

FEM based numerical simulation for heat treatment of the agricultural tools

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Abstract. Quenching as a heat treatment method is commonly used to control the mechanical properties of steels. This article deals with the modelling and simulation of quenching of steel chisel using a multi-phase model. The process of the heat treatment is non stationary phase due to temperature variation with time. In this study, the problem of heat transfer in three dimensional phase was transformed into a two dimensional axisymmetric case. ElmerFem solver was used for the heat transfer through different cooling media such as water, oil and salt bath. The results from heat solver were used for austenite transformation modelling by applying Johnson–Mehl–Avrami–Kolmogorov equation in TTT diagram. The Scheill's decomposition was used for anisothermal transformation of austenite. The hardness prediction was done according to simple mixture rule where total hardness of the steel was calculated based on volume of the phases and their Vickers hardness.

Key words: numerical simulation, FEM, heat treatment, ElmerFEM.

INTRODUCTION

Quenching is used as a heat treatment method for controlling the mechanical properties of steel such as tensile strength, toughness and hardness. The quenching process promotes the formation of different microstructures namely ferrite, pearlite, bainite and martensite that depend on the cooling rate as well as the chemical composition of the steel. The quenching application of the material is subjected to heat treatment above the austenitization temperature (approximately 900 °C) which involves continuous and rapid cooling in a quenching media such as water, air and oil. During quench hardening process, heat flux is rapidly transferred to the coolant which varies in time hence the HTC (heat transfer coefficient) cannot be calculated or measured by standard techniques. In such cases, the effective procedure is the formulation of the boundary inverse heat conduction (Telejko, 2004; Buczek & Telejko, 2013).

Constitutive modelling of the quenching process can be performed within the scope of standard generalized materials under the assumption that the thermodynamic state of the material can be completely defined by a finite number of state variables (Archambault & Azim, 1995; Fall et al., 2011; Hasan et al., 2010). Phase transformation

from austenite to martensite is non diffusive process meaning that the amount of volume fraction is only a function of temperature which can be described by the Koistinen–Marburger law (Eq. 1). On the other hand, microstructures such as ferrite, pearlite and bainite formations are diffusion controlled transformation which are time dependent. The diffusive transformation kinetics are described by Johnson–Mehl–Avrami–Kogolomorov (JMAK) equation (Eq. 2). The evolution of these phases transformation can be predicted through an approximate solution using data from Time–Temperature–Transformation diagrams (TTT).

$$V_M = 1 - e^{-\alpha \times (M_s - T)} \quad (1)$$

$$V_{P,B} = 1 - e^{-k \times t^n} \quad (2)$$

where: α and M_s are both constants determined by material type, k is the overall rate constant that generally depends on temperature, n is the Avrami's exponent (Kolmogorov, 1937; Avrami, 1939a; Avrami, 1939b; Johnson & Mehl, 1939; Avrami, 1940a; Avrami, 1940b; Marder & Goldstein, 1984; Kirkaldy, 2007; Sinha et al., 2007).

This article describes the modelling and simulation of quenching of steel chisel using a multiphase constitutive model proposed by (Çetinel et al., 2000; Ferguson et al., 2005; Carlone et al., 2010).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The process of heat transfer during quenching of a steel chisel (Fig. 1) is nonstationary due to the variation of temperature with time. In this work the problem of heat transfer in a three dimensional phase was examined.



Figure 1. Real chisel computerization.

The nonstationary problem of heat transfer within a component in the quenching process is described mathematically by simple differentiation with respect to the volume. Based on that the heat transfer equation (Eq. 3) was derived as follows:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(k \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(k \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(k \frac{\partial T}{\partial z} \right) + Q = \rho \times c \times \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} \quad (3)$$

where: k – thermal conductivity; Q – is the inner heat-generation rate per unit volume; T – temperature; q – heat transfer coefficient; ρ – density; c – heat capacity; t – time.

The Neumann boundary conditions were used for the simulation of the heat cycles in quenching media like air, water and oil while the heat flux was determined experimentally in cylinder shape samples by inverse methods (Telejko, 2004).

The equilibrium transformation temperatures during cooling were also determined experimentally by thermal analysis. The ferrite transformation started below the A_{c3} temperature while the pearlite transformation occurred at the A_{c1} temperature when a volume fraction of pro-eutectoid ferrite reached an equilibrium volume fraction. The bainite and martensite transformations occurred below bainite and martensite temperatures respectively. Table 1 gives the transformation temperatures of different steel samples.

