



# Course of SN-curves especially in the high-cycle fatigue regime with regard to component design and safety

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## Abstract

Conventional design codes base their recommendations still on the common prejudice that an “endurance limit” exists. However, several investigations prove clearly that in the high-cycle regime a decrease of fatigue strength with increased number of cycles still occurs, even if corrosion or temperature effects are excluded. Therefore, the fatigue design of components submitted to loadings below the knee point of the SN-curve must consider this fact in order to avoid failures. With regard to the course of the SN-curve in the very high-cycle area, material and manufacturing dependent recommendations are given.

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## 1. Introduction

Fatigue strength is subdivided in different regions, Fig. 1, while especially the high-cycle behaviour of materials and components is still discussed very controversially with regard to the course of the SN-curve in this regime. Especially, the expression “endurance limit” or “fatigue limit”, in German “Dauerfestigkeit”, in French “limite d’endurance”, etc., still misleads many design engineers into assuming that a structural element will not fail as long as the so-called fatigue limit is not exceeded, Fig. 2. This assumption is semantically implied by the English term “limit” as well as by the German term “Dauer” (duration) and is a part of several design regulations [1–5] and more.

The existence of a steadily decreasing fatigue strength beyond the knee point of the SN-curve in the range of high cycles observed for materials like aluminium or austenitic steels with face centred cubic structures has always been

the state-of-the-art, but for materials with body centred cubic structures such as ferritic steels the existence of a “fatigue limit” has always been claimed. Various design regulations and standards point out [2–6] that a “fatigue limit” does not exist in the case of

- jointed components, such as press-fits of railway-wheel-sets [7] or bolted joints because of fretting corrosion, Fig. 3,
- high temperatures, and/or
- corrosive environments [8] if a passivation of the surface does not occur, Fig. 4.

It is also common knowledge that welded joints under axial loading or bending, due to residual tensile stresses, and under torsion exhibit decreasing fatigue strength at load levels leading to more than  $10^7$  load cycles. Some regulations [4,5] take this into account up to  $5 \times 10^6$  cycles but show constant fatigue strength at larger number of cycles, thus allowing the use of a non-existent fatigue limit.

For structural and heat treatable steels with ferritic, bainitic or martensitic microstructure, a “fatigue limit” is

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## Nomenclature

$D$	damage sum	$T$	scatter
$N$	cycle	<i>Indexes</i>	
$f$	frequency	a	amplitude
$P$	probability	n	nominal
$j$	safety factor	cr	crack
$\zeta$	density	o	occurrence
$k, k^*, k'$	slopes of the SN-curve	E	endurance
$R$	load or stress ratio	r	rupture
$L_s$	sequence length	f	failure
$R_z$	roughness	s	survival
$K_t$	stress concentration factor	k	knee
$\sigma$	stress	S	service
$K_{th}$	threshold stress intensity		
$s$	thickness		

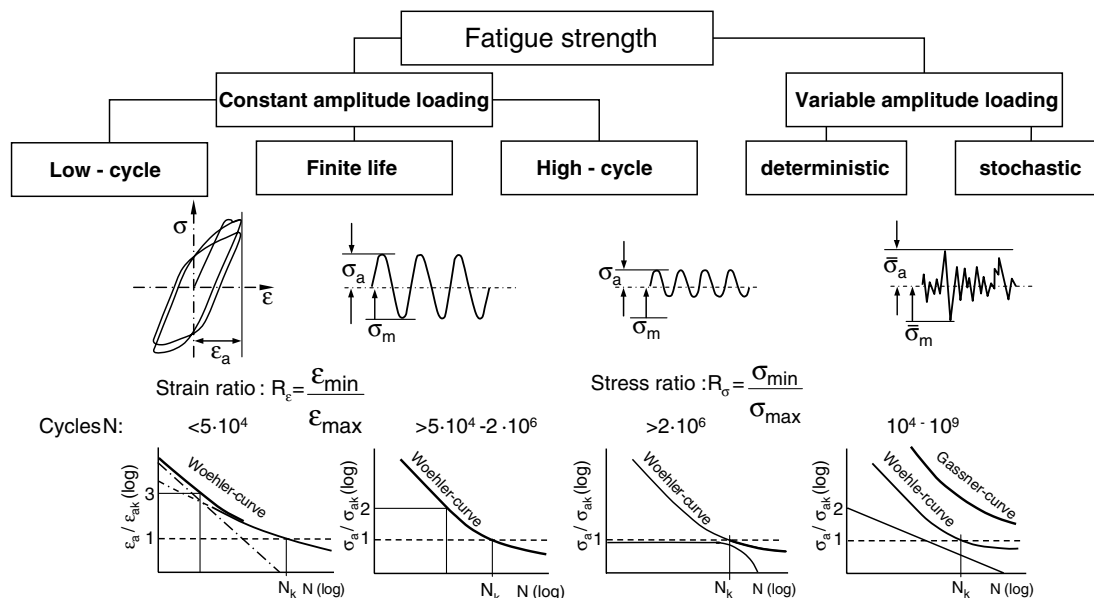


Fig. 1. Partition of fatigue strength.

still believed to be exhibited except when environmental effects exist. Thus, for structural parts like connecting rods, crankshafts, and helical springs being subjected to far more than  $10^6$  service peak load cycles, experiencing during their total service life up to  $10^{10}$  cycles and designed such that corresponding maximum peak stresses stay below the so-called “endurance limit”, only the application of suitable safety factors prevents fracture, Fig. 2. Structural durability designing to withstand variable amplitude loadings also allows loading in the range of finite life fatigue strength, i.e. exceeding of the so-called “endurance limit”, to obtain a lightweight structure, Fig. 5. In this case, the drop of fatigue strength in the high-cycle range is considered using Woehler-curves for the damage calculation with fictitious

slopes beyond the knee point<sup>1</sup> of  $k' = 2k - 1$  or  $2k - 2$  (according to Haibach [9]) depending on material condition (wrought, cast or welded). Therefore, here it is not necessary to know the real shape of the Woehler curve in the high-cycle regime.

In this context, it should be mentioned that about 65 years ago for constant amplitude design the use of the fatigue strength amplitude to be determined at  $N = 10^8$  cycles was recommended already for different steels and aluminium alloys of that time [10]. Obviously, the inten-

<sup>1</sup> Physically a knee point does not exist, as the Woehler-curves change their slope fluently in the transition range (from finite to high-cycle fatigue strength). The knee point is solely a parameter for strength estimations.

