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High-cycle fatigue and fracture behavior of double-side friction stir welded 6082Al ultra-thick plates



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ABSTRACT

For welded structures of precipitation-strengthened aluminum alloys, achieving sound joint with good fatigue property is not an easy task, especially for thick plates. In the present work, ultrathick 6082Al-T4 alloy plates with 80 mm in thickness were double-side friction stir welded and heat-treated. The high cycle fatigue (HCF) property and fracture behavior of the joint were investigated using trisection specimens in thickness, and the key factors that affect the fracture behavior were addressed. High quality joint was achieved with the three-layered specimens fractured along the lowest hardness zone (LHZ) in the static tensile testing. Further, the fatigue life curves exhibited almost the same distribution tendency, and the same fatigue limit (110 MPa) and fatigue ratio (0.49) were achieved in the three-layered specimens. During fatigue testing, the middle and lower layers fractured along the LHZ, which was similar to those during the static tensile tests, while abnormal fracture occurred in the nugget zone (NZ) of the upper specimen. Further examination revealed that the residual stress in the NZ of the upper layer was tensile stress (+9 MPa) whereas it was compressive stress in the lower layer (-31 MPa). The tensile residual stress together with the external loaded cyclic tensile stress resulted in more serious fatigue damage in the upper layer and led to the abnormal fracture in the NZ.

1. Introduction

Welding and joining are essential methods for structural components, whereas fusion welding processes are extremely challenging for Al alloy plates and the issue can become significantly serious when thick Al alloy plates are involved [1–3]. Friction stir welding (FSW), as an effective solid state joining technique, has over years achieved prominent progress in joining light alloys [4–6], composites [7,8] and dissimilar materials [9,10]. FSW can avoid the disadvantages encountered in fusion welding of Al alloys [4,5]. It is widely reported that joints with excellent properties of thin and medium thick alloy plates could be achieved by acquiring specific microstructures produced with process variants based on one-side FSW [11–14]. Therefore, it is highly expected to apply FSW

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Abbreviations: FSW, friction stir welding; NZ, nugget zone; TMAZ, thermo-mechanically affected zone; HAZ, heat-affected zone; BM, base material; LHZ, lowest hardness zone; UTS, ultimate tensile strength; HCF, high cycle fatigue

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to weld thick Al alloy plates based on its excellent advantages in the welding of thin Al alloy plates.

Fatigue property, as a significant evaluation index, is of great importance to estimate the reliability of welded structure components. FSW joints are usually expected to have superior fatigue properties to fusion welds by acquiring fine recrystallized grains in the nugget zone with a high fraction of high angle grain boundaries [15–17]. However, FSW joint is an inhomogeneous structure, and its fatigue properties are affected by complex factors. It is well documented that the fatigue property of metal is dominated by the interaction of grain size, precipitates, dislocation configuration, substructures and also residual stress [18–21]. The dominant factors can therefore be classified as the following two: microstructure and residual stress. It's hence crucial to make the two affecting factors clear thoroughly.

The residual stress is inevitable in welding structures due to the intensive hot deformation. Although the residual stress in FSW joints can be decreased to a great extent compared to that by fusion welding [7,21,22], it cannot be underestimated in many situations, especially for the thick plates. The residual stress together with the external loaded cyclic stress may greatly affect the fatigue crack initiation and propagating rate [22–25]. Usually, the tensile residual stress can accelerate the crack propagation whereas the compressive residual stress can retard the crack propagation [24–26]. However, this issue will become more complicated when ultra-thick Al alloy joints are involved, because the inhomogeneity will be more inclined to generate through the thickness direction.