Table 1. Transformation temperatures of different steel samples

Temperature phase change	$A_{c3}=T_F$ (°C)	$A_{c1}=T_P$ (°C)	T_B (°C)	T_M (°C)
High boron steel – B1	810	741	606	382
High boron steel – B2	830	743	593	411
Boron27	840	675	525	335

Table 2. Chemical composition of different steel samples

Chemical composition	C	Si	Ni	Cr	Mn	Mo	Cu
High boron steel – B1	0.6	0.3	0.05	0.4	0	0.01	0
High boron steel – B2	0.3	0.3	1	1.5	0	0.05	0
Boron27	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.3	1.3	0	0

The ElmerFEM solver (CSC – IT Center for Science (CSC), 2013) was used for calculation of thermal field of the steel samples. The simulation results were obtained as matrix of nodes and temperatures. Two kinds of mathematical models were used for deducing microstructure field from temperature field based on TTT (Time, Temperature, Transformation) curve which is used for kinetic transformation of austenite at constant temperature. In addition, CCT (Continuous Cooling Transformation) curve was used for kinetic transformation of austenite in water and oil quenching media (Smoljan, 2006; Malinowski et al., 2012).

The diffusional transformation reaction was based on equation (Eq. 2). The constants for these equations were determined from a nonlinear optimization of the experimental data. Table 2 shows the values used for the three transformation products resulting from a diffusion-controlled reaction of ferrite, pearlite and bainite. The temperature dependencies of constants were fitted by Gaussian function and these dependencies were used as input algorithm (Marder & Goldstein, 1984; Çetinel et al., 2000; Ferguson et al., 2005). The C-curves of a calculated IT diagram for boron steel using equation (Eq. 2) for each product structure and the data points indicate the determined experimental values for the starting and final transformations during isothermal heat treatments.

The actual temperature variation is continuous cooling rather than isothermal variation. But austenite transformation under M_s temperature can develop a partial

transformation of bainite. By applying Scheil superposition principle (Scheil, 1935), the actual continuous cooling transformation can be calculated by isothermal transformation model. Here the time period was discretized based on the assumption that within each time step is Δt at constant temperature involving isothermal transformation. For the corresponding constant T_i , were parameters b_i , n_i and τ_i (transformation starting time, i.e. incubation period). By dividing the time step Δt by incubation period τ_i , increment of inoculation rate ΔE_i was the volume transformation during the former time step V_i . By substituting it into equation (Eq. 4) then the time period was obtained for the volume transformation reaching V_i under T_{i+1} isothermal transformation condition that is virtual time t_{i+1} as described below.

$$t_{i+1} = \left[\frac{-\ln(1 - V_i)}{k_{i+1}} \right]^{\frac{1}{n_{i+1}}} \quad (4)$$

The microstructures were calculated from arrays $\{T(t)\}$ and $\{V(t)\}$ during the simulation period. Equations (Eq. 5 to Eq. 9) described below were included in the computer algorithm.

$$V_{f_{max}} = \left(\frac{0.8 - C}{0.8} \right)^{-1} + \left(\frac{0.8 - C}{0.8} \right)^{-1} \quad (5)$$

$$Vf = \sum_{i=1}^n -Kf \times Nf \times t^{Nf-1} \times e^{-Kf \times t^{Nf}} \times (1 - V_{f_{max}}) \quad (6)$$

$$Vp = \sum_{i=1}^n -Kp \times Np \times t^{Np-1} \times e^{-Kp \times t^{Np}} \times (1 - Vf) \quad (7)$$

$$Vb = \sum_{i=1}^n -Kb \times Nb \times t^{Nb-1} \times e^{-Kb \times t^{Nb}} \times (1 - Vf - Vp) \quad (8)$$

$$Vm = 1 - e^{-\beta \times (T_{m_{start}} - T)} \times (1 - Vf - Vp - Vb) \quad (9)$$

where: Vf is the volume of ferite phase, Vp is the volume of pearlite phase, Vb is the volume of bainite phase, Vm is the volume of martensite phase, Kf (Kp and Kb) are the overall rate constant of ferritic, pearlitic and bainitic transformation that generally depends on temperature, Nf (Np and Nb) are the Avrami's exponent for ferritic, pearlitic and bainitic transformation that depends on temperature, t is the time, T is the temperature, $T_{m_{start}}$ is the temperature martensite start transformation and β is the coefficient of martensite transformation volume that depends on temperature.