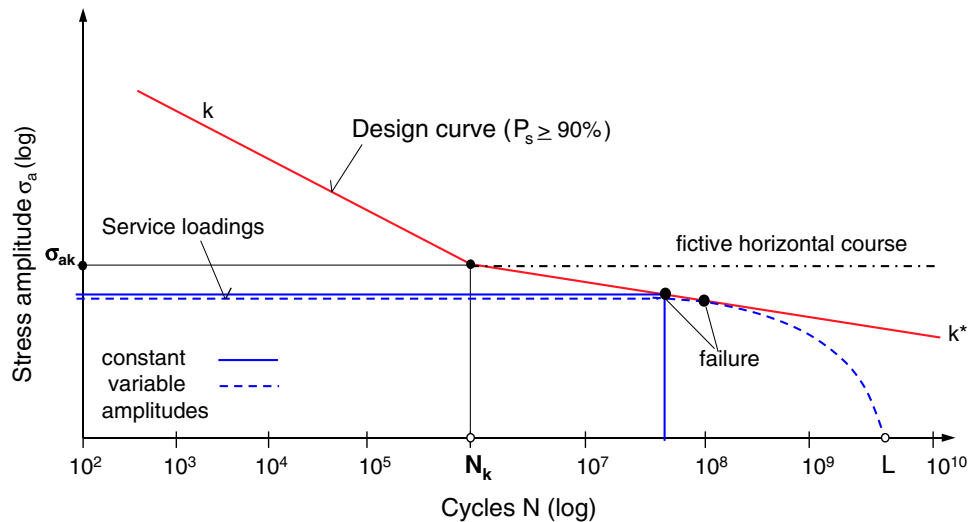


Fig. 2. Design against the so-called “endurance limit”.

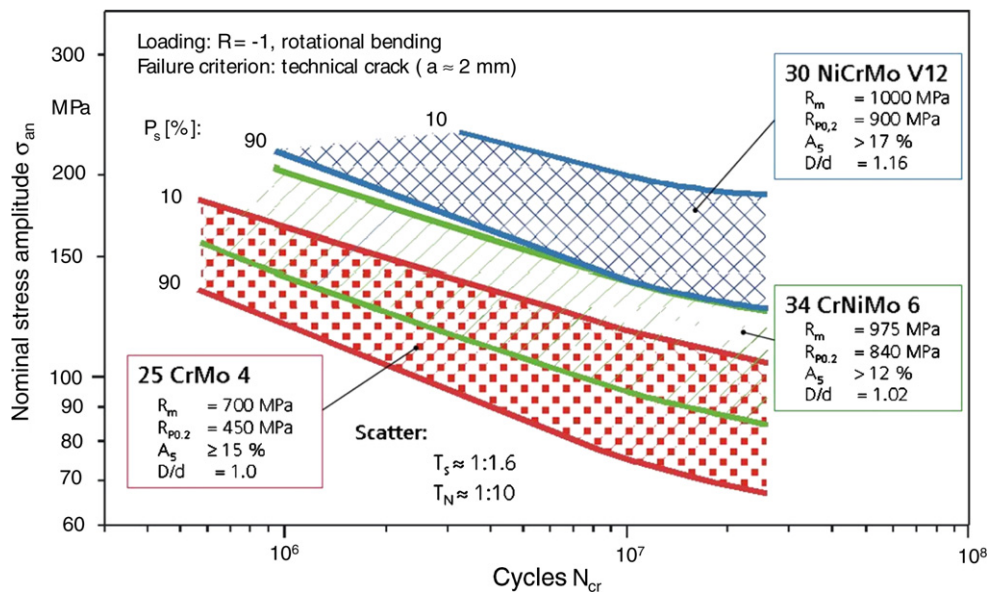


Fig. 3. Fatigue strength of the railway-wheelsets at press-fits (constant amplitude loading).

tion was to consider by this the decrease of fatigue strength at least up to  $10^8$  cycles with the testing possibilities of that time.

In the following, an exemplary presentation of selected, not commonly known results up to  $N = 10^{11}$  cycles will be made, disproving the existence of a fatigue limit, and suggestions will be made to consider fatigue behaviour under real or idealized constant amplitude loading in the range of large number of cycles if an experimental proof is not feasible. The decrease of fatigue strength in this range is caused by failure mechanisms related to microstructural phenomena occurring more or less at macroscopic elastic deformations [11,14,17,21–23].

Consequently, a “fatigue limit” is realistic only if no damage-causing microstructural defects and no aggressive surface conditions exist.

## 2. Examples of decreasing fatigue strength in the range of high cycles

Whereas conventional servo-hydraulic fatigue testing machines, resonant actuators and shakers run at maximum frequencies up to 400 Hz, ultrasonic test machines allow frequencies to be larger by a factor of 100, i.e. up to 40 kHz; thereby it is feasible to conduct tests in the range of giga cycles ( $10^9$ ) up to  $10^{12}$  within a suitable testing time [11–20] and others. However, this principle of testing has some restrictions, as for example:

- Testing is only feasible with small specimens ( $d < 10$  mm).
- Despite cooling, self-heating in the specimen core must be considered.

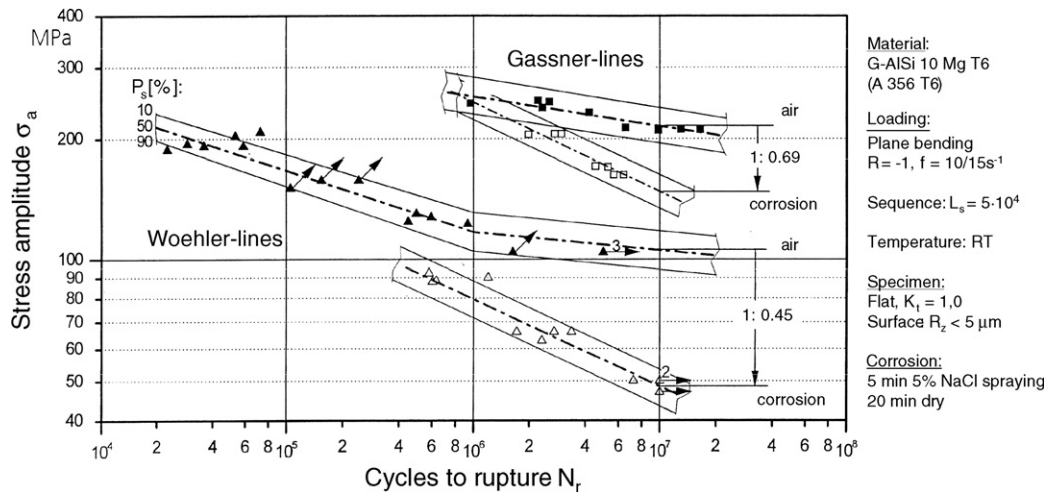


Fig. 4. Influence of the salt-spray corrosion on the fatigue strength of cast aluminium under constant and variable amplitude loading.

