f _u	85	.82	.81
	elong.	%	20	...	18	...	18	...	18	...	28	29

* Requirements assuming: (1) Shape, (2) Flange Tested, (3) t_r ≤ 2", (4) no "footnoted" alternatives used.

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Why Multiple Grades? Multi-Certification

First Name: Doug

Last Name: Rees-Evans

Nicknames: "Reesy" (grade school)

You can call me:

- Doug
- Douglas
- Mr. Rees-Evans
- Reesy

... only if you're my mother. →

... I won't answer! →

Whatever you call me;
does not change who I am.

Which name/title is used = f (CONTEXT)

Whichever Grade is used = f (CONTEXT)

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Why Multiple Grades?

A. The difference is due to.....

- Different specification bodies
- Different products and/or product applications
- Cross adaption / adoption



- Same Material \Rightarrow Different Grade(s) / {Name(s)} “multi-certification”: due to “Application Context”



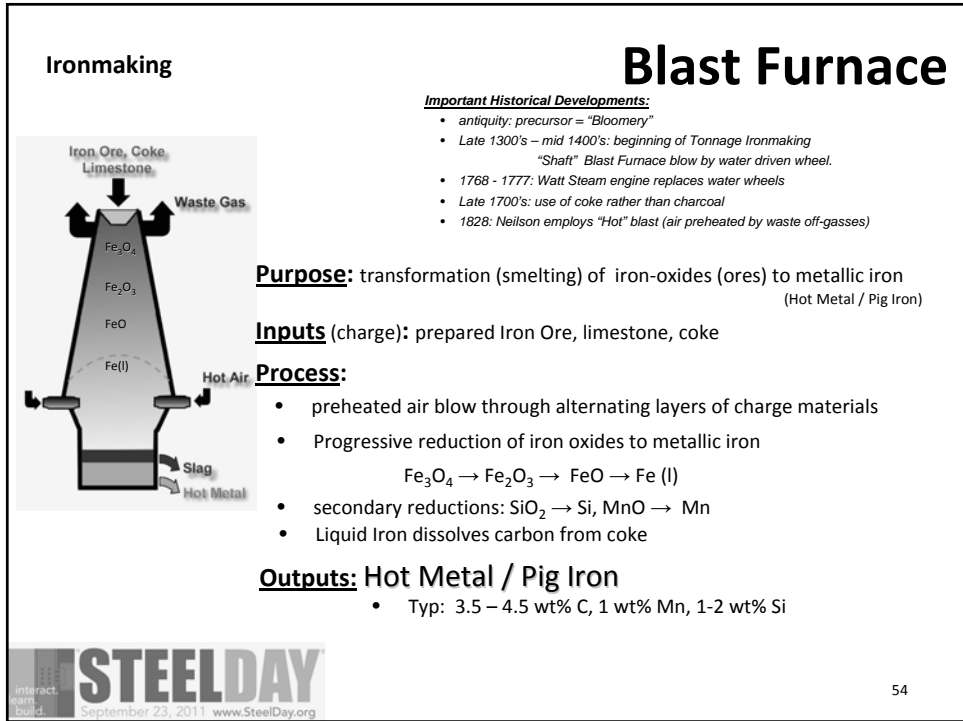
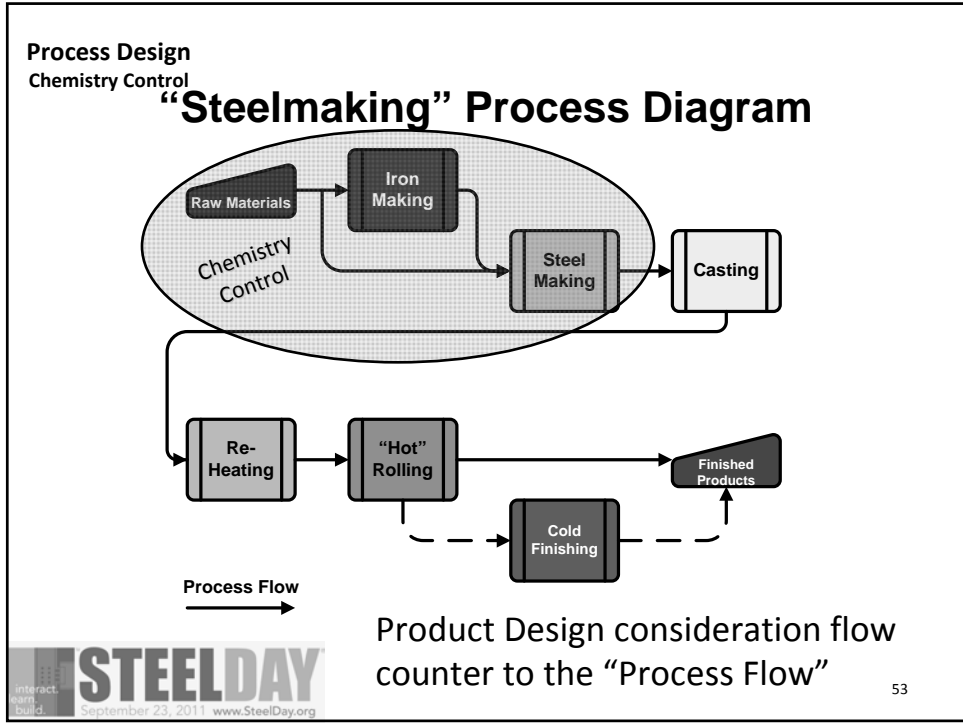
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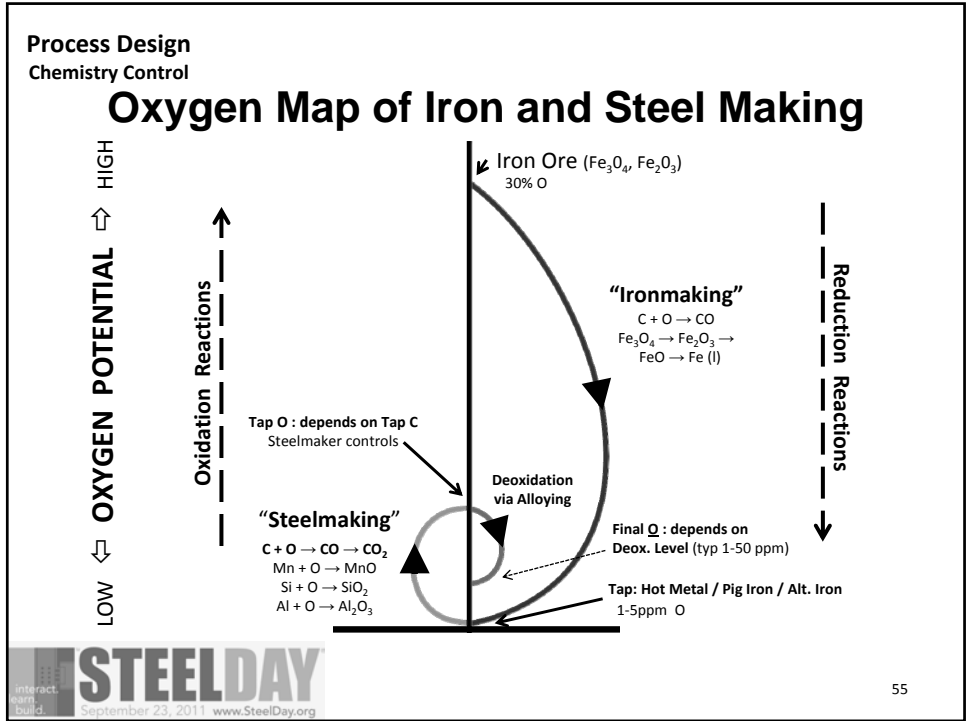
Questions