Systematic studies evaluating the fatigue properties of thin and medium thick Al alloy FSW joints have been widely reported [14,27-31] and the fracture mechanisms have also been declared. However, there are few related researches involved ultra-thick Al alloy plates. Some investigations at present focused on the plates that were less than 45 mm in thickness without the evaluation of the fatigue properties [32-36]. Although an ultra-thick SiC_p/2014Al composite plate with 120 mm in thickness [3] and a 108 mm thick 5A06 Al alloy plate [37] were reported to be welded successfully with FSW respectively, fatigue properties were not addressed and welding defects were easily formed in the FSW joints of ultra-thick plates. Moreover, the limited research on the fatigue properties of Al alloy thick plates was investigated on the hot-rolled Al-Cu-Li alloy plate with a thickness of 90 mm [38], rather than the FSW joint. It's therefore essential to demonstrate the fatigue properties in the FSW joints of ultra-thick Al alloy plates. In the present work, we mainly focused on the high cycle fatigue (HCF) properties of the FSW joints of 6082Al ultra-thick plates, intending to explore the dominant factors that affect the fatigue fracture behavior.

2. Experiment

In the present work, as-extruded 6082Al-T4 alloy plates were used as the base material (BM) with dimensions of 2000 mm \times 800 mm \times 80 mm. The chemical composition of the BM is as follows: 0.90 Mg, 0.89 Si, 0.017 Zn, 0.045 Cu, 0.19 Fe, 0.6Mn, 0.042 Cr, 0.021 Ti, and balance Al (wt.%).

Double-side butt welding was carried out on a FSW machine $(JM50 \times 40-1)$ with the welding direction parallel to the extruding direction of the BM. The double-side welds were completed in sequence and the second pass welding was conducted after the first pass on the other side of the plates. The welding was conducted at a tool rotation rate of 400 rpm and a welding speed of 100 mm/ min. A welding tool with a shoulder diameter of 55 mm and a truncated cone pin with right-hand thread and three flats was used. The diameter of the pin was 20 mm at the root and 6 mm at the tip, and the length of the pin was 45 mm. Post-weld heat-treatment with a temperature of 175 °C for 7 h, was performed on the as-welded plates subsequently.

Microstructural observations were conducted using optical microscopy (OM, Axiovert 200 MAT), with the samples machined perpendicular to the welding direction and polished, then etched in a 2.5 vol% HNO₃, 1.5 vol% HCl, 1.0 vol% HF and 95 vol% H₂O mixed acid reagent. Electron backscattered diffraction (EBSD, HKL Channel 5 System) was conducted to reveal the grain structures, with the samples electro-polished in a reagent (HClO₄: $C_2H_5OH = 1:9$, vol.%) for 1 min at -25 °C and 12 V. The precipitation evolution was observed using transmission electron microscopy (TEM, FEI TECNAI F20). Samples for TEM observation were prepared by twin-jet electro-polishing with a solution of 30% HNO₃ and 70% CH₃OH at -30 °C and 15 V.

Vickers hardness values were measured on the cross-section of the welds perpendicular to the welding direction. The tests were conducted using an automatic machine (Leco, LM-247AT) under a load of 300 g holding for 15 s. Fourteen lines with 41 indentations in each line were measured to acquire the hardness distribution maps with a total of 574 indentations. The interval between lines was 4 mm and 1.5 mm between indentations. Three lines of the indentations were selected to examine the hardness profiles of the upper layered specimen before and after the fatigue testing using the same parameters above.

The FSW joints were sliced into three pieces along the thickness direction for the tensile tests, i.e., the lower layer (the first-pass weld layer), the middle layer (including overlapped region), and the upper layer (the second-pass weld layer). The specimens were machined perpendicular to the FSW direction with a gauge scale of 80 mm \times 22 mm \times 21 mm. The specimens were electrical discharge machined and ground with SiC papers up to grit #800 to achieve a smooth surface. An SANS CMT 5205 testing machine was used to conduct the tensile test at room temperature with an initial strain rate of 1 \times 10⁻³ s⁻¹ and a testing speed of 4.8 mm/ min. Three specimens for each layer were conducted to acquire an average value.

