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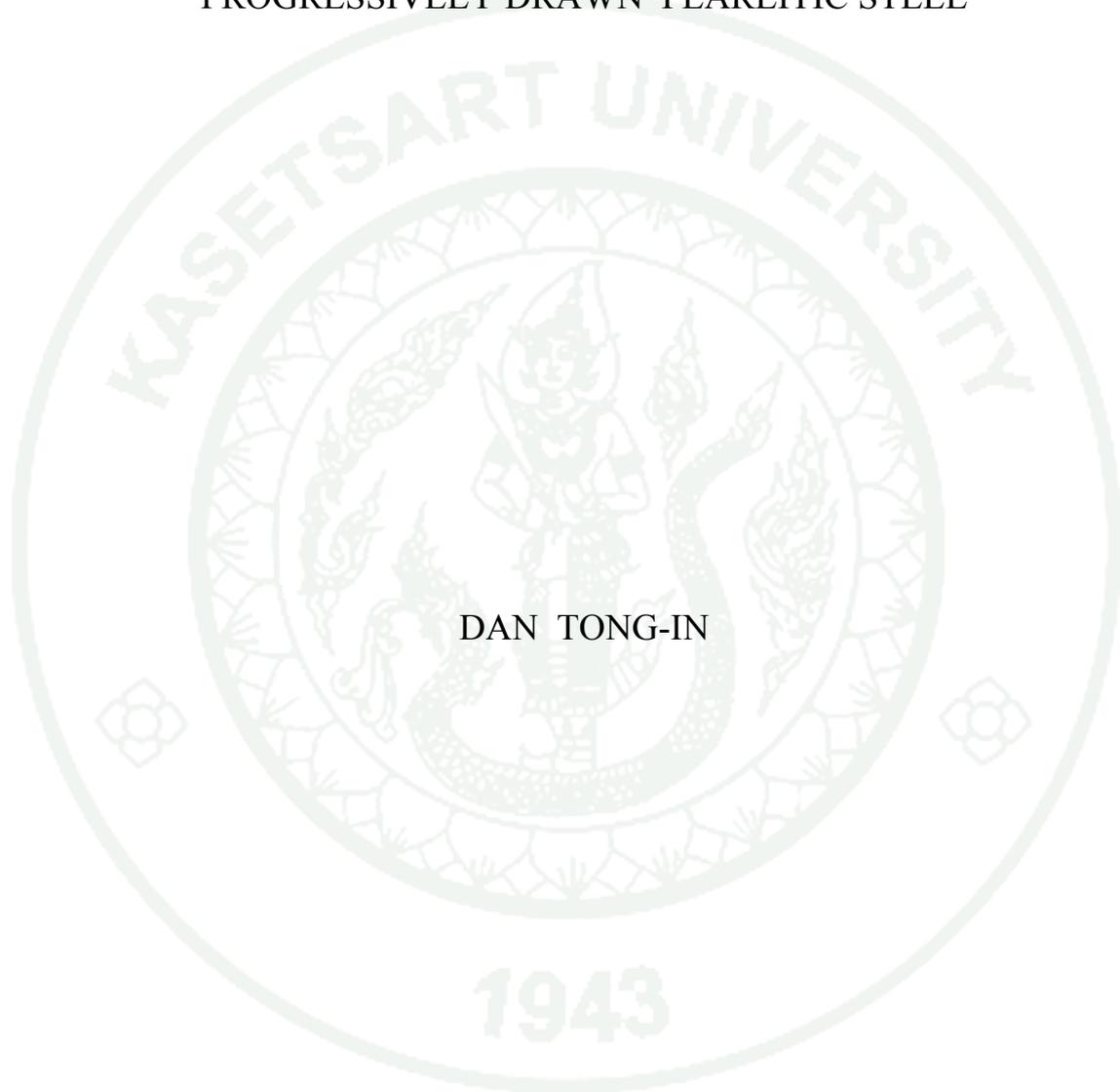
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THESIS

THE EFFECT OF STRESS RELIEVING TREATMENT CONDITIONS
ON THE QUALITY OF HIGH TENSILE STEEL WIRE IN
PROGRESSIVELY DRAWN PEARLITIC STEEL



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This study was aimed to determine the effects of processing condition of stress relieving processes on the quality of high tensile steel wire in progressively drawn pearlitic steel. The hot rolled high carbon steel wire rods, grade SWRH 82B for producing pre-stressed concrete wire and the final commercial product (Pre-stressed concrete wire: heavily cold drawn) were received from wire products company. Stress relieving treatments were also carried out in order to relieve the residual stresses accumulated after the cold work. The heat treatment temperature, tension ratio and time exposure to heat, which are the parameters of stress relieving treatments, were changed. Stress relieving treatment experiments were performed under two differing analysis methods, namely the Classical and Taguchi methods. The stress relieving treatments were determined by changing the heat treatment temperature, tension ratio and time duration and by observing the effect of these changes on tensile strength, yield strength, elongation, and relaxation behavior of the quality of pre-stressed concrete wires. The heat treatment temperature had a very strong effect on elongation. The value of elongation is about 5.73% when the temperature and other parameters are at the lower limits, and it is about 6.78% when the temperature and other parameters are at the higher levels. The tension ratio had a profound effect on relaxation. The value of relaxation is about 6.67% when the tension ratio and other parameters are at lower levels, and it is about 3.75% when the tension ratio and other parameters are at higher levels. The process parameters, heat treatment temperature, had a negative effect on elongation at 375C°

Student's signature

Thesis Advisor's signature

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Dan Tong-in
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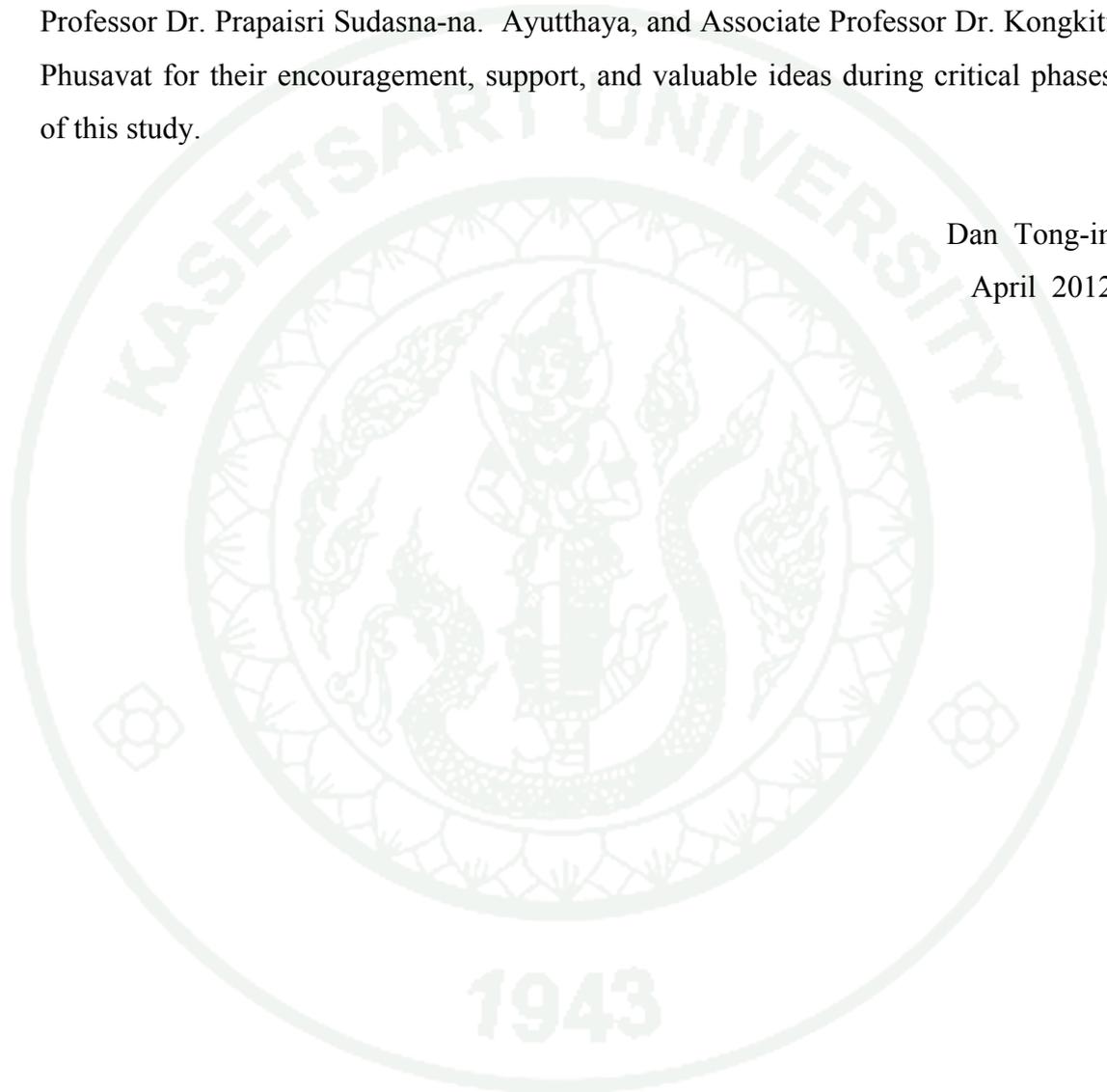


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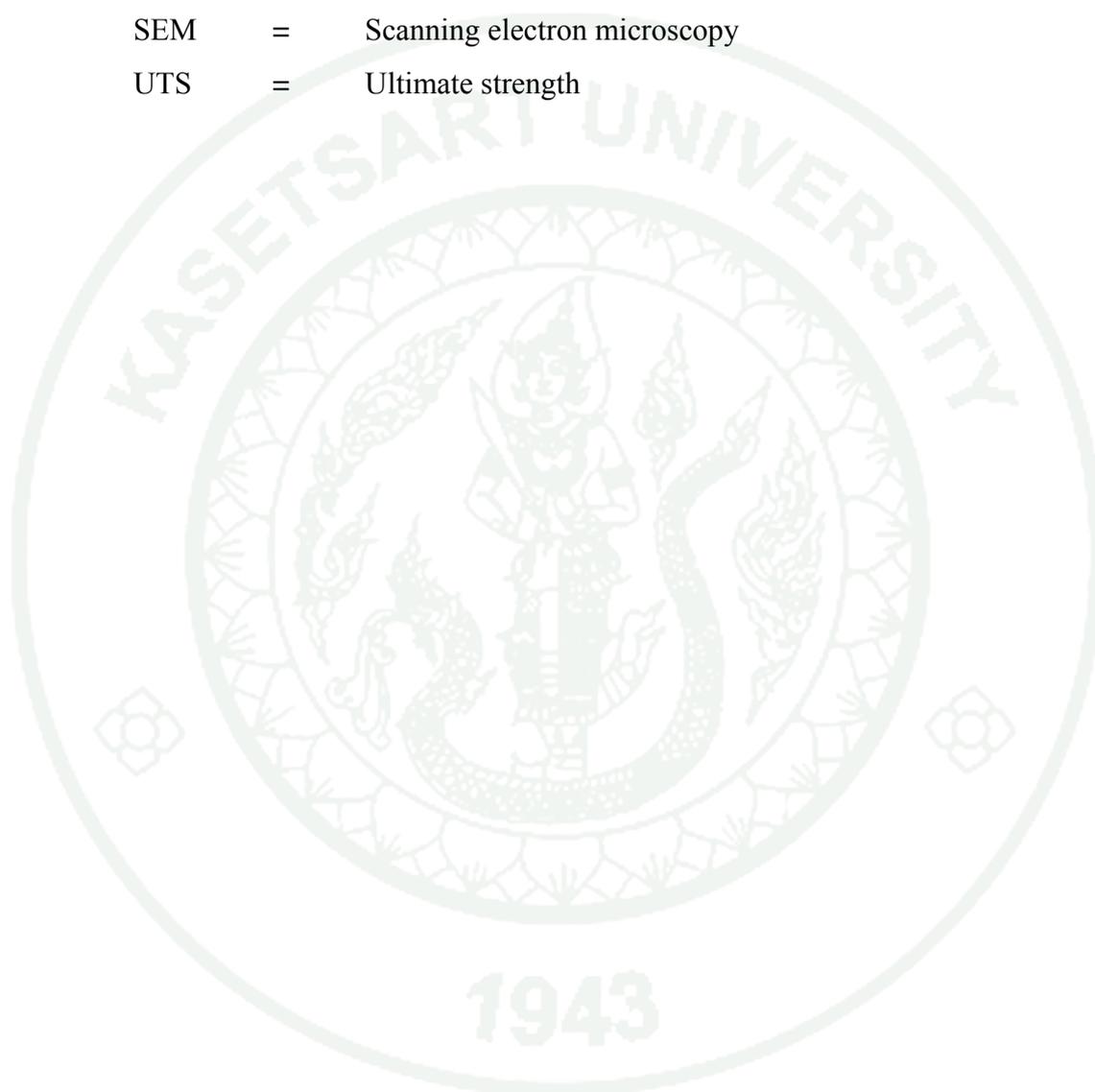
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Acc	=	Accuracy
RA	=	Reduction area
S/N	=	Signal to noise
SEM	=	Scanning electron microscopy
UTS	=	Ultimate strength



THE EFFECT OF STRESS RELIEVING TREATMENT CONDITIONS ON THE QUALITY OF HIGH TENSILE STEEL WIRE IN PROGRESSIVELY DRAWN PEARLITIC STEEL

INTRODUCTION

General Background

One of the most innovative materials invented is pre-stressed concrete. The pre-stressing and pre-casting of concrete is one of the defining features of the modern building industry. Through the application of imaginative design and quality control, it has had, since the 1930's, an increasing impact on architectural design and construction procedures. Pre-stressing of concrete is the application of a compressive force to a concrete member and may be achieved by either pre-tensioning high tensile steel strands before the concrete has set, or by post-tensioning the strands after the concrete has set. Although these techniques are commonplace, misunderstandings of the principles and the way they are applied, still exist. High strength wire has had an essential role in producing pre-stressed concrete.

The construction possibilities of pre-stressed concrete are as broad as those of ordinary reinforced concrete. Typical applications of pre-stressing in building and construction are as follows:-

1. Structural components for integration with ordinary reinforced concrete construction, e.g. floor slabs, columns, beams.
2. Structural components for bridges.
3. Water tanks and reservoirs where water tightness, (i.e. the absence of cracks), is of paramount importance.

4. Construction components e.g. piles, wall panels, frames, window mullions, power poles, fence posts etc.

5. The construction of relatively slender structural frames.

In pre-stressed concrete composites, steel wires with a higher elastic limit and tensile strength are required. Concrete has lower tensile strength compared to its higher compression strength. Steel wires are used to improve the tensile strength of concrete and higher strength steel wires naturally serve to increase the strength of whole concrete composites as a whole. In pre-stressed concrete composites, tensioned steel wires are embedded in concrete and there should be no loss of tension. In industrial applications, steel wires are cold drawn to achieve high strength. Interior stresses developed during the cold drawing produce some important changes in tensile strength, such as Hook slope or elongation of the material. In order to minimize the negative effects of residual stresses, stress relieving processes should be induced. 5.5-13 mm diameter carbon steel wires are used in the production of pre-stressed concrete composites, which are then cooled in a controlled atmosphere after the hot rolling process, this results in a relatively homogeneous pearlite type structure. Re-heating the wires up to temperatures of 400°C and stretching them by up to 50% of ultimate strength produce drawn wires, which have high hardness and strength. This stress relieving process is done to improve the steel's mechanical properties. The mechanical requirements of pre-stressed concrete wire are specified in a number of various standards, such as BS 5895, ASTM 421 and ASTM 416. Robert (2001) acknowledged that during pre-stressing the wire or strand is stressed with a high load and it is necessary that the single wire or strand wire keeps this high level of stress throughout the end product's life. Thus, it is very important that the wire or strand also has good relaxation properties. These are achieved by using a stress-relieving treatment. The previous type of reinforcement wire was known as stress-relieved wire or normal relaxation wire. However, the modern stress relieving or low-relaxation wire has superseded globally.

It would be pertinent to examine how the stresses initially arise. We are familiar with the fact that a drawn wire generally has residual tensile stresses at the

surface and residual compressive stresses in the center but how and why these occur are not always so well known. When a wire is deformed by the drawing work done on it, the mechanical energy that does this work is dissipated primarily as heat within the metal. An additional source of heat comes from the frictional effect between wire and die and at high drawing speeds the heat is evolved within milliseconds. High temperatures and steep temperature gradients are therefore to be expected, together with differences in the temperature between the wire's surface and core resulting in residual stresses. During wire drawing, the deformation is not uniform throughout the cross-section of the wire and this also results in internal stress (Allan, 1989).

The residual stresses in cold drawn steel wire will cause themselves to distort either during the manufacturing process and/or later during the useful life of the wire. The thermal stress relief process is widely used to reduce or modify the internal or residual stresses in cold drawn steel wire. It is difficult to obtain analytical solutions to predict the mechanical properties of wire. With the increasingly competitive environment, steel wire product companies, which historically have had thin profit margins are looking for ways to reduce costs so as to increase their competitiveness and maximize shareholder value. Until now, there has been a lot of work and research done to lower costs. However, little research has been done on the quality of high tensile steel wire. Higher quality enables companies to reduce error rates, reduce waste, field failures, warranty charges and customer dissatisfaction: It also shortens the time required to put new products on the market, increases yield capacity, improves delivery performance, increases customer satisfaction; makes products salable, increases market share, provides sales income, secures premium prices and meets competition.

Problem Statement

Many business enterprises in the real world have the objective of maximizing profits and efficiency while minimizing cost or risks. Furthermore, given the limited resources that are available to the industry as well as the rapidly changing technical requirements, it is clear that personnel at all levels need an in-depth understanding of production processes. It is also evident that such an understanding is a prerequisite for controlling and optimizing existing processes and the sustainable development of new technology. The problems of producing high strength wire for pre-stressed concrete can be summarized as the following:

1. Mechanical properties of high tensile steel wire sometimes do not conform to standard.
2. Non-uniformity in mechanical properties is passed on to the end user.
3. Lack of knowledge of the interrelationship between the main factors of high tensile steel wire mean that is very difficult to adjust or correct the production process in order to get the stable qualities necessary in high tensile steel wire.
4. Losses from production processes.

Benefits of the Research

1. To identify influential factors which affect mechanical properties of high tensile steel wire.
2. To determine the factors which control the production process of high tensile steel wire.
3. The quality of products will be constant and conform with industrial standards, leading to reduced risk and higher safety.

OBJECTIVES

There are four primary objectives for this research. They are as follows:

1. To design and construct an experimental stress relief unit for high tensile steel wire.
2. To study the effects of processing condition of stress relieving processes on the quality of high tensile steel wire in progressively drawn pearlitic steel.
3. To develop a mathematical model, which relates the quality of steel wire in terms of tensile strength, yield strength, elongation, and relaxation to the input variables.
4. To make a comparison between the Classical and Taguchi methodologies.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, we will first review several types of theories related to this research. Then, we will also survey the extensive research which has been done in design and analysis of these theories.

1. The theory of deformation in cold drawing and its effect.

Plastic deformation is the one property that makes wire drawing possible. It has been responsible for the increased technological and commercial importance to mankind. The capacity of steel wire to undergo a high level of reduction in a cross-sectional area without fracturing, as well as the ability to control strength and other properties over a wide range are primary attributes that have enabled drawn wire products to become ubiquitous in society, even as numerous other materials have become available.

Plasticity theory is the foundation for the numerical treatment of metal-forming processes. Metallurgy can explain the origins of the plastic state of metallic bodies and its dependence on various parameters, such as process speed, prior history, temperature, and so on. Plasticity is the capacity of a material to change its shape permanently under the action of forces when the corresponding stress state reaches a material-dependent critical magnitude called yield strength or initial flow stress. As seen from the results of the standard tension test, when the stress is below the yield strength, the deformation disappears upon unloading: the material unloading the work piece has a form that is different from its initial one. It is then said to have been plastically or permanently deformed, or, if a definite final shape was sought, it has been formed. Materials which behave in an elastic-plastic manner can, after having been permanently deformed, again be loaded until the flow stress is reached without additional permanent deformation setting in. This increase in the flow stress as a result of prior deformation is called strain hardening. (Lange, 1985)

The theory of continuum plasticity involves the definition of yield criteria when a material yield plastically or flows. In bulk deformation, yielding of the work piece is intended, and yield criteria are used in the modeling of flow under combined stresses. The first yield criteria for metals were proposed by Henri Tresca in the 1860's. The Tresca criteria are based on the premise that yielding is dependent on just shear stresses, whereby plastic flow begins when the shear stresses exceed the shear yield strength of the metallic material. Although the Tresca yield criteria are adequate, they neglect the intermediate principal stress.

Richard (1883, 1953) was an American professor of applied mathematics, who also derived conditions for plastic deformation. Tresca postulated that the yield surface is the surface of a hexagonal prism of infinite length in the stress. Yielding will not occur as long as the stress acting upon the body remains within the confines of this prism. The centerline of the prism makes equal angles of 54.73° with the principal stress axes. Von Mises' yield surface is the surface of a circular cylinder in which Tresca's hexagonal prism is inscribed. Strain hardening during cold working enlarges the cross-section of the prism or cylinder.

It is not easy to express the hexagon in a mathematical form. For simplification, therefore, von Mises introduced in 1913 a circle that circumscribes the hexagon. His original motivation was in fact just the simplification, but the new yield surface was later given a physical interpretation called the distortion energy theory. According to this theory, yielding occurs when the elastic energy, causing distortion in the body, reaches a critical value. Tresca's criterion in mathematical form state that yielding occurs when some function of the maximum shear stress reaches a critical value. This implies for pure shear that $\sigma_{\max} - \sigma_{\min} = c$. For uniaxial tension this means that yielding will occur when σ_1 reaches the yield strength in tension. $\sigma_1 = \sigma_y$. and $\tau_{\max} = \frac{1}{2} * \sigma_y$. For pure shear the yielding will occur when τ_y or $k = \frac{1}{2} * \sigma_y$. (the symbol k is used for the yield strength in pure shear and is used interchangeably with τ_y). for the Tresca criterion $\sigma_{\text{eff}} = \sigma_1 - \sigma_3$ when $\sigma_1 > \sigma_2 > \sigma_3$. The von Mises criterion postulates that yielding occurs when the elastic energy, causing distortion, reaches a critical value. This implies that the tensile and shear yield stresses are related in the following way:

$$\tau_y = \sigma_y ; \sigma_{\text{eff}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \cdot [(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2]^{1/2} \quad (1)$$

A comparison:

$$(2k)_{\text{Tresca}} = \sigma_y. \quad (2k)_{\text{Mises}} = 1.15 \cdot \sigma_y.$$

Taylor in 1934 postulated a theory known as the dislocation theory which occurs along atomic planes of crystal lattices, and slipping which occurs along atomic planes of crystal lattices. However, contrary to the slip illustrated by the playing card, analogy, the atomic planes do not slip over each other as rigid entities. Instead, slip takes place at one or more places in the slip plane and progresses gradually over the remainder of the plane. The theories of Cottrell and Parker describe edge and screw dislocation in slip planes. In addition to edge dislocations which move perpendicularly to their length, there are also screw dislocations which have been described by Parker. Screw dislocation is similar to an edge dislocation except that the direction of slip is parallel to the dislocation line rather than being perpendicular to it. It should be noted that dislocations are found in annealed as well as in cold worked materials.

In an important paper from 1958, Wistreich gave a careful analysis of the situation at that time for metal forming processes. The modern theory of plasticity can be used to describe the metal forming process and to calculate the forces, pressures and material behavior within the die. The solution to the associated equations is usually very difficult to calculate. However, in elementary theories of plasticity, these mathematical difficulties are avoided by making certain assumptions with regard to the mode of deformation and the stress states in the component during the process.

One simplification involves assuming that the deformation is entirely homogenous i.e. plane sections remain plane throughout the passage of the wire through the die. However, metal forming processes are by nature inhomogeneous and some of the elementary or equilibrium equations can be completed by including corrections for inhomogeneity and friction. These equations (Sachs, Whitton and Siebel) can still serve as models for the process and can be tested against experimental

determinations of the drawing force. The value of some parameters, including the coefficient of friction, can be calculated by interaction.

The slip-line field theory, first described by Hill and Tupper, was developed to describe the flow pattern in the region being deformed. Most of the assumptions made in the common approach to the slip-line field method are similar to those in the upper-bound method described below. Computer programs for the construction of slip-line fields have been developed. One example is a matrix-operational method presented by Dewhurst and Collins.

It is not always possible to calculate the precise load that initiates the plastic deformation. One approach is to use the upper bound solution, which gives a value higher than or equal to the actual stress. Methods suitable for use with this calculation are given by Avitzur. There is also a lower bound solution, which gives values equal to or less than the actual stresses. Both methods are described by Mielnek and Hosford and Caddell. The upper bound method is also exemplified and explained in three papers by Wikander and Stalberg. (Enghag, 2002)

Howard J. Godfrey summarizing plastic deformation in his Mordica Memorial lecture given before the Wire Association in Baltimore in 1962, showed that metals can be plastically deformed if sufficiently large forces are applied. He first reviewed the older theories of plastic flow which describe plastic deformation as a slip process that takes place by the displacement of one part of the metal relative to another. This general mechanism is illustrated by a deck of playing cards.

Finite Element Analysis Process modeling for the determination of deformation mechanics has been a major concern in modern metalworking technology. Proper design and control of metal forming processes requires global as well as local knowledge of the mechanics during deformation. In this regard, the finite-element method has a central role in metal-forming process modeling. To simulate metal flow during deformation processes, the most promising technique is the finite-element method. The concept of the finite-element method is one of discretization. The finite-element model is constructed in the following manner: a number of finite points are

identified in the domain of the function, and the values of the function and its derivatives, when appropriate, at these points are specified. These points are called nodal points. The domain of the function is represented approximately by a finite collection of subdomains called finite elements. The domain then is an assemblage of elements connected together appropriately on their boundaries. The function is approximated locally within each element by continuous functions which are uniquely described in terms of the nodal point values associated with the particular element. (Kobayashi, 1989)

While dislocations prevent the achievement of the theoretical strength of a metal, paradoxically, they are the reason that strength increases during deformation at room temperature. Their behavior at elevated temperatures also controls the mechanical properties obtained after annealing. Most methods of developing strength in metals essentially involve inhibiting the slip process so that a higher proportion of the inherent crystal strength is used. This is achieved by reducing dislocation mobility in one or more ways. (Robert, 2008)

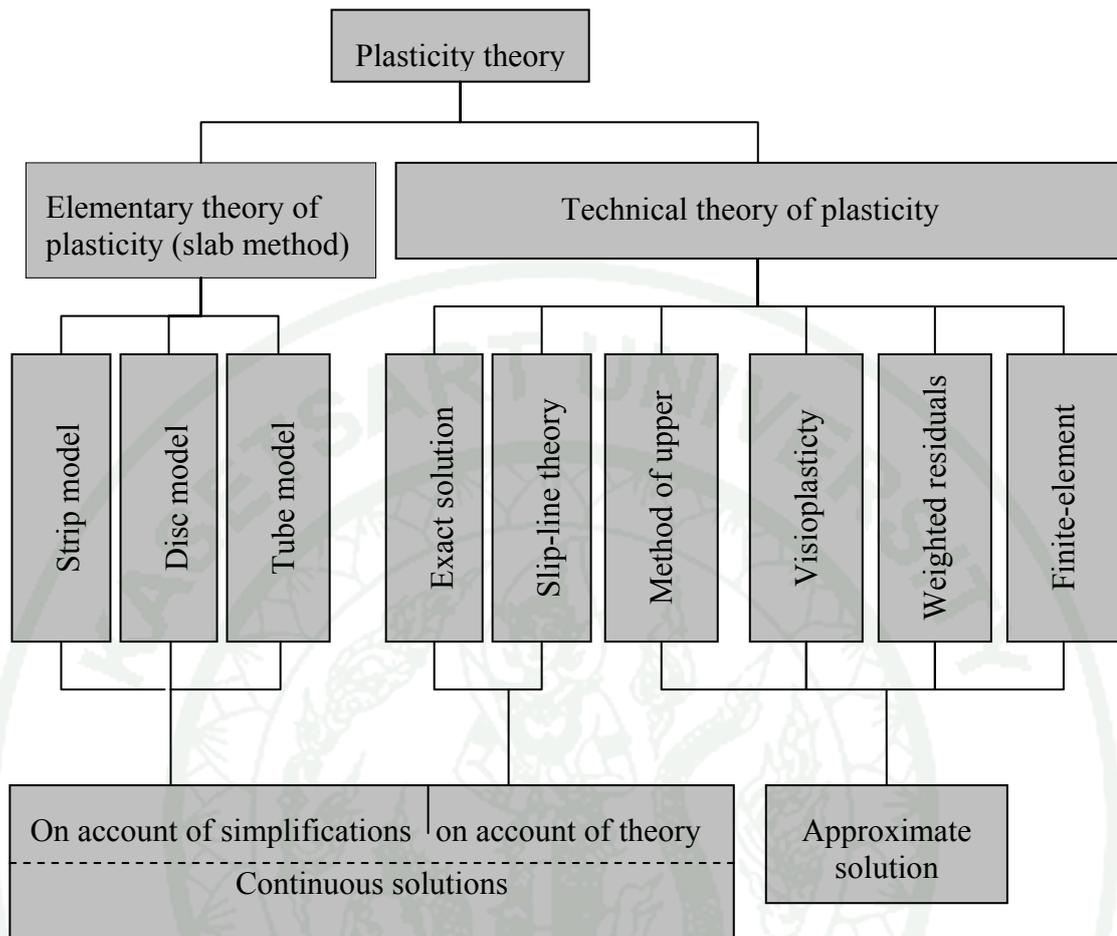


Figure 1 Theoretical solution techniques for metal-forming problems

Source: Lange (1985)

1.1 The theory of wire drawing

Deformation in wire drawing is influenced by number of factors: wire chemistry, approach angle, lubrication, drawing speed, and reduction are the most significant. The primary emphasis in wire drawing mechanics is on understanding and defining the relationships that exist between these process conditions and the resulting thermo-mechanical response of the wire. Many of the technological developments that have taken place in wire drawing over the past 20 years have been the result of an increased understanding of these relationships.

Although the fact that volume is not lost during deformation may seem obvious, it is, in fact a highly useful concept that forms the most common applications involved in the determination of wire speed at different stands and the necessary capstan speeds that should be used. Simply stated, constancy of volume states that the volumetric rate of wire entering a die must be the same as that exiting. Because the cross-sectional area is reduced during drawing, it is necessary that a wire must increase in speed for the same volumetric rate of material to enter and exit the die. Volumetric rate is defined as the cross-sectional area of the wire multiplied by the wire velocity. This can be expressed mathematically as;

$$V_i = \frac{3.14159 \times d_i^2}{4} v_i = V_f = \frac{3.14159 \times d_f^2}{4} v_f \quad (2)$$

Where V_i and V_f represent the wire velocities (feet or meters per minute) and d_i and d_f are the wire diameters (inch or millimeters) entering and exiting the die, respectively. For circular wire, Equation I can be simplified and reduced to:

$$v_i d_i^2 = v_f d_f^2 \quad (3)$$

In multi-pass drawing, wire speed exiting each die must increase so that the volumetric rate of metal flow is equal at all dies. (Robert, 2008)

Drawing is an operation in which the cross-sectional area of wire is reduced by pulling it through a converging die. The die opening may be any shape. Wire drawing involves materials of smaller diameter to those used for rod drawing, with sizes as small as 0.025 mm. The drawing process, which was an established art by the 11th century AD, is some what similar to extrusion, except that in drawing, the bar is under tension, whereas in extrusion it is under compression. (Serope, 2003)

The work of drawing consists of two parts; that used in effecting deformation, and the portion consumed in overcoming friction between the surfaces of wire or rod and die. Ideally, all portions of the cross section should be deformed

equally, but in actuality some distortion or redundant deformation occurs which requires additional energy over that necessary to provide final dimensional change. The energy consumed by friction is a minor part of the total energy required for deformation.

It will be appreciated that in the wiredrawing block of former times; where wire speeds seldom exceeded 400 ft. per minute and where the material was allowed to cool to a considerable degree before being placed on a reel and fed into a second or further drawing operation, the temperature of the wire (expressed as a difference between the temperature of the wire entering the die and leaving it); was not subject to great change. Cooling devices were unnecessary, except that it had been found that if dies were water-cooled, particularly in the drawing of high carbon wire, there was less risk of their overheating during the drawing operation. We know that die cooling cannot be expected to remove more than 5% of the heat generated in the wire. Nevertheless, this amount of heat concentrated in the die would cause excessive temperatures to develop which would interfere with proper lubrication, and for this reason, cooling of the die case was important.

With the advent of multiple die machinery however, an entirely new set of conditions was created. In machines which had low build-up capacity between passes, it was possible to have a cumulative effect on wire temperature because the wire entered the successive dies at ever-increasing speeds as it progressed along the machine, with disastrous effects, evidenced by overheating of the lubricant, and from increasing surface friction with loss of wire properties, such as torsion, as side effects of the rising temperature. A very careful study of this particular point was carried out by Norman A. Wilson in his paper, "Cooling of steel wire during continuous drawing". Wilson (1954). In it he pointed out that in continuous drafting, particularly with finishing speeds exceeding 300 fpm, the heating of the wire would be cumulative, "frequently resulting in a temperature rise which is detrimental to the quality of the wire." These remarks were particularly applicable to high carbon wire.

1.2 Temperature increases in practical drawing

Heat is generated primarily by work of deformation and friction at the die surface. Adiabatic heating is proportional to the amount of deformation; therefore, heating and temperature are higher at the wire surface than at the centerline. Although an exact calculation would require complex mathematics, a reasonable estimate of the temperature rise (ΔT) in degrees Fahrenheit in the wire can be obtained by using an empirical equation proposed by Wilson,

$$\Delta T = \frac{1.069 \times 10^4 \times F}{C \times A_f \times \rho} \quad (4)$$

Where:

F is the die pull (lbs, -force)

C is the specific heat capacity of steel (cal per gm per C = 0.1153 at 100 C)

A_f is final wire cross-sectional area (in.²)

ρ is density of steel (lbs./in.³)

Eichinger and Lueg (1941) investigated the problem of the work of deformation and heat development at low drawing speeds of only 25 fpm and the effect of speed was later investigated by Wilson. Theoretically the die pull required for a given reduction, die shape and wire composition is independent of speed, and this naturally leads to the assumption that the temperature rise of wire during drawing should remain almost constant, regardless of speed, for any given set of drawing conditions, always assuming that the coefficient of friction is constant over the range of drawing speeds involved.