The structure composition of steel cooling depends on the actual hardness defined as:

$$HV = V_P \times HV_P + V_B \times HV_B + V_M \times HV_M \quad (10)$$

Amount of phases proportion is an equal unity defined by (Li et al., 2001; Liu et al., 2003; Pietrzyk & Kuziak, 2011; Xie et al., 2013) as:

$$HV_M = 127 + 949 \times C + 27 \times Si + 8 \times Ni + 16 \times Cr + 21 \times \ln V_r \quad (11)$$

$$\begin{aligned} HV_B = & -323 + 185 \times C + 330 \times Si + 153 \times Mn + 65 \times Ni + 144 \\ & \times Cr + 191 \times Mo \\ & + (89 + 53 \times C - 55 \times Si - 22 \times Mn - 10 \times Ni - 20 \\ & \times Cr - 33 \times Mo) \times \ln V_r \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

$$\begin{aligned} HV_{F,P} = & 42 + 233 \times C + 53 \times Si + 30 \times Mn + 12.6 \times Ni + 7 \times Cr \\ & + 19 \times Mo \\ & + (10 - 19 \times Si + 4 \times Ni + 8 \times Cr + 130 \times V) \times \ln V_r \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

where: C , Si , Mn and others represent different kinds of chemical elements respectively (wt.%); V_r represents cooling speed at 700 °C (°C h⁻¹).

From Eq. 10, it is not difficult to predict fraction of phases if the hardness of cooling microstructure and the hardness of microstructure constituents' are separately known (Eq. 11 to 13). Results of austenite decomposition depend on the chemical composition and steel history. The characteristic cooling time relevant for structure transformation for most steel is the time t_{8-5} . The characteristic cooling time was determined through series of algorithm where an average value of heat gradient between 500 °C and 800 °C was found as illustrated in (Fig. 2).

The calculation of hardness was done by retrieving the temperature of nodes file. The analysis was performed for N nodes corresponding to the mesh of model. The temperature parameters of the nodes of the model were introduced (inlet) into the calculation of the volumetric representation of ferrite, pearlite, bainite and martensite.

In each step the temperature difference between the node in time was compared with the possible formation (or can be written as nuclei) parameters relevant phase (temperature and time dependence of TT diagram, for the structure formation) Fig. 2. The volume phase of the lower temperature node of ferrite formation (Ac3) was described by Eq. 6 while if that of pearlite formation (Ac1) with higher temperature node but higher than bainite formation was given by Eq. 7. On the other hand, the volume phase of bainite formation with temperature node higher than martensite was defined by Eq. 8 and that of volume phase of martensite formation with lower temperature node was given by Eq. 9. Equation (Eq. 10) was used to calculate the total hardness of individual phases. Data were saved to a new file that has the same format as the source file which can be opened in the program Paraview. This cycle was repeated for each temperature nodes file to the last file with nodes.