High-cycle fatigue tests were conducted using a hydraulic servo fatigue testing system (Instron 8850). The specimens were prepared with the same size as those for the tensile tests and were milled and polished to achieve a smooth surface. Sine waveform with a stress ratio of R = 0.1 was applied at a frequency of 30 Hz. After the fatigue testing, the crack initiation sites and propagation path were examined using scanning electron microscopy (SEM, ZEISS SUPRA 55). The schematic diagrams of the position and the size of the specimens are presented in Fig. 1.

Residual stress measurement was conducted on a KJS-3P type stress testing instrument with a BE120-05AA-A type strain gage. A sectioning relaxation strain-gage method according to GB/T 31218-2014 was selected in the testing. The specimens used for fatigue



Fig. 1. Schematic diagrams of (a) sampling position, (b) tensile and fatigue specimens.

testing were chosen to conduct the residual stress measurement, as shown in Fig. 1b. The strain gage was set in the center of specific zones to be tested and then a slice on the surface of the specimen in a dimension of $15 \times 12 \times 1 \text{ mm}^3$ was sectioned to detect the strain relaxation. Eight dots were measured in the centers of the NZs and HAZs on the surfaces of both the upper and lower specimens. The determination of the residual stress by sectioning the relaxation strain-gage method in specific zones is schematically listed in Fig. 2.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Microstructures

Fig. 3 shows the cross-sectional macrostructure and the EBSD maps of specific regions in the NZ of the joint. The double-side welding process produced a dumbbell-shaped weld, consisting of two single-pass welds, as seen from Fig. 3f. In our previous investigation [39], the microstructures of the joint have been discussed in detail. The onion ring structure and "S" line in the NZ had no devastating effects on the mechanical properties. It is well known that the material in NZ of a FSW joint experiences intense plastic deformation, which may induce the different dynamic recrystallization (DRX) and grain morphology in different regions, especially for the FSW joint of ultra-thick plate [11,40,41]. Fig. 3a–e show the grain structures of the regions A ~ E in the NZ marked with yellow dotted line rectangles in Fig. 3f. The black lines represented the high angle grain boundaries (HAGBs, \geq 15°), whereas the red lines indicated the low angle grain boundaries (LAGBs, < 15°) in the images. As can be seen, there is an obvious grain size gradient in the NZ through the thickness direction. Regions A and E (i.e. the top regions of each single-pass weld NZ) had almost the same grain size while the smallest grain size appeared in region C (overlapped region of the two-pass NZs) with a high fraction of LAGBs.



Fig. 2. Stress determination by sectioning relaxation strain-gage method for: (a) upper layer, (b) lower layer.



Fig. 3. EBSD maps of different regions in the NZ: (a) region A, (b) region B, (c) region C, (d) region D and (e) region E, (f) cross-sectional macrostructure of joint.

Fig. 4 shows the bright-field TEM images of the NZ and HAZ in the upper weld corresponding to the yellow rectangles A and F in Fig. 3f. The incident direction of the electron beam was parallel to the $\langle 1 0 0 \rangle$ zone axis of the Al matrix. As can be seen that the NZ was characterized by needle-shaped precipitates (β''), which were main strengthening precipitates under the peak aging condition for 6000 series Al alloys [42,43]. While in the HAZ, it was characterized by coarsened precipitates with some needle-shaped ones retained.

In the last work, we have discussed the precipitates evolution after the double-side FSW in detail and previous studies have also clearly clarified the precipitation sequence for 6000 series Al alloys during aging [39,42–45]. In the NZ, the precipitates experienced intense plastic deformation and thermal cycles that led to complex microstructure evolution including dissolution, precipitation and redissolution [42], and finally appeared as β'' phase after the FSW and post-weld aging (Fig. 4a). The precipitates in HAZ only underwent the thermal cycles that led to partly coarsening with some fine needle-shaped ones retained after the FSW and post-weld aging (Fig. 4b).