The theoretical temperature rise which might be expected can be calculated from the equation:

$$T = P/A_2 \text{hd} \times 1.069 \times 10^{-4} \quad (5)$$

Where:

T is the theoretical temperature rise in degrees Fahrenheit

A₂ is the area leaving the die in square inches

P is the die pull in pounds

h is the specific heat of steel 0.115 and

d is the density of steel in pound per cubic inch

This equation provides values which are stated to be within 12% of the actual temperature rise and agree with the results reported by the German investigators. The means used to lower wire temperatures during continuous drawing resolve themselves into internal and external cooling of the wire and the drawing block. As the speed increases, more feet of wire surface pass through the die, causing frictional heat, part of which is transmitted to the die.

1.3 Drawing force calculation

The mechanics of wire drawing deal with the stresses and strains within the confines of the die and with associated external forces. The work of drawing is consumed in effecting the deformation of the wire and in overcoming the friction between the wire and the die. The deformation process is in itself complicated, being split into two parts; namely, the work in changing the dimensions of the wire and that of redundant deformation by which is meant the internal distortion of the metal not contributing to the dimensional change of the wire. The main forces operating in a drawing die can easily be derived from the drawing force neglecting redundant deformation. For practical purposes, Wistreich (1958), has suggested the use of the following empirical formula for calculating the drawing force:

$$P = A_2 \cdot U \cdot \frac{(1 + \mu \cot \alpha) 2r}{2-r} \quad (6)$$

Where:

- A_2 = Cross-sectional area of wire
 P = Drawing force
 U = Average of ultimate tensile strength before and after drawing
 r = fractional reduction of area
 α = Semi-angle of die bore expressed in degree
 μ = Mean coefficient of friction.

In order to use these formulae to calculate the drawing force, the coefficient of friction μ must be known. It is suggested that for dry soap drawing a value of $\mu = 0.01$ and for wet drawing a value of $\mu = 0.10$ should be used. It must be noted, however, that these equations should not be used to try to estimate the coefficient of friction or the average tensile strength of the wire.

2. Pearlitic steel

In 1854, James Horsfall received a patent for a heat-treating process that would produce wire with high tensile strength and good ductility from high-carbon eutectoid steel. This high-quality steel wire was called patented wire and the heat-treatment for making it was called patenting. The key to the patenting process was the eutectoid transformation of the high temperature, face-centered cubic phase of steel (Austenite) into a fine, lamellar structure of body-centered cubic iron (ferrite) and iron carbide (cementite) called pearlite. The equilibrium eutectoid structure contains 0.76 percent carbon; compositions less than 0.76 percent are called hypoeutectoid (ferrite-rich), and compositions greater than 0.76 percent are called hypereutectoid (carbide-rich). (Golis *et al.*, 1999)

The difference in pearlite formation occurs during the cooling process. According to steel wire technology, in wire rod and drawn wire carbon is present as cementite. During heating of the wire in a furnace during patenting and hardening, the iron is transformed to austenite and the carbon from the Fe_3C is dissolved into the steel base material. If the wire is cooled slowly after leaving the furnace, cementite

lamellae are reformed. However, in patenting and hardening, the wire is not cooled slowly. When very fast cooling and quenching in oil is used, there is not enough time for cementite to be formed. Instead it remains dissolved in the iron although it cannot remain in solution at room temperature. This forced condition results in stresses and hardness, and gives a structure, with carbon in a supersaturated solid solution, that is known as martensite. This structure is hard and brittle.

When austenite is cooled slowly and the cooling curve passes through 1% pearlite and 99% pearlite at temperatures above 550C, a complete transformation to pearlite occurs resulting in coarse cementite lamellae and poor drawability. If the steel is cooled in molten lead at 550C, austenite cannot exist but stays super-cooled for a very short time. Therefore, when it starts its transformation into pearlite, at this low temperature, fine cementite lamellae are formed, which give the wire good drawability. (Enghag, 2002)

3. Stress relieving treatments in the Wire Industry

Stress relief is defined as heating to a suitable temperature that is held long enough to reduce residual stresses and then cooling slowly enough to minimize the development of new residual stresses. This definition requires some further explanation.

First, residual stresses arise in wire (or any other metallic component) that has been subjected to deformation beyond its elastic limit, i.e., when plastic deformation has occurred. Hence, stress relief heat treatment is relevant to as-drawn wire and to wire that has been formed into a product. Wire that has been annealed or hardened and tempered as its final process can be assumed to have, as near as is possible, zero residual stress.

Second, a suitable temperature needs definition. Stress relief heat treatment should not involve any major structural transformation, re-crystallization, or softening in the wire, but, as will be shown, minor structural changes will occur. Hence, there is a maximum temperature that applies to this type of heat treatment, which, if exceeded will lead to annealing.

Thirdly, holding long enough is rather a vague term and isn't really correct because even the shortest time at room temperature may cause some reduction in residual stresses, but their relief will increase with holding temperature and time. It is important to recognize that both time and temperature are important to this type of heat treatment, as is usually the case with most heat-treatment process, and these two parameters have to be considered together. It is also necessary to point out that stress relieving is an accurate name for this process. Residual stresses are relieved or reduced but not eliminated. To eliminate residual stresses it is necessary to heat to a temperature high enough, or for a time period long enough, to cause appreciable softening or annealing of the wire. Hence, stress relieving heat treatment processes relieve 1-99% of the residual stress.

Stress relieving heat treatments are all designed to enhance ductility, or to modify physical properties for specific purposes. Heat treatment can begin at temperatures as low as 190C. In a process known as warm forming, low temperatures in this range are applied in heading operations to assist forming. (Robert, 2008)

The aging of high carbon wire after deformation has a pronounced effect on its strength. The yield strength is increased by a larger factor than the tensile strength and the limits of proportionality are influenced more than the yield point. At the same time the ductility is decreased. Heat treatment at temperatures from 200 C to 400 C after drawing improves the relaxation and creep of the wire. (William, 1990)

It is important to reiterate that in pre-stressed concrete composites, steel wires with a higher elastic limit and tensile strength are required. Concrete has a lower tensile strength compared to its higher compression strength. Steel tendons are used to improve the tensile strength of concrete. Higher strength steel wires naturally serve to

increase the strength of whole concrete composites. In pre-stressed concrete composites, steel wires are embedded in concrete under tension and during its use there should not be a loss of tension. Therefore, steel wires should have a low relaxation property. In industrial applications, steel wires are cold drawn to achieve high strength. Interior stresses developed during the cold drawn process produce some important changes in tensile strength, Hook slope, elongation, etc. of the material. In order to minimize the effects of residual stresses, Stress relieving treatments should be induced.

4. Design of experiments:

The first statistician to consider a methodology for the design of experiments was Sir Ronald A. Fisher. He described how to test the hypothesis that a certain lady could distinguish by flavor alone whether the milk or the tea was first placed in the cup. While this sounds like a frivolous application, it allowed him to illustrate the most important ideas of the experimental design. The design of experiments was built on the foundation of the analysis of variance, a collection of models in which the observed variance is partitioned in to components due to different factors which are estimated and/or tested. The developments of the theory of linear models have encompassed and surpassed the cases that concerned early writers. Today, the theory rests on advanced topics in abstract algebra and combinatorics. (Ronald, 1991)

Michael (1992) mentioned that there is not a tool more powerful for the improvement process than the design of experiments, (DOE). DOE is a series of statistically based techniques to organize experimentation in order to obtain the maximum amount of information with the minimum time expenditure. This enables the experimenter to select variables thought to affect the process output, to methodically change those variables, and then to observe if the changes actually did affect the process output. The theories were advanced in the United States and the United Kingdom in the 1940's and 1950's; then the Japanese applied them to other industries in the 1960's. They are part of the "off-line" quality techniques touted by the Japanese. (They are "off-line" because the process is not making production parts as it is shut down for experimentation). The success of the DOE technique not only

contributed to improvement in agricultural yields but has also contributed greatly to the rise to manufacturing excellence that the world has seen from the Japanese in the last 30 years.

Montgomery (2005) stated that experiment design is a critically important tool in the engineering world for improving the performance of the manufacturing process. In particular, the formal introduction of “Experiment Design” methodology at the earliest stage of the development cycle, where new products are designed, existing product designs improved, and manufacturing process optimized, is often the key to overall product success.

4.1 Factorial design of experiments:

Montgomery (1997) mentioned that Factorial designs are the most efficient for the study of the effects of two or more factors. By this approach, in each complete trial or replication of the experiment, all possible combinations of the levels of the factors are investigated. Factorial design is necessary when interactions may be present to avoid misleading conclusions. It also allows the effects of a particular factor to be estimated at several levels, yielding conclusions that are valid over a range of experimental conditions. The effect of factor is defined to be the change in response produced by a change in level of the factor, frequently called a “main effect”. An interaction between the factors is the difference in response between the levels of one factor and another. It is not the same at all levels of the other factors. Thus, interaction is a form of curvature in the underlying response surface model for the experiment.

4.2 The design of experiments has three widely accepted approaches.

- Classical method
- Taguchi method
- Shainin method

4.3 Classical method

This approach is based on the pioneering work of Sir Ronald Fisher, who applied design of experiments (DOE) to the field of agriculture as early as the 1920's. It is difficult to conceive of an application that has as many variables as agriculture: soil, rain, water, sun, climate, seed, fertilizer, terrain, etc. Yet Fisher, using only the full factorial method improved the productivity of the British farm and was knighted for his great contribution. In fact, Fisher, used DOE to reduce variation. The classical approach is the oldest of the three. This approach uses full Factorial. Classical DOE methods have been used successfully for several decades. The DOE term covers the system of methods that are used to build a relationship between several input design parameters and one or several responses. The DOE is most commonly used to analyze the data obtained through experiments which enables independent error estimate by randomly repeating one or several runs. This design is called replicated design. Some types of experiments however, do not enable repeatability, for example, too costly experiments or deterministic computer simulations. The design is then called unreplicated design.

4.4 The Taguchi method

Taguchi methods are statistical methods developed to improve the quality of manufactured goods. Genichi Taguchi of Japan adapted the Classical approach, simplifying it with his orthogonal arrays. He proposed that engineering optimization of a process or product should be carried out in a three-step approach:

- system design,
- parameter design, and
- tolerance design.

In system design, the engineer applies scientific and engineering knowledge to produce a basic, functional, prototype design. This design, includes the product design stage and the process design stage. In the product design stage, the selection of materials, components, tentative product parameter values, etc., are involved. At the process design stage, the analysis of processing sequences, the selections of production equipment, tentative process parameter values, etc., are involved. Since system design is an initial functional design, it may be far from optimum in terms of quality and cost.

Following on from system design is parameter design. The objective of parameter design is to optimize the settings of the process parameter values for improving quality characteristics and to identify the product parameter values under the optimal process parameter values. In addition, it is expected that the optimal process parameter values obtained from parameter design are insensitive to variations in the environmental conditions and other noise factors.

Finally, tolerance design is used to determine and analyze tolerances around the optimal settings recommend by the parameter design. Tolerance design is required if the reduced variation obtained by the parameter design does not meet the required performance, and involves tightening tolerances on the product parameters or process parameters in which variations result in large negative influences on the required product's performance. Typically, tightening tolerances means purchasing better-grade materials, components, or machinery, which increase costs.

However, based on the above discussion, parameter design is the key step in the Taguchi method to achieving higher quality without increasing cost. Basically, experimental design methods were developed originally by Fisher. However, Classical experimental design methods are too complex and not easy to use. Furthermore, a large number of experiments have to be carried out when the number of the process

parameters increases. To solve this problem, the Taguchi method uses a special design of orthogonal arrays to study the entire parameter space with a small number of experiments only. The experimental results are then transformed into a signal-to-noise (S/N) ratio. Taguchi methods of experimental design provide a simple, efficient and systematic approach for the optimization of experimental designs for performance quality and cost. It has been proved successful in many manufacturing situations.

4.5 Shainin method

The third approach is a collection of simple but powerful techniques invented or perfected by Dorian Shainin of the United States. This method is often called Shainin. In the 1950s Shainin recognized that the Pareto principle could be applied effectively to the solving of variation problems. Shainin concluded that, amongst the thousands of variables that could cause a change in the value of an output, one cause-effect relationship had to be stronger than the others. Shainin called this primary cause the "Big Red X" and demonstrated that the cause can exist as an interaction among independent variables. The effect of the Red X is then magnified by the square-root-of-the-sum-of-the-squares law, thereby isolating the root cause. Shainin asserted that his application of statistical methods was more cost-effective and simpler than Taguchi methods. In order to determine the "Red X," Shainin would swap pairs of parts between functional and faulty equipment until the one part responsible for the failure is discovered. Shainin would claim that he could often find the primary defective part within a dozen paired swaps. Shainin's policy of "talking to the parts" was the primary distinguishing factor that set his methods apart from Taguchi's. In Classical or Taguchi DOE (Design of Experiments), engineers would brainstorm to form hypotheses regarding possible causes of a problem. Shainin's methods circumvent this theoretical step, requiring first the diagnosis of causes via one or more of four clue generation techniques designed to determine, through the empirical testing of the actual parts in question, the root cause, or "Red X". In the 1940s Leonard Seder, an MIT classmate and friend, developed the Multi-vari chart, a graphical method for analysis of variance. Shainin was an early adopter of this method, discovering that with Multi-vari charts, he could quickly converge on the root

cause of a problem. Multi-vari charts also played an influential role in Shainin's development of the Red X concept.

4.6 The difference between Taguchi and Classical DOE

Taguchi experimental designs are based on orthogonal arrays. They are usually identified with a name such as L_8 , to indicate an array with 8 runs. Classical experimental designs are also based on orthogonal arrays, but are identified with a superscript to indicate the number of variables thus, a 2^3 classical experimental design also has 8 runs. Thus, designs generated by the two methods appear to be similar - and they often are. Some industries and organizations swear by Taguchi methods, while others prefer Classical methods.

Taguchi methodology emphasizes:

- Robust design-searching for the set of conditions to achieve optimum behavior
- Minimization of the Loss function - minimizing economic loss due to running at non-optimum conditions
- Maximization of signal-to-noise ratio - achieving best process targets under all uncontrolled conditions (noise)
- Selection of experimental design from examination of Linear Graphs, which allows investigation of desired interaction effects, based on process knowledge.

4.7 Classical methodology emphasizes:

- Sequential experimentation to model process behavior (i.e. develop empirical process models, including modeling the effect of "noise" factors)

- Prediction of future process behavior, including optimal settings from empirical models

- Investigation and isolation of factors affecting mean and variation independently

- Selection of experimental design from consideration of the trade-offs in running a fraction of a full factorial design-e.g. a 2^{8-4} design investigates the effects of 8 factors in 16 runs, and the tradeoffs are known before running the experiment. Additional experimentation may be required to clearly identify the effects of interactions.

4.8 The difference between Taguchi and Shainin method

The Taguchi method has more to do with robust design and early product development than does Shainin, although the Taguchi method can be used for product improvement as well. It is significant to note that the Shainin method concerns variation reduction. You must have a good part and a bad part to use the Shainin method. If all the parts being considered are bad, “Red X” is probably not the tool that you would want to use. The Taguchi method is a design of experiment whereby all parameters are varied simultaneously. The Taguchi method can be used to fix or design products. Several prominent problem-solving models along with a collection of supporting strategies have been introduced during the past century. Although many of these models and supporting strategies have been widely accepted as breakthrough developments, they have yet to realize their full potential for problem solving.

In the table below, a summary is provided in which the three processes, or methods, are compared with regard to philosophy, sources of variation optimization, control and tolerance

Table 1 Summary comparison

TOPICS	SHAININ	TAGUCHI	CLASSICAL
1. Philosophy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Focus on sources of Variation - Appropriate tolerances - Search methods - Rely on engineering knowledge 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Process/product robustness(noise) - Reduction of variation - around target - Efficient response - Variable (loss function, S/N) - Saturated designs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Randomization - Sequential testing - Best models - Data transformation, interactions, response surface
2. Sources of variation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Multi-vari - Comp./variable search 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - N/A (done in conjunction with optimization) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fractional factorials - Steepest ascent - Nested designs
3. Optimization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Full factorial 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Saturated factorial designs - Inner/outer arrays - Robust response variables 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Full factorial. - Response surface - Multi-level - Central composite
4. Control	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Pre-control 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - On-line techniques 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Control chart
5. Tolerancing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Tolerance parallelograms - ISO plots 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Tolerance designs (factorial) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Stack-up - RMS analysis

5. Articles relating to aspects of the study:

In this section, eight articles are referred to. The first three deal with the procedural effects due to, respectively: high-speed drawing, cold drawing, and progressively drawn wire. While the fourth deals with angular distortions and the fifth article focuses on improving billet surface quality. I will examine each in turn.

Firstly in this work, the effect of high speed drawing (about 20m/s) on the mechanical and technological properties of high-carbon steel wires has been investigated. Wire rod (5.5 mm) from steel grades C52D2(0.52%c) and C72DP (0.72%C) were drawn down to 1.35mm in 13 draws and two drawing speeds (0.5m/s and 20 m/s). After each draw, the following properties were determined: tensile strength, yield strength, contraction, elongation, number of twists and number of bends.

Additionally a draw force has been estimated after each draw. The wire's sure temperature and an average temperature have been calculated by several equations. Also the thickness of a heated layer has been determined. It has been found that an increased drawing speed has a significant effect on the mechanical properties of drawn wire, especially on the number of twists. A large drop in the number of twists has been observed for final wires because of the increased draw speed. However, there is also an advantage as the wire surface is much smoother after drawing at high speed than at low speed. Research results were statistically estimated with reference to the research of Ivo Nemeč, Bogdan Golis, Jan W. Pilarczyk, Ryszard Budzik and Wiesław Waszkielewicz, 2007.

Secondly, the mechanical properties of cold-drawn pearlitic wires are controlled largely by the microstructure developed during processing and, to some extent, by the residual stresses during drawing. The advent of powerful computers and the availability of equipment to perform diffraction experiments have made possible numerical predictions and accurate measurements of residual stresses. This paper, a review of work done by the author and collaborators, shows how stress-relaxation

losses, and how environmentally assisted cracking and the fatigue-life of cold-drawn pearlitic wire are influenced by residual stresses. The role of pre-stretching loads, or stress relieving treatments, on stress-relaxation can be understood when the profile of residual stresses is known. Nevertheless, some awkward results occur during hydrogen embrittlement. Tests can be explained if accurate values of residual stresses near the surface are known, and the same is true of fatigue life. In this context, numerical simulations and measurements performed on cold-drawn pearlitic wires, with different profiles of residual stresses, have shown a very good quantitative agreement with reference of the research of M. Elices, 2004

Thirdly let us examine the fracture behavior of progressively drawn pearlitic steels. To this end, samples from different stages of an industrial manufacturing process were analyzed to elucidate the consequences of steelmaking by cold drawing on the fracture toughness and the microscopic fracture modes. The real manufacturing chain was stopped in the course of the process, and samples of five intermediate stages were extracted, together with the original material or base product which was a hot rolled bar; not cold drawn at all. The final commercial product was a pre-stressed steel wire; heavily cold drawn. The results demonstrated that progressive cold drawing clearly affects the fracture performance of the materials, so that the most heavily drawn steels exhibit anisotropic fracture behavior with crack deflection, i.e., a change in crack propagation direction which deviates from the original mode I propagation and approaches the wire axis or cold drawing direction, thereby producing a mixed mode stress state. At the microscopical level, clear changes are observed in the micrographs with appearances from cleavage-like in the slightly drawn steels, to predominant micro-void coalescence in the heavily drawn steels. From the macroscopic fracture mechanics viewpoint, the manufacturing process by cold drawing is beneficial, since the fracture toughness is progressively increased by steel making. These important results demonstrate that both the traditional mechanical properties, (e.g. the yield strength) and the fracture mechanics properties (e.g. the fracture toughness) are improved by cold drawing. (Toribio, 2002)

Fourthly the research of Murugan and Gunaraj (2000), inform us of the effects of process variables on the angular distortion of multipass GMA welded structural steel plates. Angular distortion is a major problem and the most pronounced among different types of distortion in the but welded plates. This angular distortion is mainly due to non-uniform transverse shrinkage along the depth of the plates welded. Restriction of this distortion by restraint may lead to higher residual stresses. These can be reduced by providing initial angular distortion in the negative direction if the magnitude of angular distortion is predictable. However it is difficult to obtain a complete analytical solution to predict angular distortion that may be reliable over a wide range of processes, materials, and process control parameters. In this study, the statistical method of three-factor, five-level factorial central composite rotatable design has been used to develop mathematical models to correlate angular distortion with multipass GMAW process parameters. Furthermore these mathematical models help to optimize the GMAW process and to make it a cost-effective one by eliminating the weld defects due to angular distortion with reference to the research of Murugan and Gunaraj (2000)

The factorial designed matrix experiment the Taguchi method was set up to study conditions affecting the formation of pinholes. This experiment succeeded in identifying important factors needed to decrease billet surface pinholes on silicon killed at high carbon heat, ($C \geq 0.46$ percent). An interaction between mold oil flow rate and bellows shroud nitrogen line pressure was determined to be critical in producing zero pinhole billet etch tests. Currently, over 90 percent of all high carbon billet etch tests show zero pinholes. Just prior to the experiment, the number was 72 percent. A surprising subsequent decrease in billet surface bleeds was also realized. Greatly improved billet surface quality has been produced by implementing the new practices on a full-time basis. Experimental design defines and studies operating practices necessary to ensure consistent production of high quality products. Suspected factors at various levels can be simultaneously examined with regard towards their individual and combined effects on quality. This experimental design is not passive, it actively pursues, defines and finds solutions to quality problems in an efficient manner. By using this method, one finds out what factors and settings are needed to eliminate a problem. The Taguchi experimental design method provides an

economical method of studying the parameters associated with billet surface pinholes. A normal full factorial experiment involving seven factors at two levels would require 128 trials to cover all possible combinations. The Taguchi method reduces the number of required trials to 8. In general, a matrix experiment consists of a set of experiments where the settings of various products or process parameters are changed in an organized fashion from one trial to the next. Conducting matrix experiments using special matrices called orthogonal arrays allows the effects of several parameters to be determined efficiently. With reference to the research of Gregory of Georgetown Steel who used experimental design to solve a billet surface pinhole problem. Billet surface quality has shown a consistent improvement since implementing the practices defined by the designed experiment. The improvement was accomplished by optimizing operational settings on existing equipment. (Gregory, 1992)

The research of Panteghini *et al.* (2006) used a finite element model (FEM) to study the multi-pass drawing of a wire of high strength steel and the effect of thermo-mechanical treatments on the residual stresses in the wire. They were able to demonstrate that the post-drawing treatment is very successful in reducing the residual stresses produced by the drawing.

The research of Atienza *et al.* (2004), used 3D finite element mode to understand the effects of the cold-drawing process. This showed that the drawing process generates a residual stress state with significant tensile stresses at the surface of the rods.

The research of Stone (1991), showed that residual stresses are created and minimized through a variety of processes in spring manufacture. He demonstrated that benefits of residual stress type depend on the product type and it's application.

MATERIALS AND EQUIPMENT

1. Materials

Samples from an industrial manufacturing process were supplied by Thai Wire Products Public Company Limited. The chemical composition common to the steels is given in Table 2. The name of each steel indicates the number of cold drawing steps which each has undergone, as given in Table 3, together with the diameter of each wire and the mechanical properties of the different steels. The samples were prepared as follows.

1.1 Sample Preparation:

A typical chemistry for pre-stressed concrete wires quality steel used today is:

- Carbon (0.79% to 0.84%)
- Manganese (0.75% to 0.85%)
- Silicon (0.15% to 0.32%)
- Sulfur (0.025% max)
- Copper (0.10% max)
- Aluminum (.015% to 0.045%)
- Chromium (0.15% to 0.25%)

After draw size Diameter. 4 mm. RA 80% Length 1,600 mm/sample
Charge No. 841227 Coil No.037

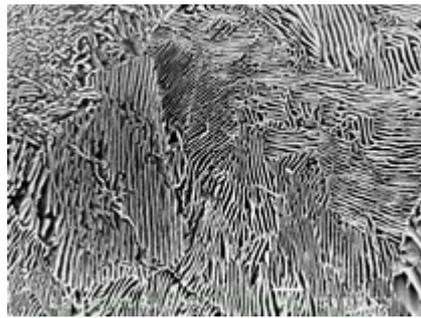


Figure 2 SEM micrograph at $\times 10,000$ magnification of wire rod 82 B diameter 9 mm showing pearlite structure

Table 2 Chemical composition test of the steel wire compared for this investigation listed in weight percent

C	Mn	Si	P	S	Cr	V	Al
0.80	0.69	0.23	0.012	0.009	0.250	0.060	0.004

1.2 Wire drawing

In drawing wire, the required deformation is accomplished by drawing the wire through the conical bore section of the die, thereby reducing the diameter through plastic deformation. During deformation, a thin film of lubricant between wire surface and die surface is essential to minimize friction, reduce die wear and to keep the die cool. For good wire deformation, it is necessary to select a drawing die tool with the appropriate profile, designed for either ferrous or non-ferrous materials.

- Entry Lubrication is introduced, and the material is guided to the deformation zone (reduction/bearing) of the die.

- Reduction Generally speaking harder, (ferrous) materials require smaller reduction angles; softer, (non-ferrous) materials require larger reduction angles. Included angles ($2\text{-}\alpha$) may vary within the range 8° - 30° , zone length (0.5...1) d.

- Bearing In this cylindrical part the deformed wire is calibrated to the desired size. The bearing length depends on the materials drawn and is specified as a percent of the bore hole diameter (0.3...0.6) d . As a general rule, harder materials demand longer bearings than softer ones. Wear on the bearing only occurs when heavy wear in the reduction zone is not remedied in a timely fashion.

- Exit This zone, from which the deformed wire leaves the die tool, must provide sufficient support for the axial mechanical wire drawing stress which occurs.

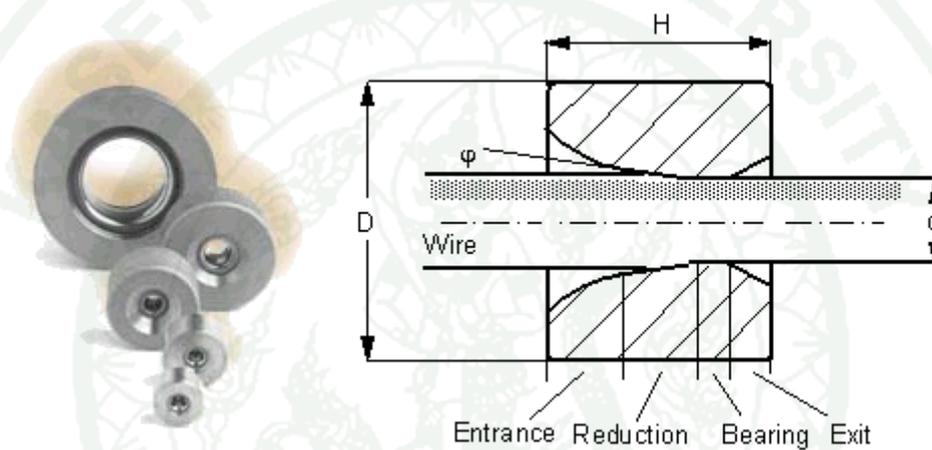


Figure 3 Illustration wire drawing

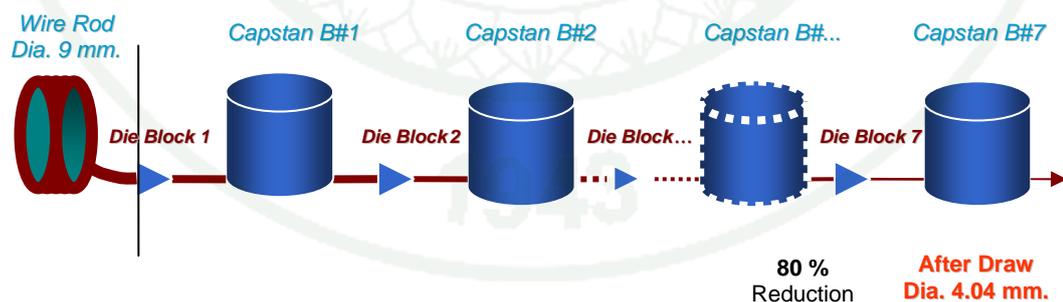


Figure 4 Diagram to show a sample wire (diameter at inlet = 9 mm) to a diameter of 4 mm. 80% reduction by drawing machine

Table 3 To show the % reduction of the drawing process

Capstan Block	Block No.1	Block No.2	Block No.3	Block No.4	Block No.5	Block No.6	Block No.7
% Reduction Area	19	37	51	61	69	75	80



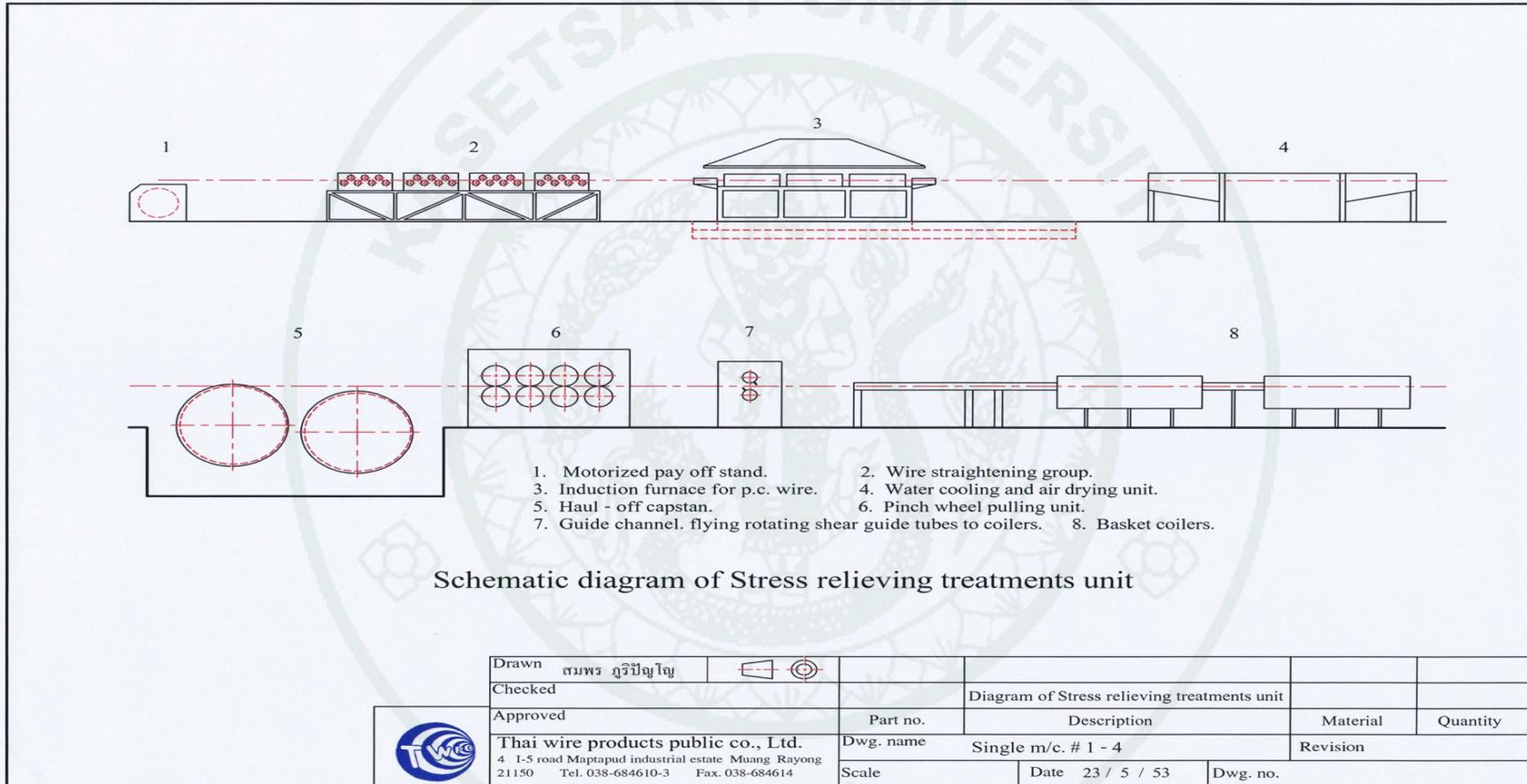


Figure 5 Schematic diagram of stress relieving treatments unit

1. Motorized pay off stand.
2. Wire straightening group.
3. Induction Furnace for p.c. wire.
4. Water cooling and air drying unit.
5. Haul-off capstan.
6. Pinch wheel pulling unit.
7. Guide channel, flying rotating shear guide tubes to coilers.
8. Basket coiler

Table 4 Nomenclature, diameter reduction and mechanical properties of the steels

	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7
Elongation %	6.5	6	5.5	5	4.8	4.5	4
Yield strength kg/mm ²	124	133	135	146	154	163	165
Tensile strength kg/mm ²	143	149	153	164	173	184	186

2. The Instruments and equipments used in this experiment are listed below:

- Drawing Machine
- Stress-Relieved Simulation Machine
- Micrometer 0 ~ 25 mm. Acc. ± 0.002 mm.
- Tensile Test machine
- Extensometer
- Relaxation Test Machine

3. Research Plan and Experimental Design.

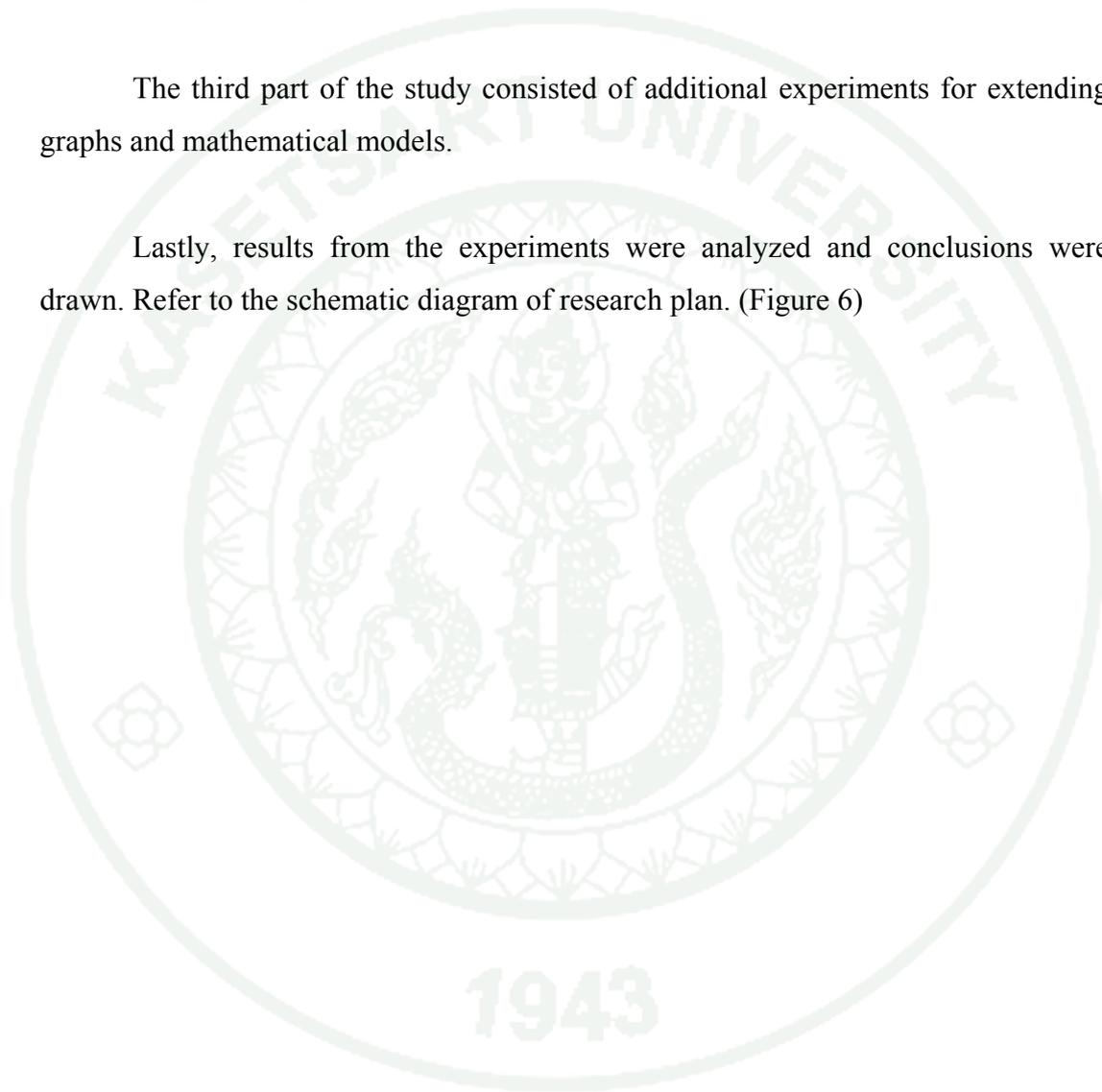
In the conduct of the study the methodology used in the research process can be outlined in the following four stages:

Firstly, the design and fabrication of the stress relieving process and calibration equipment were initiated. This was the first part of the trial.