- ✓ Iron – Steel: What is the Difference ?
- ✓ Why are there multiple Grades of Steel ? Isn't steel, steel ?
- How can a mill control chemistry ? Isn't it dependent upon what scrap is used ?
 - How does a mill control the properties of a steel product ?
- If I retest a product, will I get the same results as in the MTR?



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Ironmaking "Alternate Iron"

Reduction of Iron Oxides to Metallic Iron without melting (solid state)

Direct Reduced Iron (DRI) – Hot Briquetted Iron (HBI) – Sponge Iron
Solid Metallic for use in Melting

Alternative to Blast Furnace

- Shorter furnace campaign cycles
- Can operate in an on/off manner
- Similar "chemistry" to Hot Metal / Pig Iron

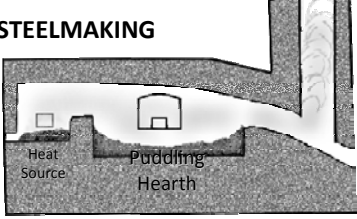
Example Processes:

- Pre 1980's : MIDREX / HYL Process / FINMET
- 1990's : Iron Carbide (Nucor) / Iron Dynamics* (SDI)
*DRI melted in submerged Arc Furnace
- 2000's : ITmk3 / Mesabi Iron Nuggets

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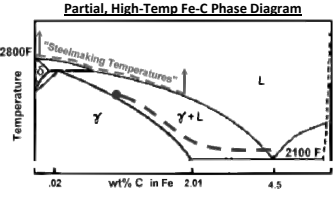
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STEELMAKING



Heat Source
Puddling Hearth

Puddling Furnace
Heat Size: 750 – 1500 # (typical)
Tap-Tap: 4 – 6 hr



Partial, High-Temp Fe-C Phase Diagram

Temperature vs wt% C in Fe. Red line (right to left) approximates composition and temperature changes during Puddling.

Puddling

Important Historical Developments:

- 1613: Reverberatory Furnace Invented
- 1760: Puddling Process Invented
- 1890's: Wrought Iron for structural applications largely replaced by steel
- 1925: Aston Process: Bessemer "iron" replaces pig iron + reverberatory furnaces route. – **Puddling OBSOLETE**
- Last commercial production of "true" wrought iron : USA 1969; UK 1973

Inputs (charge): Pig Iron, Heat (fuel – coke / coal)


Process :

- Pig iron melted in the hearth of a reverberatory furnace
- Liquid stirred with a pole to expose to air.
- Dissolved C oxidizes (surface liquid) reducing carbon content. Liquid composition moves into $\gamma+L$ phase ("mushy" puddle).
 - Dissolved Si, Mn oxidize (slag)
- Comes "of nature" when C & temp reaches $\gamma_{(solid)}$ phase.
- "pasty ball" removed from furnace and hammer/rolled to "squeeze-out" slag
- Rolled/hammered pieces are sheared, stacked, reheated and rerolled (wrought) into merchant bar

} raises temp. (not hot enough to reach "steelmaking" temps)

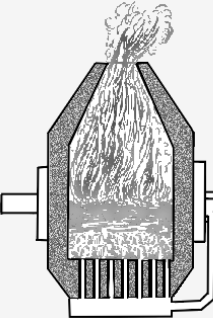
Outputs : Wrought Iron

- Typ: .10 – .20 wt% C (max .05 - .25)
- Extremely variability in C content between "batches"₅₇
- Negligible Mn, Si



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STEELMAKING



Heat Size: 15 -20 ton (typical)
Tap-Tap: 20 – 30 min

Bessemer

Important Historical Developments:

- 1856: Bessemer demonstrates his "converter"
- 1865: 1st US Production of "Bessemer" Steel
- 1879: Thomas Process / Basic Bessemer Steel
- 1949: Last "New" Bessemer Converter installation in US
- 1966: Last commercial production Bessemer Steel in US

[1st "tonnage" Steelmaking]

Inputs : Hot Metal, Air

Process :

- Hot Metal teemed into converter
- Air (78% N₂, 21% O₂) blown (20psig) from bottom of vessel through Hot Metal.
- Preferential oxidation of dissolved elements:
 - Si, Mn \Rightarrow C \Rightarrow Fe = \uparrow TEMPERATURE


Outputs : (liquid) Steel – carbon level controlled by duration of the "blow"

Advantages : (over Puddling)