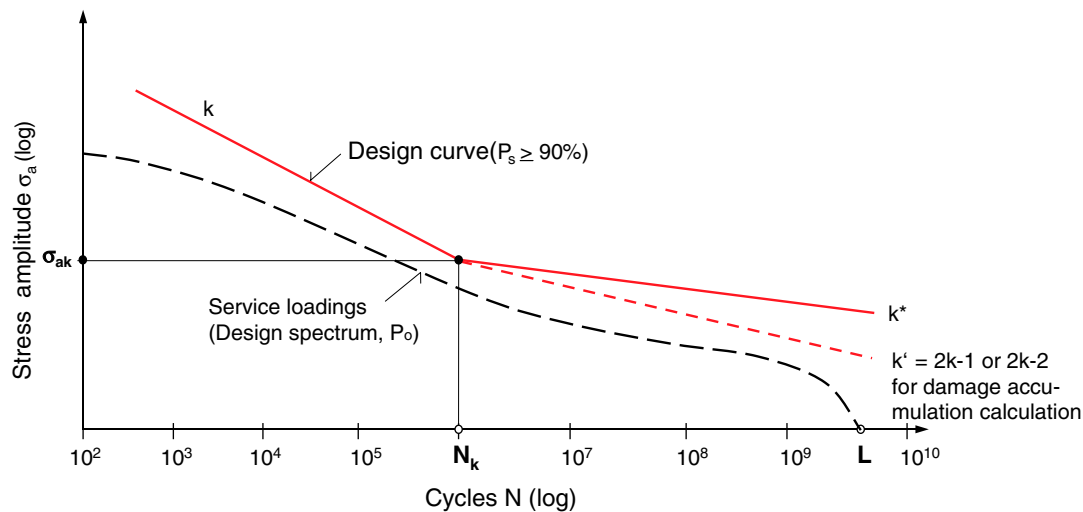


Fig. 5. Design against variable amplitudes (spectrum loading).

- Load monitoring is inaccurate at  $N < 10^6$  because of the very short control time.
- A fluent transition of results from low frequency testing with those from ultrasonic frequency testing is not always possible [16,17].

Despite these difficulties the application of this technique indicates and evaluates correct tendencies regarding the decrease of fatigue strength and the apparent failure mechanisms [14,21]. Furthermore, results more recently derived from 400 and 20 Hz testing in the high-cycle regime will be considered. However, only the outcomes of the 400 Hz tests resulting in lives  $N > 10^6$  should be evaluated because of the difficulties of correct load adjustment below  $10^6$  cycles.

In the following, this paper shows Woehler-curves from 10 materials, Tables 1 and 2, often applied by the automotive and aircraft industry. The materials are as follows the following:

- the precipitation hardening steel 38MnVS6 BY for the fabrication of connecting rods and crankshafts,
- cast nodular iron GGG 50 for the fabrication of hubs and steering parts,
- steel 100Cr6 for ball bearings,
- cast aluminium alloy G-AlSi5Cu3Mg0.4 T5 for crankshaft housings and motor bearings,
- sintered steel Fe-4.0Ni-1.5Cu-0.5Mo + 0.5C for gear parts such as synchronizing hubs and levers,
- wrought aluminium alloys AlCuMg2 T351 and AlZnMgCu1.5 T66 of aircraft structures,
- wrought aluminium alloy AlMgSi1 T6 for load carrying car components,
- cast magnesium alloy MgAl9Zn1 for housings, and
- the shot-peened high-strength spring steel SiCr for helical springs.

Compared to their presentation in the primary literature [12-23], here the important design characteristics slope of

Table 1  
Materials and chemical composition

Materials	DIN Code	C	Si	Mn	P	S	Mo	Cr	Ni	Cu	G	Ai	V	Mg	Fe	Zn	Ti	Pb	Sn
1	38 MnVS6 BY	0.38	0.567	1.23	0.012	0.064	0.018	–	0.063	0.063	0.183	0.025	0.089	–	Rest	–	–	–	–
2	GGG50	3.65	2.49	0.50	–	–	–	–	–	0.70	–	–	–	0.04	Rest	–	–	–	–
3	100Cr6	1.03	0.24	0.34	–	0.008	0.03	1.46	0.15	–	–	–	–	–	Rest	–	–	–	–
4	G-AlSi5Cu3Mg0.4 T5	–	5.30	0.32	–	–	–	–	0.03	3.15	–	Rest	–	0.36	0.55	0.17	0.11	0.02	115 ppm
5	Fe-4.ONi-1.5Cu.0.5Mo+0.5C	0.5	–	–	–	–	0.50	–	4.00	1.50	–	–	–	–	Rest	–	–	–	–
6	AlCuMg2 T351	–	1.00	0.70	–	–	–	<0.05	–	4.50	Al	–	–	1.50	0.20	<0.05	<0.03	–	–
7	AlZnMgCu1.5 T66	–	0.14	0.07	–	–	–	0.02	–	1.73	–	–	–	2.72	0.27	7.26	0.06	–	–
8	AlMgSi T6	–	1.00	0.70	–	–	–	<0.25	–	<0.10	–	–	–	0.90	<0.50	<0.20	<0.10	–	–
9	MgAl9Zn1	–	0.002	0.114	–	–	–	–	0.005	0.002	–	8.69	–	–	0.022	0.906	–	–	–
10	VDSiCr	0.55	1.40	0.70	<0.025	<0.02	–	0.65	–	<0.006	–	–	0.20	–	Rest	–	–	–	–