The second part of the trial consisted of preliminary experiments on the stress-relieving process to study the effects of process parameters. This was conducted in both the Classical and Taguchi methods. Thereafter, the experiment was run and the results recorded. Data was analyzed to study the Main effects and interaction effect between the process parameters.

The third part of the study consisted of additional experiments for extending graphs and mathematical models.

Lastly, results from the experiments were analyzed and conclusions were drawn. Refer to the schematic diagram of research plan. (Figure 6)



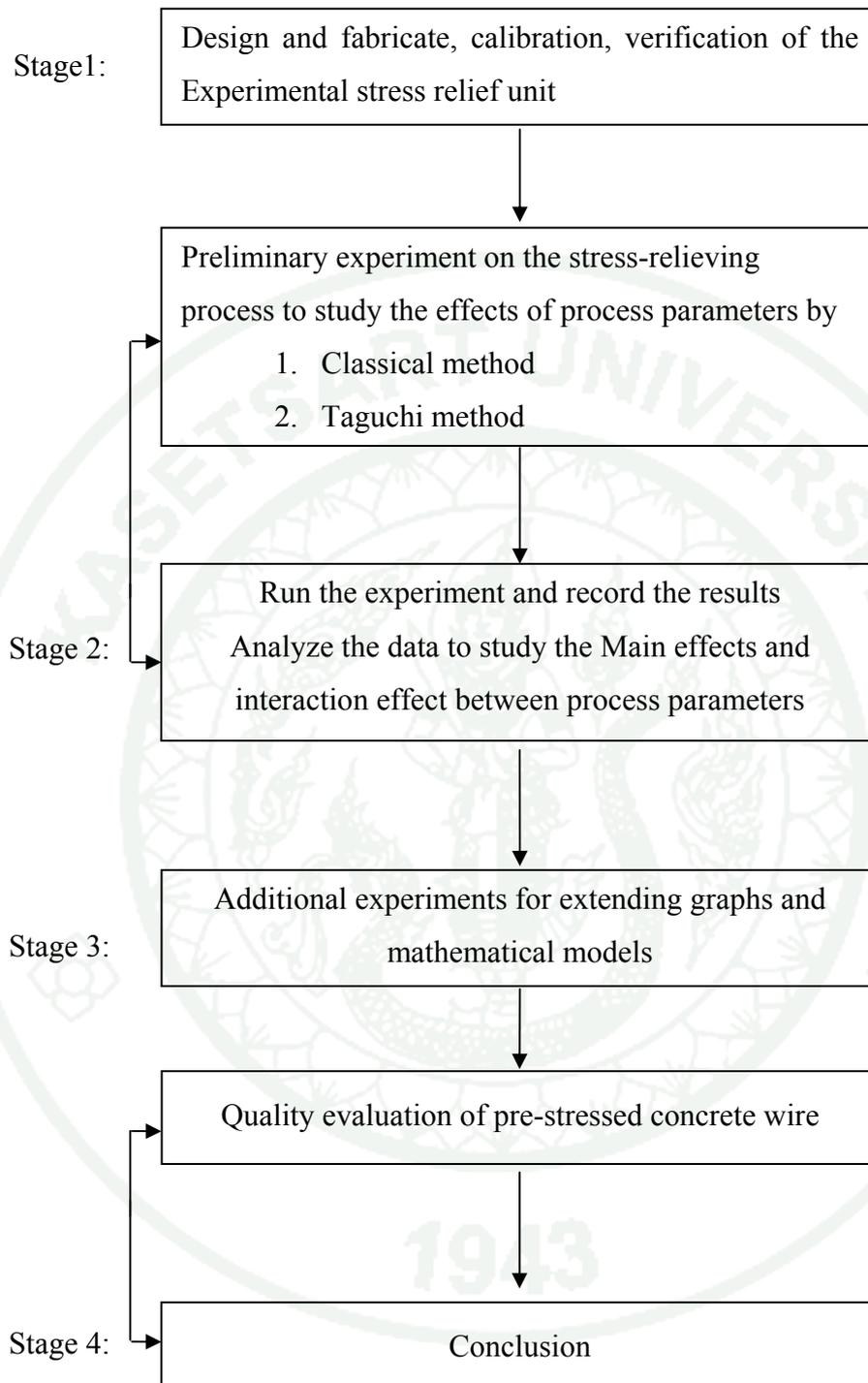


Figure 6 Schematic diagram of research plan

4. Investigate the problem with existing processes to find basic factors that affect the quality of steel wire:

One way of investigating the problem with existing processes is to use the historical data of the quality record of steel wire from the production report. The important basic factors that affect the quality of steel wire are Tensile Strength, Yield Strength, Elongation and Relaxation. These properties are very important in order to achieve the final finished steel wire properties.

5. Identify potential factors:

The plan was to carry out the research in the following steps.

- Identify the important process parameters.
- Find the upper and lower limits of the process parameters.

Identification of the process parameters:

The following independently controllable process parameters were identified to carry out the experiments:

- Duration of exposure to heat.
- Temperature during process
- Tension on wire during process

Finding the limits of the process parameters:

The working range was decided upon by inspecting the process for smooth appearance and the absence of any visible defects. The selected process parameters with their limits, units, and notations are given in Table 5.

Table 5 Process parameters, levels and their limits

Factor	Units	Level Treatment	level 1	level 2	level 3
Temperature	°C	Level Treatment = 3	350°C	375°C	400°C
Tension	kgf	Level Treatment = 3	30% UTS	40% UTS	50% UTS
Time exposure to heat	sec	Level Treatment = 2	15 sec	25 sec	

6. Developing the design matrix:

Employing the identified process parameters at 3 levels of the full factorial design produced 54 sets of code conditions (shown in table 5) of the response factors; yield strength, Elongation and Tensile Strength 36 sets of code conditions of the relaxation% were also identified.

Response (Dependent Variable) = 4 Factors

- Relaxation, Yield Strength, Elongation, Tensile strength,

Factor (Independent Variable) = 3 Factors

- Temperature, Tension, Time exposure to heat.

Table 6 Sample code and condition testing

% Tension	Time of heating 15 sec			Time of heating 25 sec			Response (Independent Variable) Factors
	Temperature °C			Temperature °C			
	350	375	400	350	375	400	
30	801533501	801533701	801534001	802533501	802533701	802534001	Yield strength, Elongation
	801533502	801533702	801534002	802533502	802533702	802534002	Tensile strength
	801533503	801533703	801534003	802533503	802533703	802534003	
	801533504	801533704	801534004	802533504	802533704	802534004	% Relaxation
	801533505	801533705	801534005	802533505	802533705	802534005	for Test (1000 hr/sample)
40	801543501	801543701	801544001	802543501	802543701	802544001	Yield strength, Elongation
	801543502	801543702	801544002	802543502	802543702	802544002	Tensile strength
	801543503	801543703	801544003	802543503	802543703	802544003	
	801543504	801543704	801544004	802543504	802543704	802544004	% Relaxation
	801543505	801543705	801544005	802543505	802543705	802544005	for Test(1000 hr/sample)
50	801553501	801553701	801554001	802553501	802553701	802554001	Yield strength, Elongation
	801553502	801553702	801554002	802553502	802553702	802554002	Tensile strength
	801553503	801553703	801554003	802553503	802553703	802554003	
	801553504	801553704	801554004	802553504	802553704	802554004	% Relaxation
	801553505	801553705	801554005	802553505	802553705	802554005	for Test(1000 hr/sample)
Total Sample	15	15	15	15	15	15	

7. Quality Evaluation Tests.

7.1 Tensile strength:

The test involves straining a test piece by tensile force generally to fracture, for the purpose of determining one or more of mechanical properties. The test is carried out at ambient temperature between 10°C and 35°C, unless otherwise specified.

7.2 Yield strength:

Yield strength is measured at 1% extension under load. The minimum yield strength shall be 90% of tensile strength for low-relaxation pre-stressed concrete wire and 85% of tensile strength for normal-relaxation

The extension under load shall be measured by an extensometer calibrated with the smallest division not larger than 0.001 mm of gauge length.

7.3 Elongation:

The total elongation under load shall not be less than 3.5% using a gauge length of not less than 600 mm. In practice the total elongation value may be determined by adding to the 1.0% yield extension the percentage of extension or movement between the jaws gripping the strand after yield determination. The percentage is calculated on the new base length of jaw-to-jaw distance.

7.4 Relaxation:

The relaxation test is one such special requirement although evidence is usually acceptable from records of tests made in past production. A common test temperature of 20 c, initial stress 70% or 80%of specified strength and test duration of 1000 hours, are normally used.

8. Perform the experiments

The experiments are classified by two different methods.

- Classical method
- Taguchi method

8.1 Classical experimental design:

In Classical experimental design the effect of each factor is tested, independently. In order to investigate the full interaction between 3 different factors, each of which is set at 3 and 2 predetermined levels, requires 54 experimental combinations to be performed. The structure of the 54 experiments is shown in Table 8 and is designed to include all the different possible combinations of all 3 experimental factors.

Table 7 Design matrix for classical method

Control Factor	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
Time (sec)	15	25	
Temperature (°C)	350	375	400
Tension (kgf)	30	40	50

The whole set of the 54 experiments carried out. All experimental runs were repeated three times.

Table 8 The orthogonal array for 3 factors Level 2, 3, 3

Run	Time	Tension	Temp	Results
1	1	1	2	Y1
2	2	1	3	Y2
3	2	2	3	Y3
4	2	2	2	Y4
5	1	1	3	Y5
6	2	2	1	Y6
7	2	3	1	Y7
8	1	3	2	Y8
9	2	2	2	Y9
10	2	3	2	Y10
11	2	2	3	Y11
12	2	1	1	Y12
13	2	3	2	Y13
14	2	1	3	Y14
15	1	2	1	Y15
16	1	3	1	Y16
17	2	1	1	Y17
18	2	2	1	Y18
19	2	3	3	Y19
20	2	1	2	Y20
21	1	3	1	Y21
22	2	3	1	Y22
23	1	2	2	Y23
24	1	3	3	Y24
25	1	2	3	Y25
26	1	3	2	Y26
27	2	2	1	Y27
28	1	3	3	Y28

Table 8 (Continued)

Run	Time	Tension	Temp	Results
29	1	2	3	Y29
30	2	1	2	Y30
31	1	1	2	Y31
32	2	1	2	Y32
33	1	1	1	Y33
34	1	2	3	Y34
35	2	3	3	Y35
36	2	3	2	Y36
37	2	3	3	Y37
38	2	1	1	Y38
39	2	3	1	Y39
40	1	3	2	Y40
41	2	2	3	Y41
42	1	2	1	Y42
43	1	3	1	Y43
44	1	1	3	Y44
45	1	3	3	Y45
46	1	2	1	Y46
47	2	2	2	Y47
48	2	1	3	Y48
49	1	1	2	Y49
50	1	2	2	Y50
51	1	2	2	Y51
52	1	1	3	Y52
53	1	1	1	Y53
54	1	1	1	Y54

The order in which the all observations were taken was selected at random so that this design is a completely randomized design.

8.2 Taguchi experimental design:

In Taguchi designs, responses are measured at selected combinations of the control factor Levels. Each combination of control factor Levels is called a run and each measure an observation. The Taguchi design provides the specifications for each experimental test run.

A Taguchi design, also known as an orthogonal array, is a fractional factorial matrix that ensures a balanced comparison of levels of any factor. In a Taguchi design analysis, each factor can be evaluated independently of all other factors.

8.3 The steps of Taguchi method with noise factors can be summarized as the followings:

- Identify the design parameters and the noise factors,
- Construct the design matrix and noise matrix.
- Determine the signal-to noise ratio for each run.
- Compute the average signal-to noise ratio for each factor level and generate a response table.
- Construct the signal-to-noise ratio response graph base on the value from step 4.
- Analyze the signal-to-noise ratio response table and graph.
- Perform some basic mean of the data for each column of the signal factors and calculate the average response.
- Compute an estimate of the predicted signal-to-noise ratio based on the selected level of signal-to noise factors on the response mean.

8.4 Analysis techniques:

We can identify the strong effects and ascertain the best level or settings for each of control factors under consideration.

$$\text{The smaller the better} \quad S/N_S = -10 \cdot \text{Log} \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2}{n} \right) \quad (7)$$

$$\text{The larger the better} \quad S/N_L = -10 \cdot \text{Log} \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n 1/y_i^2}{n} \right) \quad (8)$$

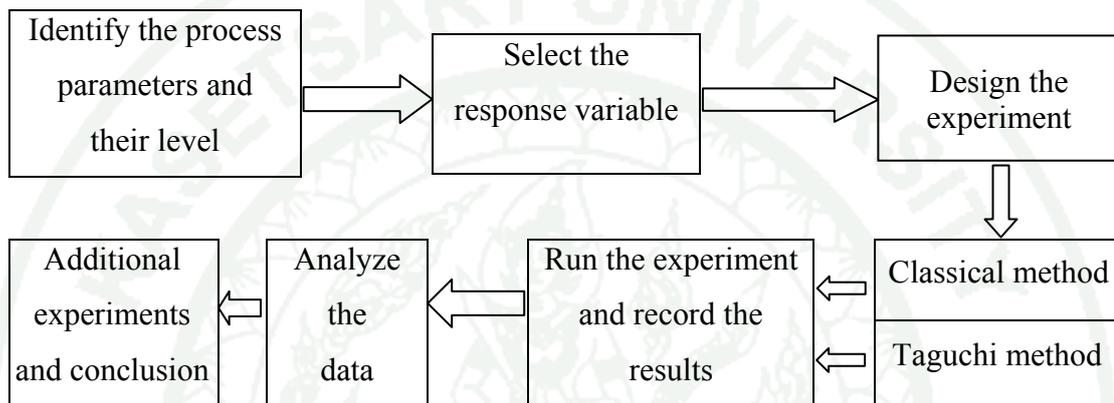
$$\text{Target value is the better} \quad S/N_t = 10 \cdot \text{Log} (y^{\text{---}2}/s^2) \quad (9)$$

Taguchi design $L_{18} (2^1 3^7)$

In order to evaluate the performance of the Taguchi methods, based on 11 degrees of freedom determined from the number of the control factor and their corresponding number of levels, a Taguchi design $L_{18} (2^1 3^7)$ was selected for the inner array. 18 experiments were carried out employing the orthogonal array $L_{18} (2^1 3^7)$ to investigate the effect of 3 factors Time (sec), Temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), Tension (% of ultimate tensile strength). Interaction between Time (sec) and the other factors was inserted into the array and was used to examine the interaction between Time (sec) and Tension, Time and Temperature, Tension and Temperature which was set at Table 9.

Table 9 Taguchi experimental design plan

Control Factors	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
Time (sec)	15	25	
Temperature (°C)	350	375	400
Tension (kgf)	30%UTS	40%UTS	50% UTS

**Figure 7** Designed experiment sequence

9. The Design of the Experimental Stress Relief Unit

The process of designing the unit followed the standard design process steps:

- Requirement
- Preliminary design
- Review
- Detailed design
- Fabrication
- Verification
- Implementation

The requirement was for a machine that mimics the stress- relieving properties of the production line. These properties are as follows:

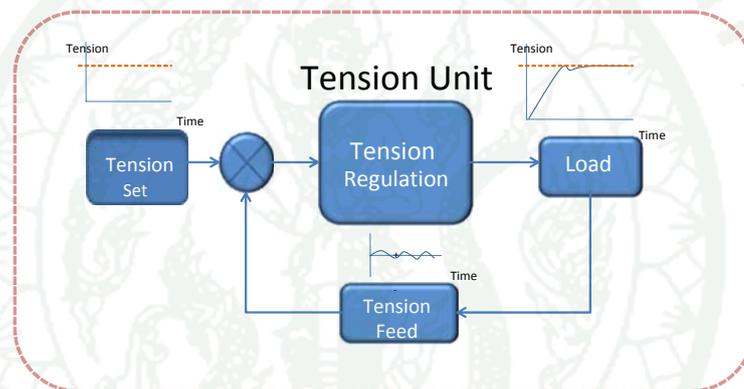
- Setting temperature at 300-400°C

- Setting tension at 1-101970 kgf
- Line speed 80-420 m/min

The preliminary design necessitates independent units for setting temperature and tension and a control unit for both of them. Settings should be constant, irrespective of changes to the other.

The design of the tension unit is shown in figure 8 below.

Figure 8
Schematic
the tension
The
equipment
for the tension unit is as follows:



design of
unit
required

- Tension Regulation and Power
 - Motor
 - Gear
 - Drive AC Inverter
- Tension Feedback
 - Load cell
 - Load signal amplifier and indicator

Please note that the feedback equipment concerns measurement and the calibration has to be checked for accuracy by a recognized third party.

The design of the temperature unit is shown in figure 9 below.

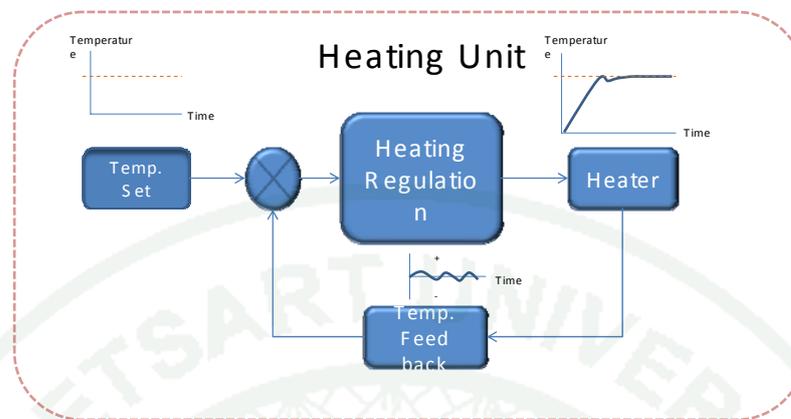


Figure 9 Schematic design of the Temperature Unit

The equipment required for the temperature unit is as follows:

- Heating
 - Coil heater
 - Power regulator
- Heating signal feedback
 - Thermocouple
 - Temperature signal amplifier and indicator

Please note that the feedback equipment concerns measurement and the calibration has to be checked for accuracy by a recognized third party.

In addition, a timer is required that is automatically activated when both temperature and tension conditions have been reached. This equipment also has to be checked for accuracy by a third party.

The detailed flowchart of the experimental stress relief unit is shown in figure 10, and a schematic diagram of the process in figure 11.

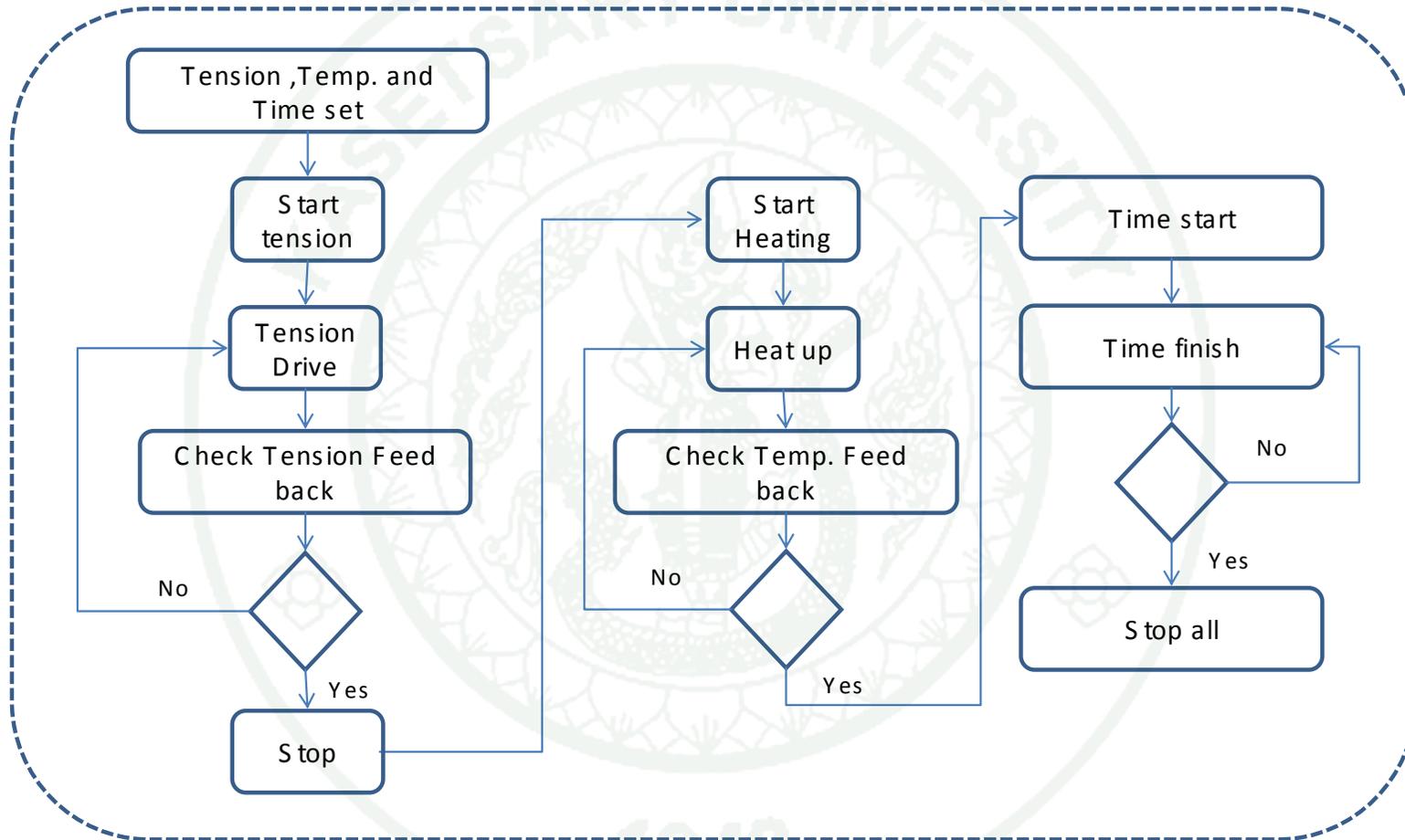


Figure 10 Flow chart of the operation of the experimental stress relief unit

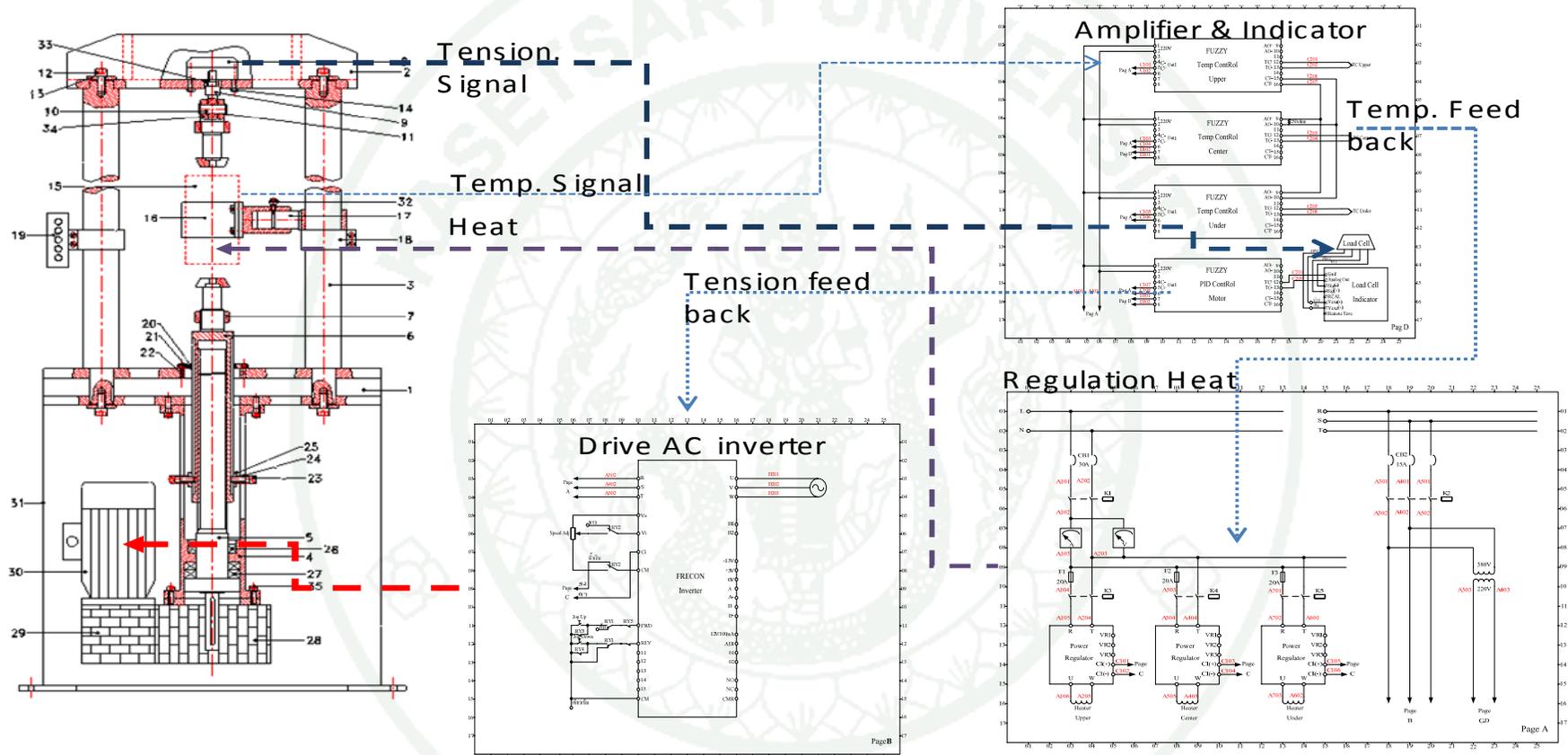


Figure 11 Schematic diagram of the experimental stress relief unit

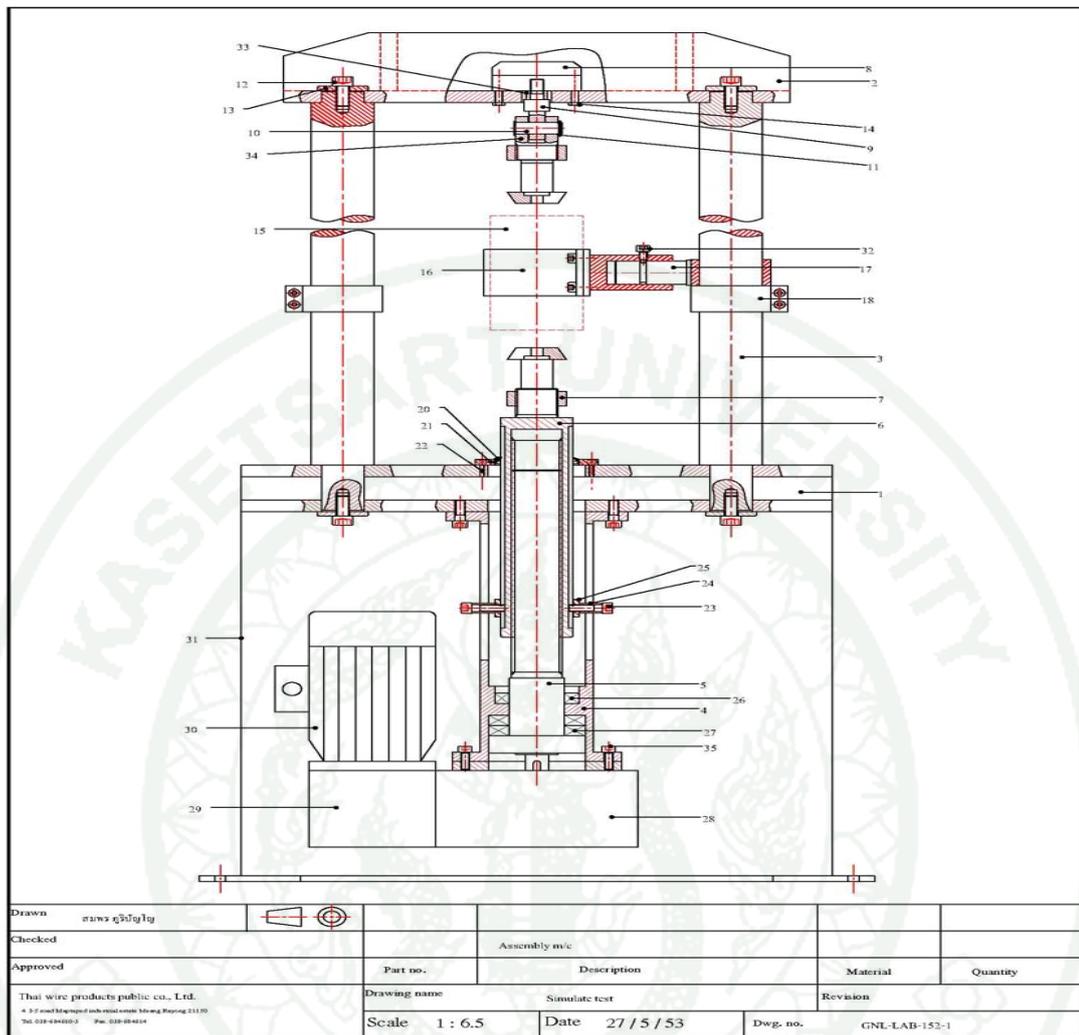


Figure 12 Drawing of the machine designed specifically for this study

35	Socket head cap screw M12*30	Standard	6		
34	Joint	6582	1		
33	Bush load cell	Mild steel	1		
32	Adjust screw M10*20	Standard	1		
31	Base	Mild steel	1		
30	AC motor 3.7 Kw 380 V	Standard	1		
29	Reduce gear 1:10	Standard	1		
28	Reduce gear 1:60	Standard	1		
27	Bearing 51313	FAG	2		
26	Bearing 6013 2RS	SKF	1		
25	Screw lock	Mild steel	1		
24	Bush pull nut	Brass	4		
23	Socket head cap screw M12*40	Standard	4		
22	Socket head cap screw M6*20	Standard	4		
21	Seal cover	Mild steel	1		
20	Seal 100*85*7	-	1		
18	Column clamp	Mild steel	1		
17	Adjust pin	Mild steel	1		
16	Heater clamp	Mild steel	1		
15	Heater 4 Kw. 220 V.	-	1		
14	Hexagon bolt BSW. 5/16"*2.5"	Standard	8		
13	Spacer ϕ 60*8	Mild steel	4		
12	Socket head cap screw M16*35	Standard	4		
11	Snap ring ϕ 20 MM.	Standard	1		
10	Pin	scm4	1		
9	Load cell connector	6582	1		
8	Load cell Interface 50 Kn.	Standard	1		
7	Grip hoder	6582	2		
6	Pull nut S 60*4	6582	1		
5	Shaft screw S 60*4	6582	1		
4	Housing bearing	scm4	1		
3	Column	Mild steel	2		
Drawn Somporn Phuripunyo		2	Upper plate	Mild steel	1
Checked		1	Lower plate	Mild steel	1
Approved	Part no.	Description	Material	Quantity	
Thai wire products public co., Ltd. 4 I-5 road Maptlapud industrial estate Muang Rayong 21150 Tel. 038-684610-3 Fax. 038-684614	Drawing name	Simulate test	Revision		
	Scale	Date 27 / 5 / 53	Dwg. no.	GNL-LAB-152	

Figure 13 List of parts required for assembly of machine depicted in Figure 8



Figure 14 Picture showing the machine designed and built especially for this study

1943



Figure 15 Machinery used in the procedure to test the relaxation of wire after the stress-relieving procedure



Figure 16 Machinery used in the procedure to test the tensile strength and yield strength of wire after the stress-relieving procedure

Locations and Time Duration

The detailed locations and duration of conducting this research are as follows:

May 2004 – September 2004 : Literature survey at Kasetsart University, Bangkok , Thailand.