- Speed: 20 tons in 30 mins vs ¼ tons in 4-6 hrs
- Autogenous : – no external heat / energy required
- Cost: price of finished steel in 1865 (converted to 2010 USD).
Puddle Iron: **\$5,000/ton** | Bessemer Steel: \$800/ton

Difficulties :

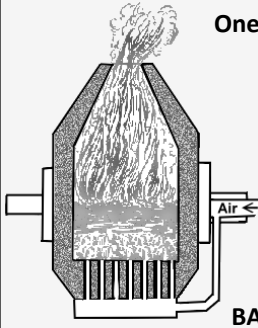
- Cannot remove Sulfur nor Phosphorous (no slag)
- Process speed too rapid for real-time chemical analysis
- Cannot use scrap



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STEELMAKING

“ACID” VS “BASIC”



One of the early MAJOR problems with implementation of the Bessemer Process was the inability to CONTROL **SULFUR** and **PHOSPHOROUS**

1879: Thomas discovered that Sulfur and Phosphorous could be removed from liquid steel by the use of “BASIC” slags and refractories.

ACID Slag / Refractory = Silicate (SiO_2) based.
 BASIC Slag / Refractory = Lime (CaO_2) / Dolomitic (CaO_2, MgO) based.

ACID “practice” uses ACID refractories • BASIC “practice” uses BASIC refractories

* In Europe, due to high P-bearing ores, the “Basic” Bessemer Process was wide used. More commonly referred to as the “Thomas Process”.

* In NA, due to ores with lower P-content, and the higher cost of Basic refractories (at the time), the “Acid” Bessemer Process was more predominate.

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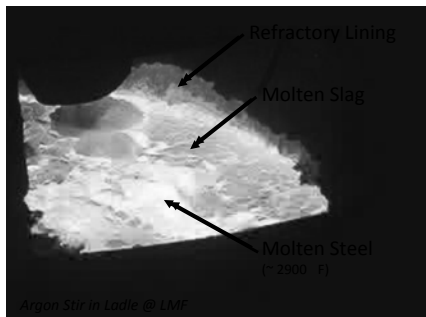
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Process Design STEELMAKING

“Refractories” & “Slags”

Refractories : Material(s) of very high melting point that are suitable for the use as linings for steel - making, handling, reacting, and transfer vessels.

Slag: A mixture of non-metallics that is liquid at steelmaking temperatures.
 eg: $\text{CaO}, \text{MgO}, \text{Al}_2\text{O}_3, \text{SiO}_2, \text{MnO}$



- Lower density than steel (*floats on top of steel*).
- Capable of absorbing and retaining “impurities” (*usually as oxides / sulfides*) from liquid steel.
- Acts as a thermal blanket (*reduces radiant temp loss from liq. Steel*).
- Acts as a re-oxidation barrier (*prevents direct air ⇔ liq. Steel contact*).
- Chemical Equilibrium: *steel ⇔ Slag*
“don’t make steel – make slag”

* Sustainability:

- Metallics recovered from used refractories and slag. Returned to melting processes.
- Used refractories: crushed, classified – used as slag modifiers.
- Used Slag: crushed, classified – used as concrete aggregate, road-base, RR ballast, etc.

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Open Hearth

(Seisimen's Process)
Acid / Basic

Important Historical Developments:

- 1860: Seisimen's (OH) Process invented
- 1870: 1st US production of Open Hearth Steel (Boston, MA)
- 1888: 1st US "Basic" Open Hearth furnace (US Steel – Homestead Works)
- 1967: Last commercial OH steel production - USA
- 2001: Last commercial world-wide OH steel production – (China)

Inputs : Hot Metal, Fuel, Air, Slag Formers, Scrap &/or Pig Iron

Process :

- Solids (scrap/Pig Iron) + slag formers charged
- Hot combustion product gases passed over top of slag and molten bath.
Waste gases heat regeneration chambers for the preheating of combustion air
- When solids were molten, Hot Metal charged (teemed)
- Preferential oxidation of dissolved elements (refining): Si, Mn \Rightarrow C


Outputs : (liquid) Steel – carbon level controlled at tap by sampling

Advantages :

- Large heat size : 50 – 300 tons
- Process speed allows for chemical sampling
- S & P control
- Can charge solid Pig Iron and/or Scrap

Difficulties :

- Long process times (4-6 hrs).
- Needs Hot Metal source
- Needs fuel (Bessemer = autogenous).



Heat Size: 50 -300 ton
(typical – 150 – 300 ton)

Tap-Tap: 4 – 6 hr

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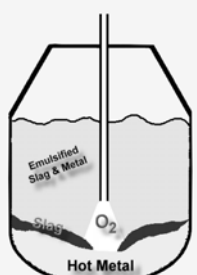
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Basic Oxygen Furnace

Important Historical Developments:

- ~1940 - 1945: "bulk" liquid Oxygen generation (Germany)
- 1949 - 1952: Development & Commercialization of LD/BOF (Voest-Alpine, Linz & Donawitz, Austria)
- 1954: 1st commercial US - BOF steelmaking (McLouth Steel)

Several different configurations
Top-Blown, Bottom-Blown, combination



Inputs :

- "Iron Units" - Scrap, Pig Iron, Alt. Iron, Hot Metal
- Slag Formers and Fluxes
- Energy_(chemical) – Supersonic O₂

Process :

Charge Solids \Rightarrow Charge Hot Metal \Rightarrow Blow \Rightarrow Tap

Preferential oxidation of dissolved elements: Si, Mn \Rightarrow C : Heat

Outputs : (liquid) Steel

Advantages :

- Autogenous (REQUIRES NO EXTERNAL ENERGY SOURCE)
- Dilution of "residual" elements

Difficulties :

- Requires continual Hot Metal supply

Heat Size: 200 -250 ton
(typical)

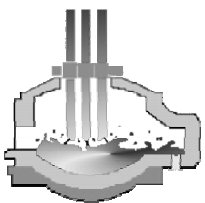
Tap-Tap: 30min – 1 hr

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Electric Arc Furnace

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Important Historical Developments:

- 1808: Carbon Arc discovered (Humphrey Davy)
- 1899: 1st commercial EAF steelmaking (Le Praz, France)
- 1909: 1st commercial US - EAF steelmaking (US Steel - Southworks, Chicago, IL)

Many different styles and configurations of EAFs
Many different methods and mode of EAF practice/operation

Inputs :

- "Iron Units" - Scrap, Pig Iron, Alt. Iron, Hot Metal (PRIMARY INPUT (1909) US Steel, Southworks)
- Slag Formers and Fluxes (~2000's) IDI @ SDI - Flat Roll Div.
- Energy - Electricity (primary), Supersonic O₂, Nat. Gas, Carbon add.