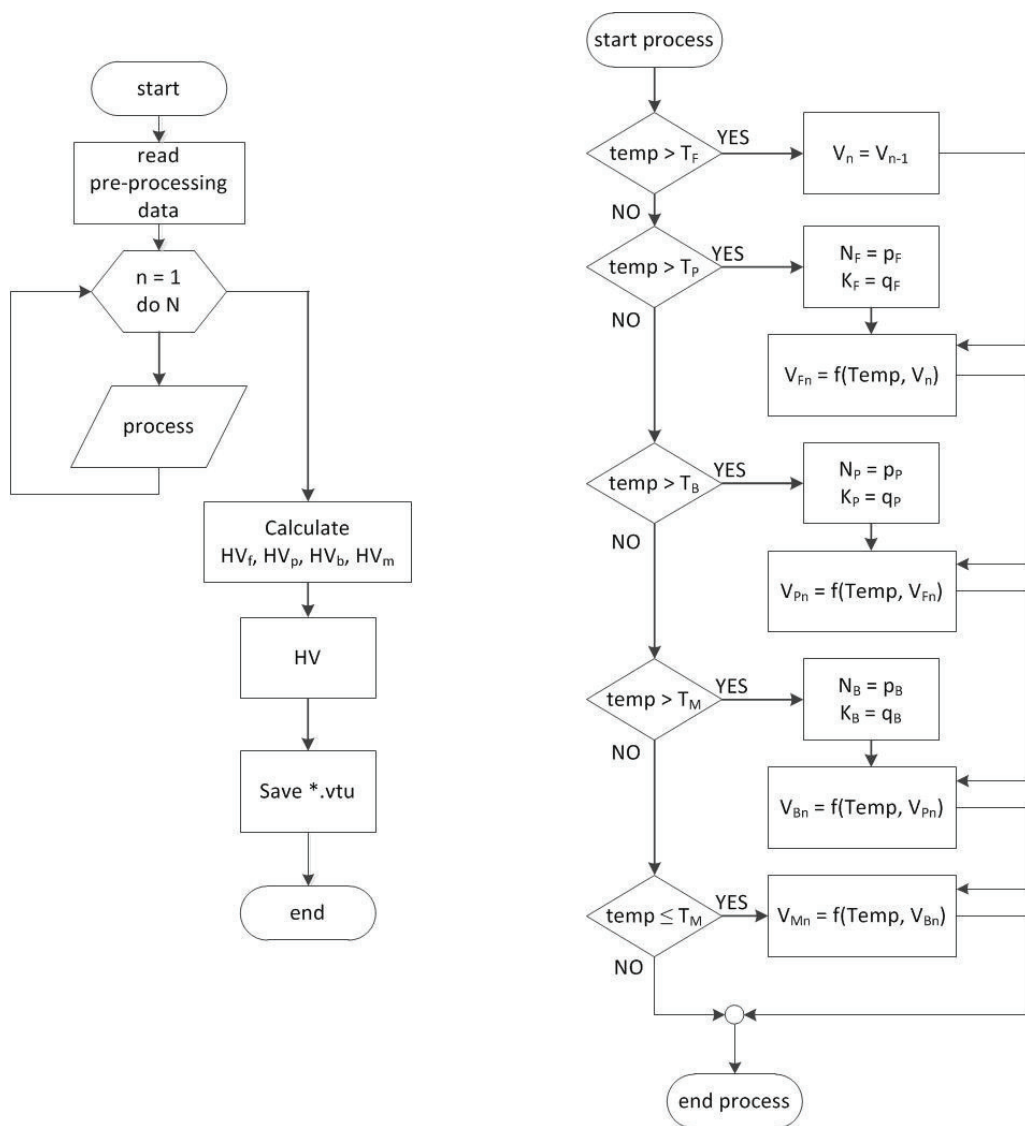


Figure 2. Schematic of computer algorithm.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A mathematical model for the prediction of temperature of nonstationary heat transfer in relation to time of a quenched steel chisel was used. The initial properties of the steel and the boundary conditions were used in the model to verify the results using ElmerFem software. The temperature distribution and curves are illustrated in Figs 3 and 4 respectively.

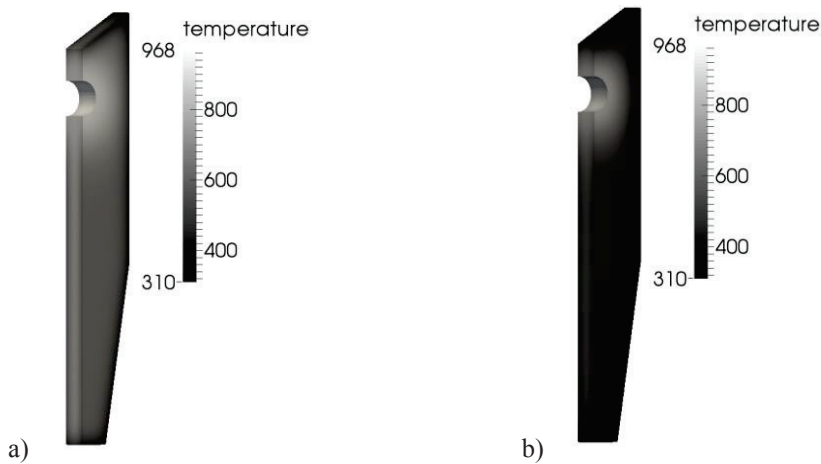


Figure 3. Temperature distribution of a quenched chisel at 5 (a) and 15 (b) sec cooling in water.

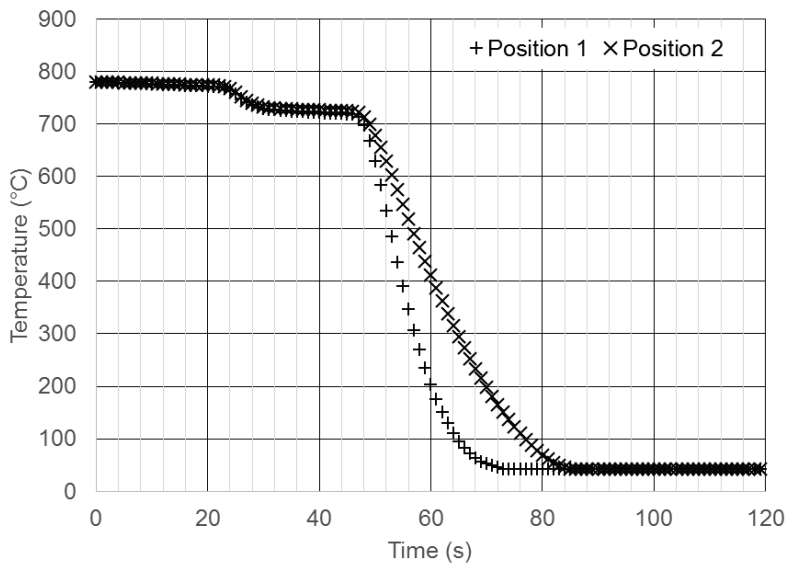


Figure 4. Cooling curve of modeled chisel in two positions (near to hole – position 1 and far from hole – position 2).