January 2005 – December 2006 : Literature survey, write and submit thesis proposal, at Kasetsart University, Bangkok, Thailand and Conduct research, at Thai Wire Products Public Company Limited, Bangkok, Thailand.

January 2007 – December 2009 : Conduct research, at Thai Wire Products Public Company Limited and write The Thesis, final defense at Kasetsart University, Bangkok, Thailand.

EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS AND MATHEMATICAL MODELLING

Preliminary experiments

Two different analysis methods were used, namely the Classical and Taguchi methods, to ascertain the effects of process parameters on the stress-relieving process. First, the effect of stress relieving treatment conditions on the quality of high tensile steel wire is analyzed by using the Classical Method. The results of the 54 experimental conditions are shown in Table 12.

1. Using the classical method

Table 11 Legend result of the experiment factors

Runs: 54		Replicates: 3	
Factor	Type	Levels	Values
Time	fixed	2	15 25 sec
Tension	fixed	3	30 40 50 % UTS
Temperature	fixed	3	350 375 400°C

Table 12 The properties of steel wire after stress relieving treatments

Number of treatments	Factors control and level			Results			
	Run	Time	Tension	Temperature	Tensile strength	Yield strength	Elongation
	1	15	30	350	192.68	179.42	6.7
	2	15	30	375	191.12	171.62	4.3
	3	15	30	400	187.22	163.81	7.2
	4	15	40	350	191.12	175.52	4.9
	5	15	40	375	191.66	173.18	4.7

Table 12 (Continued)

Number of treatments	Factors control and level			Results			
	Run	Time	Tension	Temperature	Tensile strength	Yield strength	Elongation
	6	15	40	400	187.37	165.37	7.2
	7	15	50	350	190.88	175.52	8.6
	8	15	50	375	188.54	171.62	4.7
	9	15	50	400	188.15	169.67	6.6
	10	25	30	350	193.22	177.47	6.7
	11	25	30	375	190.10	171.62	3.9
	12	25	30	400	189.71	171.62	6.3
	13	25	40	350	190.88	173.18	7.0
	14	25	40	375	191.90	173.57	4.6
	15	25	40	400	182.93	160.69	5.9
	16	25	50	350	191.12	173.57	6.7
	17	25	50	375	191.12	173.57	4.5
	18	25	50	400	191.66	175.52	6.5
	19	15	30	350	191.51	177.47	6.8
	20	15	30	375	192.68	175.52	4.5
	21	15	30	400	189.56	167.71	7.2
	22	15	40	350	193.22	183.32	4.8
	23	15	40	375	192.68	175.52	4.8
	24	15	40	400	186.98	165.37	7.1
	25	15	50	350	192.29	173.57	8.6
	26	15	50	375	191.12	175.52	5.4
	27	15	50	400	185.03	167.71	6.4
	28	25	30	350	192.68	179.42	6.8
	29	25	30	375	189.95	171.62	3.9
	30	25	30	400	191.90	175.52	7.0
	31	25	40	350	191.66	177.86	6.9
	32	25	40	375	190.73	171.62	5.1

Table 12 (Continued)

Number of treatments	Factors control and level			Results			
	Run	Time	Tension	Temperature	Tensile strength	Yield strength	Elongation
	33	25	40	400	184.88	163.81	7.0
	34	25	50	350	192.68	179.42	6.8
	35	25	50	375	188.78	171.62	4.5
	36	25	50	400	181.91	165.76	6.1
	37	15	30	350	192.29	175.52	7.1
	38	15	30	375	193.07	175.52	4.5
	39	15	30	400	188.15	167.71	7.2
	40	15	40	350	192.68	175.52	4.9
	41	15	40	375	191.51	175.52	4.8
	42	15	40	400	186.98	162.25	7.1
	43	15	50	350	187.61	171.62	8.2
	44	15	50	375	192.44	177.47	4.7
	45	15	50	400	182.15	165.76	5.5
	46	25	30	350	191.51	177.47	6.7
	47	25	30	375	191.90	173.57	4.2
	48	25	30	400	188.54	165.76	7.7
	49	25	40	350	193.07	179.42	6.7
	50	25	40	375	189.71	171.62	5.0
	51	25	40	400	185.66	163.81	7.2
	52	25	50	350	192.05	173.57	7.2
	53	25	50	375	188.54	171.62	4
	54	25	50	400	189.95	173.57	6.7

1.1 Effect of stress relieving treatments on tensile strength

The Tensile strength is the maximum load under which the test piece can withstand the tension test. Tensile strength is important because it can be used to estimate the incremental tensile strength of a wire resulting from heat treatment, deformation and strain hardening during drawing.

Table 13 Analysis of Variance for Tensile strength

Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	P
Time	1	0.070	0.070	0.070	0.02	0.887
Tension	2	29.462	29.462	14.731	4.27	0.022
Temperature	2	224.107	224.107	112.054	32.45	0.000
Time*Tension	2	14.224	14.224	7.112	2.06	0.142
Time*Temperature	2	10.933	10.933	5.467	1.58	0.219
Tension*Temperature	4	21.015	21.015	5.254	1.52	0.217
Time*Tension*Temperature	4	13.933	13.933	3.483	1.01	0.416
Error	36	124.330	124.330	3.454		
Total	53	438.075				

Table 13 shows that in the experiments for tensile strength the influential factors are tension and temperature which have p-values equal to 0.022 and 0.000. Tension was influential with 95% confidence and temperature was influential with 99% confidence.

The main effects plot (Figure 17) shows that tensile strength decreased when both temperature and tension are increased. It also shows that the maximum increase in strength occurs with temperature at 350°C and tension at 30%. Tensile strength begins to fall with temperatures over 350°C and tensions over 30%.

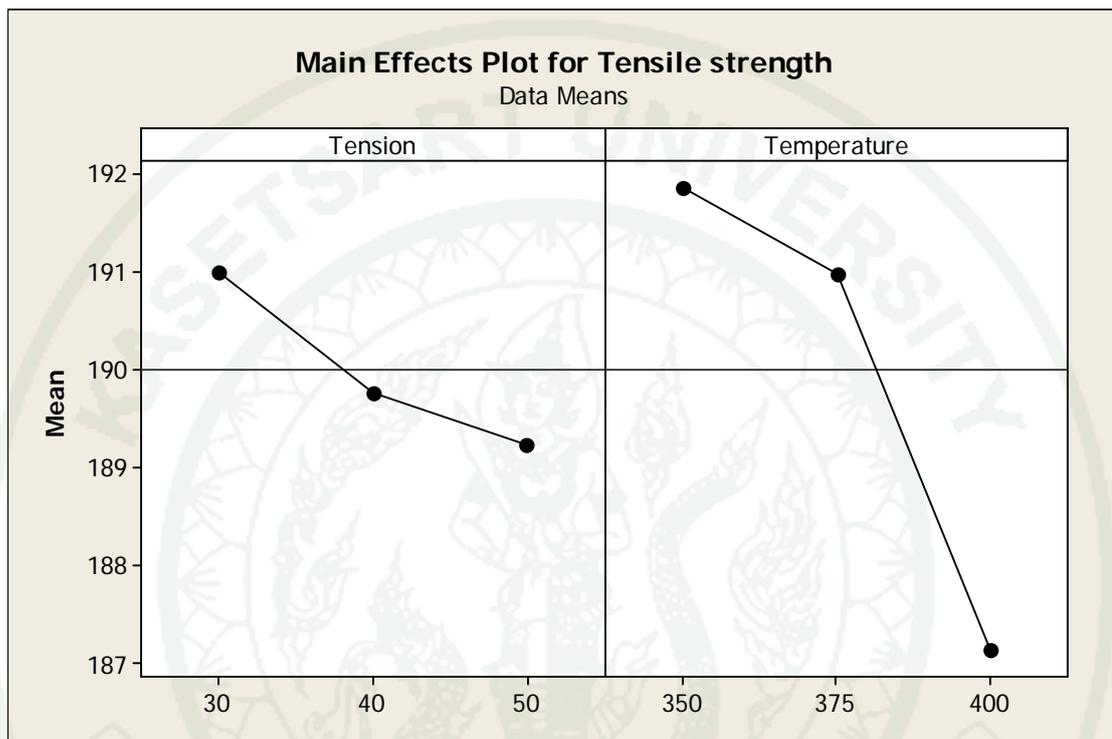


Figure 17 Main Effects of tension and temperature on tensile strength

The pronounced effect of temperature is clearly shown by the contour surface in figure 18. The effect of tension is shown to be much less pronounced.

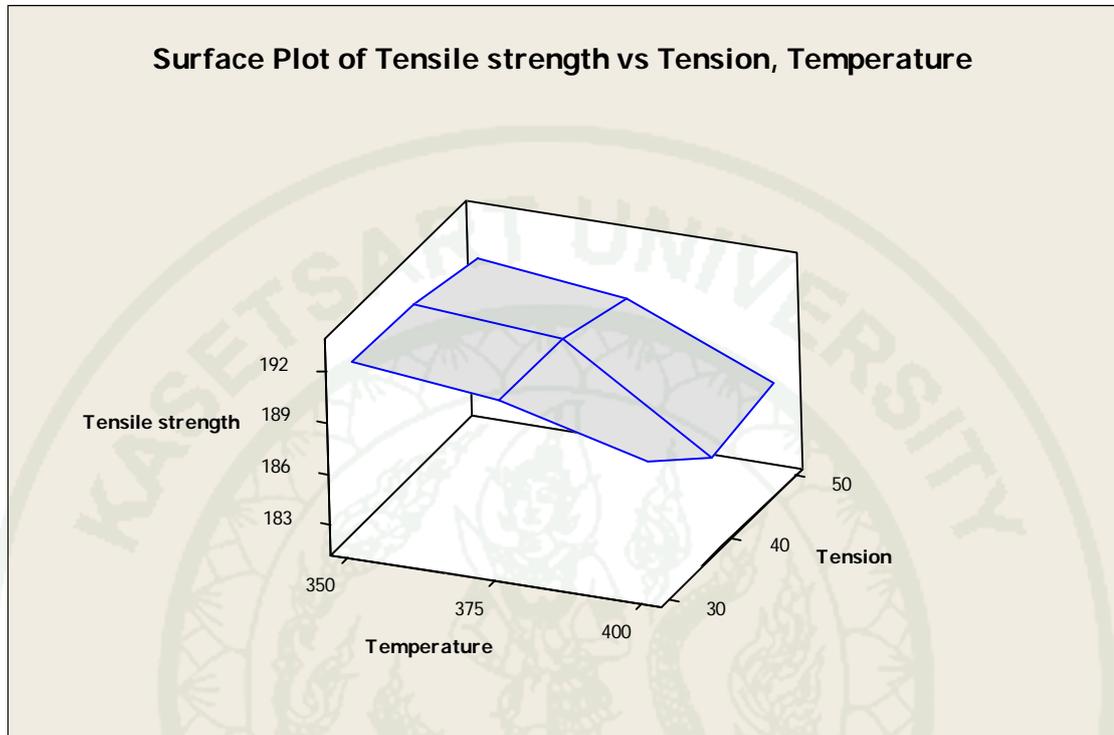


Figure 18 Response surface for interaction effect of tension and temperature on tensile strength

Overall, we can conclude that with temperature at 350°C, the most beneficial results for tensile strength can be observed.

1.2 Effect of Stress Relieving Treatment on Yield strength

Yield strength testing involves taking a sample with a fixed cross sectional area, and then pulling it with a controlled, gradually increasing force until the sample changes shape. Longitudinal and/or transverse strain is recorded using mechanical or optical extensometers.

Table 14 Analysis of Variance for Yield strength

Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	P
Time	1	0.228	0.228	0.228	0.03	0.863
Tension	2	27.610	27.610	13.805	1.82	0.177
Temperature	2	804.196	804.196	402.098	52.92	0.000
Time*Tension	2	24.545	24.545	12.272	1.62	0.213
Time*Temperature	2	49.005	49.005	24.502	3.22	0.051
Tension*Temperature	4	140.534	140.534	35.134	4.62	0.004
Time*Tension*Temperature	4	17.631	17.631	4.408	0.58	0.679
Error	36	273.540	273.540	7.598		
Total	53	1337.289				

Table 14 shows that in the experiments for yield strength the influential factors are temperature and the interaction between tension and temperature which have p-values equal to 0.000 and 0.004 and confidence levels of 99% and 95% respectively

The Main effects plot for temperature (figure 19) clearly shows that yield strength decreases as temperature is increases.

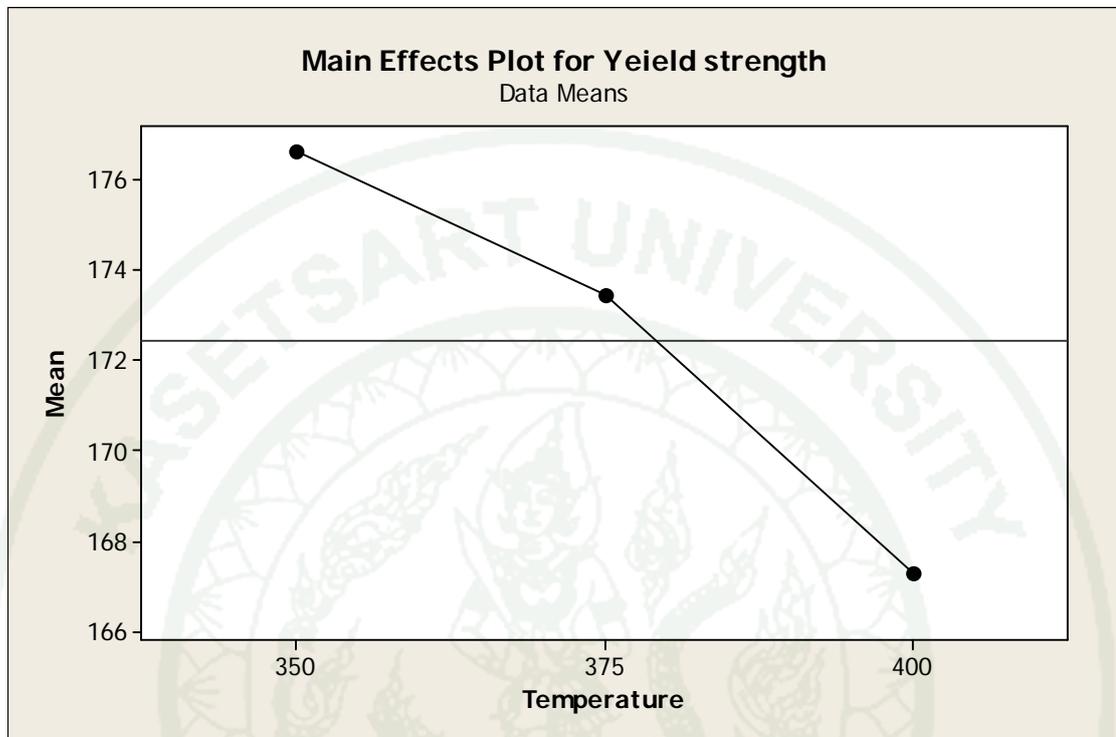


Figure 19 Main effects of temperature on yield strength

The interaction effects plot (figure 20) confirms that yield strength decreases when the temperature is increased. Yield stresses tend to be effected positively by stress relieving and will increase by 3 to 5% at a temperature of 350°C and tension set at 40%. When temperature is over 350°C, the yield stresses drop gradually until 375°C and then drop sharply thereafter. With tension set between 30% and 40% and temperature at 350°C, the yield stresses increased 5%.

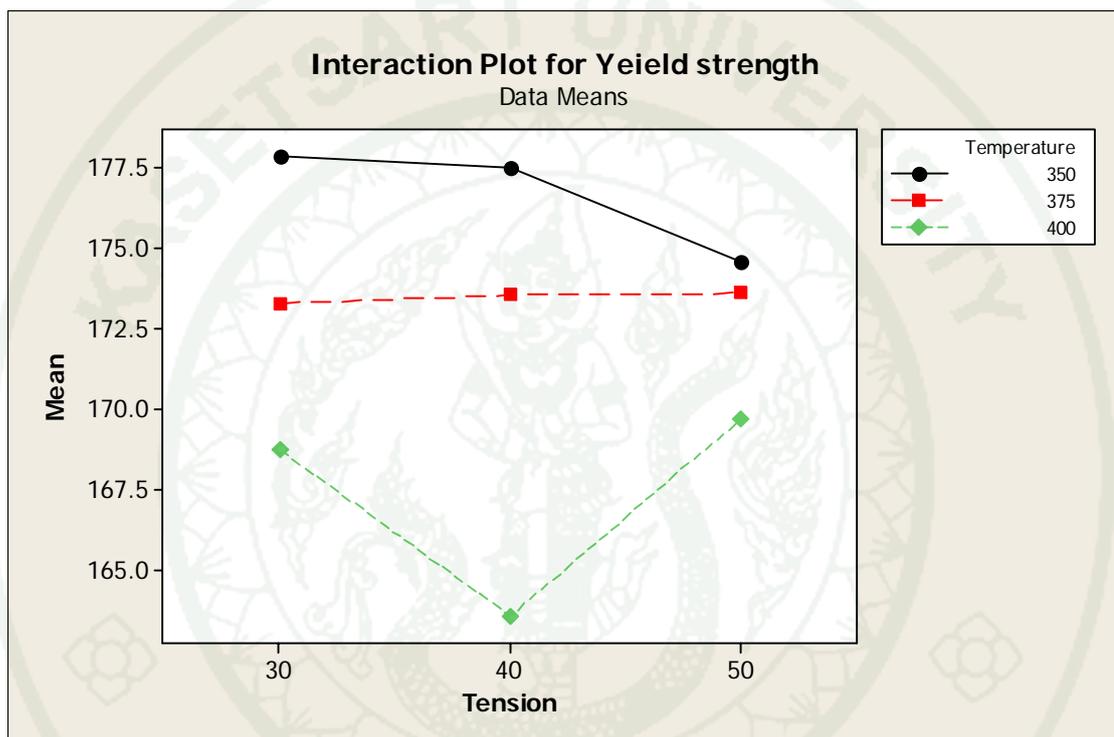


Figure 20 Interaction effects of tension and temperature on yield strength

The contour surface shown in figure 21 confirms that yield strength is maximized with tension and temperature set at the lower limits of 30% and 350°C respectively. At higher temperatures, yield strength decreases irrespective of the effect of tension.

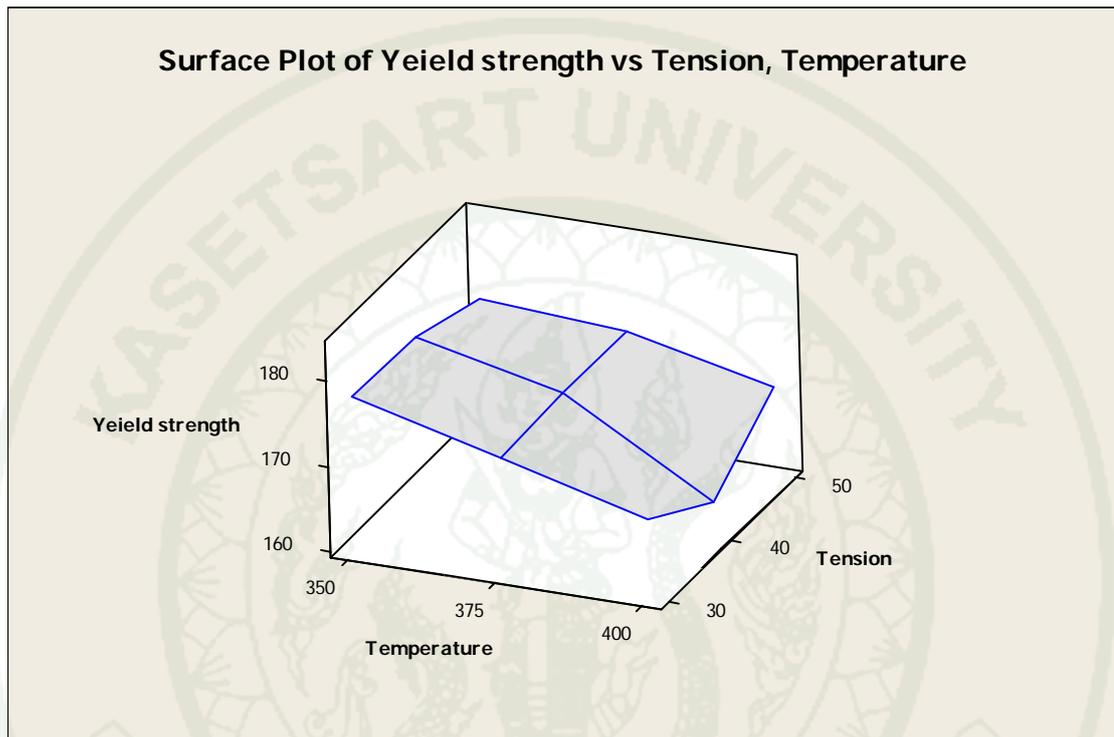


Figure 21 Response surface for interaction effect of tension and temperature on yield strength

Overall, we can conclude that temperature is the most significant factor effecting yield strength. Yield strength is maximized with set at 350°C. Tension should be held at 30% or 40%.

1.3 Effect of Stress Relieving Treatments on Elongation

Elongation is the difference between the gauge length and the gauge length with load applied, expressed as a percentage of the original gauge length.

Table 15 Analysis of Variance for Elongation

Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	P
Time	1	0.5807	0.5807	0.5807	3.23	0.081
Tension	2	0.3700	0.3700	0.1850	1.03	0.368
Temperature	2	63.2544	63.2544	31.6272	175.71	0.000
Time*Tension	2	1.8381	1.8381	0.9191	5.11	0.011
Time*Temperature	2	0.0715	0.0715	0.0357	0.20	0.821
Tension*Temperature	4	8.6889	8.6889	2.1722	12.07	0.000
Time*Tension*Temperature	4	4.3296	4.3296	1.0824	6.01	0.001
Error	36	6.4800	6.4800	0.1800		
Total	53	85.6133				

Table 15 shows that in the experiments for elongation the influential factors are temperature, the interaction effect of tension and temperature, and interaction effect of time and tension which have p-values equal to 0.000, 0.000, and 0.011 and confidence levels of 99%, 99%, and 95% respectively.

It is accepted widely that three factor interaction effects may be ignored (Montgomery, 2001).

Figure 22 depicts the main effects of temperature on elongation. It can be seen that the amount of elongation is at its highest point at a temperature of 350°C. When the temperature is increased to 375°C, elongation falls sharply and then increases sharply when the temperature is 400°C. However, this latter increase still results in a lower figure for elongation than that at 350°C.

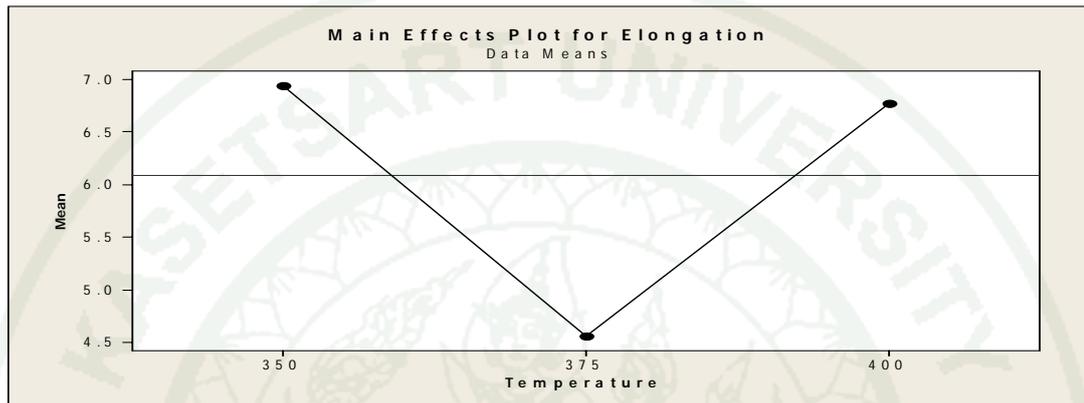


Figure 22 Main effects of temperature on elongation

The interaction effects of temperature and tension are shown in figure 23. It can be seen the effects closely resemble the effect of just temperature (figure 24), but that elongation is maximized when tension is set at the highest level.

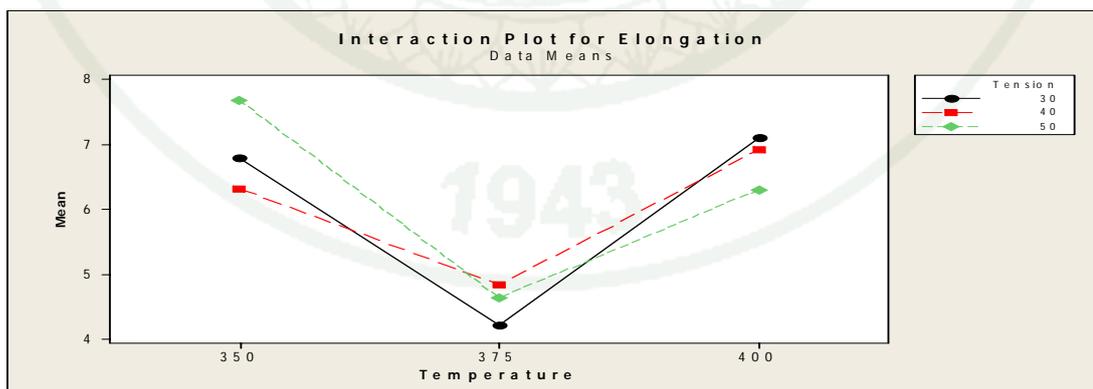


Figure 23 Interaction effects of tension and temperature on elongation

The interaction effects of time and tension are shown in figure 24. It can be seen that elongation improves significantly when tension is set at the high point of 50 and time is restricted to 15 seconds. Strangely, when time is increased to 25 seconds the effects are inverted, but elongation remains low throughout.

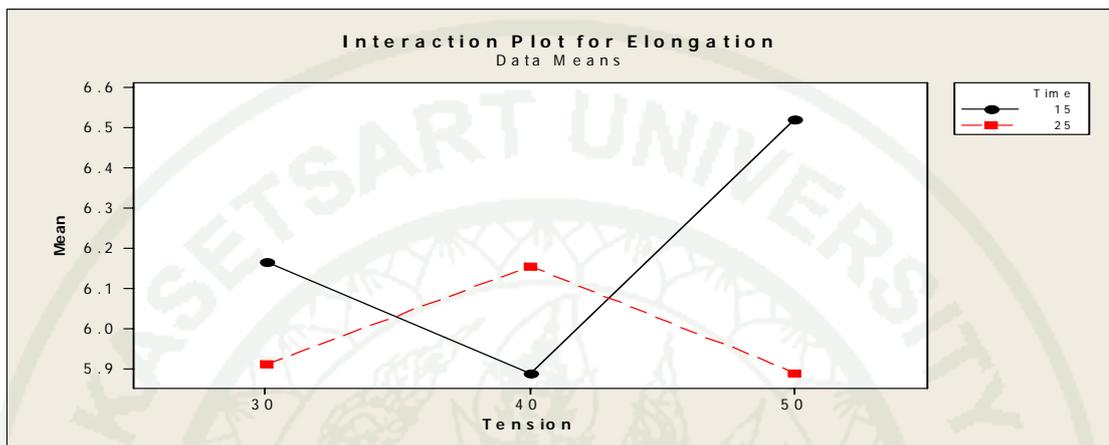


Figure 24 Interaction effects plot of time and tension on elongation

The experiments reveal that elongation is maximized when temperature is set at the lower limit of 350°C and tension is set at the higher limit of 50 and time restricted to 15 seconds.

1.4 Effect of Stress Relieving Treatments on Relaxation

Specimens with a length of 1.2 m from each group have been placed in to a 30 tons capacity machine chamber with 20°C temperature control precision. Experiments are conducted with Shimusu relaxation test equipment for 1000 hr. The load to be applied during the test is set at 80% of the tensile strength of each specimen. Three variables, time, tension, and temperature, are used in the experiments to measure relaxation. The results of these experiments are shown in table 16.

Table 16 Results of the experiment % Relaxation

Number of treatments Run	Factors control and levels			Results % Relax
	Time	Tension	Temp	
1	15	30	350	5.72
2	15	30	375	6.98
3	15	30	400	7.78
4	15	40	350	4.55
5	15	40	375	4.83
6	15	40	400	6.32
7	15	50	350	3.17
8	15	50	375	3.99
9	15	50	400	4.22
10	25	30	350	6.5
11	25	30	375	7.08
12	25	30	400	7.23
13	25	40	350	5.31
14	25	40	375	4.73
15	25	40	400	5.05
16	25	50	350	4.27
17	25	50	375	3.78
18	25	50	400	4.7
19	15	30	350	5.79
20	15	30	375	6.11
21	15	30	400	6.18
22	15	40	350	4.4
23	15	40	375	5.22
24	15	40	400	6.19
25	15	50	350	3.05
26	15	50	375	3.78
27	15	50	400	3.32

Table 16 (Continued)

Number of treatments	Factors control and levels			Results
	Run	Time	Tension	Temp
28	25	30	350	6.2
29	25	30	375	7.42
30	25	30	400	7.47
31	25	40	350	5.77
32	25	40	375	4.88
33	25	40	400	5.65
34	25	50	350	3.62
35	25	50	375	3.49
36	25	50	400	3

ANOVA analysis is used to study the results (table 17).

Table 17 Analysis of Variance for % Relaxation

Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	P
Time	1	0.3501	0.3501	0.3501	1.35	0.260
Tension	2	54.3311	54.3311	27.1655	104.75	0.000
Temperature	2	2.5582	2.5582	1.2791	4.93	0.020
Time*Tension	2	0.8315	0.8315	0.4158	1.60	0.229
Time*Temperature	2	1.0640	1.0640	0.5320	2.05	0.158
Tension*Temperature	4	1.9240	1.9240	0.4810	1.85	0.162
Time*Tension*Temperature	4	0.6951	0.6951	0.1738	0.67	0.621
Error	18	4.6679	4.6679	0.2593		
Total	35	66.4218				

ANOVA reveals that, in the experiments for relaxation, the influential factors are tension and temperature, which have p-values equal to 0.000 and 0.020 and hence confidence levels of 99% and 95% respectively.

The main effects of tension on relaxation are shown in figure 25. It can be seen that there is a steady decrease in relaxation as tension increases.

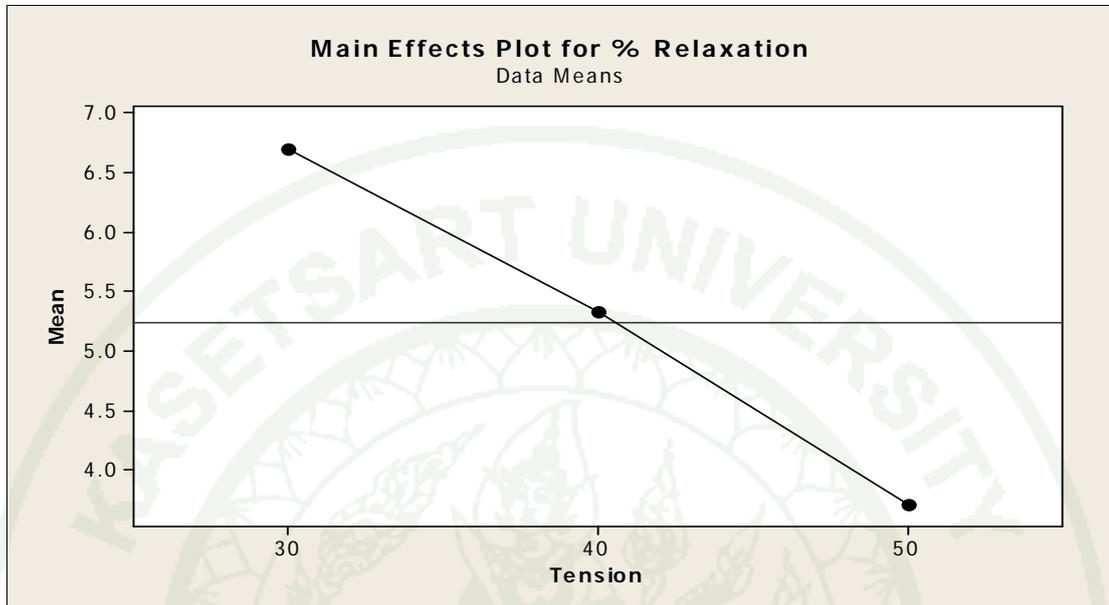


Figure 25 Main effects of tension on relaxation

Figure 26 shows the main effects of temperature on relaxation. From this, it is clear that relaxation increases with the increases in temperature.

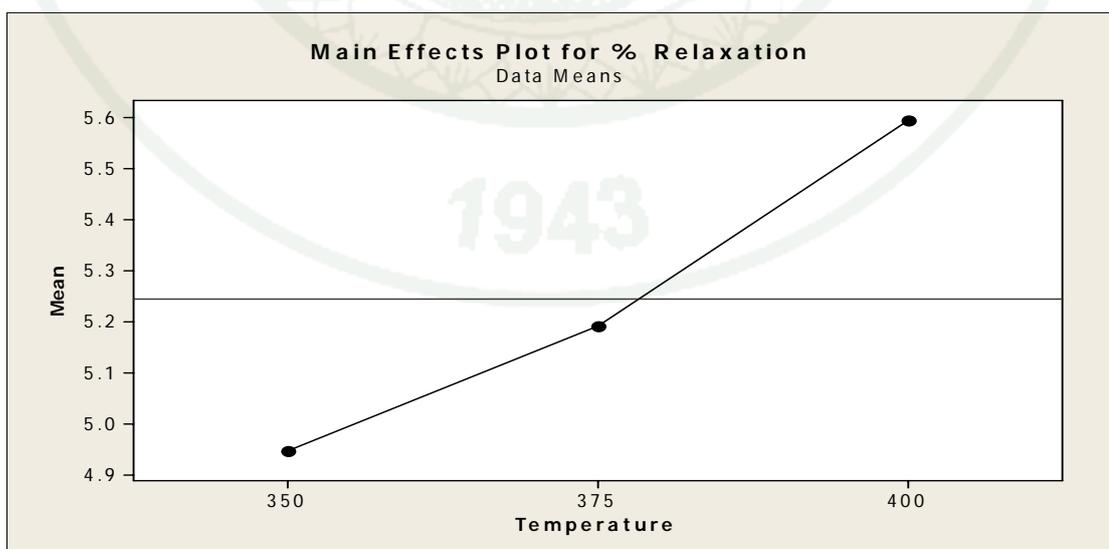
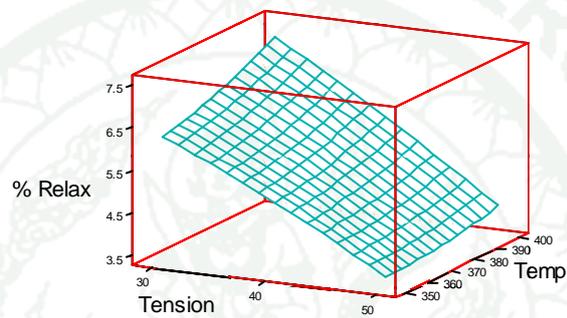


Figure 26 Main effects of temperature on relaxation

When we plot the results for both tension and temperature three dimensionally in figure 27, the positive effects of these stress relieving treatments can be clearly seen. It is evident from the contour surface that relaxation is at a maximum of about 7.5%, when tension is at the lower limit of 30% and temperature is at the higher limit of 400°C. Conversely, it is at a minimum when tension is at its higher limit and temperature is at its lower limit. Furthermore, it can be seen that the tension parameter has the greatest effect on relaxation. Decreases of between 2% and 3% can be achieved with tension set at tension 50%.