Process :

Charge ⇨ Melt ⇨ Refine ⇨ Tap

↳ Desired chemistry (C) & temperature

Outputs : (liquid) Steel


Advantages :

- Flexibility - charge materials (variety, not reliant upon constant source of Hot Metal)
- Operations : On/Off quickly

Difficulties :

- Non-autogenous
- "residual" element control ("high" scrap content in feed stock)

Heat Size: 30 - 400 ton (80 - 180 most common)
Tap-Tap: 30min - 1 ½ hr (assuming 80 - 180 heat size)

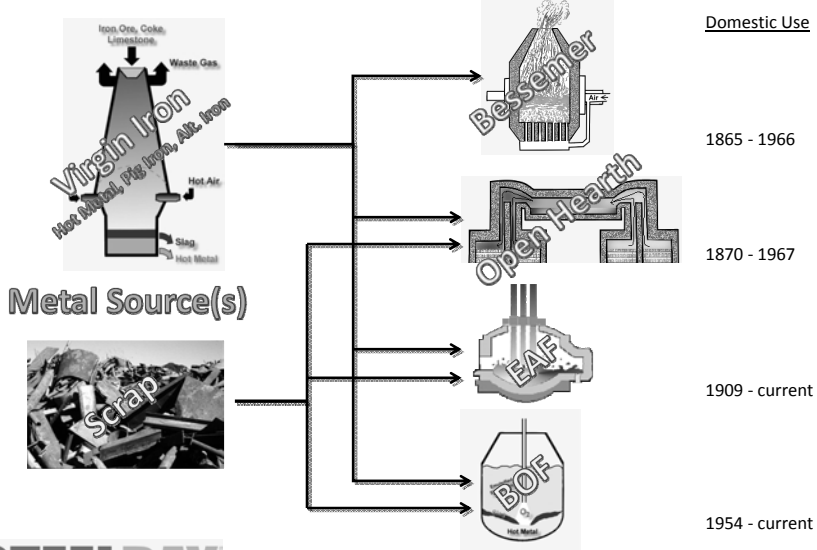


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"Metallics" Input to Furnace

Process Design STEELMAKING



Metal Source(s)

- Virgin Iron: Iron Ore, Coke, Limestone, Waste Gas, Hot Metal, Pig Iron, Alt. Iron, Hot Air, Slag, Hot Metal
- Scrap

Domestic Use

- Bessemer: 1865 - 1966
- Open Hearth: 1870 - 1967
- EAF: 1909 - current
- BOF: 1954 - current

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Process Design
Steelmaking

Scrap Selection

“graded” and segregated by: size, source(past history), expected chemistry



Plate & Structural



#2 Heavy Melting Scrap



Bushelling



Shredded



Blended into charge:

- Cost
- Density
- Melting Efficiency
 - yield
 - melting characteristics
- Chemistry
 - Chemical Energy
 - Residual Elements (Cu, Ni, Cr, Mo, Sn)



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How can a mill control chemistry ? Isn't it dependent upon what scrap is used ?

A.

- **Scrap has had a long history of use in steelmaking**
 - Open Hearth (1860 – 2001)
 - Basic Oxygen (1952 – current)
 - Electric Arc (1909 – current)
- **Careful selection and blending of Scrap**
 - **Chemistry** (inc. anticipated “residual” content) {Grade Requirements}
 - **Melting Characteristics**
 - **Cost**
- **Dilution**



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How can a mill control chemistry ? Isn't it dependent upon what scrap is used ?

- Chemistry = more than just scrap
- Why is Chemistry important ?

Product Mechanical Properties (MP)

- Strength (Yield, Tensile)
- Elongation
- Impact Resistance
- Weldability
- Hardness / Wear-resistance
- Etc...

$$MP = f(\text{chemistry}, \text{microstructure})$$

Re-defined question:

How does a mill control the properties of a steel product ?