3.2. Microhardness and tensile properties

The hardness value distribution of the whole weld, as discussed in the previous study [39], exhibited a "butterfly" type and presented a symmetrical distribution with the center line. The values in the top and bottom areas in the NZ were of the same level as the BM. The lowest hardness zone (LHZ) was located in the HAZ, which presented a "hyperbola" shaped distribution. The



Fig. 4. Bright-field TEM images of characteristic zones in the upper layer of joint: (a) NZ, (b) HAZ.

precipitation behavior during welding and subsequent post-weld aging contributed strongly to the hardness recovery in the top area of each single-pass NZ, which contained a high density of β'' phase (Fig. 4a). On the contrary, the low hardness values in the HAZ were induced by the coarsened precipitates (Fig. 4b).

The UTS values of the layered specimens were listed in Table 1. A prediction of the UTS for the whole joint could be made from the tensile results of the layered specimens [46]. The fracture path of the tensile specimen was along the LHZ, which has a good match with the microhardness distribution. Severe local deformation occurred in one side randomly in HAZ at advancing side (AS) or retreating side (RS) with obvious necking, which can be seen in Fig. 5a.

3.3. Fatigue properties and fracture behavior

The relationship between the fatigue life and the maximum stresses (*S*-*N* curves) for the BM and the layered specimens of the FSW joint are presented on log-log scale, as shown in Fig. 6. The *S*-*N* curves showed that the fatigue life of different layers exhibited nearly the same distribution tendency where the same fatigue limits ($\sigma_{0.1}$, 110 MPa) and fatigue ratios (ratio of $\sigma_{0.1}/\sigma_{b}$, 0.49) were obtained in all the three-layered specimens.

According to the well-established Basquin law [47–49], the stress controlled fatigue life is closely linked to the stress amplitudes that can be expressed as following:

$$\sigma_a = \sigma_f'(2N_f)^b \tag{1}$$

where, σ_f' is the fatigue strength coefficient, and *b* is called the fatigue strength exponent or Basquin exponent. The values of σ_f and *b* are closely associated with the intrinsic material microstructures and properties and they directly dominate the fatigue life at certain stress amplitudes [48,49]. Fitting results of σ_f' and *b* according to Fig. 6 were listed in Table 1. Although the σ_f' of the lower layer was a little higher than the other two layers, the *b* value was decreased slightly, leading to the same fatigue limits. For the three layers, the similar UTS and grain morphology led to the same fatigue limits, which meant that two-pass welding did not induce an intrinsic difference of the HCF properties for different layers.

Fig. 5b and c show the typical macrographs of the failure locations of the layered specimens after fatigue testing. A phenomenon can be observed that the upper layered specimens fractured in the NZ at typical low and high maximum stresses, which was different from the other two layers. The fracture behaviors of the other two-layered specimens had a good match with the static tensile results where the specimens fractured in the traditional weak zones, i.e., the HAZs.

It is well known that the FSW joint is a non-uniform structure including four different zones with different microstructure and properties, i.e., the BM, HAZ, TMAZ and NZ. For the common FSW joints of precipitation-strengthened thin and medium thick Al

Sample ID	UTS, MPa	σ _{0.1} , MPa	Fatigue ratio	σ_f ', MPa	b
BM	320	180	0.56	410	-0.052
Upper layer	230	110	0.49	676	-0.113
Middle layer	225	110	0.49	728	-0.117
Lower layer	223	110	0.49	756	-0.120

 Table 1

 Tensile strength and HCF property results of BM and layered specimens.



Fig. 5. Typical macrograph of failed locations of (a) static tensile specimens, (b) layered specimens at maximum stress of 140 MPa, (c) layered specimens at maximum stress of 200 MPa.



Fig. 6. S-N curves of: (a) upper layer, (b) middle layer, (c) lower layer and (d) BM.



Fig. 7. Fractographs of different sub-zones of the upper layered specimen failed at the maximum stress of 140 MPa: (a), (b) crack initiation zone; (c), (d) crack propagating zone; (e), (f) fast fracture zone.

alloy plates, the specimens always failed in the softened HAZ during the fatigue testing under the cyclic stress loading [49]. While for the FSW joints of thick Al alloy plates, an inhomogeneity existed through the thickness direction besides the various zones across the joint, which will result in a more complicated situation [50]. It has been discussed that the fatigue damage of metal material was dominated by various factors: grain size, precipitates, dislocation configuration, substructures and residual stress [18–21]. As a result, these influencing factors will also exhibit an inhomogeneous distribution through the thickness direction. The abnormal fracture will definitely be dominated by one or the interaction of several factors.