Hold values: Time: 20.0

Figure 27 Response surface for the effects of both tension and temperature on relaxation

2. Analysis of Results by using the Taguchi method

To ascertain the effects of process parameters on the stress-relieving process, this study employed two different analysis methods, namely the Classical and Taguchi methods. In section 1, the Classical method was discussed. In section 2, the Taguchi Method is used to analyse the effects of stress relieving treatments on the quality of high tensile steel wire.

Table 18 Legend for the experiment factors

Runs:	18	Replicates:	3
Factor	Type	Levels	Values
Time (A) (sec)	fixed	2	15 25
Tension (B)%UTS	fixed	3	30 40 50
Temperature (°C.)	fixed	3	350 375 400
Factor Levels:			
Time (A)	A1 = 15, A2 = 25		
Tension (B)	B1= 30, B2 = 40, B3 = 50		
Temperature (°C.)	C1=350, C2 = 375, C3 = 400		

Tensile strength (Kg). Larger is better

The formula for signal to noise is: $S/N_L = -10 \cdot \text{Log} (\sum_{i=1}^n 1/y_i^2)/n$

2.1 Effect of stress relieving treatments on tensile strength.

The results of the experiments and the subsequent ANOVA are shown in table 20.

Table 19 The averages S/N tensile strength larger is better

Run	Time (A)	Tension (B)	A*B	Temp (C)	A*C	B*C	N1	N2	N3	S/N
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	192.68	191.51	192.29	45.67
2	1	1	1	2	2	2	191.12	192.68	193.07	45.67
3	1	1	1	3	3	3	187.22	189.56	188.16	45.49
4	1	2	2	1	1	2	191.12	193.23	192.68	45.68
5	1	2	2	2	2	3	191.67	192.68	191.51	45.66
6	1	2	2	3	3	1	187.38	186.99	186.99	45.44
7	1	3	3	1	1	3	190.89	192.29	187.61	45.58
8	1	3	3	2	2	1	188.55	191.12	192.45	45.60
9	1	3	3	3	3	2	188.16	185.04	182.15	45.34
10	2	1	2	1	2	1	193.23	192.68	191.51	45.68
11	2	1	2	2	3	2	190.11	189.95	191.9	45.60
12	2	1	2	3	1	3	189.72	191.9	188.55	45.57
13	2	2	3	1	2	2	190.89	191.67	193.07	45.66
14	2	2	3	2	3	3	191.9	190.73	189.72	45.61
15	2	2	3	3	1	1	182.93	184.88	185.66	45.31
16	2	3	1	1	2	3	191.12	192.68	192.06	45.66
17	2	3	1	2	3	1	191.12	188.78	188.55	45.55
18	2	3	1	3	1	2	191.67	181.92	189.95	45.46

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Table 20 Analysis of variance for S/N ratios

Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	P
Time(A)	1	0.000061	0.000061	0.000061	0.02	0.883
Tension(B)	2	0.021425	0.021425	0.010712	4.33	0.100
Temperature(C)	2	0.159813	0.159813	0.079906	32.30	0.003
Time(A)*Tension(B)	2	0.010043	0.010043	0.005021	2.03	0.246
Time(A)*Temperature(C)	2	0.007399	0.007399	0.003699	1.50	0.327
Tension(B)*Temperature(C)	4	0.014985	0.014985	0.003746	1.51	0.349
Residual Error	4	0.009896	0.009896	0.002474		
Total	17	0.223622				

The SN ratios for the three factors, time, tension, and temperature, are summarized in table 21, which shows that temperature and tension are the most influential factors.

Table 21 Main effects for S/N ratios: tensile strength response table for signal to noise ratios larger is better

Level	Time (A)	Tension (B)	Temp (C)
1	45.58	45.62	45.66
2	45.57	45.56	45.62
3	45.54	45.44	
Effect	0.00	0.08	0.22
Rank	3	2	1

Figure 21 shows the effects plots for the three factors, time, tension, and temperature. It can be seen that time has no effect on the mean SN ratio. Temperature has the most effect on the SN ratio, which is at its highest when temperature is at the lower limit of 350°C. Tension also effects the SN ratio when it is set at 30%.

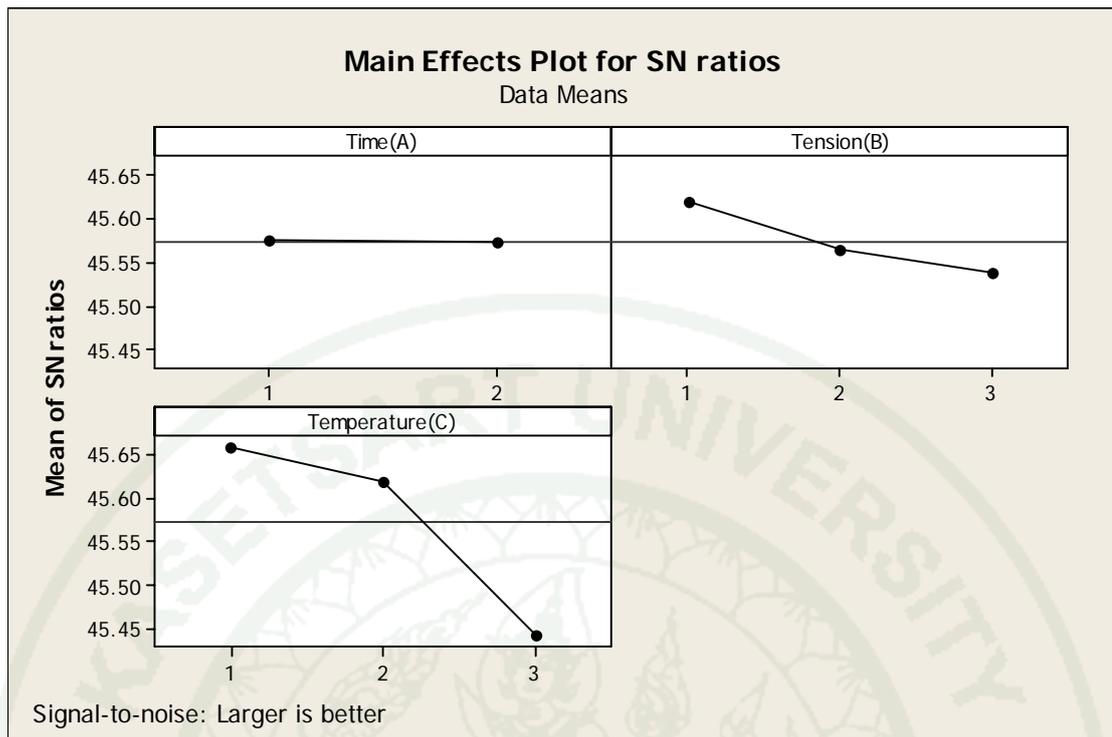


Figure 28 S/N effects of time, tension and temperature on tensile strength

2.2 Effect of stress relieving treatments on yield strength

The experimental design and the results are shown in table 22.

Table 22 Experiment design and data for yield strength

Run	Factors control and levels						N1	N2	N2
	Time (A)	Tension (B)	A*B	Temp (C)	A*C	B*C			
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	179.42	177.47	175.52
2	1	1	1	2	2	2	171.62	175.52	175.52
3	1	1	1	3	3	3	163.82	167.72	167.72
4	1	2	2	1	1	2	175.52	183.32	175.52
5	1	2	2	2	2	3	173.18	175.52	175.52
6	1	2	2	3	3	1	165.38	165.38	162.26

Table 22 (Continued)

Run	Factors control and levels						N1	N2	N2
	Time (A)	Tension (B)	A*B	Temp (C)	A*C	B*C			
7	1	3	3	1	1	3	175.52	173.57	171.62
8	1	3	3	2	2	1	171.62	175.52	177.47
9	1	3	3	3	3	2	169.67	167.72	165.77
10	2	1	2	1	2	1	177.47	179.42	177.47
11	2	1	2	2	3	2	171.62	171.62	173.57
12	2	1	2	3	1	3	171.62	175.52	165.77
13	2	2	3	1	2	2	173.18	177.86	179.42
14	2	2	3	2	3	3	173.57	171.62	171.62
15	2	2	3	3	1	1	160.70	163.82	163.82
16	2	3	1	1	2	3	173.57	179.42	173.57
17	2	3	1	2	3	1	173.57	171.62	171.62
18	2	3	1	3	1	2	175.52	165.77	173.57

The resulting SN ratios are calculated and shown in table 23, and the ANOVA results, which show that temperature and the interaction of temperature and tension are the most significant factors, are shown in table 24.

Table 23 The S/N yield strength for each row larger is better

Run	Time (A)	Tension (B)	A*B	Temp (C)	A*C	B*C	N1	N2	N3	S/N
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	179.42	177.47	175.52	44.982
2	1	1	1	2	2	2	171.62	175.52	175.52	44.821
3	1	1	1	3	3	3	163.82	167.72	167.72	44.423
4	1	2	2	1	1	2	175.52	183.32	175.52	45.009
5	1	2	2	2	2	3	173.18	175.52	175.52	44.847
6	1	2	2	3	3	1	165.38	165.38	162.26	44.314
7	1	3	3	1	1	3	175.52	173.57	171.62	44.788
8	1	3	3	2	2	1	171.62	175.52	177.47	44.852
9	1	3	3	3	3	2	169.67	167.72	165.77	44.491
10	2	1	2	1	2	1	177.47	179.42	177.47	45.014
11	2	1	2	2	3	2	171.62	171.62	173.57	44.724
12	2	1	2	3	1	3	171.62	175.52	165.77	44.651
13	2	2	3	1	2	2	173.18	177.86	179.42	44.948
14	2	2	3	2	3	3	173.57	171.62	171.62	44.724
15	2	2	3	3	1	1	160.7	163.82	163.82	44.231
16	2	3	1	1	2	3	173.57	179.42	173.57	44.883
17	2	3	1	2	3	1	173.57	171.62	171.62	44.724
18	2	3	1	3	1	2	175.52	165.77	173.57	44.683

Table 24 Analysis of variance for S/N ratios

Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	P
Time (A)	1	0.000179	0.000179	0.000179	0.05	0.838
Tension (B)	2	0.025071	0.025071	0.012535	3.34	0.140
Temperature(C)	2	0.693939	0.693939	0.346969	92.50	0.000
Time (A)*Tension (B)	2	0.020514	0.020514	0.010257	2.73	0.178
Time (A)*Temperature (C)	2	0.039864	0.039864	0.019932	5.31	0.075
Tension (B)*Temperature (C)	4	0.120695	0.120695	0.030174	8.04	0.034
Residual Error	4	0.015004	0.015004	0.003751		
Total	17	0.915265				

In table 25, the response table for SN ratios is shown for the three factors, time, tension, and temperature. Temperature has the greatest effect on the SN ratio, tension has little, and time none whatsoever. These effects can be clearly seen in the figure that follows (figure 29).

Table 25 Response table for signal to noise ratios yield strength larger is better

Level	Time (A)	Tension (B)	Temperature (C)
1	44.73	44.77	44.94
2	44.73	44.68	44.78
3	44.74	44.47	
Effect	0.00	0.09	0.47
Rank	3	2	1

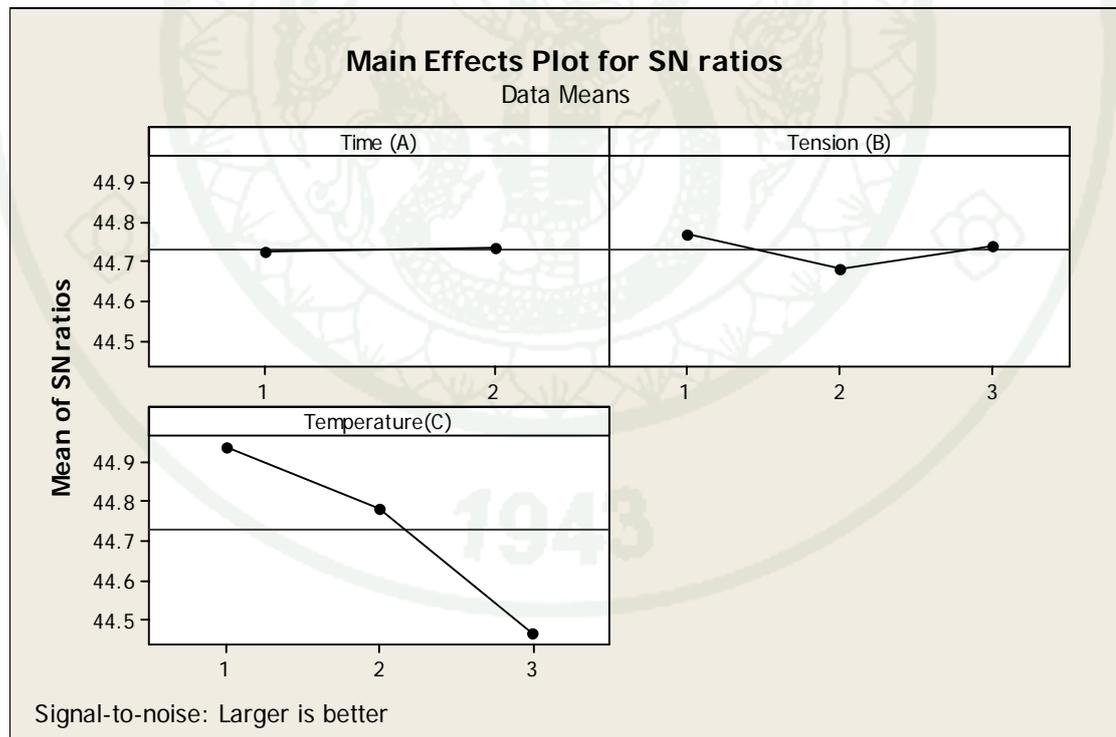


Figure 29 S/N ratio effects of time, tension, and temperature on yield strength

The interaction effects of tension and temperature are shown in figure 30. The plot confirms that temperature is by the most influential with the highest SN ratios recorded at 350°C, irrespective of the tension setting. The most beneficial tension settings at this temperature are at 30 and 40%.

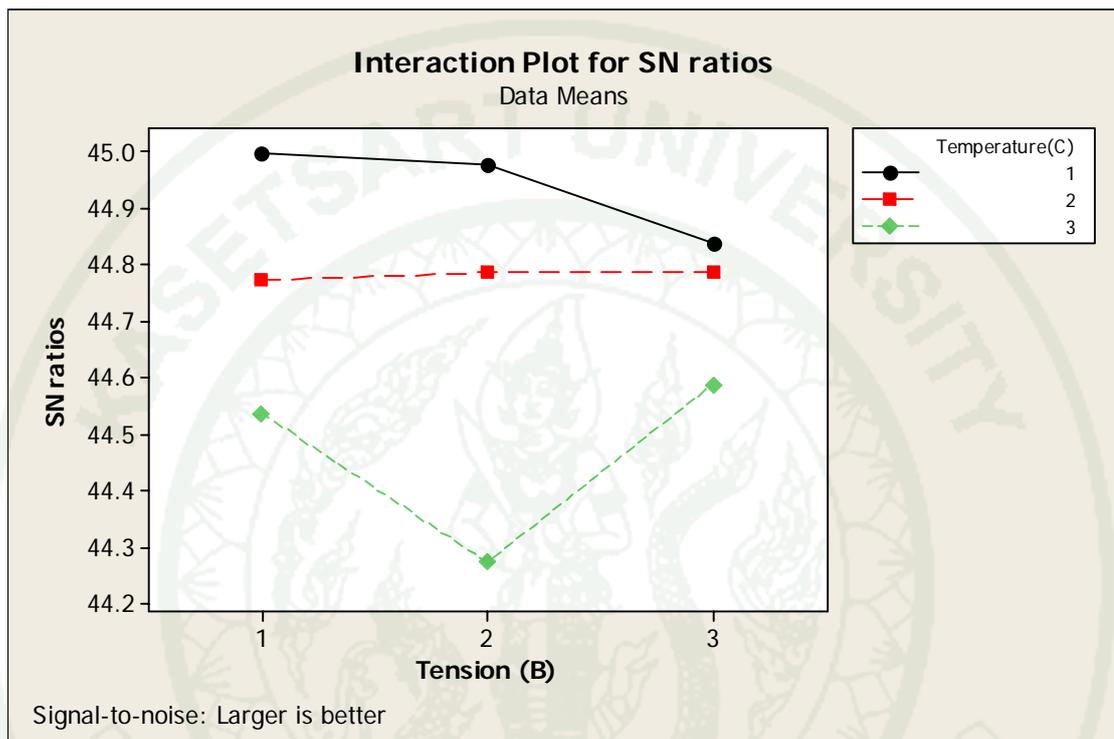


Figure 30 Interaction effects of tension and temperature on yield strength

2.3 Effect of stress relieving treatments on elongation

The experimental design and the results are shown in table 26.

Table 26 Experiment design and data for elongation

Factors control and levels									
Run	Time (A)	Tension (B)	A*B	Temp (C)	A*C	B*C	Elong N1	Elong N2	Elong N3
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	6.8	6.8	7
2	1	1	1	2	2	2	4.4	4.5	4.5
3	1	1	1	3	3	3	7.3	7.2	7.2
4	1	2	2	1	1	2	5.5	5	6
5	1	2	2	2	2	3	4.7	4.7	4.7
6	1	2	2	3	3	1	7.1	7.1	7.1
7	1	3	3	1	1	3	8.6	8.6	8.4
8	1	3	3	2	2	1	4.6	5.6	4.7
9	1	3	3	3	3	2	6.5	6.5	5.5
10	2	1	2	1	2	1	6.7	6.8	6.6
11	2	1	2	2	3	2	3.9	3.9	3.9
12	2	1	2	3	1	3	6.5	7	7.7
13	2	2	3	1	2	2	7	7	6.7
14	2	2	3	2	3	3	5	5.1	5
15	2	2	3	3	1	1	6	7.1	7.2
16	2	3	1	1	2	3	6.6	6.8	7.1
17	2	3	1	2	3	1	4.5	4.5	4.2
18	2	3	1	3	1	2	6.4	6.2	6.6

The resulting SN ratios are calculated and shown in table 27, and the ANOVA results, which show that temperature is the most significant factor, are shown in table 28.

Table 27 S/N for each row elongation - larger is better

Run	Time (A)	Tension (B)	A*B	Temp (C)	A*C	B*C	Elong	Elong	Elong	S/N
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	6.8	6.8	7	16.73
2	1	1	1	2	2	2	4.4	4.5	4.5	13.00
3	1	1	1	3	3	3	7.3	7.2	7.2	17.19
4	1	2	2	1	1	2	5.5	5	6	14.74
5	1	2	2	2	2	3	4.7	4.7	4.7	13.44
6	1	2	2	3	3	1	7.1	7.1	7.1	17.03
7	1	3	3	1	1	3	8.6	8.6	8.4	18.62
8	1	3	3	2	2	1	4.6	5.6	4.7	13.82
9	1	3	3	3	3	2	6.5	6.5	5.5	15.72
10	2	1	2	1	2	1	6.7	6.8	6.6	16.52
11	2	1	2	2	3	2	3.9	3.9	3.9	11.82
12	2	1	2	3	1	3	6.5	7	7.7	16.92
13	2	2	3	1	2	2	7	7	6.7	16.77
14	2	2	3	2	3	3	5	5.1	5	14.04
15	2	2	3	3	1	1	6	7.1	7.2	16.52
16	2	3	1	1	2	3	6.6	6.8	7.1	16.68
17	2	3	1	2	3	1	4.5	4.5	4.2	12.86
18	2	3	1	3	1	2	6.4	6.2	6.6	16.12

Table 28 Analysis of variance for S/N ratios

Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	P
Time(A)	1	0.2319	0.2319	0.2319	0.30	0.614
Tension(B)	2	0.2470	0.2470	0.1235	0.16	0.858
Temperature(C)	2	48.0853	48.0853	24.0426	30.97	0.004
Time(A)*Tension(B)	2	2.0252	2.0252	1.0126	1.30	0.366
Time(A)*Temperature(C)	2	0.1945	0.1945	0.0972	0.13	0.886
Tension(B)*Temperature(C)	4	6.6233	6.6233	1.6558	2.13	0.241
Residual Error	4	3.1053	3.1053	0.7763		
Total	17	60.5125				

In table 29, the response table for SN ratios is shown for the three factors, time, tension, and temperature. Temperature has the greatest effect on the SN ratio, whilst the effect of time and tension are negligible. This can be clearly seen in figure 31.

Table 29 Response table for signal to noise ratios elongation - larger is better

Level	A	B	C
1	15.59	15.36	16.68
2	15.36	15.42	13.16
3	15.64	16.58	
Effect	0.23	0.27	3.51
Rank	3	2	1

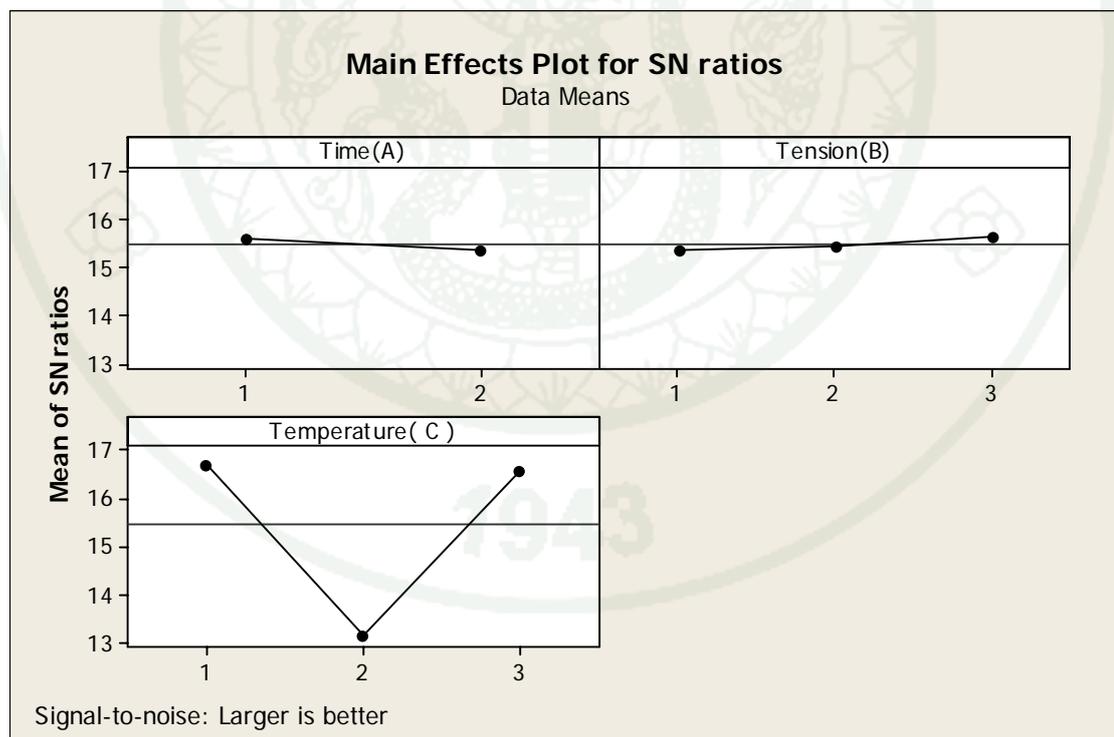


Figure 31 S/N ratio effects of time, tension, and temperature on elongation

2.4 Effect of stress relieving treatments on relaxation

The experimental design and the results of the experiments are shown in table 30.

Table 30 Experiment design and data Relaxation

Run	Factors control and levels						Relax N1	Relax N
	Time (A)	Tension (B)	A*B	Temp (C)	A*C	B*C		
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	5.72	5.79
2	1	1	1	2	2	2	6.98	6.11
3	1	1	1	3	3	3	7.78	6.18
4	1	2	2	1	1	2	4.55	5.4
5	1	2	2	2	2	3	4.83	5.22
6	1	2	2	3	3	1	6.32	6.19
7	1	3	3	1	1	3	3.17	3.05
8	1	3	3	2	2	1	3.99	3.78
9	1	3	3	3	3	2	4.22	3.32
10	2	1	2	1	2	1	6.5	6.2
11	2	1	2	2	3	2	7.08	7.42
12	2	1	2	3	1	3	7.23	7.47
13	2	2	3	1	2	2	5.31	5.77
14	2	2	3	2	3	3	4.73	4.88
15	2	2	3	3	1	1	5.05	5.65
16	2	3	1	1	2	3	4.27	3.62
17	2	3	1	2	3	1	3.78	3.49
18	2	3	1	3	1	2	4.7	3

These results are used to calculate the SN ratios which are shown in table 31 and the analysis of variance is shown in table 32. The latter shows that the influential factors are primarily tension, followed by temperature.

Table 31 S/N for each row relaxation - smaller is the better

Run	Time (A)	Tension (B)	A*B	Temp (C)	A*C	B*C	N1	N2	S/N
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	5.72	5.79	-15.20
2	1	1	1	2	2	2	6.98	6.11	-16.34
3	1	1	1	3	3	3	7.78	6.18	-16.93
4	1	2	2	1	1	2	4.55	5.4	-13.97
5	1	2	2	2	2	3	4.83	5.22	-14.03
6	1	2	2	3	3	1	6.32	6.19	-15.93
7	1	3	3	1	1	3	3.17	3.05	-9.86
8	1	3	3	2	2	1	3.99	3.78	-11.79
9	1	3	3	3	3	2	4.22	3.32	-11.59
10	2	1	2	1	2	1	6.5	6.2	-16.06
11	2	1	2	2	3	2	7.08	7.42	-17.21
12	2	1	2	3	1	3	7.23	7.47	-17.33
13	2	2	3	1	2	2	5.31	5.77	-14.88
14	2	2	3	2	3	3	4.73	4.88	-13.63
15	2	2	3	3	1	1	5.05	5.65	-14.58
16	2	3	1	1	2	3	4.27	3.62	-11.95
17	2	3	1	2	3	1	3.78	3.49	-11.22
18	2	3	1	3	1	2	4.7	3	-11.92

Table 32 Analysis of variance for S/N ratios

Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	P
Time(A)	1	0.5479	0.5479	0.5479	1.84	0.247
Tension(B)	2	80.0071	80.0071	40.0035	134.02	0.000
Temp(c)	2	3.4547	3.4547	1.7273	5.79	0.066
Time(A)*Tension(B)	2	0.8854	0.8854	0.4427	1.48	0.330
Time(A)*Temp(c)	2	2.0024	2.0024	1.0012	3.35	0.140
Tension(B)*Temp(c)	4	1.8033	1.8033	0.4508	1.51	0.350
Residual Error	4	1.1940	1.1940	0.2985		
Total	17	89.8948				

In table 33, the response table for SN ratios is shown for the three factors, time, tension, and temperature. Tension has the greatest effect on the SN ratio, followed by temperature. The effect of time is negligible. This can be seen graphically in figure 32.

Table 33 Response table for signal to noise ratios relaxation - smaller is better

Level	Time (A)	Tension (B)	Temp (C)
1	-13.96	-16.51	-13.65
2	-14.31	-14.50	-14.04
3	-11.39	-14.71	
Effect	0.35	5.12	1.06
Rank	3	1	2

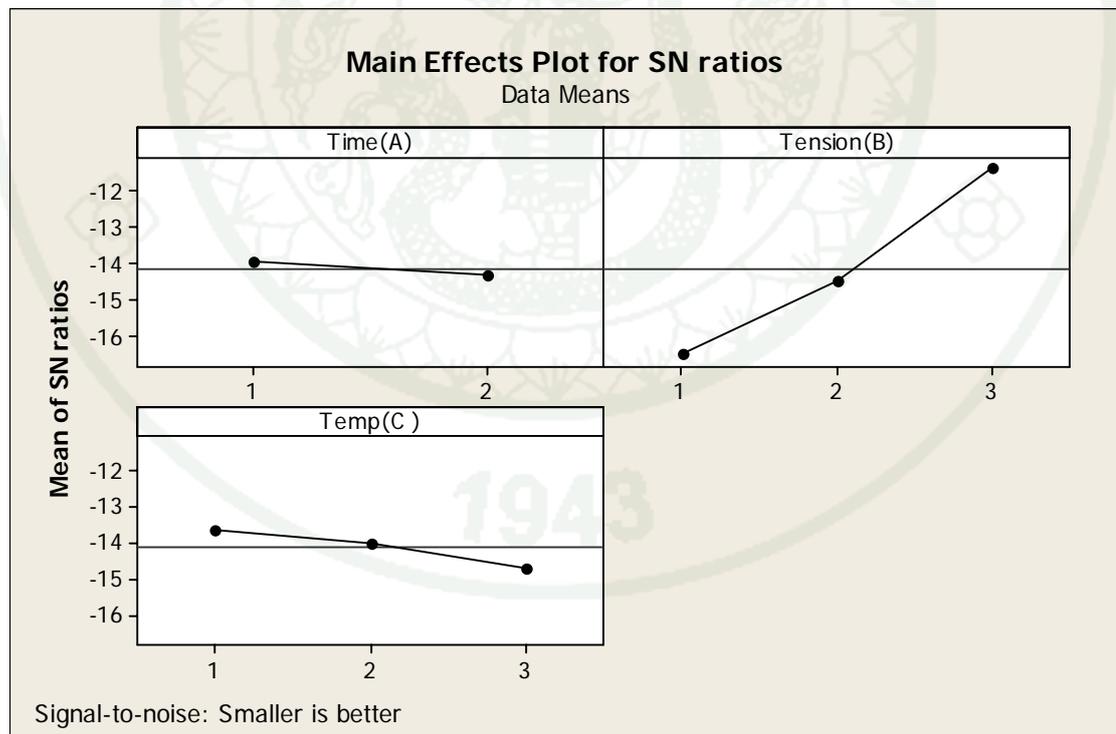


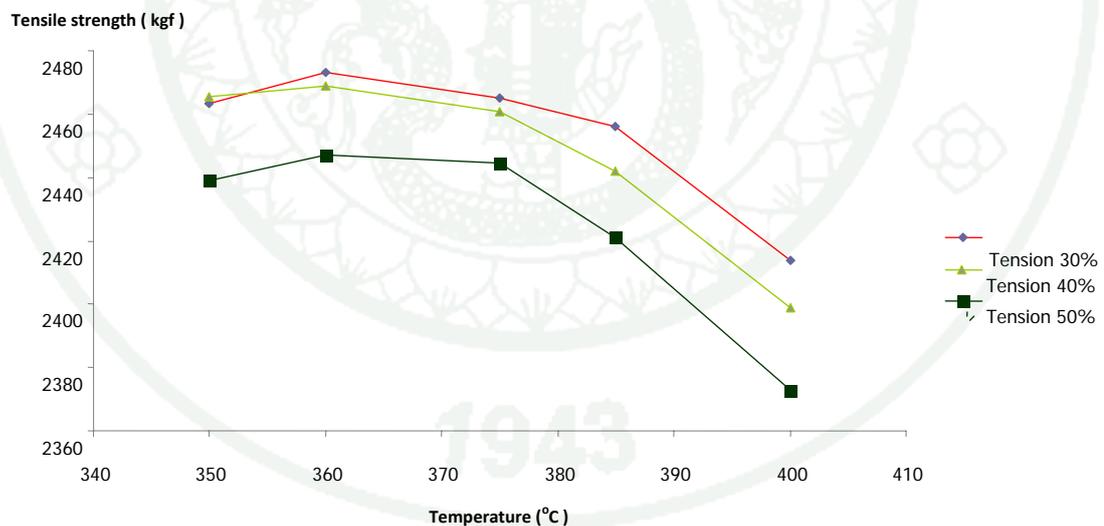
Figure 32 S/N ratio effects of time, tension and temperature on relaxation

3. Additional Experiments

Having conducted and analyzed the initial experiments, temperature was seen to have the most significant effect on the mechanical properties, tensile strength, yield strength, and elongation. Tension had the most significant effect on relaxation. Therefore, additional experiments were designed and conducted (for data, see Appendix B) with an extended range of levels for these two factors.

3.1 The effect of temperature on tensile strength

Figure 33 shows the direct effect of temperature on tensile strength. Five temperature points are now shown for the original three tension levels. It can be seen that the optimal value for tensile strength is obtained when temperature is set at 360°C and tension at 30. When tension is increased and temperature is increased above 360°C tensile strength decreases.