Distribution of microstructure fields of the quenched chisel is presented in Fig. 5 while the hardness fields of the quenched chisel is shown in Fig. 6. The results showed a good distribution of softer microstructure around a hole in chisel, where their sharp notches were often placed by cracked initiation (Liu et al., 2003; Liu et al., 2004; Guo et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2012). The problem with low fracture toughness of the martensite structure was solved using lower heat flux around hole as well as technological solution using ceramics holders in hole and around hole.

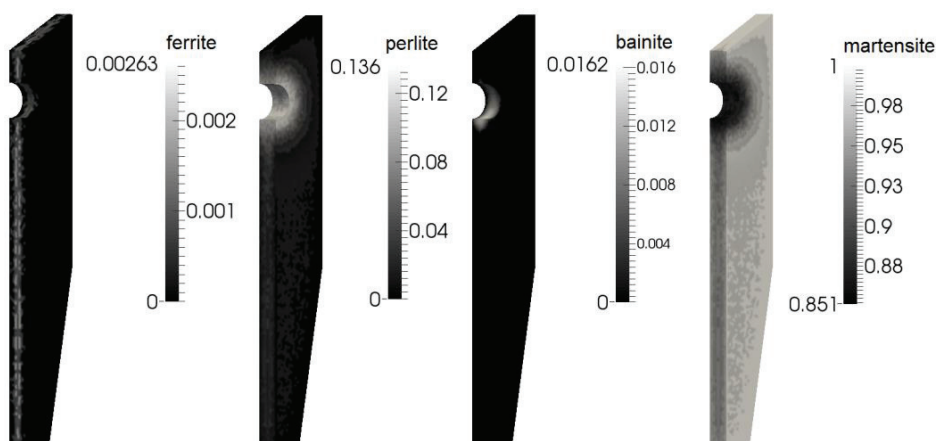


Figure 5. Distribution of microstructure fields of the quenched chisel – high boron steel B1.

Using models of steel B2 and Boron 27 produced two microstructure mixtures namely martensitic and ferritic. These mixtures are non homogenous because ferrite is usually acicular on the boundary of austenite (Liu et al., 2004). They are also more brittle than other mixtures of microstructure in the steel and they have a high degree of damage of the intercrystalline fracture (Jam et al., 2014). Therefore the martensitic structure get better wear resistant properties than softer microstructures (Chotěborský, 2013; Chotěborský & Hrabě, 2013). Samples of chisel were not analyzed on microstructure. In this article are discussed only circle sample (3 pieces of each steel) tested steels after heat treatment cycle of similar properties like modeled microstructure.

But microstructure volume of tested steel was different after heat treatment in comparison with modeled samples. Errors were observed from the modeling of the specific heat coefficient, heat flux, computed transformation diagrams. Equations (Eqs 10 to 13) increased the difference between modeling and experimental results. Also real chemical composition, grain size, number of crystal lattice and thermal history directly influenced the results of experimental steel as well as the difference between modeling and experimental results. These analyses showed errors around 15% volume of microstructure phases similar to published results (Liu et al., 2003; Huiping et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2013).

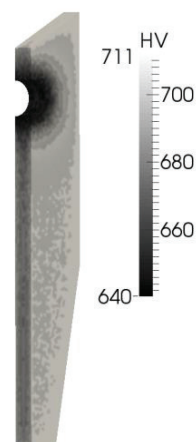


Figure 6. Hardness field of high boron steel B1 after quenching in water.

CONCLUSIONS

A simply method for axisymmetric modeling of heat FEM in agriculture tools is possible.

JMAK equation can be used for prediction of microstructure.

A relatively good relationship between modeled and measured microstructures was observed compared to modeled and measured volume of microstructural phases.

Experimental and modeled results showed errors around 15% of predicted hardness. Hardness is one of the interested mechanical properties but the presented errors were very high. These models setup can be useful for different technological procedures with heat cycle during processing and for prediction of microstructure.

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