To investigate the abnormal fracture mechanism of the upper layer, the microstructure evolution near the fracture position was further analyzed. Fig. 7 shows the typical fractographs of the upper layer that fractured in the NZ under a low maximum stress of 140 MPa. Three characteristic zones, i.e. crack initiation zone (Fig. 7a and b), crack propagating zone ((Fig. 7c and d)) and fast fracture zone (Fig. 7e and f) were obviously observed. It can be seen that the crack initiated from the specimen surface, and the free surfaces of the specimens were usually documented to be the prior initiation positions for Al alloys [18,22]. After crack initiating, the crack began to propagate till failure, and the crack propagating zone presented a fan-shaped pattern and no obvious fatigue striations and second crack were observed. The fast fracture zone was characterized by dimples showing ductile fracture morphology in this zone.

The TEM images near the fracture positions of the upper and lower layered specimens at the maximum stress of 140 MPa were presented in Fig. 8. The corresponding sampling positions were marked in Fig. 5b with blue circles. The cyclic loading during the fatigue deformation exerted on the specimens would induce the dislocation emission and motion, and the interaction of dislocations or the interaction of dislocations and precipitates would further facilitate the crack initiating [48–50]. Based on the microstructures near the fracture positions in both the upper and lower layered specimens, no obvious dislocation configurations were observed. The



Fig. 8. Bright field TEM images near the fracture positions of the layered specimens at the maximum stress of 140 MPa: (a) upper layer fractured in NZ, (b) lower layer fractured in HAZ.

upper layered specimen fractured in the NZ, which was characterized by fine-needle shaped precipitates (Fig. 8a). The lower layered specimen fractured in HAZ that was characterized by many coarsened precipitates (Fig. 8b). Despite the coarsening of the precipitates in HAZ that would induce weakening, the fracture still occurred in the NZ for the upper layered specimen. Therefore, the precipitation evolution was not the dominant factor for the abnormal fracture of the upper layered specimens.

Fig. 9 shows the hardness curves on the cross-section of the upper layered specimen before and after the fatigue testing. The initial hardness profile exhibited a typical "W" shape which is similar to that of the one-side FSW joint of thin Al alloy plate [23,45,46]. It was obviously observed that the hardness values in the NZ and LHZ were kept almost the same as that of the untested specimen, which proved that no hardening effect occurred in the HAZ during fatigue tests. The phenomenon further confirmed that micro-structural evolution did not affect the abnormal fracture phenomenon.

To further confirm the dominant factor of the abnormal fracture phenomenon, the residual stress was examined on the surfaces of both the upper and lower layered specimens. The testing sites were selected in the centers of the NZ and HAZ on the top and bottom surfaces of the specimens. The testing results of biaxial residual stresses were listed in Table 2 (X axis:perpendicular to the welding direction; Y axis:along welding direction). The stress values were acquired according to the following equation [48,49]:

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_x &= \frac{E}{1 - \nu^2} (\varepsilon_x + \nu \cdot \varepsilon_y) \\ \sigma_y &= \frac{E}{1 - \nu^2} (\varepsilon_y + \nu \cdot \varepsilon_x) \end{aligned}$$
(2)

There have been systematic studies associating with the residual stress distribution of the one-side FSW joints of thin and medium thick Al alloy plates [7,21,24,51]. The distribution trend of the residual stress in one-side FSW Al alloy joints was well documented to have an typical "M" shape with tensile residual stress in the NZ and HAZ and the peak values appeared in the HAZ [21,52–54]. Limited reports demonstrated the distribution of the residual stress in the FSW joints of thick Al alloy plates, and its effect on fatigue behavior is not clear. Canaday et al. [35] studied the residual stress distribution through the thickness of the FSW joint of 32 mm thick 7050Al alloy plates, which presented an "M" shaped distribution, as reported in thin Al alloy plates, with the tensile residual stress decreasing from the top to the bottom of the NZ. Moreover, the residual stresses of a dissimilar FSW joint of 7050Al and 2024Al



Fig. 9. Hardness curves of the upper layered specimen: (a) untested specimen, (b) specimen after fatigue testing at a maximum stress of 140 MPa.