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Process Design

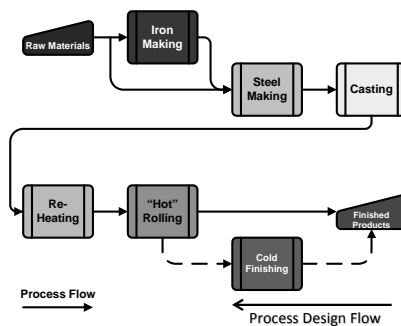
Process Design Influences

1. Steelmaker decides:

- ✓ What product(s)
- ✓ Target Market
- ✓ Where

2. External Influences:

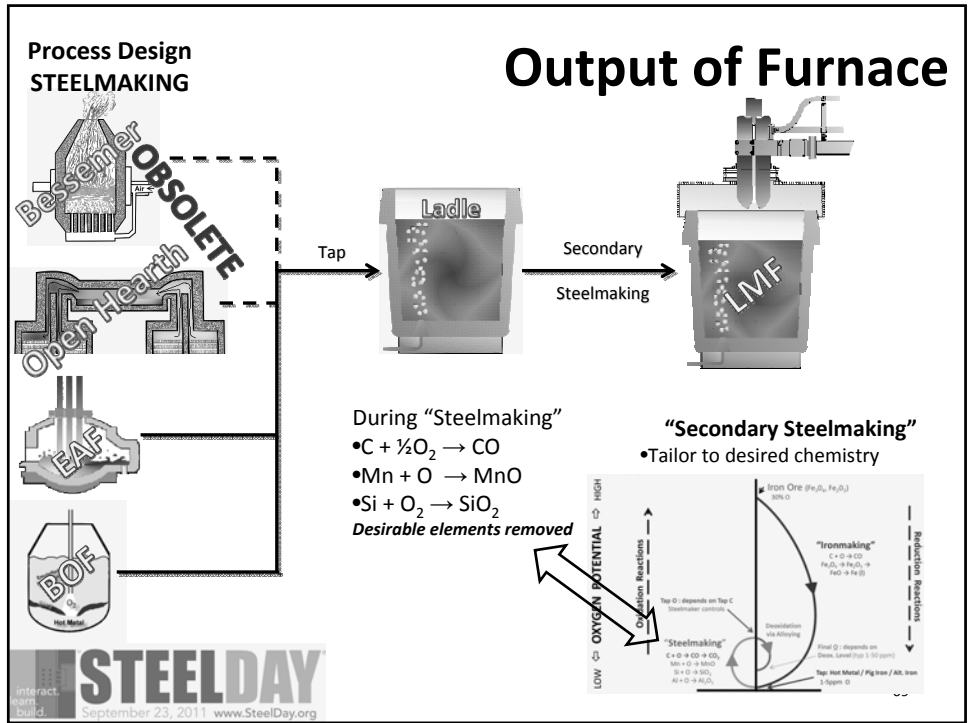
- ✓ Product "demands"
Requirements / limitations
- ✓ Available Technology(s)
- ✓ Raw Material
Cost / Availability / Suitability
- ✓ CO\$T\$!!



1 + 2 → which technology solution to employ



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Chemistry Control

"Types" of Elements

- Oxidizable Elements**

can be removed from liquid steel by adding Oxygen (O)

 - Aluminum (Al) and Titanium (Ti)
 - Silicon (Si) and Vanadium (V)
 - Carbon (C) and Phosphorous (P)
 - Manganese (Mn) and Iron (Fe)

Order of Removal

"lost" during Melting Operations
- Reducible Elements**

can be removed from liquid steel by removing Oxygen (O)

 - Sulfur (S)

❖ Oxygen can be removed from steel by adding oxidizable elements

Most commonly Si, Al, Mn, C

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Chemistry Control

“Types” of Elements


- **Other Elements**
 can not be removed from steel by adding or removing Oxygen (O)
 Level controlled by dilution (adding clean material) (scrap or iron product)
 - Copper (Cu)
 - Chrome (Cr)
 - Nickel (Ni)
 - Molybdenum (Mo)
 - Tin (Sn)
 - *Antimony (Sb)
 - *Arsenic (As)

* commonly a residual from iron ores.

Controlled through the careful selection of type and quantities of raw materials.

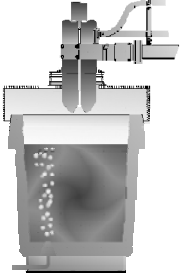
Element wt% = as melted

- When purposefully added, known as: Alloying Elements
- When arriving from raw material stream (eg. Scrap, Ore), Known as : Residual Elements




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Process Design STEELMAKING



Ladle Metallurgy Furnace




Secondary Steelmaking

- **Desulfurization** (slag treatment)
- **Build Chemistry**
 (add elements to obtain desired chemistry – C, Mn, Si, Al, Cu, Ni, Cr, V, Nb, etc.)
- **Inclusion Control** (deox / deS products)
- **Temperature Control**
 (casting consideration, segregation)
- **Homogeneity**
 (chemistry, temperature)

Degassing (DH, RH, Tank, etc...)

- Control level of dissolved gasses
 (H, O, N)



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Process Design
Microstructure

Mechanical Properties

$MP = f(\text{chemistry, microstructure})$

How Does Chemistry Influence Mechanical Properties?

Strengthening Mechanisms

- Solution Strengthening
- Precipitation / Dispersion Strengthening

Contribute collectively to observed mechanical properties

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Metal Theory

Crystal Defects

A: Interstitial Solute
SOLUTE ATOM DOES NOT OCCUPY LATTICE POSITION OF SOLVENT
(Solid-state diffusion via interstitial pathways)

B: Substitution Solute
SOLUTE ATOM OCCUPIES LATTICE POSITION OF SOLVENT
(Solid-state diffusion via Vacancy Migration)

C: Edge Dislocation
AN EXTRA PARTIAL PLANE OF ATOMS WITHIN THE LATTICE
Local lattice is distorted/stretched at edge of dislocation.

D: Vacancy
AN UNOCCUPIED LATTICE LOCATION

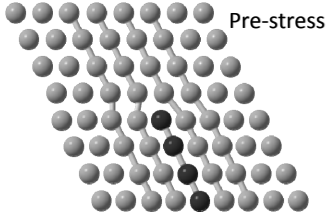
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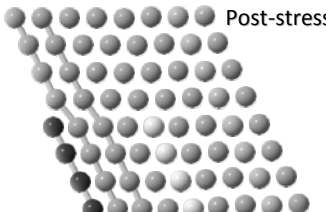
Dislocation Slip

Metal Theory

Dislocations (may be "Edge" or "Screw")
 AN EXTRA PARTIAL PLANE OF ATOMS WITHIN THE LATTICE
 Local lattice is distorted/stretched at edge of dislocation.



Pre-stress




Post-stress

Original Dislocation Slip Location

Plastic Deformation = Dislocation Slip

- When under stress, dislocations break existing bonds with neighbors and re-establish bonds with other neighbors. May progress rapidly through crystal.
- Net effect, the dislocation plane moves through the bulk crystal and shape has permanently changed.
- Stress require to slip dislocations is on the order of $\times 10^2$ **less** than is required to cause slip of entire (full) plane of atoms. Permanent Shape Change.

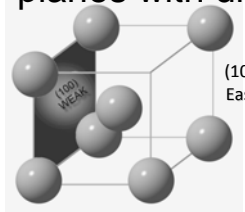


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Crystal Anisotropy

Metal Theory

within the 3-D crystal unit cell / lattice there are planes with differing atoms "packing" efficiencies.