Table 2  
Materials and mechanical data

Material	DIN Code	International standard	$R_{po.2}$ in MPa	$R_m$ in MPa	$A_5$ in %	$E$ in GPa	Hardness
1	38MnVS6	NF EN 10267	608	878	20	210	246 HV30
2	GGG50	NF EN 1563	460	795	9	170	265 HV30
3	100Cr6	AISI-SAE 52100 NF EN ISO 687-17	–	2300	–	210	780 HV30 63 HRc
4	G-AlSi5Cu3Mg0.4 T5	NF EN 1780-2	182	222	1	72	99 HV30
5	Fe-4.0Ni-1.5Cu-0.5Mo +0.5C (35 min/1120 °C) $\zeta = 7.28 \text{ g/cm}^3$	–	–	1005	–	155	336 HV30
6	AlCuMg2 T351	AA 2024	352	460	18	72	128 HV30
7	AlZnMgCu1.5 T66	AA 7075	606	641	4	71	185 HV30
8	AlMgSi1 T6	AA 6082 T6	240	340	9.0	70	–
9	MgAl9Zn1	Zn1 AZ 91	139	199	1.3	40	68 HV0.01
10	VDSiCr	–	–	2216	–	206	–

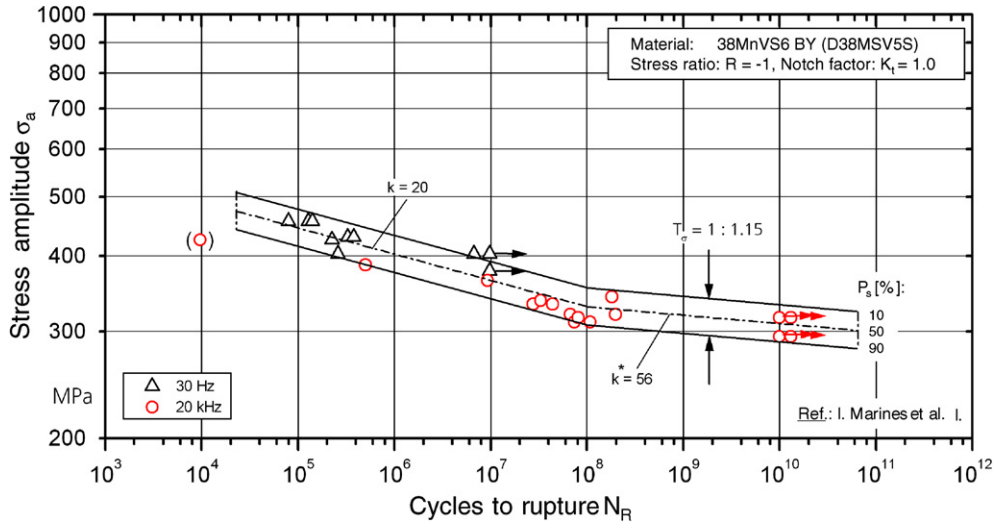


Fig. 6. SN-curve of a precipitation hardening steel up to the mega-cycle regime.

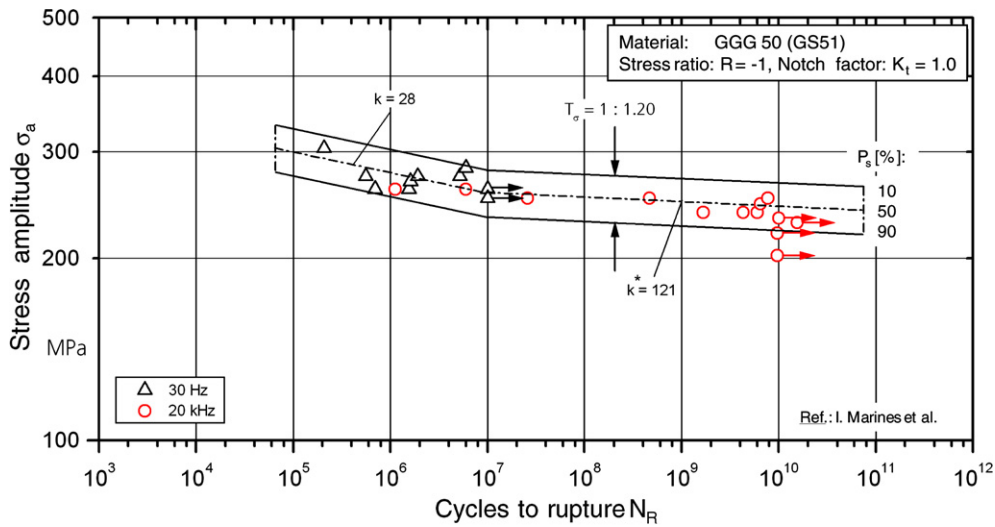


Fig. 7. SN-curve of a cast iron up to the mega-cycle regime.

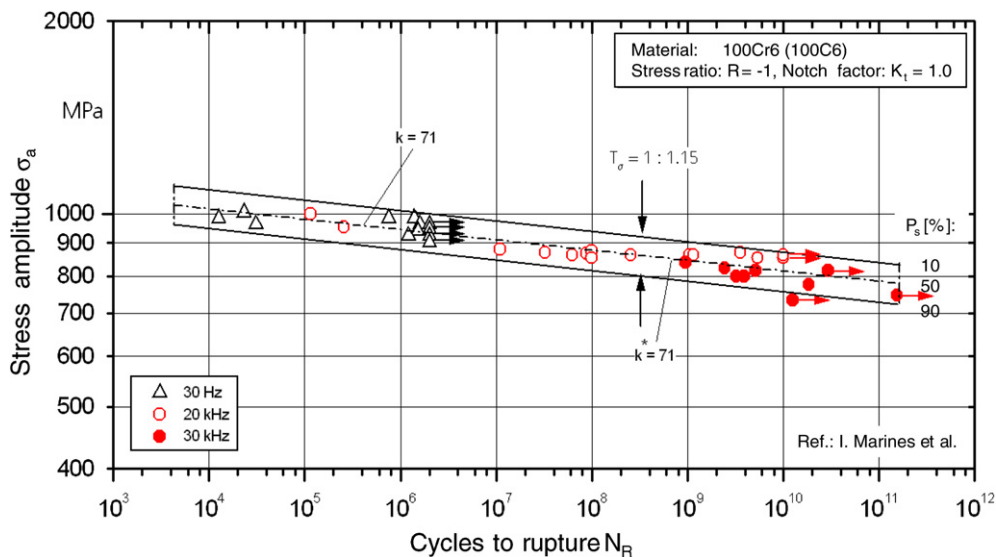


Fig. 8. SN-curve of a martensitic steel up to the mega-cycle regime.