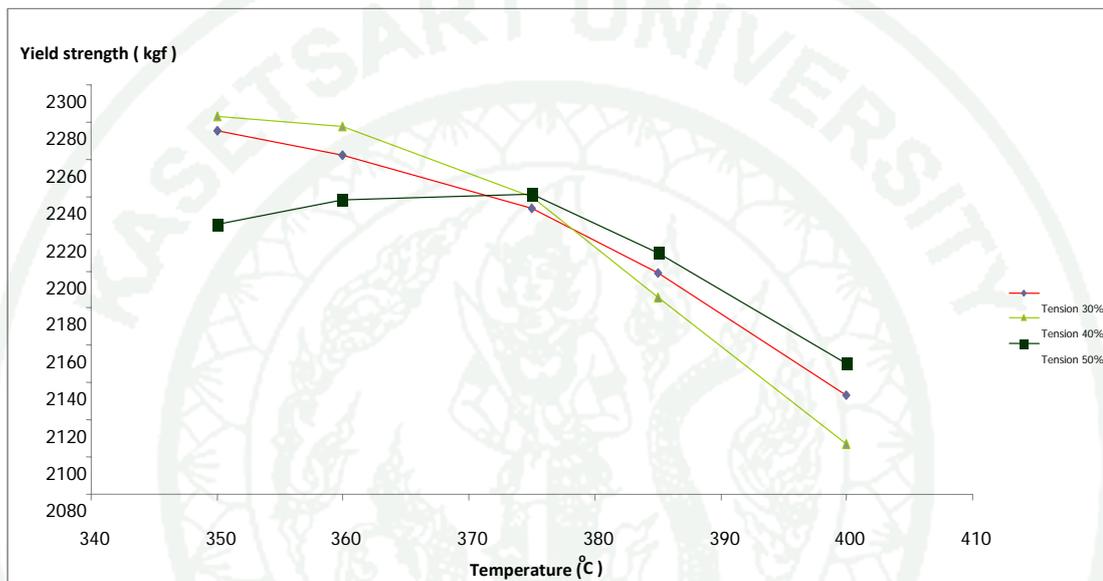


Hold values: Time: 15 sec

Figure 33 Effect of temperature on tensile strength behavior

3.2 Effect of temperature on yield strength

The graph, shown in figure 34, indicates the yield strength at 5 temperature points when three sets of tension are used (30, 40 and 50%). It can be seen that yield strength is optimal when temperature is 375°C and tension is 30%. At higher temperatures, yield strength declines.

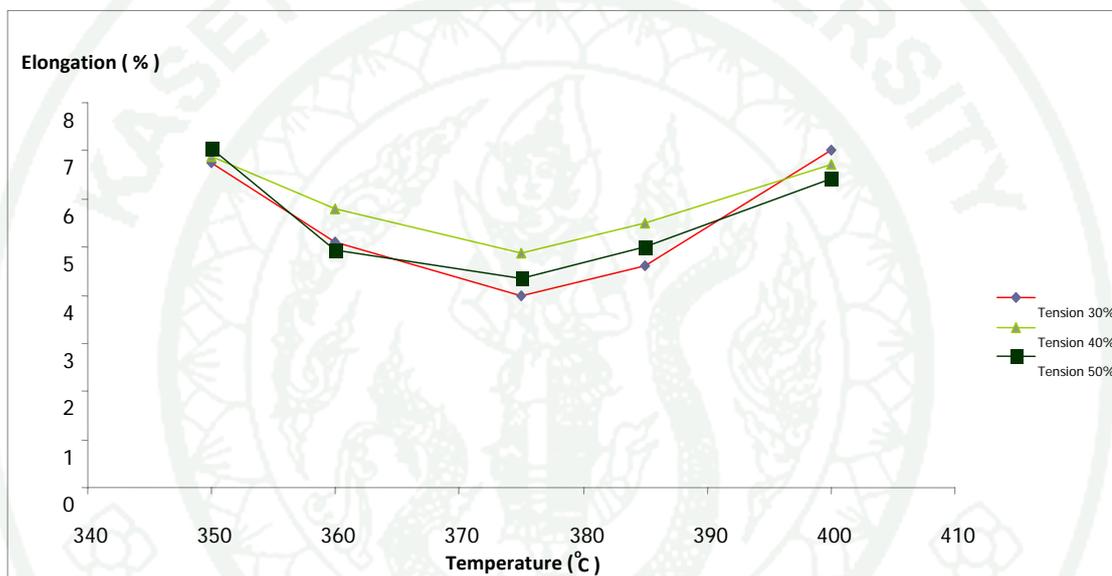


Hold values: Time: 15 sec

Figure 34 Effect of temperature on yield strength behavior

3.3 Effect of temperature on elongation

The graph shown in figure 35 indicates the effects on elongation of temperature under three tension conditions, 30%, 40% and 50%. Elongation is reduced as temperature drops to 375°C and then increases steadily up to 400°C. Optimal elongation values are to be found with temperature at 400°C and tension at 30 or temperature at 350°C and tension at 50%, in other words, either high temperature, low tension or the reverse low temperature and high tension.

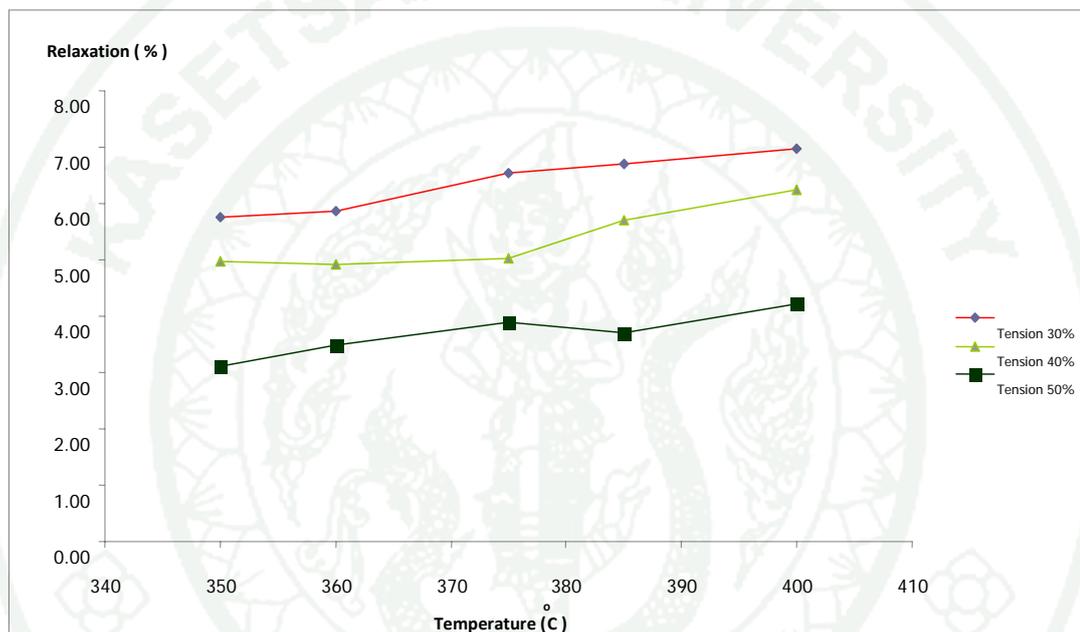


Hold values: Time: 15 sec

Figure 35 Effect of temperature on elongation behavior

3.4 Effect of temperature and tension on relaxation

In figure 36, the relaxation percentage is measured against temperature at three different condition sets (tension at 30, 40 and 50%). It can be seen that tension has a pronounced effect on relaxation, the higher the tension, the lower the relaxation. The effect of temperature is more muted, but the optimal figure for relaxation occurs when tension is 50% and temperature is 350°C.



Hold values: Time: 15 sec

Figure 36 Effect of temperature and tension on relaxation behavior

4. Development of Mathematical Models

Having conducted the experiments, collected the data, identified the influential factors in stress relieving treatments, and conducted additional experiments, we are able to use this information to develop mathematical models. Individual models are constructed for the four desirable properties, namely tensile strength, yield strength, elongation, and relaxation. The statistical program, MINITAB (version 15), is used to analyze the data and produce regression coefficients. Regression analysis on the significant coefficients, having eliminated the less significant coefficients using the t-test, enables a mathematical model to be constructed. The adequacy of the model is tested using the analysis of variance technique (ANOVA). Details are shown in Appendix D.

4.1 Mathematical Model for Tensile Strength

The following mathematical model was determined by regression analysis of the experimental data and then tested for adequacy (for details, see Appendix D):

$$\hat{Y} = -174.351 - 0.301(A) + 0.269(B) + 2.047(C) + 0.002(B^2) - 0.003(C^2) + 0.005(A \times B) - 0.002(B \times C) \quad (10)$$

Where:

- \hat{Y} = Tensile strength
- A = Time and $15 \leq A \leq 25$
- B = Tension and $30 \leq B \leq 50$
- C = Temperature and $350 \leq C \leq 400$

4.2 Mathematical Model for Yield Strength

The following final mathematical model was determined by regression analysis of the experimental data and then tested for adequacy (for details, see Appendix D):

$$\hat{Y} = -11.4403-1.2570(A) - 2.6375(B)+1.5328(C)+ 0.0118(B^2) - 0.0026(C^2) -0.0010(A\times B)+0.0033(A\times C)+ 0.0045(B\times C) \quad (11)$$

Where: \hat{Y} = Yield strength
 A = Time and $15 \leq A \leq 25$
 B = Tension and $30 \leq B \leq 50$
 C = Temperature and $350 \leq C \leq 400$

4.3 Mathematical Model for Elongation

The following final mathematical model was determined by regression analysis of the experimental data and then tested for adequacy (for details, see Appendix D):

$$\hat{Y} = -799.951+1.032B+3.993C-0.004B^2 -0.005C^2 + 0.001(A\times C)-0.002(B\times C) \quad (12)$$

Where: \hat{Y} = Elongation
 A = Time and $15 \leq A \leq 25$
 B = Tension and $30 \leq B \leq 50$
 C = Temperature and $375 \leq C \leq 400$

4.4 Mathematical Model for Relaxation

The following final mathematical model was determined by regression analysis of the experimental data and then tested for adequacy (for details, see Appendix D):

$$\hat{Y} = 6.43347+0.02150(A)-0.14979(B)+ 0.01175(C) \quad (13)$$

Where: \hat{Y} = Relaxation
 A = Time and $15 \leq A \leq 25$
 B = Tension and $30 \leq B \leq 50$
 C = Temperature and $350 \leq C \leq 400$

5. Composite Optimization

Using the response optimization feature of MINITAB, a composite optimum solution can be obtained for predefined input criteria. The predefined criteria are:

- Minimum values as defined by international standards
- The ranking of each property in order of perceived importance, i.e.
 1. Tensile strength
 2. Relaxation
 3. Yield Strength
 4. Elongation

The optimum composite solution indicated by the response optimization feature of MINITAB is shown in table 34.

Table 34 Optimum composite solution for stress relieving treatments

Treatments			Predicted Properties			
Time	Tension	Temperature	Tensile Strength	Yield Strength	Elongation	Relaxation
15	41.3	350	192	177	6.6	3.4

This composite optimum solution is tested in a production setting to compare predicted results against actual results. To eliminate individual variations, five samples are used so that averages can be used for the comparison with the predicted results. The results are shown in tables 35 to 38.

Table 35 Tensile strength - predicted v actual results

Treatments			Results		S. No.
Time	Tension	Temp	Predicted	Actual	
15	41.3	350	192	190	1
				189	2
				189	3
				190	4
				190	5
			Average 189.6		

Table 36 Yield strength - predicted v actual results

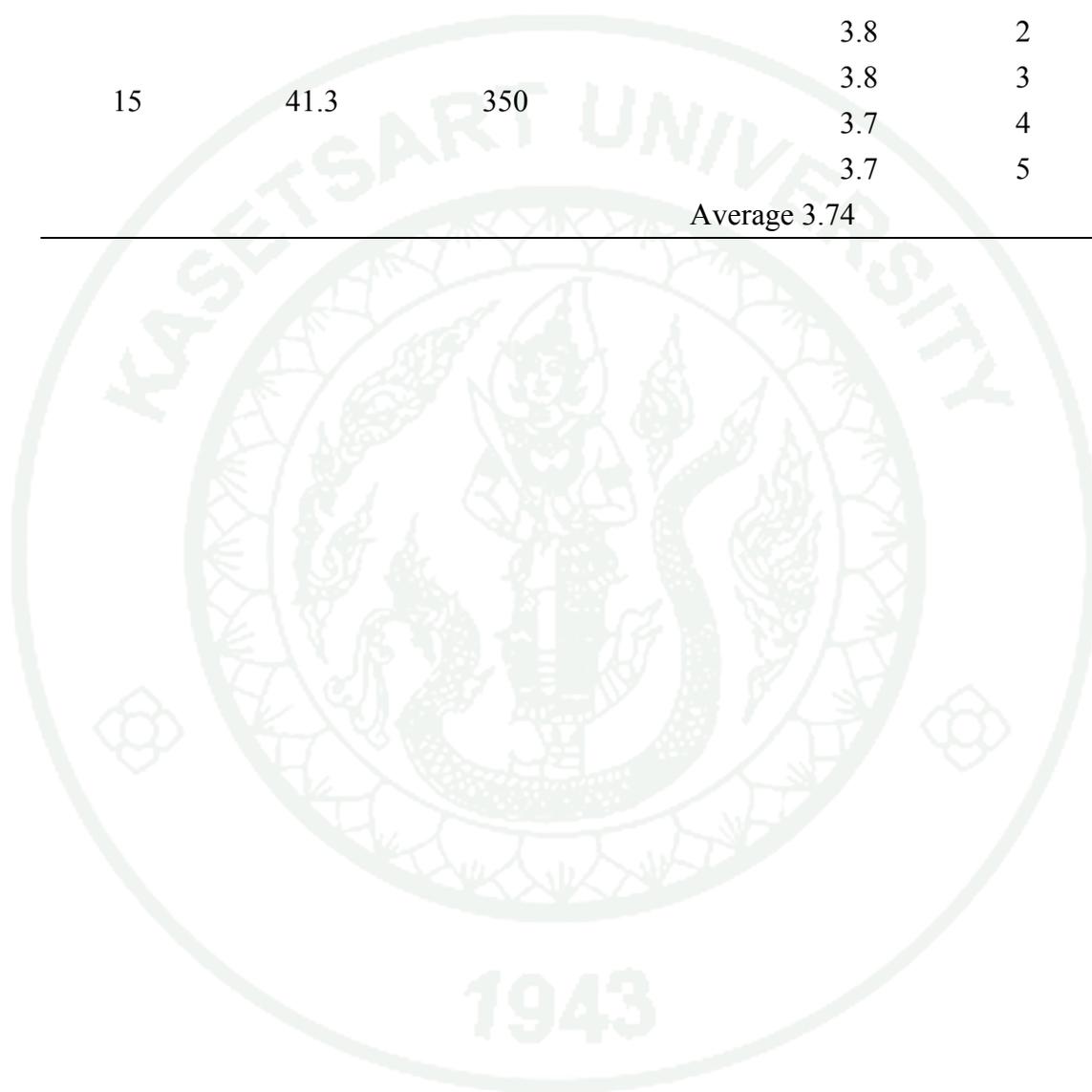
Treatments			Results		S. No
Time	Tension	Temp	Predicted	Actual	
15	41.3	350	177	174	1
				174	2
				175	3
				175	4
				174	5
			Average 174.4		

Table 37 Elongation - predicted v actual results

Treatments			Results		S. No
Time	Tension	Temp	Predicted	Actual	
15	41.3	350	6.6	5.7	1
				5.9	2
				5.8	3
				5.7	4
				5.9	5
			Average 5.80		

Table 38 Relaxation - predicted v actual results

Treatments			Results		S. No
Time	Tension	Temp	Predicted	Actual	
15	41.3	350	3.4	3.7	1
				3.8	2
				3.8	3
				3.7	4
				3.7	5
			Average 3.74		



CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Conclusion

The design and construction of an experimental stress relief unit for high tensile steel wire was critical for the experimental phase of this research project. A large volume of data was required for a wide range of parameter settings. The experimental unit enabled numerous experiments to be conducted without disrupting commercial production. Furthermore, it facilitated the fine-tuning of parameters to be achieved efficiently and economically to obtain a results database. This database is the corner stone of this research and could not have been obtained without a dedicated experimental machine.

Experiments were conducted using both the Classical and the Taguchi method. A comparison of the results was then made (see table 39 below).

Table 39 The comparison between the classical method and taguchi method

Response (Y)	Properties ranked by significance		
	1st	2nd	3rd
Classical method			
1. Tensile strength	Temperature P = 0.000	Tension P = 0.022	Time*Tension P = 0.142
2. Yield strength	Temperature P = 0.000	Tension*Temperature P = 0.004	Time*Temperature P = 0.051
3. Elongation	Temperature P = 0.000	Tension*Temperature P = 0.000	Time*Tension P = 0.011
4. Relaxation	Tension P = 0.000	Temperature P = 0.020	Time*Temperature P = 0.158
Taguchi method			
1. Tensile strength	Temperature P = 0.003	Tension P = 0.100	Time*Tension P = 0.246
2. Yield strength	Temperature P = 0.000	Tension*Temperature P = 0.034	Time*Temperature P = 0.075
3. Elongation	Temperature P = 0.004	Tension*Temperature P = 0.241	Time*Tension P = 0.366
4. Relaxation	Tension P = 0.000	Temperature P = 0.066	Time*Temperature P = 0.148

The degree of significance differs in both methods, with greater certainty being attained with classical method. However, the ranking of the significant parameters that affect the quality of steel wire are identical in both methods. We can conclude, that, given the added complexity involved in using the Classical method, the use the Taguchi method is sufficient for identifying the significant parameters, saving both time and money.

The practical findings of this research project show the effects of stress relieving treatments on the resulting quality of progressively drawn pearlitic steel wire. The main findings are summarized below:

1. Tensile strength is high when temperature is in the low range of 350-370°C and tension is set at the lower range of 30-40%.
2. Yield strength is high when temperature is at 350°C and tension is in the range of 30-40%. After 375°C, yield strength degrades rapidly.
3. Elongation is at it's highest when temperature is either low (300°C) or high (400°C), but is at it's lowest at 375°C, irrespective of tension.
4. Relaxation has a strong inverse relationship with tension being at it's lowest when tension is at it's highest setting (50%).
5. Temperature is the most significant parameter for the mechanical properties of tensile strength, yield strength, and elongation. Lower temperature settings are the most beneficial.
6. Tension has a strong relationship with relaxation.
7. The length of time is not shown to be a significant parameter for enhancing any of the properties.

Mathematical models were also derived from the data and they enable us to predict with varying degrees of certainty the effects of treatments on the properties of steel wire.

Finally, the response optimization feature of MINITAB (version 15) has provided us with a recipe for the highest quality of steel wire, based on the extensive results database of this research study. Testing of the ingredients, i.e. the parameter settings, in a production setting has confirmed the veracity of the predicted properties.

Recommendation

The influence of chemical compositions of samples such as Mn, Cr, etc, should be investigated and the influence of the reduction ratio on wire should be investigated. For future study, the researcher should perform the experiments using this study as base information.

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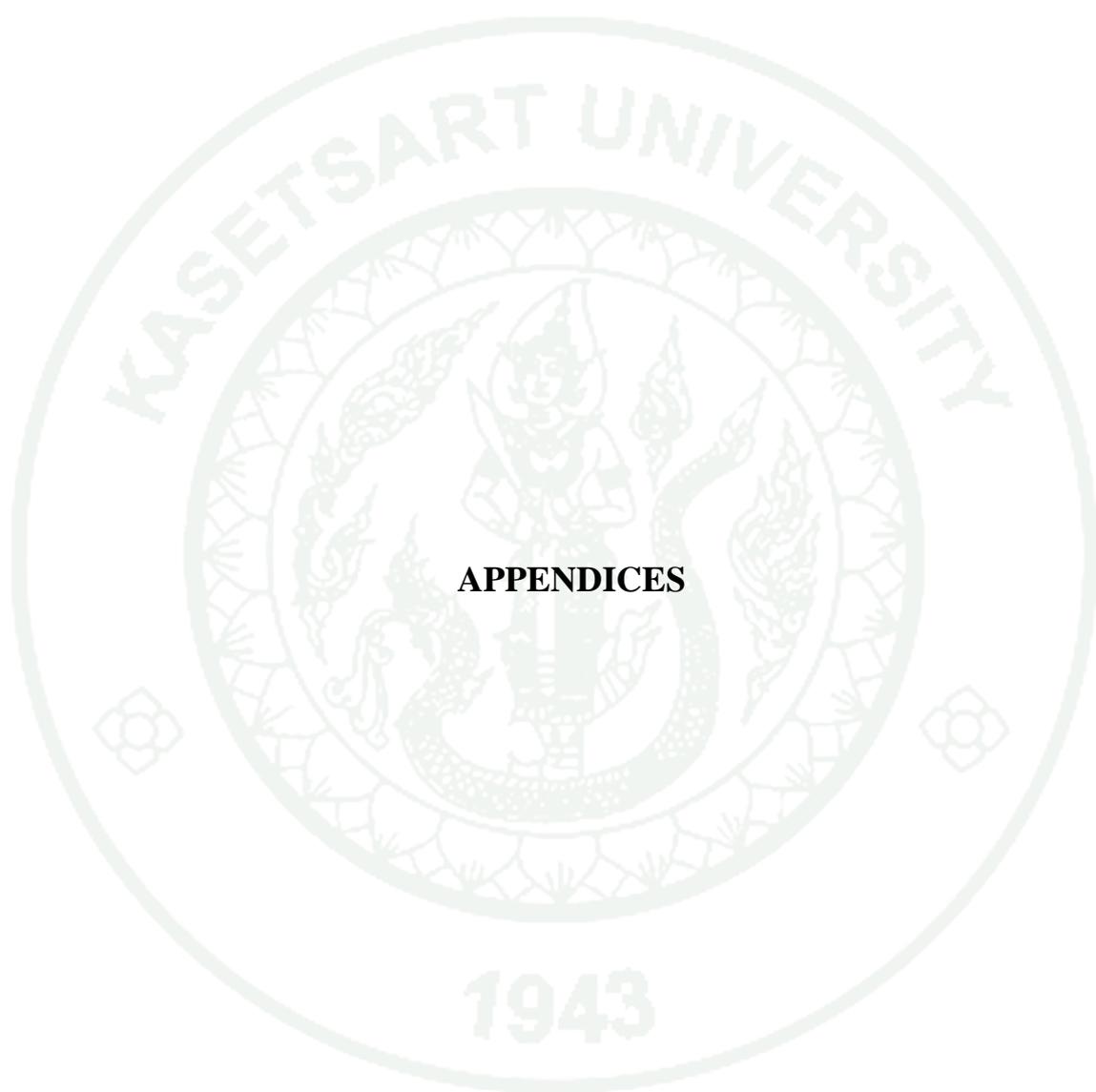
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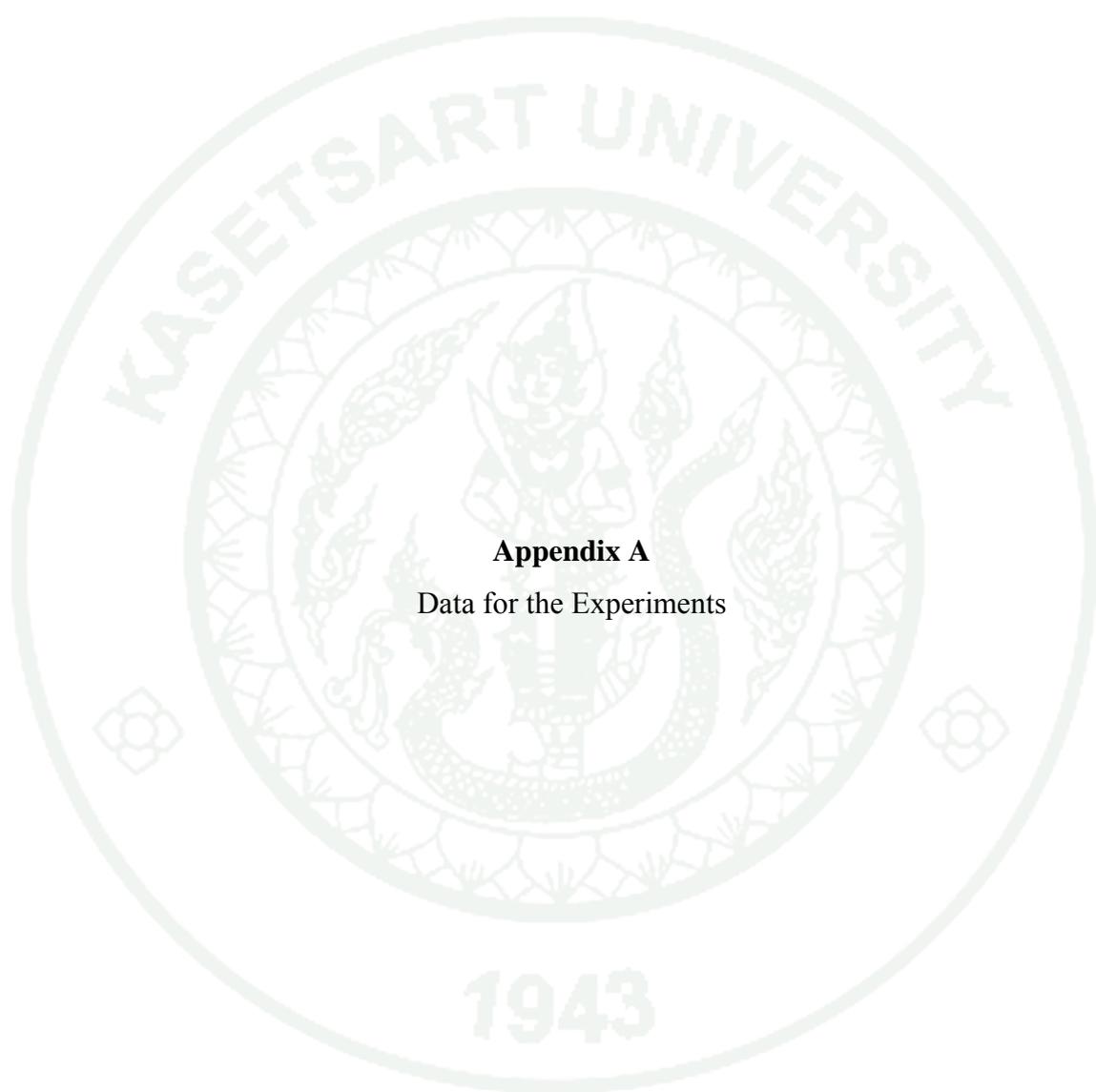
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APPENDICES



Appendix A
Data for the Experiments

Appendix Table A1 Data for tensile strength, yield strength, and elongation

Run Order	Time	Tension	Temp	Sample No.	Tensile	Yield	Elongation
1	15	30	375	801533702	2470	2250	4.5
2	15	50	375	801553703	2467	2275	4.7
3	25	30	375	802533703	2460	2225	4.2
4	15	50	350	801553501	2447	2250	8.6
5	25	30	400	802534003	2417	2125	7.7
6	25	50	400	802554001	2457	2250	6.5
7	15	30	375	801533703	2475	2250	4.5
8	15	40	350	801543501	2450	2250	4.9
9	15	30	350	801533502	2455	2275	6.8
10	25	30	375	802533702	2435	2200	3.9
11	25	40	400	802544002	2370	2100	7.0
12	15	40	400	801544003	2397	2080	7.1
13	15	40	375	801543702	2470	2250	4.8
14	15	40	350	801543502	2477	2350	4.8
15	25	50	400	802554003	2435	2225	6.7
16	25	40	400	802544001	2345	2060	5.9
17	15	30	400	801534001	2400	2100	7.2
18	15	40	400	801544002	2397	2120	7.1
19	15	50	350	801553502	2465	2225	8.6
20	25	30	400	802534002	2460	2250	7.0
21	15	50	400	801554002	2372	2150	6.4
22	15	30	350	801533503	2465	2250	7.1
23	25	50	375	802553703	2417	2200	4

Appendix Table A1 (Continued)

Run Order	Time	Tension	Temp	Sample No.	Tensile	Yield	Elongation
24	25	30	350	802533501	2477	2275	6.7
25	25	50	375	802553702	2420	2200	4.5
26	15	30	400	801534002	2430	2150	7.2
27	25	40	350	802543503	2475	2300	6.7
28	15	50	400	801554001	2412	2175	6.6
29	15	40	400	801544001	2402	2120	7.2
30	15	50	400	801554003	2335	2125	5.5
31	15	50	350	801553503	2405	2200	8.2
32	25	40	350	802543502	2457	2280	6.9
33	25	40	350	802543501	2447	2220	7.0
34	15	40	375	801543703	2455	2250	4.8
35	15	50	375	801553702	2450	2250	5.4
36	25	50	400	802554002	2332	2125	6.1
37	25	40	375	802543702	2445	2200	5.1
38	25	40	375	802543703	2432	2200	5.0
39	25	50	350	802553503	2462	2225	7.2
40	25	50	375	802553701	2450	2225	4.5
41	15	30	375	801533701	2450	2200	4.3
42	25	40	400	802544003	2380	2100	7.2
43	25	30	350	802533503	2455	2275	6.7
44	25	50	350	802553502	2470	2300	6.8
45	25	40	375	802543701	2460	2225	4.6
46	15	30	350	801533501	2470	2300	6.7
47	15	50	375	801553701	2417	2200	4.7
48	25	30	400	802534001	2432	2200	6.3
49	15	30	400	801534003	2412	2150	7.2
50	25	30	375	802533701	2437	2200	3.9

Appendix Table A1 (Continued)

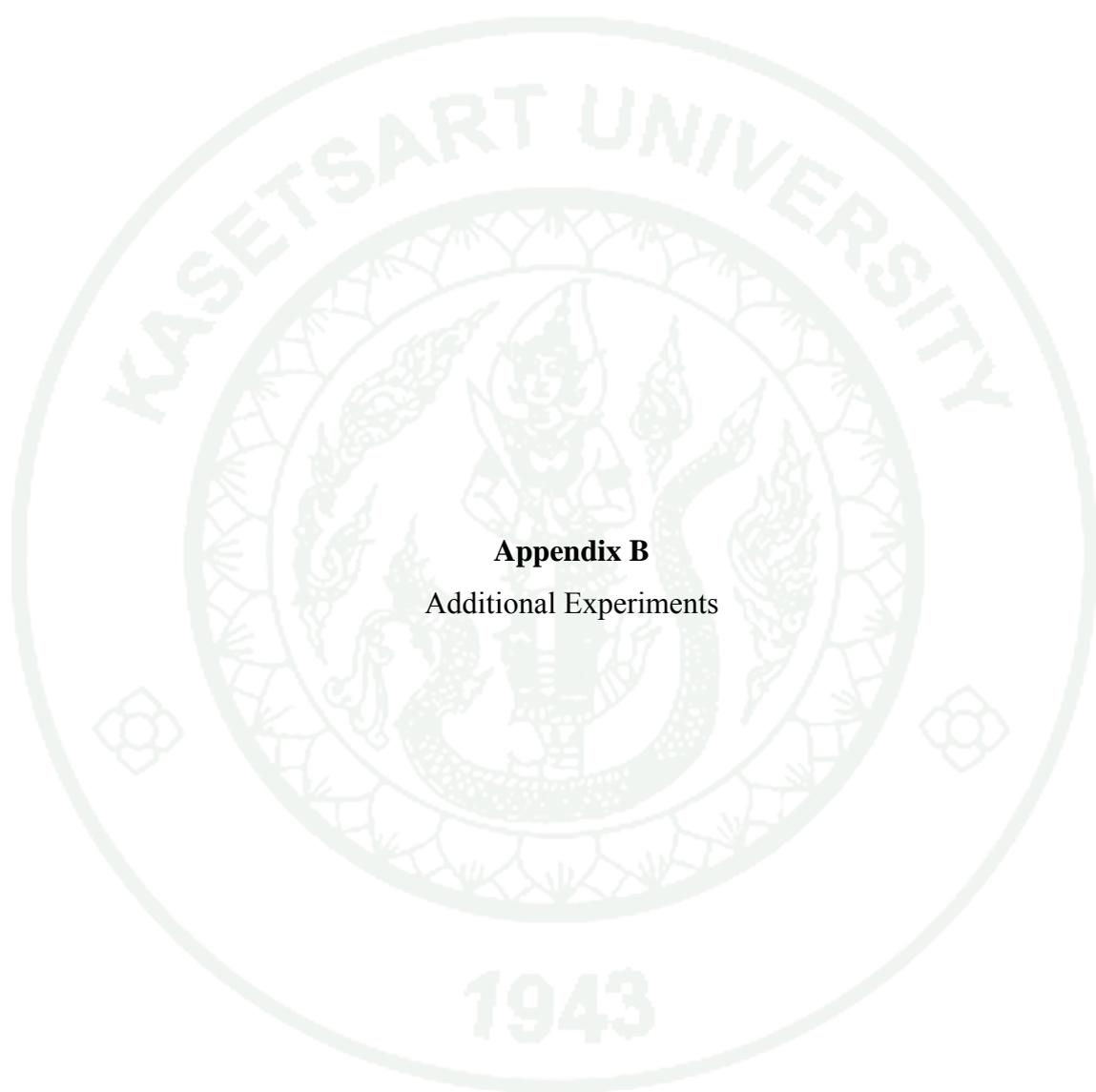
Run Order	Time	Tension	Temp	Sample No.	Tensile	Yield	Elongation
52	15	40	375	801543701	2457	2220	4.7
53	25	50	350	802553501	2450	2225	6.7
54	25	30	350	802533502	2470	2300	6.8

Appendix Table A2 Data for relaxation

Run number	Sample number	Condition Set			Relaxation
		Tension (%)	Temp °C	Time (sec)	Result (%)
1	801533504	30	350	15	6.02
2	801533505	30	350	15	6.09
3	802533504	30	350	25	6.50
4	802533505	30	350	25	6.20
5	802543504	40	350	25	5.31
6	802543505	40	350	25	5.77
7	801543504	40	350	15	4.55
8	801543505	40	350	15	4.40
9	801553504	50	350	15	3.17
10	801553505	50	350	15	3.05
11	802553504	50	350	25	4.27
12	802553505	50	350	25	3.62
13	801533704	30	375	15	6.68
14	801533705	30	375	15	6.11
15	802533704	30	375	25	7.08
16	802533705	30	375	25	7.42
17	802543704	40	375	25	4.97
18	802543705	40	375	25	5.08

Appendix Table A2 (Continued)

Run number	Sample number	Condition Set			Relaxation
		Tension (%)	Temp °C	Time (sec)	Result (%)
19	801543704	40	375	15	4.83
20	801543705	40	375	15	5.22
21	801553704	50	375	15	3.99
22	801553705	50	375	15	3.78
23	802553704	50	375	25	3.78
24	802553705	50	375	25	3.49
25	801534004	30	400	15	7.08
26	801534005	30	400	15	6.18
27	802534004	30	400	25	7.23
28	802534005	30	400	25	7.47
29	801544004	40	400	15	6.32
30	801544005	40	400	15	6.19
31	802544004	40	400	25	5.05
32	802544005	40	400	25	5.65
33	801554004	50	400	15	4.22
34	801554005	50	400	15	3.32
35	802554004	50	400	25	4.7
36	802554005	50	400	25	3.59



Appendix B
Additional Experiments

Additional Experiments

Samples used in these experiments were produced using the same processing conditions as before. Tension settings were extended to be 30, 35, 40, 45 and 50%. Temperature settings were extended to be 350, 360, 375, 385 and 400C°. Time settings remained the same at 15 and 25 seconds.