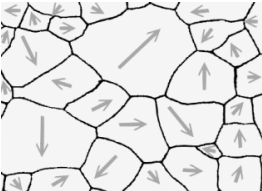
(100) Plane in BCC Iron
Easy slip \Rightarrow "Weak"




(111) Plane in BCC Iron
Difficult slip \Rightarrow "Strong"

different planes offer different resistances to dislocation motion





@ Macro Level:
randomly oriented grains exhibit "average" behavior



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Solution Strengthening

Strengthening Mechanism(s)

A: Interstitial Solute B: Substitution Solute

- Unless involved in forming a precipitate or other phase, all alloying element atoms will occupy either an Interstitial or Substitution Position within the lattice.
(Elements that can not reside in either position are immiscible / insoluble)
- Presence of solute atoms create a “localized” strain on the iron lattice.
- Interstitial solutes (low concentrations) can “Pin” dislocations. (Increases strength)
- Substitution solutes interfere with / block dislocation slip. (Increases strength)
- For Substitution Elements with atomic diameters greater than iron: Strengthening Effect increase with increasing atomic diameter.

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Solid State Diffusion

Metal Theory

A: Interstitial Solute B: Substitution Solute

Vacancy Migration

“red” atom “breaks” bond with neighbor, moves one atomic unit left and re-establishes bonds
Net effect: Vacancy Migration to the right

- Given sufficient time and energy (temperature), solute atoms can diffuse through the crystal

Interstitial Solute: diffuse through interstitial “pathways” between iron atoms.

Substitutional Solute: diffuse via “Vacancy Migration”

Solid-state Substitution Solute diffusion - akin to getting from the back of the platform on to the car.

Process Design
Microstructure

Mechanical Properties

$MP = f(\text{chemistry, } \underline{\text{microstructure}})$

How Does Microstructure Influence Mechanical Properties?

Strengthening Mechanisms

- Solution Strengthening
- Precipitation / Dispersion Strengthening

Contribute collectively to observed mechanical properties

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Process Design
Microstructure

Grain Boundaries

- Grain Boundaries = intersection of lattices differing in orientation (random)
- Mismatch = strained lattice = un-satisfied bonds
Grain Boundaries = high potential chemical energy

“NATURE TENDS TO THE LOWEST ENERGY STATE”

In a fixed volume:

- Small grains = more grain boundaries
- Large grains = more grain volume
- ❖ Large grains = lower overall energy

Given the impetus (temperature + time); large grains will grow larger by consuming smaller grains.

- Dislocation and Vacancies do not cross, but “pile-up” at Grain Boundaries.
 - Larger grains offer more unimpeded volume for dislocation to move with.
 - Smaller (finer) grain size = stronger.

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Grain Size Control

Rolling Mill

Important Historical Developments:

- 1590 : 1st slitting and cutting of cast iron bar (by rolls) for nail mfg.

Purpose:

- transformation a solid cast shape into a desired "finished product" shape/form
- Product possesses desired mechanical properties/characteristics

Process :

- Material is plastically deformed by passing between counter-rotating rolls
- In Austenitic Temp range << Hot Rolling >>
- In Ferritic Temp range << Cold Rolling >>

Conservation of Matter
 $A_0 = A_1$
 $L_0 < L_1$

- Myriad of Roll shapes, sizes, and configurations.
 - f (product shape, as-cast size / shape)

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Process Design Microstructure

Grain Size Control

Hot Rolling

Austenitic Temperature Range

- Ideal Grain shape: Equiaxed
- plastically deformed austenitic grains will re-crystallize
- Austenitic Temperature range, given time: grain coarsening

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Grain Size Control

Hot Rolling

Austenitic Temperature Range

Process Design
Microstructure

Austenite ⇒ Ferrite Transformation:

- Ferrite nucleates at defects in Austenite (grain boundaries, precipitates, second phases)

L_0/L_1 : High Reduction Ratio

"fine" recrystallized grain size

L_0/L_1 : Low Reduction Ratio

"coarse" recrystallized grain size

Greater reduction ⇒ Finer recrystallized grains

Fine Austenite Grain Size ⇒ Fine Ferrite Grain Size

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Grain Size Control

theoretical shape attributes • hypothetical mill • Grade: A992

Process Design
Microstructure

Grain Size contributed more to Strength than Chemistry

W14x398 :
thicker flange
*lower rolling reduction

W14x398 :
"more" chemistry

W14x398 :
"less" strength

W14x398 :
coarse grain size

		W16x36	W14x398
Thickness (in)	Flange	.430	2.845
Chemistry (wt%)	C	.08 - .12	.08 - .12
	Mn	.80 - .90	1.20 - 1.30
	V	.01 - .02	.05 - .06
Strength (ksi)	Yield	60 - 65	50 - 55
	Tensile	75 - 80	65 - 70
	e	.75 - .80	.80 - .85
	fy/fu	9 - 10 "fine"	5 - 6 "coarse"

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* Actual analysis and properties will vary from mill to mill.

Process Design Microstructure

Yield/Tensile Ratio, Yield Strength, Toughness (Impact Resistance), Weldability

Good, Poor, Coarse, Fine

Grain Size Control

Thermal History

Air Cool

- section size
- mill pace

Center of Thermal Mass

Selective Cooling

- localized

Quench & Self-Temper

- ASTM A913

Microstructure:

- (U-Bainite Shell + Ferrite Core)
- Grain Size Control

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Metal Theory

Precipitation Strengthening

Precipitates form, upon cooling / during transformation from a supersaturated solid solution.

- Fine particles or second phase
- Carbides
 - Fine particles: VC, Nb₄C₃, TiC,
 - Second Phase: Fe₃C (Cementite: laths as part of pearlite)
- Nitrides
 - Fine particles: VN, NbN, AlN, TiN,
- Carbonitrides

Some elements will form both carbides and nitrides which are mutually soluble (C,N).