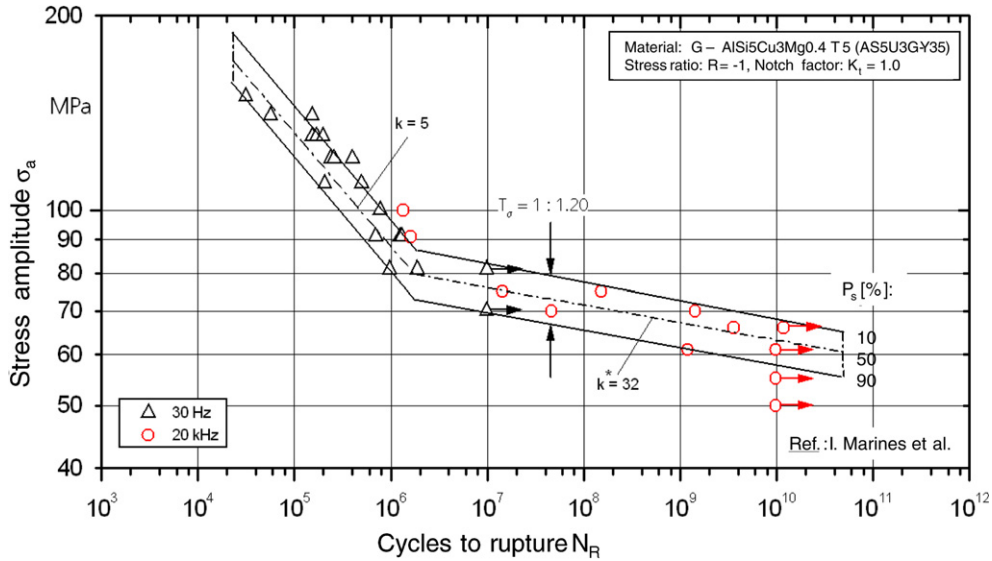


Fig. 9. SN-curve of a cast aluminium alloy up to the giga-cycle regime.

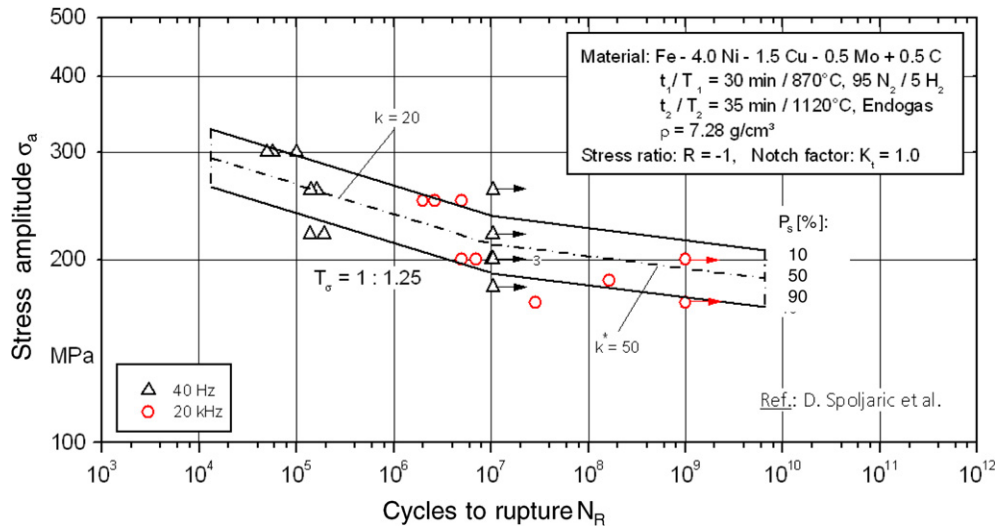


Fig. 10. SN-curve of a sintered steel up to the giga-cycle regime.

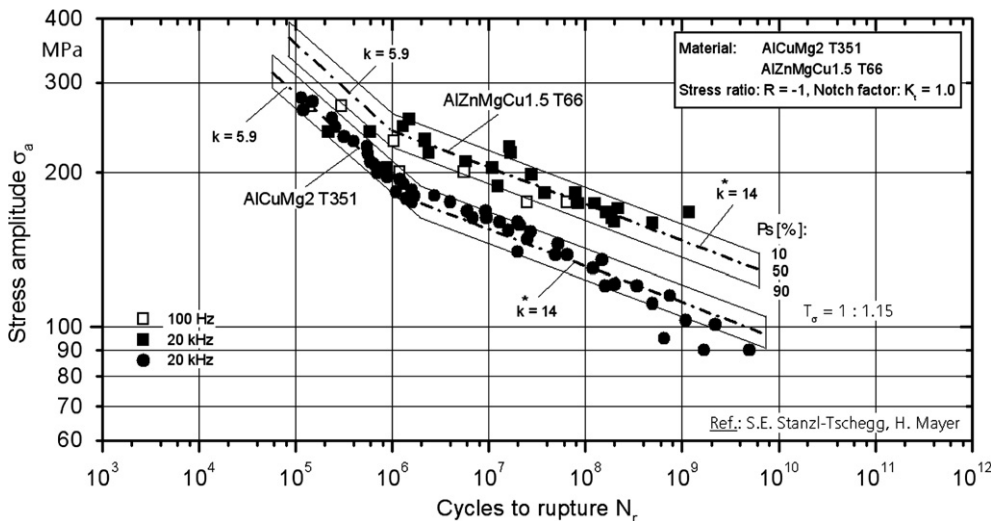


Fig. 11. SN-curve of two aluminium alloys up to the giga-cycle regime.