Appendix Table B1 Results for tensile strength, yield strength, and elongation

Factor Condition					Result		
Run Number	Code Number	Tension (%)	Temp. (°C)	Time (sec)	Tensile (Kgf)	Yield (Kgf)	Elong (%)
1	8015303601	30	360	15	2473	2262	6.00
2	8025303601	30	360	25	2455	2257	6.66
3	8015303801	30	385	15	2456	2199	7.00
4	8025303801	30	385	25	2437	2203	6.47
5	8015353501	35	350	15	2467	2287	5.92
6	8025353501	35	350	25	2459	2279	6.72
7	8015353601	35	360	15	2481	2276	5.00
8	8025353601	35	360	25	2459	2250	3.70
9	8015353701	35	375	15	2476	2237	4.31
10	8025353701	35	375	25	2446	2202	4.64
11	8015353801	35	385	15	2456	2195	7.00
12	8025353801	35	385	25	2428	2167	6.80
13	8015354001	35	400	15	2402	2108	7.52
14	8025354001	35	400	25	2389	2111	7.12
15	8015403601	40	360	15	2469	2278	5.81
16	8025403601	40	360	25	2468	2243	7.00
17	8015403801	40	385	15	2442	2186	6.28
18	8025403801	40	385	25	2431	2165	7.00
19	8015453501	45	350	15	2461	2262	6.42
20	8025453501	45	350	25	2453	2248	6.78

Appendix Table B1 (Continued)

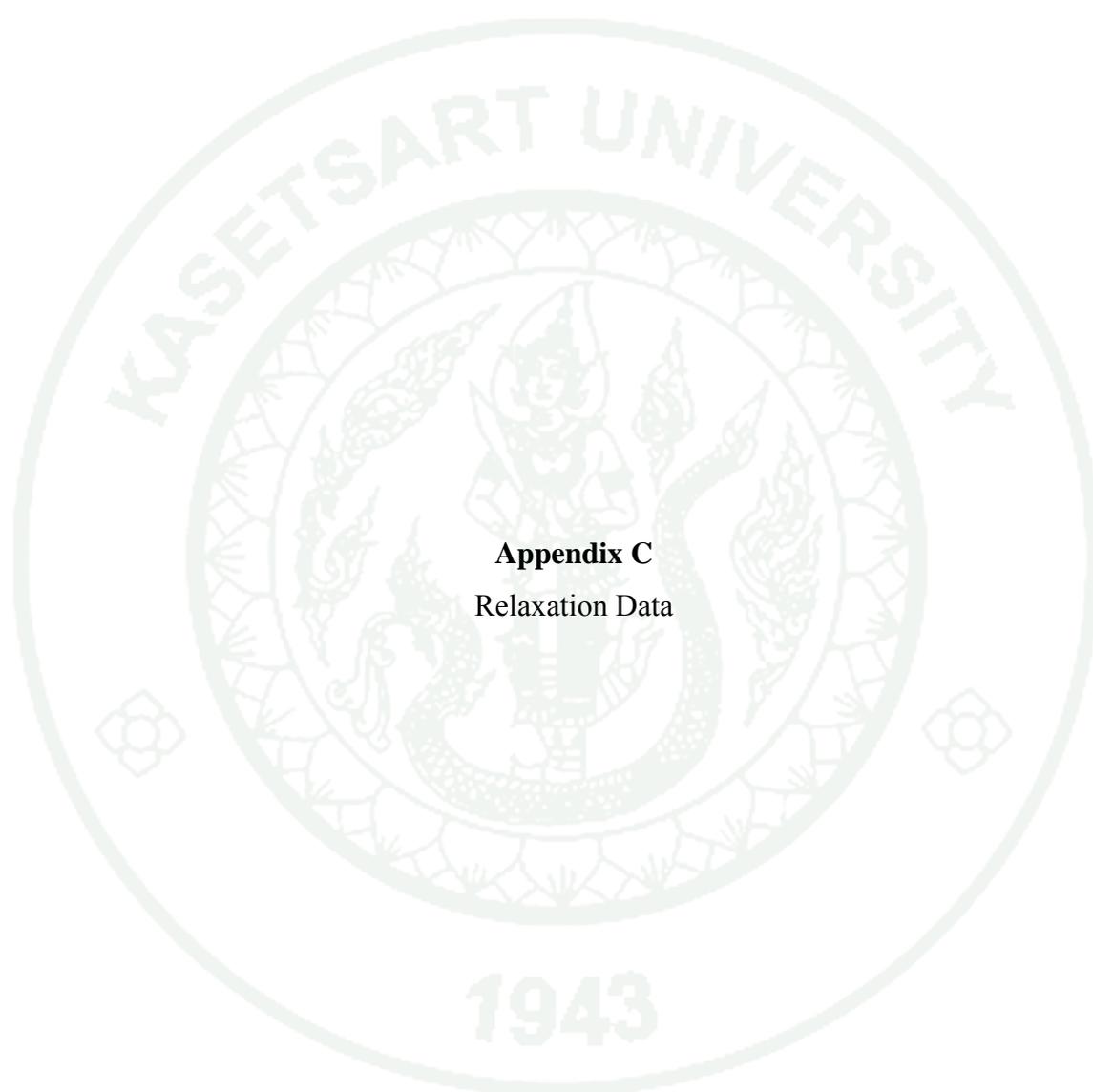
Factor Condition					Result		
Run Number	Code Number	Tension (%)	Temp. (°C)	Time (sec)	Tensile (Kgf)	Yield (Kgf)	Elong (%)
21	8015453601	45	360	15	2470	2268	5.20
22	8025453601	45	360	25	2455	2241	6.45
23	8015453701	45	375	15	2458	2245	4.97
24	8025453701	45	375	25	2441	2213	4.57
25	8015453801	45	385	15	2434	2209	5.70
26	8025453801	45	385	25	2419	2182	5.99
27	8015454001	45	400	15	2373	2123	7.21
28	8025454001	45	400	25	2369	2119	6.35
29	8015503601	50	360	15	2447	2238	6.90
30	8025503601	50	360	25	2450	2221	4.93
31	8015053801	50	385	15	2421	2210	5.80
32	8025503801	50	385	25	2423	2200	5.00

Appendix Table B2 Results for Relaxation

Factor Condition					Result
Run Number	Code Number	Tension (%)	Temp. (°C)	Time (sec)	Relaxation (%)
1	8015353501	35	350	15	5.13
2	8025353501	35	350	25	5.83
3	8015453501	45	350	15	3.80
4	8025453501	45	350	25	4.77
5	8015303601	30	360	15	5.12
6	8025303601	30	360	25	8.13
7	8015353602	35	360	15	2.91
8	8025353601	35	360	25	4.11
9	8015403601	40	360	15	2.17

Appendix Table B2 (Continued)

Run Number	Factor Condition				Result
	Code Number	Tension (%)	Temp. (°C)	Time (sec)	Relaxation (%)
10	8025403601	40	360	25	2.73
11	8015453601	45	360	15	2.94
12	8025453601	45	360	25	4.21
13	8015503601	50	360	15	5.32
14	8025503601	50	360	25	7.62
15	8015353701	35	375	15	5.70
16	8025353701	35	375	25	6.13
17	8015453701	45	375	15	4.20
18	8025453701	45	375	25	4.08
19	8015303801	30	385	15	3.49
20	8025303801	30	385	25	8.38
21	8015353801	35	385	15	2.13
22	8025353801	35	385	25	4.06
23	8015403801	40	385	15	1.89
24	8025403801	40	385	25	2.45
25	8015453801	45	385	15	3.57
26	8025453801	45	385	25	3.81
27	8015503801	50	385	15	6.10
28	8025503801	50	385	25	7.89



Appendix C
Relaxation Data

Appendix Table C1 Test results for temperature (relaxation period - 1,000 hours)

hr	350°C	375°C	400°C	Untreat
2	0.21%	0.47%	0.62%	0.75%
3	0.21%	0.63%	0.79%	1.70%
4	0.38%	0.86%	0.95%	1.86%
5	0.49%	0.97%	1.06%	1.91%
6	0.60%	1.02%	1.17%	1.91%
7	0.88%	1.08%	1.28%	2.23%
8	0.71%	1.14%	1.34%	2.44%
9	0.94%	1.30%	1.40%	2.44%
10	1.05%	1.36%	1.45%	2.50%
11	0.99%	1.36%	1.51%	2.50%
12	0.99%	1.41%	1.56%	2.56%
13	1.05%	1.47%	1.56%	2.56%
14	1.10%	1.52%	1.62%	2.63%
15	1.10%	1.52%	1.62%	2.56%
16	1.10%	1.52%	1.67%	2.63%
17	1.22%	1.58%	1.67%	2.69%
18	1.33%	1.58%	1.78%	2.69%
19	1.22%	1.69%	1.78%	2.76%
20	1.27%	1.64%	1.84%	2.76%
21	1.38%	1.75%	1.89%	2.76%
22	1.55%	1.75%	1.89%	2.69%
23	1.33%	1.75%	1.95%	2.76%
24	1.49%	1.75%	1.89%	2.76%
25	1.61%	1.80%	2.01%	2.76%
26	1.49%	1.86%	1.95%	2.76%
27	1.61%	1.91%	1.95%	2.76%
28	1.61%	1.86%	2.01%	2.82%
29	1.61%	1.86%	1.95%	2.76%

Appendix Table C1 (Continued)

hr	350°C	375°C	400°C	Untreat
30	1.72%	1.91%	2.06%	2.82%
31	1.66%	1.91%	2.01%	2.82%
32	1.61%	1.91%	2.06%	2.88%
33	1.66%	1.91%	2.06%	2.88%
34	1.77%	2.03%	2.12%	2.88%
35	1.83%	2.03%	2.12%	2.88%
36	1.77%	2.03%	2.17%	2.88%
37	1.72%	2.03%	2.12%	2.88%
40	1.83%	2.14%	2.23%	2.88%
41	1.66%	2.03%	2.23%	2.88%
42	1.83%	2.14%	2.23%	2.95%
43	1.72%	2.14%	2.23%	2.95%
44	1.83%	2.14%	2.23%	2.95%
45	1.77%	2.19%	2.23%	2.95%
46	1.72%	2.14%	2.28%	2.95%
47	1.94%	2.19%	2.28%	2.95%
48	1.94%	2.19%	2.28%	2.95%
49	1.88%	2.14%	2.28%	2.95%
50	1.94%	2.25%	2.34%	2.95%
51	1.88%	2.19%	2.28%	3.01%
52	2.00%	2.25%	2.34%	3.01%
53	1.94%	2.25%	2.34%	3.01%
54	2.00%	2.30%	2.39%	3.01%
55	1.94%	2.30%	2.39%	3.01%
56	1.94%	2.25%	2.39%	3.01%
57	1.83%	2.30%	2.45%	3.01%
58	1.94%	2.25%	2.39%	3.08%
59	1.94%	2.30%	2.39%	3.08%
60	2.00%	2.25%	2.45%	3.08%

Appendix Table C1 (Continued)

hr	350°C	375°C	400°C	Untreat
61	2.00%	2.30%	2.45%	3.08%
62	2.00%	2.36%	2.45%	3.08%
63	2.00%	2.36%	2.45%	3.08%
64	2.00%	2.36%	2.45%	3.08%
65	2.05%	2.36%	2.45%	3.08%
66	2.05%	2.36%	2.50%	3.08%
67	2.05%	2.41%	2.50%	3.08%
68	2.16%	2.41%	2.50%	3.08%
69	2.16%	2.41%	2.50%	3.08%
70	2.05%	2.41%	2.50%	3.14%
71	2.05%	2.41%	2.50%	3.14%
72	2.00%	2.41%	2.50%	3.14%
73	2.16%	2.41%	2.56%	3.21%
74	2.05%	2.41%	2.56%	3.21%
75	2.22%	2.41%	2.56%	3.14%
76	2.05%	2.47%	2.56%	3.14%
77	2.05%	2.41%	2.56%	3.14%
78	2.16%	2.47%	2.62%	3.14%
79	2.27%	2.53%	2.56%	3.21%
80	2.16%	2.47%	2.56%	3.14%
81	2.05%	2.53%	2.56%	3.21%
82	2.16%	2.47%	2.56%	3.14%
83	2.22%	2.53%	2.62%	3.14%
84	2.22%	2.53%	2.67%	3.21%
85	2.27%	2.53%	2.67%	3.14%
86	2.16%	2.53%	2.62%	3.21%
87	2.22%	2.53%	2.62%	3.27%
88	2.27%	2.53%	2.67%	3.21%

Appendix Table C1 (Continued)

hr	350°C	375°C	400°C	Untreat
89	2.22%	2.58%	2.67%	3.21%
90	2.22%	2.58%	2.67%	3.21%
91	2.22%	2.58%	2.67%	3.27%
92	2.27%	2.53%	2.67%	3.27%
93	2.33%	2.58%	2.67%	3.21%
94	2.22%	2.64%	2.73%	3.21%
95	2.27%	2.58%	2.73%	3.21%
96	2.33%	2.64%	2.73%	3.27%
97	2.22%	2.58%	2.73%	3.21%
98	2.27%	2.64%	2.67%	3.21%
99	2.27%	2.64%	2.67%	3.27%
100	2.22%	2.64%	2.73%	3.21%
101	2.27%	2.64%	2.73%	3.27%
102	2.33%	2.64%	2.73%	3.33%
103	2.33%	2.64%	2.78%	3.21%
104	2.27%	2.69%	2.78%	3.21%
105	2.39%	2.64%	2.73%	3.21%
106	2.44%	2.64%	2.73%	3.27%
107	2.44%	2.64%	2.78%	3.29%
108	2.27%	2.69%	2.73%	3.33%
109	2.39%	2.69%	2.78%	3.33%
110	2.44%	2.75%	2.78%	3.33%
111	2.33%	2.69%	2.84%	3.33%
112	2.33%	2.69%	2.84%	3.33%
113	2.44%	2.69%	2.84%	3.33%
114	2.39%	2.75%	2.84%	3.33%
115	2.44%	2.69%	2.84%	3.33%
116	2.39%	2.80%	2.84%	3.33%
117	2.50%	2.75%	2.84%	3.40%

Appendix Table C1 (Continued)

hr	350°C	375°C	400°C	Untreat
118	2.39%	2.69%	2.84%	3.40%
119	2.33%	2.75%	2.84%	3.40%
120	2.39%	2.75%	2.89%	3.40%
121	2.39%	2.75%	2.84%	3.40%
122	2.44%	2.75%	2.84%	3.40%
123	2.39%	2.80%	2.84%	3.40%
124	2.50%	2.75%	2.89%	3.40%
125	2.50%	2.75%	2.89%	3.40%
126	2.50%	2.80%	2.84%	3.27%
127	2.55%	2.75%	2.84%	3.33%
128	2.39%	2.75%	2.89%	3.33%
129	2.55%	2.75%	2.89%	3.33%
130	2.55%	2.80%	2.84%	3.40%
131	2.55%	2.75%	2.89%	3.40%
132	2.44%	2.80%	2.89%	3.33%
133	2.55%	2.80%	2.89%	3.33%
134	2.55%	2.75%	2.89%	3.33%
135	2.61%	2.80%	2.95%	3.46%
136	2.50%	2.86%	2.95%	3.33%
137	2.44%	2.80%	2.95%	3.40%
138	2.50%	2.80%	2.95%	3.46%
139	2.44%	2.80%	2.95%	3.46%
140	2.61%	2.80%	2.95%	3.46%
141	2.61%	2.80%	2.95%	3.46%
142	2.61%	2.80%	2.95%	3.46%
143	2.61%	2.86%	2.95%	3.46%
144	2.55%	2.80%	2.95%	3.40%
145	2.55%	2.92%	3.00%	3.33%

Appendix Table C1 (Continued)

hr	350°C	375°C	400°C	Untreat
146	2.66%	2.92%	3.00%	3.33%
147	2.66%	2.86%	2.95%	3.33%
148	2.61%	2.86%	2.95%	3.40%
149	2.61%	2.86%	2.95%	3.40%
150	2.55%	2.92%	2.95%	3.40%
152	2.66%	2.86%	2.95%	3.40%
153	2.66%	2.92%	3.06%	3.40%
154	2.66%	2.92%	3.00%	3.40%
155	2.66%	2.92%	3.00%	3.40%
156	2.66%	2.92%	3.00%	3.40%
157	2.66%	2.92%	3.00%	3.40%
158	2.61%	2.92%	3.06%	3.40%
159	2.66%	2.92%	3.06%	3.46%
160	2.66%	2.92%	3.06%	3.46%
161	2.66%	2.92%	3.00%	3.46%
162	2.61%	2.92%	3.06%	3.46%
163	2.66%	2.97%	3.06%	3.46%
164	2.61%	2.92%	3.06%	3.46%
165	2.72%	2.92%	3.06%	3.46%
166	2.66%	2.97%	3.06%	3.46%
167	2.55%	2.92%	3.00%	3.46%
168	2.72%	3.03%	3.06%	3.46%
169	2.61%	2.97%	3.06%	3.46%
170	2.61%	2.97%	3.00%	3.46%
171	2.61%	3.03%	3.06%	3.40%
172	2.66%	2.97%	3.11%	3.46%
173	2.61%	2.97%	3.11%	3.46%
174	2.72%	2.97%	3.06%	3.46%

Appendix Table C1 (Continued)

hr	350°C	375°C	400°C	Untreat
175	2.61%	2.97%	3.11%	3.46%
176	2.66%	2.97%	3.06%	3.53%
177	2.61%	2.97%	3.11%	3.46%
178	2.77%	3.03%	3.06%	3.53%
179	2.66%	3.03%	3.11%	3.46%
180	2.77%	3.03%	3.11%	3.46%
181	2.72%	2.97%	3.17%	3.46%
182	2.72%	3.03%	3.11%	3.46%
183	2.61%	2.97%	3.11%	3.46%
184	2.66%	3.03%	3.11%	3.53%
185	2.72%	3.08%	3.11%	3.53%
186	2.83%	3.08%	3.17%	3.53%
187	2.72%	3.08%	3.17%	3.53%
188	2.66%	3.03%	3.17%	3.59%
189	2.77%	3.03%	3.17%	3.59%
190	2.83%	3.03%	3.17%	3.59%
191	2.77%	3.08%	3.11%	3.59%
192	2.72%	3.08%	3.11%	3.53%
193	2.83%	3.03%	3.17%	3.40%
194	2.72%	3.03%	3.11%	3.46%
195	2.83%	3.08%	3.11%	3.46%
196	2.72%	3.03%	3.22%	3.40%
199	2.72%	3.03%	3.17%	3.46%
200	2.72%	3.08%	3.22%	3.53%
250	2.89%	3.11%	3.31%	3.62%
300	2.98%	3.15%	3.29%	3.73%
350	3.08%	3.20%	3.41%	3.79%
400	3.16%	3.31%	3.43%	3.82%
450	3.17%	3.34%	3.47%	3.84%

Appendix Table C1 (Continued)

hr	350°C	375°C	400°C	Untreat
500	3.31%	3.36%	3.47%	3.85%
550	3.32%	3.45%	3.51%	3.91%
600	3.35%	3.51%	3.59%	3.95%
650	3.37%	3.54%	3.60%	3.98%
700	3.41%	3.58%	3.62%	4.01%
750	3.47%	3.68%	3.68%	4.03%
800	3.50%	3.66%	3.72%	4.04%
850	3.53%	3.69%	3.74%	4.07%
900	3.58%	3.72%	3.77%	4.14%
950	3.59%	7.40%	3.81%	4.19%
1000	3.62%	3.78%	3.82%	4.22%

Appendix Table C2 Test results for tension (relaxation period - 1,000 hours)

hr	30%	40%	50%	Untreat
2	1.01%	0.89%	0.09%	0.94%
3	1.17%	1.16%	0.11%	1.20%
4	1.51%	1.27%	0.22%	1.73%
5	1.67%	1.55%	0.33%	1.92%
6	1.84%	1.72%	0.33%	2.30%
7	1.84%	1.83%	0.39%	2.30%
8	1.95%	1.94%	0.61%	2.44%
9	2.12%	2.00%	0.56%	2.44%
10	2.18%	2.11%	0.56%	2.50%
11	2.29%	2.16%	0.67%	2.50%
12	2.34%	2.22%	0.67%	2.56%
13	2.40%	2.27%	0.67%	2.56%
14	2.51%	2.23%	0.84%	2.63%
15	2.57%	2.28%	0.78%	2.56%

Appendix Table C2 (Continued)

hr	30%	40%	50%	Untreat
16	2.57%	2.28%	0.95%	2.63%
17	2.62%	2.39%	0.89%	2.69%
18	2.73%	2.45%	1.00%	2.69%
19	2.73%	2.45%	0.89%	2.76%
20	2.84%	2.51%	1.06%	2.76%
21	2.79%	2.36%	1.06%	2.76%
22	2.90%	2.42%	1.06%	2.69%
23	2.90%	2.42%	1.06%	2.76%
24	2.90%	2.47%	1.11%	2.76%
25	2.90%	2.47%	1.06%	2.76%
26	3.01%	2.53%	1.11%	2.76%
27	3.07%	2.58%	1.11%	2.76%
28	3.12%	2.58%	1.11%	2.82%
29	3.12%	2.64%	1.17%	2.76%
30	3.12%	2.64%	1.11%	2.82%
31	3.23%	2.69%	1.17%	2.82%
32	3.12%	2.69%	1.17%	2.88%
33	3.18%	2.69%	1.17%	2.88%
34	3.12%	2.75%	1.22%	2.88%
35	3.35%	2.69%	1.22%	2.88%
36	3.29%	2.75%	1.22%	2.88%
37	3.35%	2.75%	1.22%	2.88%
38	3.35%	2.80%	1.22%	2.88%
39	3.40%	3.00%	1.28%	2.88%
40	3.35%	3.06%	1.28%	2.88%
41	3.40%	2.86%	1.39%	2.88%
42	3.40%	2.86%	1.34%	2.95%
43	3.40%	2.92%	1.34%	2.95%

Appendix Table C2 (Continued)

hr	30%	40%	50%	Untreat
44	3.46%	2.92%	1.28%	2.95%
45	3.46%	2.92%	1.34%	2.95%
46	3.46%	2.92%	1.45%	2.95%
47	3.51%	2.97%	1.34%	2.95%
48	3.51%	2.97%	1.39%	2.95%
49	3.57%	3.03%	1.45%	2.95%
50	3.57%	3.03%	1.39%	2.95%
51	3.51%	3.08%	1.39%	3.01%
52	3.62%	3.08%	1.50%	3.01%
53	3.68%	3.11%	1.39%	3.01%
54	3.57%	3.11%	1.39%	3.01%
55	3.57%	3.11%	1.45%	3.01%
56	3.51%	3.13%	1.45%	3.01%
57	3.62%	3.13%	1.45%	3.01%
58	3.69%	3.13%	1.45%	3.08%
59	3.62%	3.14%	1.45%	3.08%
60	3.74%	3.14%	1.50%	3.08%
61	3.79%	3.17%	1.61%	3.08%
62	3.79%	3.19%	1.50%	3.08%
63	3.75%	3.19%	1.61%	3.08%
64	3.79%	3.23%	1.61%	3.08%
65	3.74%	3.23%	1.50%	3.08%
66	3.79%	3.25%	1.56%	3.08%
67	3.79%	3.25%	1.56%	3.08%
68	3.79%	3.27%	1.56%	3.08%
69	3.85%	3.27%	1.56%	3.08%
70	3.79%	3.27%	1.61%	3.14%
71	3.85%	3.28%	1.67%	3.14%
72	3.90%	3.28%	1.56%	3.14%

Appendix Table C2 (Continued)

hr	30%	40%	50%	Untreat
73	3.96%	3.28%	1.61%	3.21%
74	3.90%	3.28%	1.61%	3.21%
75	3.90%	3.28%	1.73%	3.14%
76	3.90%	3.28%	1.73%	3.14%
77	3.90%	3.30%	1.61%	3.14%
78	4.01%	3.30%	1.61%	3.14%
79	4.07%	3.30%	1.61%	3.21%
80	4.07%	3.29%	1.73%	3.14%
81	3.96%	3.29%	1.73%	3.21%
82	4.01%	3.30%	1.67%	3.14%
83	3.96%	3.31%	1.73%	3.14%
84	4.07%	3.31%	1.67%	3.21%
85	4.01%	3.32%	1.67%	3.14%
86	4.01%	3.37%	1.67%	3.21%
87	4.01%	3.31%	1.67%	3.27%
88	4.07%	3.31%	1.73%	3.21%
89	4.07%	3.41%	1.73%	3.21%
90	4.13%	3.41%	1.67%	3.21%
91	4.07%	3.37%	1.67%	3.27%
92	4.13%	3.37%	1.73%	3.27%
93	4.18%	3.41%	1.78%	3.21%
94	4.18%	3.41%	1.84%	3.21%
95	4.13%	3.41%	1.78%	3.21%
96	4.13%	3.41%	1.78%	3.27%
97	4.13%	3.41%	1.78%	3.21%
98	4.13%	3.41%	1.73%	3.21%
99	4.07%	3.41%	1.78%	3.27%
100	4.18%	3.43%	1.73%	3.21%
101	4.07%	3.43%	1.78%	3.27%

Appendix Table C2 (Continued)

hr	30%	40%	50%	Untreat
102	4.13%	3.39%	1.84%	3.33%
103	4.29%	3.38%	1.78%	3.21%
104	4.29%	3.41%	1.84%	3.21%
105	4.35%	3.42%	1.73%	3.21%
106	4.18%	3.42%	1.78%	3.27%
107	4.24%	3.42%	1.78%	3.29%
108	4.24%	3.42%	1.78%	3.33%
109	4.29%	3.42%	1.84%	3.33%
110	4.24%	3.42%	1.89%	3.33%
111	4.18%	3.41%	1.84%	3.33%
112	4.29%	3.41%	1.78%	3.33%
113	4.35%	3.41%	1.89%	3.33%
114	4.24%	3.41%	1.78%	3.33%
115	4.40%	3.41%	1.89%	3.33%
116	4.40%	3.41%	1.84%	3.33%
117	4.35%	3.41%	1.84%	3.40%
118	4.35%	3.41%	2.00%	3.40%
119	4.40%	3.41%	1.89%	3.40%
120	4.29%	3.41%	1.89%	3.40%
121	4.29%	3.43%	1.84%	3.40%
122	4.35%	3.42%	1.89%	3.40%
123	4.35%	3.45%	1.95%	3.40%
124	4.40%	3.44%	1.89%	3.40%
125	4.46%	3.44%	1.84%	3.40%
126	4.29%	3.44%	1.95%	3.27%
127	4.35%	3.45%	1.95%	3.33%
128	4.35%	3.45%	1.84%	3.33%
129	4.35%	3.44%	1.95%	3.33%
130	4.40%	3.45%	1.89%	3.40%

Appendix Table C2 (Continued)

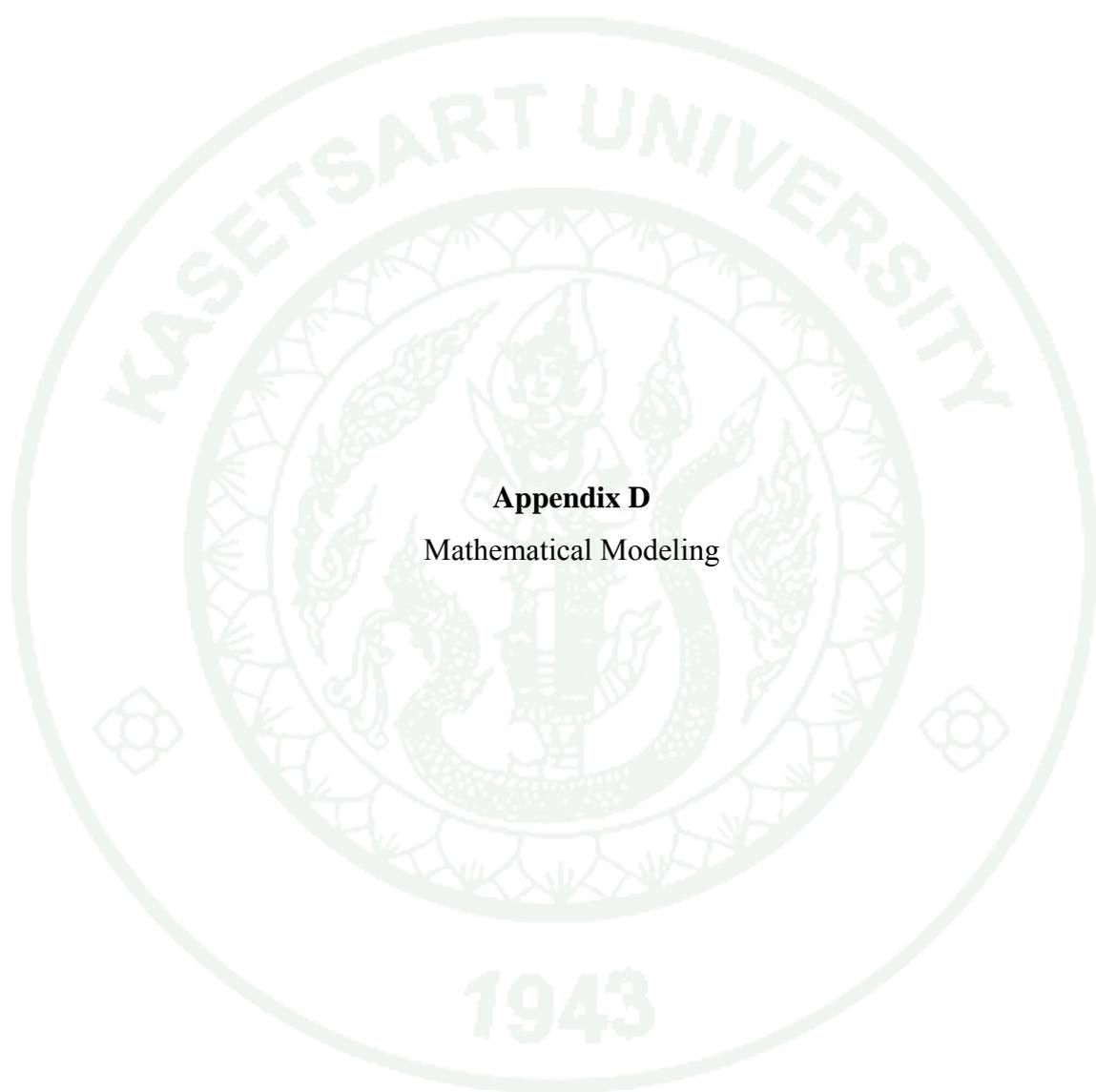
hr	30%	40%	50%	Untreat
131	4.40%	3.45%	1.95%	3.40%
132	4.52%	3.46%	1.95%	3.33%
148	4.52%	3.47%	2.00%	3.40%
149	4.52%	3.47%	2.10%	3.40%
150	4.57%	3.46%	2.20%	3.40%
151	4.68%	3.46%	2.20%	3.40%
152	4.52%	3.46%	2.23%	3.40%
153	4.63%	3.47%	2.10%	3.40%
154	4.63%	3.47%	1.95%	3.40%
155	4.52%	3.47%	1.95%	3.40%
156	4.63%	3.46%	2.06%	3.40%
157	4.63%	3.46%	2.00%	3.40%
158	4.57%	3.46%	2.00%	3.40%
159	4.68%	3.46%	2.06%	3.46%
160	4.57%	3.50%	2.06%	3.46%
161	4.57%	3.50%	2.11%	3.46%
162	4.52%	3.50%	2.11%	3.46%
163	4.68%	3.50%	2.06%	3.46%
164	4.74%	3.57%	2.06%	3.46%
165	4.63%	3.57%	2.11%	3.46%
166	4.63%	3.55%	2.06%	3.46%
167	4.68%	3.55%	2.17%	3.46%
168	4.68%	3.55%	2.06%	3.46%
169	4.63%	3.55%	2.11%	3.46%
170	4.74%	3.56%	2.06%	3.46%
171	4.63%	3.55%	2.11%	3.40%
172	4.63%	3.55%	2.11%	3.46%
173	4.68%	3.61%	2.11%	3.46%
174	4.63%	3.61%	2.11%	3.46%

Appendix Table C2 (Continued)

hr	30%	40%	50%	Untreat
175	4.68%	3.61%	2.17%	3.46%
176	4.74%	3.61%	2.11%	3.53%
177	4.68%	3.62%	2.17%	3.46%
178	4.68%	3.62%	2.11%	3.53%
179	4.68%	3.62%	2.11%	3.46%
180	4.68%	3.65%	2.11%	3.46%
181	4.74%	3.67%	2.11%	3.46%
182	4.68%	3.65%	2.11%	3.46%
183	4.79%	3.62%	2.17%	3.46%
184	4.68%	3.62%	2.11%	3.53%
185	4.68%	3.62%	2.17%	3.53%
186	4.79%	3.62%	2.11%	3.53%
188	4.79%	3.62%	2.17%	3.59%
189	4.79%	3.62%	2.17%	3.59%
190	4.74%	3.55%	2.17%	3.59%
191	4.74%	3.55%	2.17%	3.59%
192	4.74%	3.55%	2.17%	3.53%
193	4.79%	3.55%	2.17%	3.40%
194	4.79%	3.55%	2.11%	3.46%
195	4.79%	3.55%	2.17%	3.46%
196	4.79%	3.55%	2.23%	3.40%
197	4.80%	3.55%	2.17%	3.46%
198	4.80%	3.55%	2.17%	3.53%
199	4.74%	3.57%	2.28%	3.46%
200	4.83%	3.67%	2.17%	3.53%
250	4.86%	3.79%	2.32%	3.62%
300	4.88%	3.82%	2.53%	3.73%
350	4.92%	3.94%	2.64%	3.79%
400	5.07%	4.05%	2.79%	3.82%

Appendix Table C2 (Continued)

hr	30%	40%	50%	Untreat
450	5.11%	4.11%	2.84%	3.84%
500	5.23%	4.19%	2.83%	3.85%
550	5.24%	4.22%	2.92%	3.91%
600	5.27%	4.27%	2.93%	3.95%
650	5.36%	4.29%	2.95%	3.98%
700	5.42%	4.37%	3.02%	4.01%
750	5.47%	4.44%	2.99%	4.03%
800	5.51%	4.43%	3.17%	4.04%
850	5.56%	4.45%	3.10%	4.07%
900	5.59%	4.49%	3.12%	4.14%
950	5.64%	4.51%	3.14%	4.19%
1000	5.68%	4.55%	3.17%	4.22%



Appendix D
Mathematical Modeling

Mathematical Modeling

1. Optimization Model for Tensile Strength

The estimated regression coefficients for tensile strength are determined on the basis of the data shown in appendix table D1 below. From the calculated coefficients of the full quadratic equation, less significant coefficients were eliminated without affecting the accuracy of the developed model by using the t-test. The final mathematical model was constructed using the significant coefficients, shown in D2.