Table 2

Residual stress values of the upper and lower layered specimens (negative values indicate compressive residual stress, positive values represent tensile residual stress).

Position		Residual stress value, MPa		
		X axis direction	Y axis direction	
Upper layer	Top-surface NZ	9	-13	
	Bottom surface NZ	1	0	
	Top-surface HAZ	-30	-27	
	Bottom-surface HAZ	-4	2	
Lower layer	Top-surface NZ	-31	-13	
	Bottom surface NZ	-29	-2	
	Top-surface HAZ	-27	-12	
	Bottom-surface HAZ	-26	-34	

plates 25.4 mm in thickness was measured by Prime et al. [33] using neutron diffraction and synchrotron X-ray diffraction, and the results also showed an "M" shape through the thickness with tensile residual stress in NZ and HAZ. From these two studies, it is indicated that the existence of residual might affect the fatigue behavior of the FSW joints, but no experimental evidences were provided.

In the present work, the situations were not the same for both the lower and upper layered specimens. It can be seen that the NZ and HAZ of the lower layered specimen showed compressive residual stresses along the X axis direction. However, for the upper layered specimen, the tensile residual stress appeared in the center of the NZ and it was compressive residual stress in the HAZ along the X axis direction.

The maximum residual stress as high as 20–70% of the yield strength can generate along the welding direction of the FSW Al alloy joints [7,21,22,33]. However, in the present work, the residual stress (-13 MPa) in the center of NZ on the top surface was \sim 5% of the yield strength for the upper layered specimen and it was \sim 17% for the lower layer along the welding direction (Y axis direction), which were much lower than that of the reported level. Ma et al. [52] investigated the effect of the specimen size on the residual stress distribution, showing that the peak value of the residual stress decreased obviously with the decreasing of specimen size. Therefore, the specimen size plays a significant role in affecting the residual stress values because the cutting and machining processes would induce the relaxation of the residual stress [55].

Obviously, the different states of the residual stresses between the upper and lower layered specimens dominated the abnormal fracture phenomenon. The existed tensile residual stress in the NZ together with the external applied cyclic tensile loading would facilitate the initiation of the micro-crack [56] and the crack propagated subsequently till fractured in the NZ for the upper layered specimen. On the contrary, the compressive residual will hinder the crack formation to certain extent [14,21,24–26], so the crack still initiated from the HAZ for the lower layered specimen. As a result, the difference of the residual stress distribution led to the abnormal fracture in the NZ of the upper layered specimen.

4. Conclusion

In the present work, ultra-thick 6082Al alloy plates were successfully welded using double-side FSW method, and the HCF property and fracture behavior of the FSW joints were investigated in detail. The conclusions are as follows:

- 1. Though microstructural inhomogeneity existed through the thickness direction, almost same UTS were achieved for the layered specimens and the tensile failure positions had a good agreement with the hardness distribution.
- 2. The distribution of the fatigue life for the three layers presented nearly the same tendency with a same fatigue limit of 110 MPa and same fatigue ratio of 0.49.
- 3. The middle and lower layered specimens failed in the HAZ during fatigue tests, which were corresponding to the static tensile failure locations. However, the upper layered specimen exhibited an abnormal fracture in the NZ.
- 4. The abnormal fracture was proved to be induced by the duplicate effect of the tensile residual stress in the NZ and the applied cyclic tensile loading for the upper layered specimen.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.engfracmech.2020.106887.

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