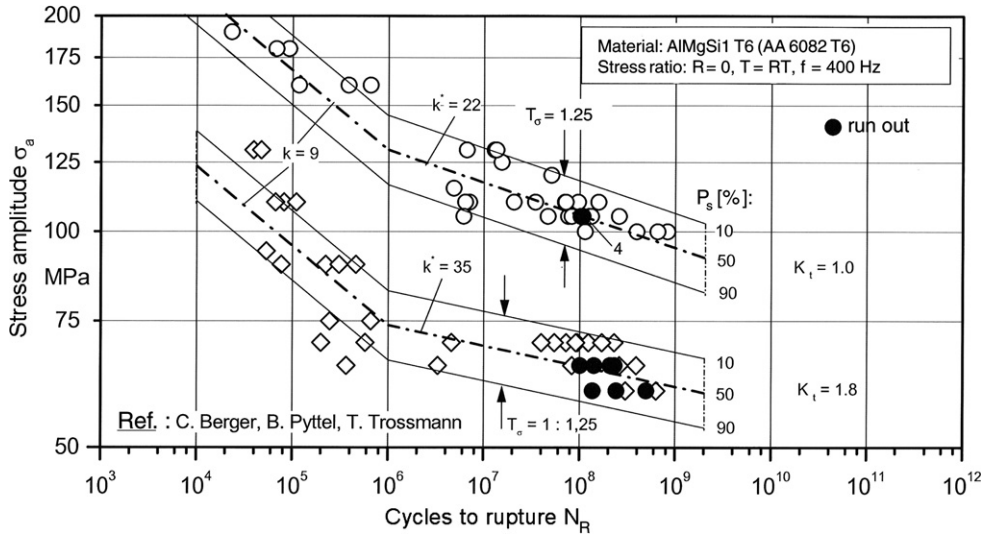


Fig. 12. SN-curves of a wrought aluminium alloy up to the giga-cycle regime.

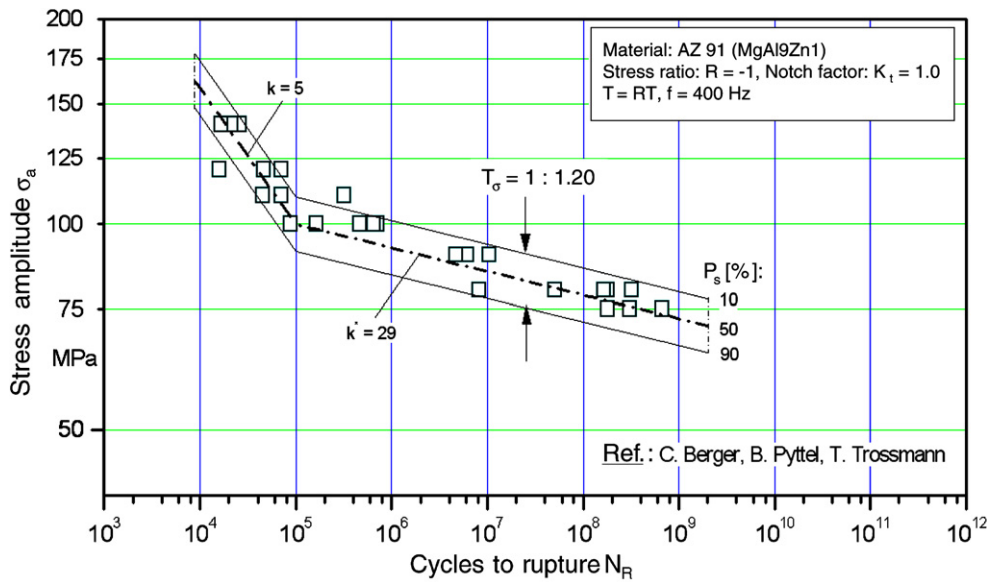


Fig. 13. SN-curve of cast magnesium alloy up to the giga-cycle regime.

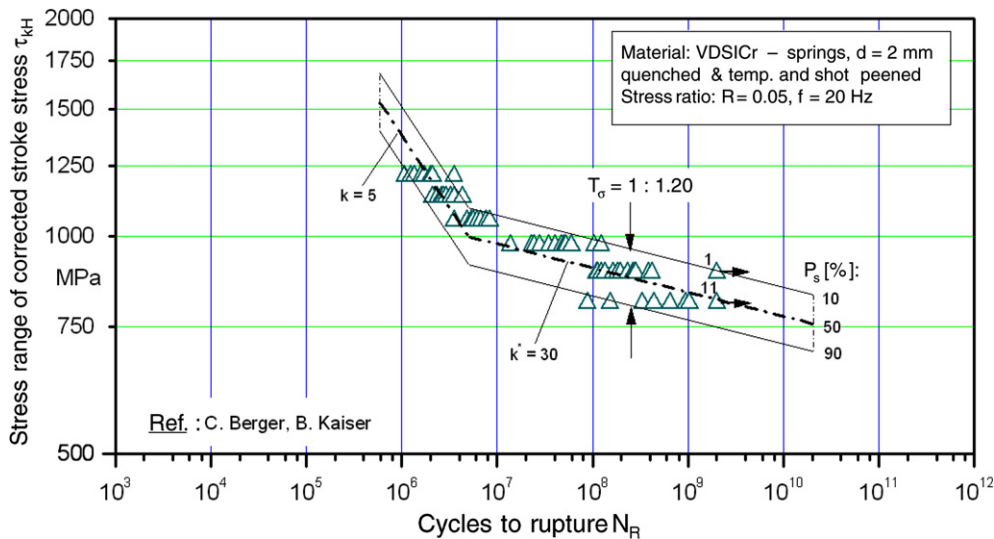


Fig. 14. Fatigue strength of shot-peened springs up to the giga-cycle regime.



the Woehler-curves, knee points, and scatters presented in a double logarithmic plot are now newly evaluated, Figs. 6–14.

The failure criterion of the illustrated test results is total specimen fracture. Crack propagation velocity as well as crack propagation life up to an initial crack size of  $a = 0.5$  mm and beyond were generally not considered here. A corresponding differentiation of the total fatigue life regarding the evaluation of cracks in relation to complex conditions such as stress gradients and larger specimen size would have been advisable.

### 3. Evaluation of the examples

The slopes ahead and beyond the knee point,  $k$  and  $k^* = \lg(N_2/N_1)/\lg(\sigma_{a1}/\sigma_{a2})$ , respectively, result from linear regression analyses as well as curve fitting. Following the concept of normalized Woehler-curves [9], the test results were covered by scatter bands with uniform scatter bands

$T_\sigma = 1: [\sigma_a(P_s = 10\%)/\sigma_a(P_s = 90\%)]$  based on experiences [24–30] and depending on the material. All Woehler-curves shown and the evaluation of the other results [27–29,31] reveal a continuous decrease of fatigue strength in the range of large cycle numbers. Many materials such as the martensitic steel 100Cr6, Fig. 8, exhibit no knee point at all. With the slope  $k^*$  the decrease of fatigue strength per decade is determined, Table 3.

The observed decrease per decade after the knee point or in the high-cycle range is below 5% for steels and below 10% for aluminium alloys. These results support practical experiences at hand [23,33]. However, the decrease per decade of fatigue strength for the aluminium alloy of about 15% is extraordinarily large compared to the investigations with the ordinary test machines (up to  $10^7$  cycles), which lead also to values below 10% [32].