 - Fine particles: V(C,N), Nb(C,N)
- ❖ Strengthening Mechanism(s):
 - γ → α nucleation site – promotes fine α grain size
 - “macro” block to dislocation

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Process Design

Remove stress, will return to original shape
ELASTIC BEHAVIOR

Mechanical Response

Young's / Elastic Modulus

{ Ferritic State }

“constant” characteristic of a polycrystalline metal
Governed by inter-atomic binding forces
NOT ALTERED unless basic nature of metal is changed
*Eg. Add enough alloy to become something different:
Ni +Cr +Fe => stainless steel;*

Carbon steels: **NOT SENSITIVE TO STRUCTURE**
Unaffected by Grain Size / Alloy content
**** ISOTROPIC BEHAVIOR ****
« same mechanical behavior regardless of direction »
Important when yielding is a design consideration

Temperature Dependent

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Process Design

Mechanical Response

Yield

Point / Strength / (Lüder's) Plateau

Elastic behavior ends and yielding begins when sufficient stress is applied to result in “sudden”:

- dislocation slip along “weak” crystal axes
- creation of new dislocations

Interstitial Solute (C,N) pinning dislocations, preventing slip.

“sharp” **Yield Point** : present in lower strength steels (lower C, N concentrations) = activation energy to un-pin dislocations and allow slip.
strain rate sensitive. ↑ Strain Rate = ↑ Yield Point

Yield (Lüder's) Plateau: stress level required for plastic deformation (un-pinned dislocations – weak axes). Due slip in randomly oriented grains (polycrystalline) – “plateau” is not a “unique” stress level
can give variability in “results” due .2% offsets

Yield Strength: If no sharp point, virtually impossible to determine exact point when plastic deformation occurs: Yield Strength = occurs at .2% deformation (offset from elastic modulus).

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Process Design

Mechanical Response

Strain Hardening
{ Ferritic State }

As dislocations slip through the grains, they will encounter:

- Grain Boundaries
- Substitution Solute Elements
- Precipitates, Second Phases, Inclusions

1. Dislocations will accumulate at Grain Boundaries and Precipitates, Second Phases, & Inclusions
 << remove from further slip >>
2. Dislocations pinned by solute atoms
 << remove from further slip >>

Increasing Stress required to create new dislocations and slip on multiple crystal "packing" axes (not only the weak axis)

Uniform Cross-Sectional Volume Reduction / Elongation

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Process Design

Mechanical Response

UTS to Failure
{ Ferritic State }

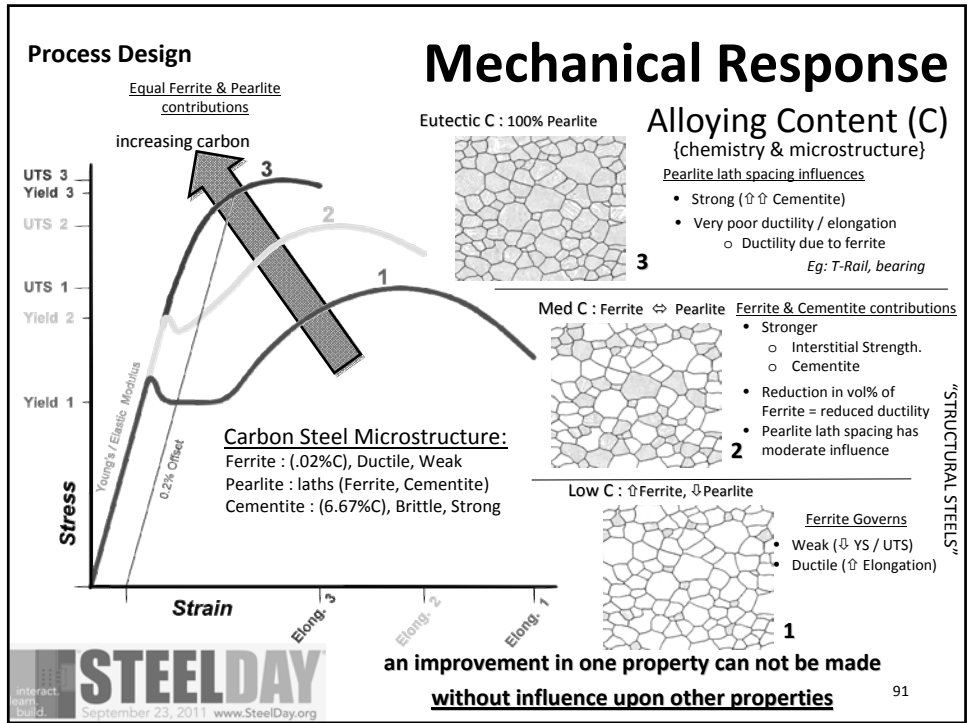
Ultimate Tensile Strength

Maximum stress that the material can bear without the onset of non-uniform elongation across the member.

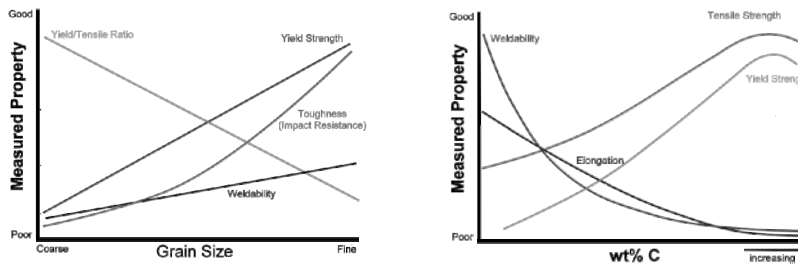
ultimately leads to Fracture

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How does a mill control the properties of a steel product ?



A.

- varying degrees of control on process variables
- an improvement in one property can not be made without influence upon other properties
- seek to optimize 'total package' of properties in a cost effective manner to meet grade requirements.

Questions

- ✓ Iron – Steel: What is the Difference ?
- ✓ Why are there multiple Grades of Steel ? Isn't steel, steel ?
- ✓ How can a mill control chemistry ? Isn't it dependent upon what scrap is used ?
 - ✓ How does a mill control the properties of a steel product ?
- If I retest a product, will I get the same results as in the MTR (Mill Test Report)?



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If I retest a product, will I get the same results as in the MTR?