### 4. Recommendations and final conclusions

Under the premise that no environmental or fretting corrosion is present and in the case that testing up to the range of giga cycles is not possible, a Woehler-curve representing results from tests with normal frequencies ( $f < 50$  Hz) in the finite life range may be extrapolated into the long life range beyond the knee point  $N_k$  with the following slope data:

- For steels, cast irons and magnesium alloys  $k^* = 45$  corresponding to a decrease of 5% per decade if no large tensile residual stresses are present.
- For aluminium alloys welded magnesium alloys, and welded steels  $k^* = 22$  corresponding to a decrease of 10% per decade.

The position of the knee point depends on the material (alloy), on its strength and also on the kind of loading

Table 3  
Decrease of fatigue strength per decade in the region of high cycles

Materials	DIN Code	$k^*$	Decrease of fatigue strength per decade in %
1	G-AlSi5Cu3Mg0.4 T5	32	7
2	GGG50	121	2
3	38 MnVS6 BY	56	4
4	100Cr6	71	3
5	Fe-4.ONi-1.5Cu.0.5Mo + 0.5C, $\zeta = 7.28$ g/cm <sup>3</sup>	50	~5
6	AlCuMg 2 T351	14	15
7	AlCuMg1.5 T66	14	15
8	AlMgSi T6	22	10
9	MgAl9Zn1	29	~8
10	VDSiCr	30	~8

Table 4  
Recommended knee points, slopes after the knee point and scatters

Material	$N_k$	$k^*$	Decrease per decade	1: $T_\sigma$
Steel, not welded	$5 \times 10^5$ , high strength	45	5	1.20
	$2 \times 10^6$ , structural steels			
Steel, welded	$1 \times 10^6$ , thermal stress relieved	45	5	1.50
	$1 \times 10^7$ , high tensile residual stresses			
Cast steel	$5 \times 10^5$ , high strength	45	5	1.40
	$2 \times 10^6$ , medium strength			
Sintered steel	$5 \times 10^5$ , high strength	45	5	1.25
	$2 \times 10^6$ , medium strength			
Cast nodular iron	$5 \times 10^5$ , high strength	45	5	1.40
	$2 \times 10^6$ , medium strength			
Wrought aluminium alloys, not welded	$1 \times 10^6 - 5 \times 10^6$	22	10	1.25
Wrought aluminium alloys, welded	$1 \times 10^6$ thermal stress relieved	22	10	1.45
	$1 \times 10^7$ , high tensile residual stresses			
Cast aluminium	$1 \times 10^6 - 5 \times 10^6$	22	10	1.40
Sintered aluminium	$1 \times 10^6$	22	10	1.25
Wrought magnesium alloys, not welded	$5 \times 10^4 - 1 \times 10^5$	45	5	1.20
Cast magnesium	$1 \times 10^5 - 5 \times 10^5$	45	5	1.30
Wrought magnesium alloys, welded	$5 \times 10^5$ , low tensile residual stresses	22	10	1.50
	$1 \times 10^7$ , high tensile residual stresses			

(axial, bending, torsion, stress ratio) [2,7,22,34–36] and, in the case of welded joints, additionally on the magnitude of the residual stresses [37,38]. The scatter  $T_\sigma$  fixed to a given mean value and required to derive safety factors and corresponding allowable strength data [9] depends decisively on material quality (purity, population of defects); Table 4 presents some details.

Based on these findings and on the observed decrease of fatigue strength beyond  $10^7$  cycles reported in other investigations [39–43], the existing IIW – Recommendations for the structural durability designing of welded components [43] have already been revised [44], Figs. 15–17.

The data given in Fig. 15 were obtained with fillet welded longitudinal stiffeners, butt welded plates and girth welded tubes. They were tested under the stress ratios  $R = -1, 0$  and  $>0$ . The testing frequency for the longitudinal stiffeners was  $f = 125$  Hz, for the butt welds and tubes between 10 and 30 Hz.

For the sake of completeness, supplementary details to the Woehler-curve slope ahead the knee point are offered here also for components, because they contain notches leading to steeper slopes in the finite life range depending on material. Due to the more or less macroscopic elastic deformations, the slope is not significantly influenced in the long life range. By this aspect, slope data for the finite

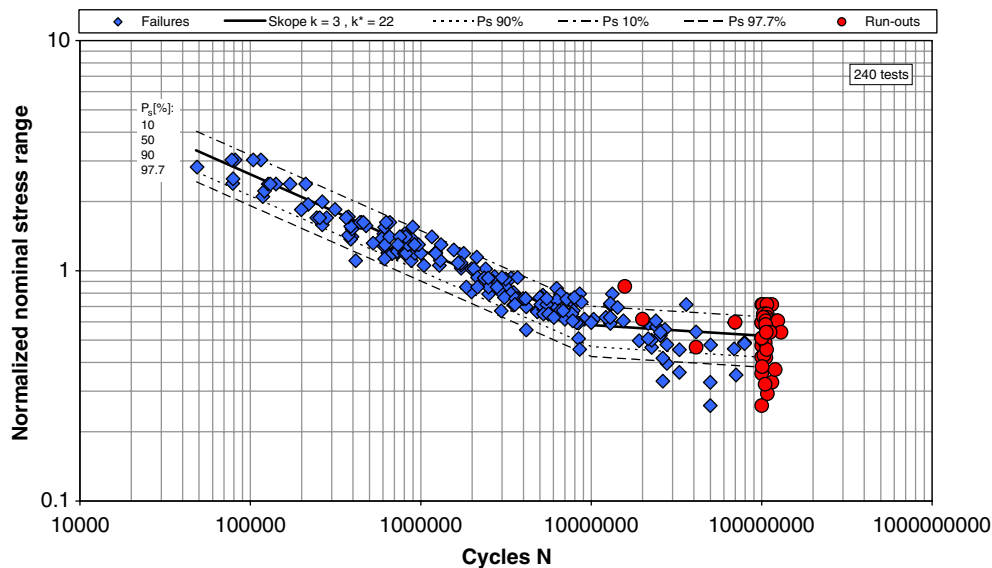


Fig. 15. Overall normalized evaluation and comparison with the proposed course of the SN-curve for welded steel joints.

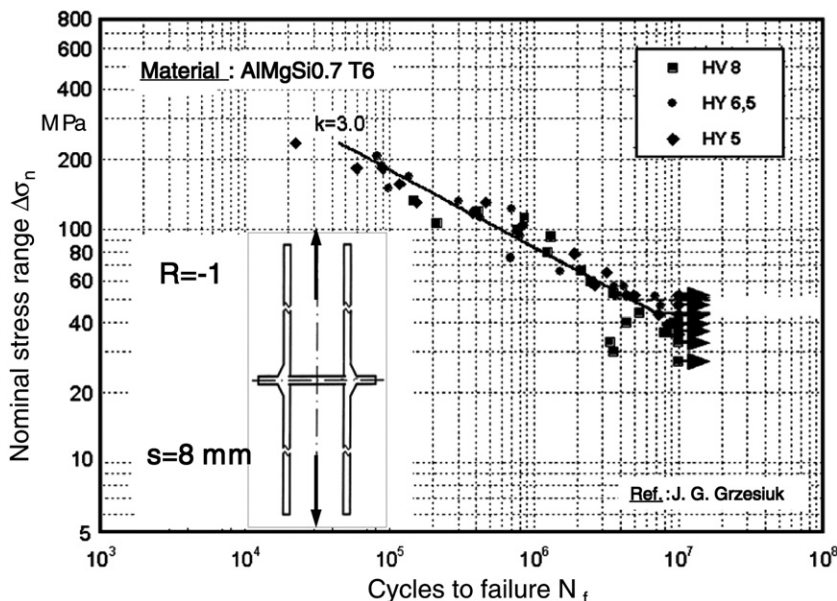


Fig. 16. Fatigue test results with H-type welded aluminium specimens.

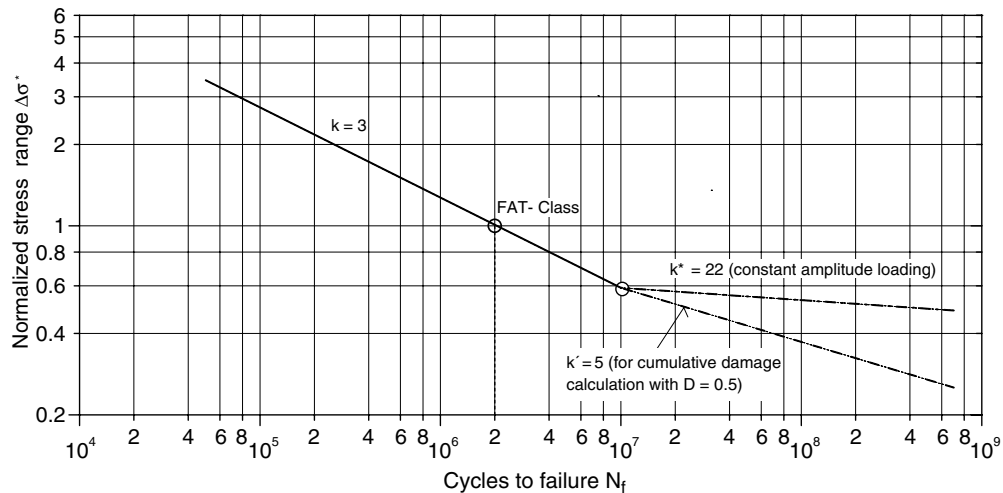


Fig. 17. SN-curve for welded joints according to IIW-Recommendations.

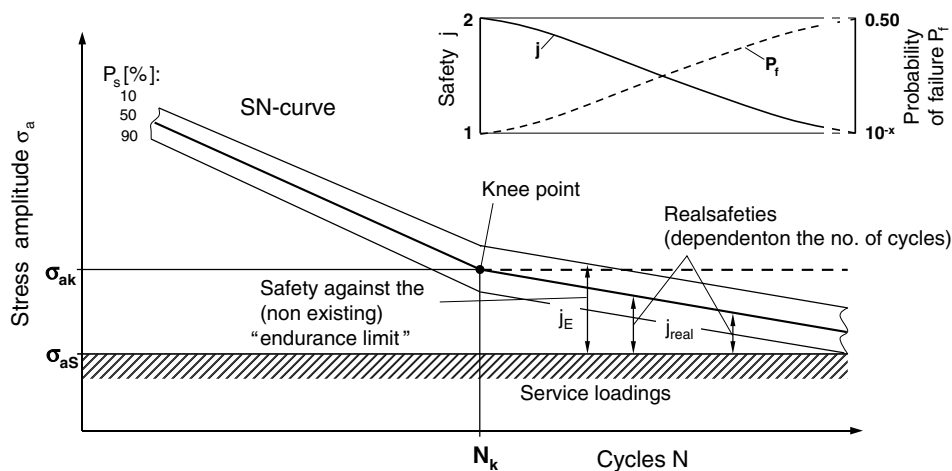


Fig. 18. Real and non-existent safeties at a design against the "endurance limit".

life range ( $N < N_k$ ) of  $k = 5$  up to 8 are proposed for non-welded components of steel, cast steel, cast nodular iron, sintered steel, aluminium, and magnesium alloys. For welded thin-walled components and structures made of steel as well as aluminium and magnesium alloys  $k = 5$ –8, and for welded thick-walled components and structures  $k = 3$ –5 may be applied.

As a consequence of the knowledge gained, one should be aware, when traditionally designing against a so-called "endurance limit", that the continuous decrease of fatigue strength diminishes the real safety<sup>2</sup>  $j_{\text{real}}(N)$  under service loading with increasing number of load cycles, Fig. 18, and thereby increases the failure probability  $P_f$ .

Many in-service failures of components like connecting rods, crankshafts, helical springs, shafts of stationary turbines, and more, subjected to load spectra with maximum

loads of high number of occurrences ( $N > 10^6$ ) and therefore being considered as subjected to constant amplitude loading could be avoided, if the safety factors consider the decrease of fatigue strength. The insight gained is also transferable to the fracture mechanics with the meaning that a threshold stress intensity,  $\Delta K_{\text{th}}$ , does not exist below which, in correlation with a so-called fatigue limit [46], a crack does not grow any more.

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<sup>2</sup> Designing against maximum service load and assuming a log-normal distribution, the safety factor  $j$  can be calculated for a required probability of failure  $P_f = 1 - P_s$  [45]:  $j = \left(\frac{1}{7}\right) \exp\left(\frac{(2.36\sqrt{\lg(1-P_s)})-1}{2.56}\right)$

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