A. (short Answer)

- **Exactly Same Values ?**
 - ✗ No
- **“Nominally” Same Values ?**
 - ✓ Yes



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MTR Variability

Chemical Analysis

Casting Method(s) strongly influence variability in "Product Check"

Ingot Casting

Continuous Casting

	Ingot	Continuous Cast
Killed Nature	Unkilled - to -fully killed Rimming & Capped CO evolution (local changes in C levels)	MUST BE FULLY KILLED
Solidification Rate	SLOW 8 hrs - 2 days 10 - 40 tons	FAST 45 - 60 min 80 - 120 tons
Segregation	can be significant (C, S, P)	Minimal
"Heat"/Batch Separation	Single Heat in Mold	Sequenced Heats

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General Metallurgy

"Soda" Analogy

- As steel cools ⇒ solidifies, dissolved gases H, O, N come out of solution.
- If sufficient O: O reacts with C in liquid forming CO_(g) bubble. Results in local reduction in carbon content + voids / bubbles trapped in solid steel. (UNKILLED)

KILLED STEEL:
- dissolved oxygen content low enough to prevent CO_(g) evolution during solidification.

"Killing" accomplished by removing / "tying-up" dissolved oxygen through reaction with metals possessing a high chemical affinity for oxygen.

$$2Al + 3O = Al_2O_3 (s) \quad | \quad Si + 2O = SiO_2 (s)$$

Ingot Casting

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General Metallurgy

“Segregation”

In alloy systems, during solidification, the higher melting point constituent(s) freeze first.
(Slow cooling):

- Lower melting point constituent(s) will be “rejected” by the advancing solidification front.
- Remaining liquid becomes enriched in lower melting point constituents.

• Upon complete solidification: Regions of “Composition Fluctuation” ⇔ **SEGREGATION**
 << different chemistry in different regions >>

Analogous Example: Traffic Jam = Solidified Alloy. (Cars = Iron Atoms, Motorcycles = Sulfur Atoms)

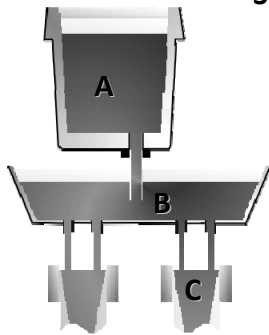


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MTR Variability

Chemical Analysis

Sequence (Continuous) Casting



1. Heat “1” (chemistry “1”) teemed from ladle [A] to tundish [B]. Tundish distributes steel to casting mold(s) [C].
2. When ladle is empty, ladle removed. Tundish retracts steel of Heat “1”.
3. new ladle of Heat “2” (chemistry “2”) substituted, and teemed to tundish.
4. For period of time, tundish chemistry = decreasing % of Heat “1” and increasing % of Heat “2”; after which chemistry = Heat “2”
5. When ladle “2” is empty, steps 3 & 4 repeated

Product of Heat “2” will possess a changing mix of Chem “1” to Chem “2” on one end, a changing mix of Chem “2” to Chem “3” on the other, and chem “2” throughout the “middle”

- Heats 1, 2, 3 must be of nominally same chemistry (Grade Separation)
 - Compliance to spec: eg. ASTM A6 Table A – Permitted Variations in Product Analysis
- ‘MTR’ Chemistry = average of samples taken during casting of the Heat

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MTR Variability

Tension Test Results

ASTM A6/A6M – 10a

Appendix X2. Variation of Tensile Properties in Plates and Shapes

X2.1

- “tension testing requirements ... are intended only to characterize the tensile properties of a heat of steel ...”.
- “not intended to define ... tensile properties at all possible test locations...”
- “it is well known and documented that tensile properties will vary within a heat or individual piece of steel as a function of chemical composition, processing, testing procedure and other factors.”
- “incumbent on designer and engineers to use sound engineering judgment when using tension test results shown in mill test reports.”

X2.2

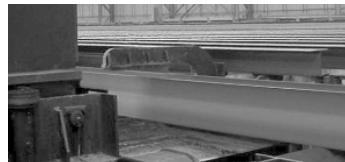
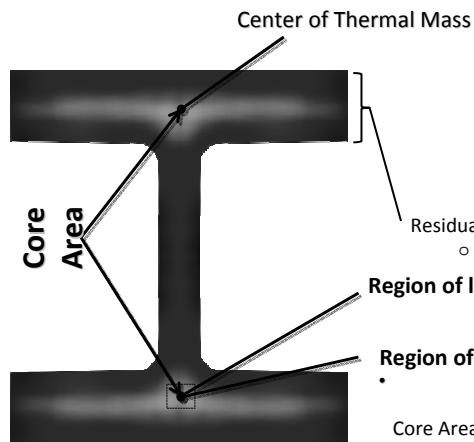
- Expected variability: “one standard deviation equals approximately 4% of required tensile strength, 8% of required yield strength, and 3% of required elongation.”.

X2.1 : “testing procedures ... Have been found to provide structural products adequate for normal structural design criteria.”



MTR Variability

“Thick” W Shapes



bar leaving “hot” side of mill, entering cooling bed
SDI-SRD, Columbia City, IN



MTR Variability

Coupon Type / Location

ASTM A6/A6M -10a
 Mill Testing (MTR Values) use:

- $\frac{2}{3}$ of the way from the flange centerline to the flange toe
- Full thickness
- 8" gage
- ASTM A370 – 1½" Wide "Plate-Type" Coupon (Fig 3)

ASTM A370 – 0.500" Round Coupon (Fig 4)

- 2" gage
- Can be tested on small / lower cap. Test Frame
- Commonly found in use by 3rd Party Testers

2" gage length coupon gives better % (more) elongation vs. 8" gage

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MTR Variability

Coupon Type / Location

Full Thickness Plate Specimen (MTR)

- Average of "discrete point" strength(s) across flange thickness
- Expected in-service response

0.500" Round Coupon

- "localized properties"
- ≠ Plate Specimen values
 - (microstructural, chemical differences)
- Difference exaggerated by
 - thickness
 - QST (A913) / surface treatment / case hardening

Strength (Yield, UTS)

MTR (or 50, 60, 65)

A913

HR

As-Rolled Surface **Flange Thickness** **As-Rolled Surface**

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If I retest a product, will I get the same results as in the MTR?

A. (Long Answer)

- **Exactly Same Values ?**
 - × **No**
- **“Nominally” Same Values ?**
 - ✓ **Yes – within allowable variations**
 - **Mech. Prop’s: Same coupon and location(s)**




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Questions

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