Appendix Table D1 Tensile strength - calculation of regression coefficients

Tensile strength versus Time, Tension, Temperature (Full Quadratic Equation)

Term	Coef	SE Coef	T	P
Constant	-174.351	88.8099	-1.963	0.053
Time	-0.301	0.7058	-0.427	0.671
Tension	0.269	0.5498	0.490	0.626
Temperature	2.047	0.4627	4.424	0.000
Tension*Tension	0.002	0.0038	0.449	0.655
Temperature*Temperature	-0.003	0.0006	-4.542	0.000
Time*Tension	0.005	0.0046	1.189	0.238
Time*Temperature	0.000	0.0018	0.063	0.950
Tension*Temperature	-0.002	0.0012	-1.350	0.181

S = 1.59400 R-Sq = 67.15% R-Sq(adj) = 63.73%

Appendix Table D2 Significant regression coefficients for tensile strength

Term	Coefficient
Constant	-174.351
Time	-0.301
Tension	0.269
Temperature	2.047
Tension*Tension	0.002
Temperature*Temperature	-0.003
Time*Tension	0.005
Time*Temperature	0.000
Tension*Temperature	-0.002

The final mathematical models determined by the regression analysis are as follows:

$$\hat{Y} = -174.351 - 0.301(A) + 0.269(B) + 2.047(C) + 0.002(B^2) - 0.003(C^2) + 0.005(A \times B) - 0.002(B \times C)$$

Where \hat{Y} = Tensile strength
 A = Time and $15 \leq A \leq 25$ and $A > 0$
 B = Tension and $30 \leq B \leq 50$ and $B > 0$
 C = Temperature and $350 \leq C \leq 400$ and $C > 0$

1.1 Checking the adequacy of the developed model

The adequacy of the models so developed is then tested by using the analysis of variance technique (ANOVA). Using this technique it is found that calculated P ratios are lower than the tabulated values at a 95% confidence level. Hence, the models are considered to be adequate.

The results of the ANOVA are given in appendix table D3.

Appendix Table D3 Analysis of variance for tensile strength

Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	P
Regression	8	399.845	399.845	49.981	19.67	0.000
Linear	3	338.978	51.344	17.115	6.74	0.000
Square	2	52.637	52.637	26.319	10.36	0.000
Interaction	3	8.230	8.230	2.743	1.08	0.363
Residual Error	77	195.644	195.644	2.541		
Lack-of-Fit	41	71.315	71.315	1.739	0.50	0.983
Pure Error	36	124.330	124.330	3.454		
Total	85	595.489				

2. Optimization Model for Yield Strength

The estimated regression coefficients for yield strength are determined on the basis of the data shown in appendix table D4. From the calculated coefficients of the full quadratic equation, less significant coefficients were eliminated without affecting the accuracy of the developed model by using the t-test. The final mathematical model was constructed using the significant coefficients, shown in appendix table D5.

Appendix Table D4 Calculation of regression coefficients

Yield strength versus Time, Tension, Temperature (Full Quadratic Equation)

Term	Coef	SE Coef	T	P
Constant	-11.4403	144.750	-0.079	0.937
Time	-1.2570	1.150	-1.093	0.278
Tension	-2.6375	0.896	-2.943	0.004
Temperature	1.5328	0.754	2.033	0.046
Tension*Tension	0.0118	0.006	1.895	0.062
Temperature*Temperature	-0.0026	0.001	-2.642	0.010
Time*Tension	-0.0010	0.007	-0.133	0.895
Time*Temperature	0.0033	0.003	1.129	0.262
Tension*Temperature	0.0045	0.002	2.305	0.024

S = 2.59803 R-Sq = 71.51% R-Sq(adj) = 68.55%

Appendix Table D5 Significant regression coefficients for yield strength

Term	Coefficient
Constant	-11.4403
Time	-1.2570
Tension	-2.6375
Temperature	1.5328
Tension*Tension	0.0118
Temperature*Temperature	-0.0026
Time*Tension	-0.0010
Time*Temperature	0.0033
Tension*Temperature	0.0045

The final mathematical model determined by the regression analysis is as follows:

$$\hat{Y} = -11.4403 - 1.2570(A) - 2.6375(B) + 1.5328(C) + 0.0118(B^2) - 0.0026(C^2) - 0.0010(A \times B) + 0.0033(A \times C) + 0.0045(B \times C)$$

Where: \hat{Y} = Yield strength
 A = Time and $15 \leq A \leq 25$ and $A > 0$
 B = Tension and $30 \leq B \leq 50$ and $B > 0$
 C = Temperature and $350 \leq C \leq 400$ and $C > 0$

2.1 Checking the adequacy of the developed model

The adequacy of the model so developed is then tested by using the analysis of variance technique (ANOVA). Using this technique it is found that calculated P ratios are lower than the tabulated values at a 95% confidence level. Hence, the models are considered to be adequate.

The results of the ANOVA are given in Appendix Table D6.

Appendix Table D6 Analysis of variance for yield strength

Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	P
Regression	8	1304.54	1304.54	163.067	24.16	0.000
Linear	3	1190.71	100.76	33.586	4.98	0.003
Square	2	69.23	69.23	34.613	5.13	0.008
Interaction	3	44.60	44.60	14.867	2.20	0.095
Residual Error	77	519.73	519.73	6.750		
Lack-of-Fit	41	246.19	246.19	6.005	0.79	0.768
Pure Error	36	273.54	273.54	7.598		
Total	85	1824.27				

3. Optimization Model for Elongation

The estimated regression coefficients for elongation are determined on the basis of the data shown in appendix table D7. From the calculated coefficients of the full quadratic equation, less significant coefficients were eliminated without affecting the accuracy of the developed model by using the t-test. The final mathematical model was constructed using the significant coefficients, shown appendix table D8.

Appendix Table D7 Elongation - calculation of regression coefficients

Elongation versus Time, Tension, Temperature (Full Quadratic Equation)				
Term	Coef	SE Coef	T	P
Constant	-799.951	140.425	-5.697	0.000
Time	-0.420	0.373	-1.125	0.267
Tension	1.032	0.260	3.967	0.000
Temperature	3.993	0.724	5.518	0.000
Tension*Tension	-0.004	0.001	-3.134	0.003
Temperature*Temperature	-0.005	0.001	-5.318	0.000
Time*Tension	0.001	0.001	0.625	0.535
Time*Temperature	0.001	0.001	0.983	0.331
Tension*Temperature	-0.002	0.001	-3.219	0.002

S = 0.396469 R-Sq = 89.95% R-Sq(adj) = 88.17%

Appendix Table D8 Significant regression coefficients for elongation

Term	Coefficient
Constant	-799.951
Tension (B)	1.032
Temperature (C)	3.993
Tension*Tension	-0.004
Temperature*Temperature	-0.005
Time*Temperature	0.001
Tension*Temperature	-0.002

The final mathematical model determined by the regression analysis is as follows:

$$\hat{Y} = -799.951 + 1.032B + 3.993C - 0.004B^2 - 0.005C^2 + 0.001(A \times C) - 0.002(B \times C)$$

When $15 \leq A \leq 25$, $30 \leq B \leq 50$, $375 \leq C \leq 400$, and $A, B, C > 0$

Where: \hat{Y} = Elongation

A = Time and $15 \leq A \leq 25$ and $A > 0$

B = Tension and $30 \leq B \leq 50$ and $B > 0$

C = Temperature and $375 \leq C \leq 400$ and $C > 0$

3.1 Checking the adequacy of the developed model

The adequacy of the model so developed is then tested by using the analysis of variance technique (ANOVA). Using this technique it is found that calculated P ratios are lower than the tabulated values at a 95% confidence level. Hence, the models are considered to be adequate.

The results of the ANOVA are given in appendix table D9.

Appendix Table D9 Analysis of variance for elongation

Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	P
Regression	8	63.333	63.333	7.9166	50.36	0.000
Linear	3	55.053	7.521	2.5069	15.95	0.000
Square	2	6.438	6.438	3.2190	20.48	0.000
Interaction	3	1.842	1.842	0.6139	3.91	0.015
Residual Error	45	7.073	7.073	0.1572		
Lack-of-Fit	21	4.327	4.327	0.2060	1.80	0.083
Pure Error	24	2.747	2.747	0.1144		
Total	53	70.406				

4. Optimization Model for Relaxation

The estimated regression coefficients for relaxation are determined on the basis of the data shown in appendix table D10. From the calculated coefficients of the full quadratic equation, less significant coefficients were eliminated without affecting the accuracy of the developed model by using the t-test. The final mathematical model was constructed using the significant coefficients, shown in appendix table D11.

Appendix Table D10 Relaxation - calculation of regression coefficients

Relaxation versus Time, Tension, Temperature (Linear)				
Term	Coef	SE Coef	T	P
Constant	6.43347	1.48175	4.342	0.000
Time	0.02150	0.01523	1.411	0.168
Tension	-0.14979	0.00933	-16.058	0.000
Temp	0.01175	0.00373	3.149	0.004

S = 0.456977 R-Sq = 89.40% R-Sq(adj) = 88.40%

Appendix Table D11 Significant regression coefficients for relaxation

Term	Coefficients
Constant	6.43347
Time	0.02150
Tension	-0.14979
Temperature	0.01175

The final mathematical models determined by the regression analysis are as follows:

$$\hat{Y} = 6.43347 + 0.02150(A) - 0.14979(B) + 0.01175(C)$$

Where:

$$\hat{Y} = \text{Relaxation}$$

$$A = \text{Time and } 15 \leq A \leq 25 \text{ and } A > 0$$

$$B = \text{Tension and } 30 \leq B \leq 50 \text{ and } B > 0$$

$$C = \text{Temperature and } 350 \leq C \leq 400 \text{ and } C > 0$$

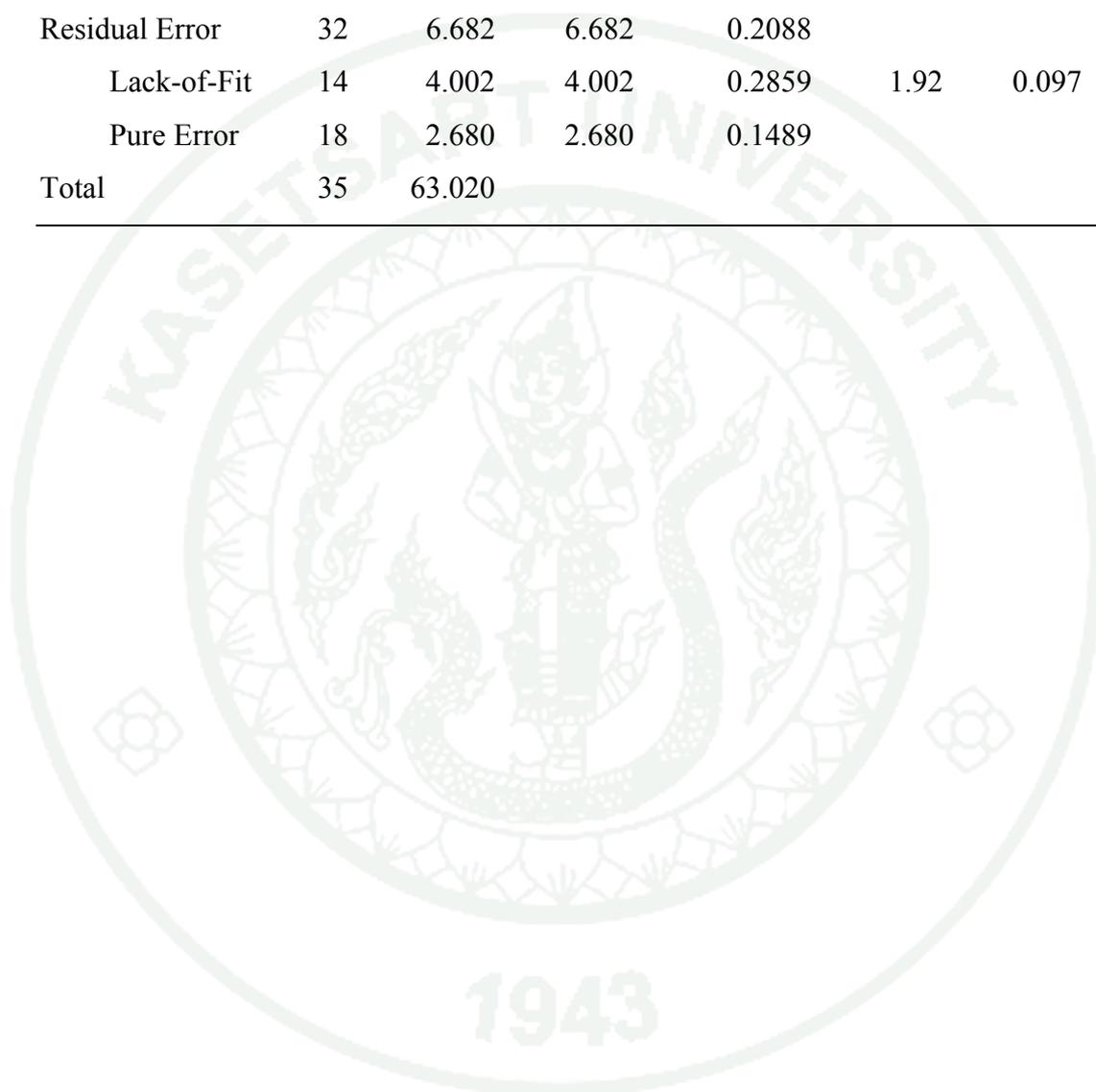
4.1 Checking the adequacy of the developed model

The adequacy of the model so developed is then tested by using the analysis of variance technique (ANOVA). Using this technique it is found that calculated P ratios are lower than the tabulated values at a 95% confidence level. Hence, the models are considered to be adequate.

The results of the ANOVA are given in appendix table D12.

Appendix Table D12 Analysis of variance for relaxation

Source	DF	Seq SS	Adj SS	Adj MS	F	P
Regression	3	56.337	56.337	18.7790	89.93	0.000
Linear	3	56.337	56.337	18.7790	89.93	0.000
Residual Error	32	6.682	6.682	0.2088		
Lack-of-Fit	14	4.002	4.002	0.2859	1.92	0.097
Pure Error	18	2.680	2.680	0.1489		
Total	35	63.020				





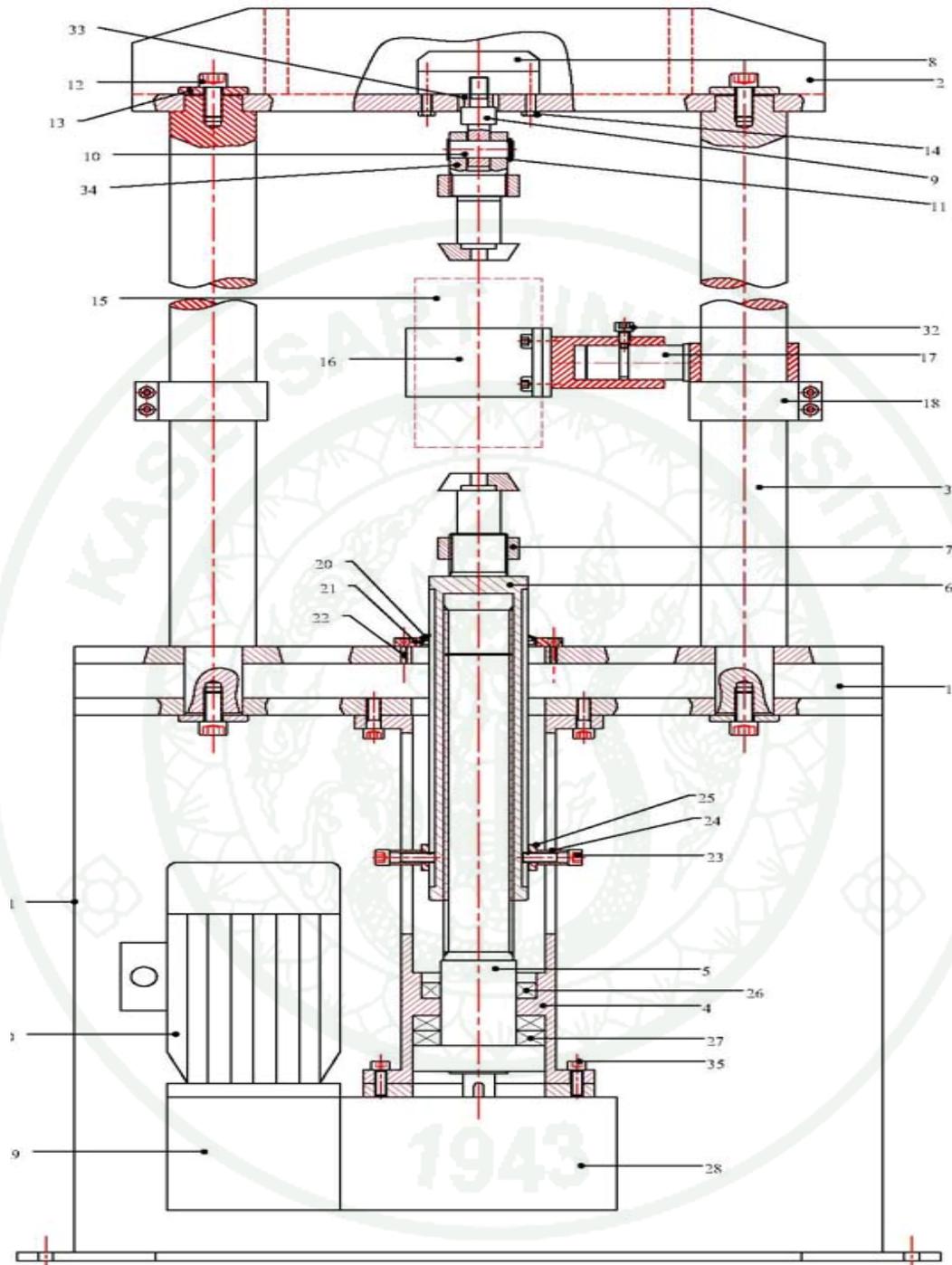
Appendix E

The Experimental Stress Relief Unit



Appendix Figure E1 The experimental stress relief unit

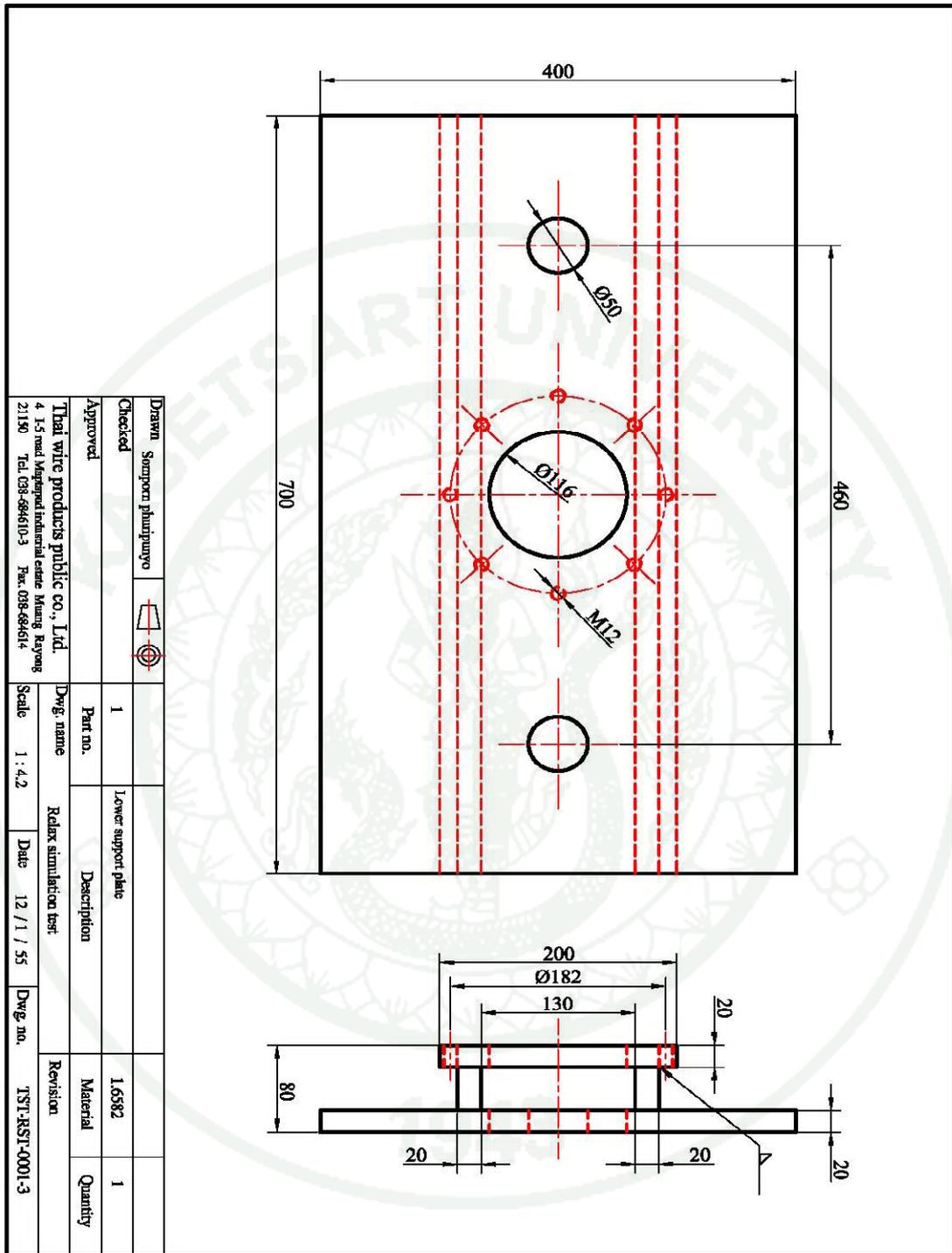
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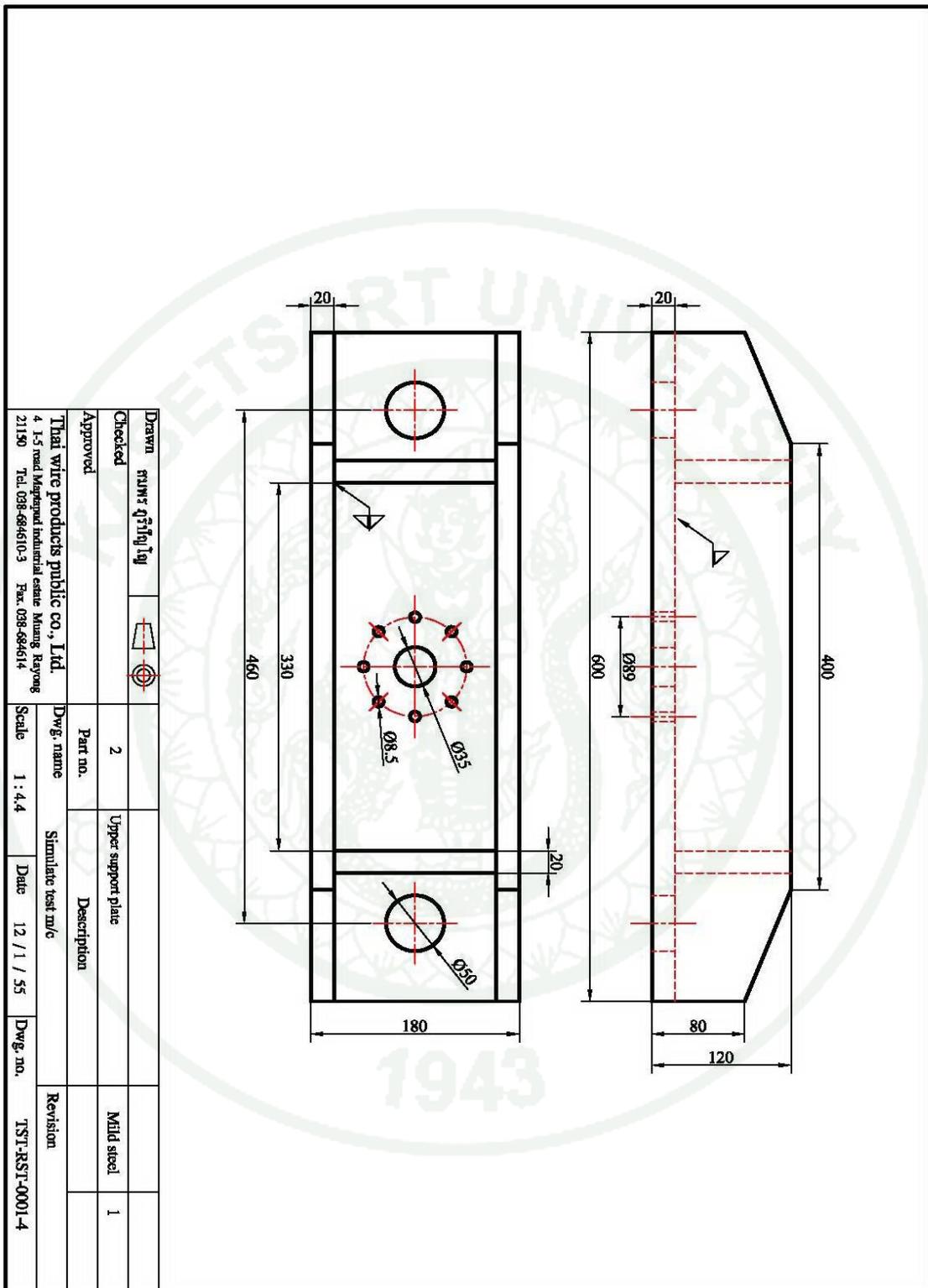
Appendix Figure E2 Blueprint of the experimental stress relief unit

34	Joint load cell	1.6582	1
30	AC Motor 3.7 Kw. 1430 rpm.	Standard	1
29	Reduce gear 1:10	Standard	1
28	Reduce gear 1:60	Standard	1
27	Bearing 51313	FAG	2
26	Bearing 6013 2RS	SKF	1
21	Seal cover	Mild steel	1
18	Column clamp	Mild steel	1
17	Adjust pin heater	Mild steel	1
16	Heater clamp	Mild steel	1
15	Heater 4 Kw. 220 V.	-	1
13	Spacer Ø 60*8	Mild steel	4
10	Shaft lock	scm4	1
9	Screw lock load cell	1.6582	1
8	Load cell Interface 50 Kn.	Standard	1
7	Load fixture	1.6582	2
6	Pull nut S60*4	1.6582	1
5	Shaft screw S 60*4	1.6582	1
4	Housing shaft bearing	scm4	1
3	Column	Mild steel	2
2	Upper support plate	Mild steel	1
1	Lower support plate	Mild steel	1

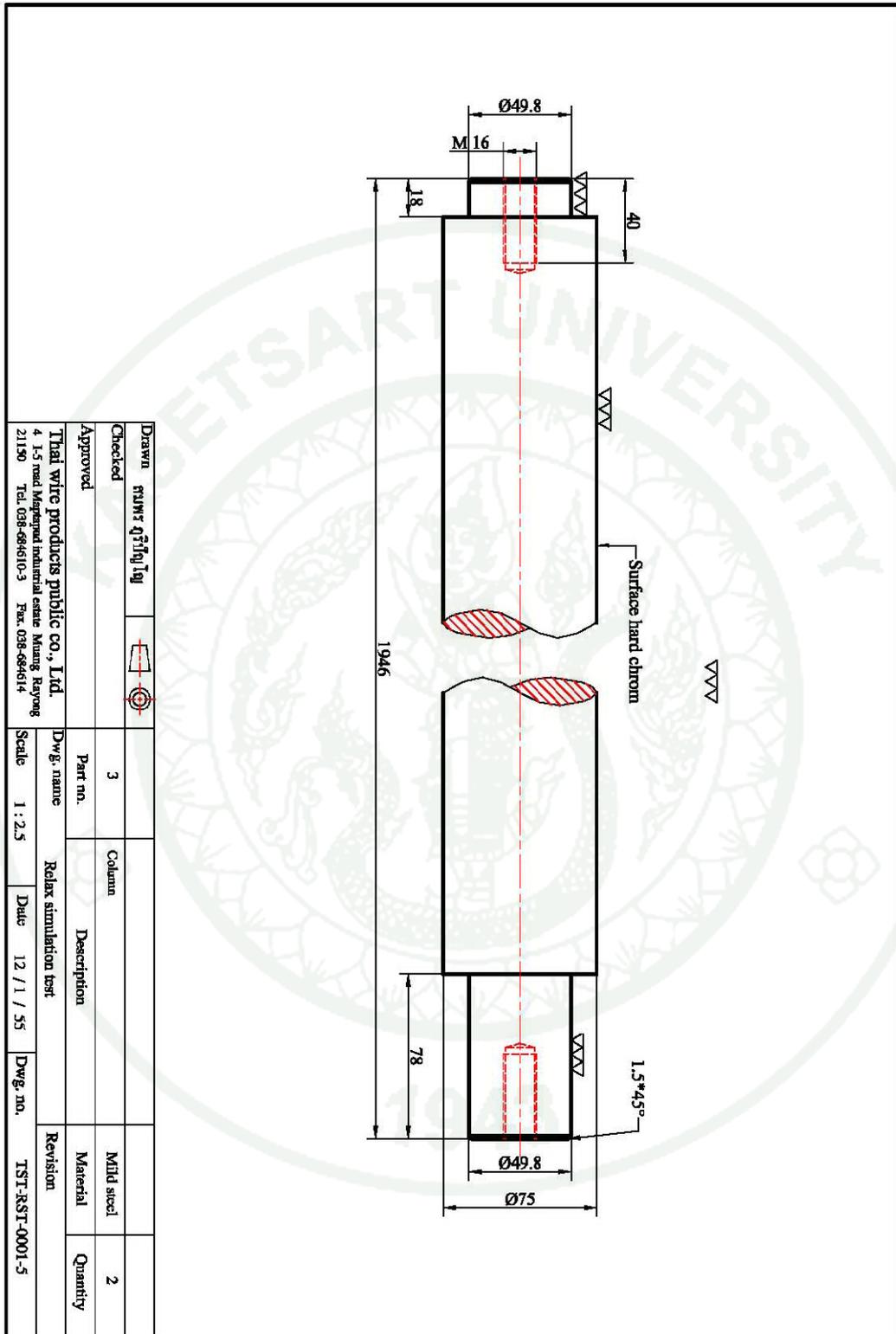
Appendix Figure E3 List of numbered parts



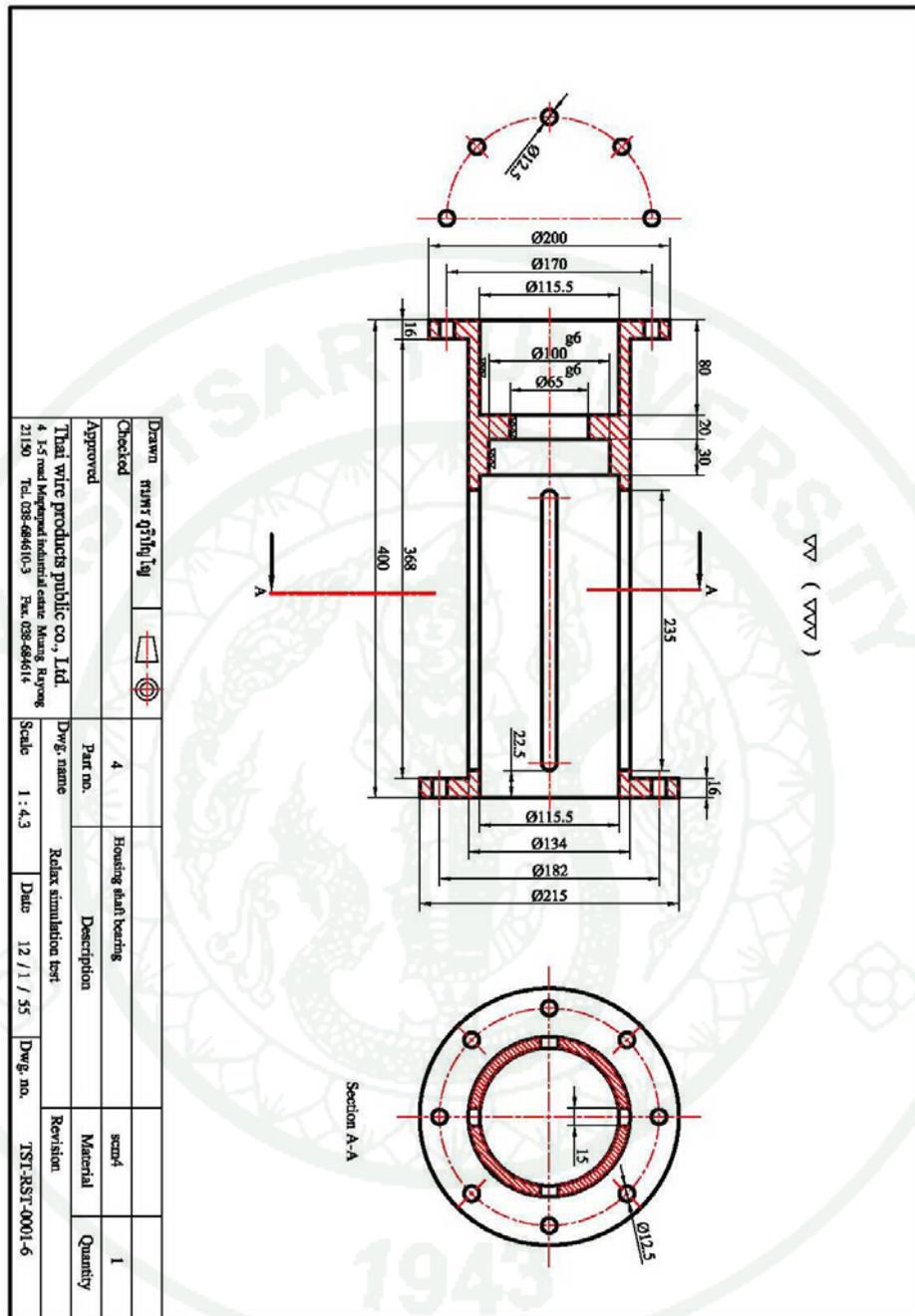
Appendix Figure E4 Breakdown of parts (1) - lower support plate



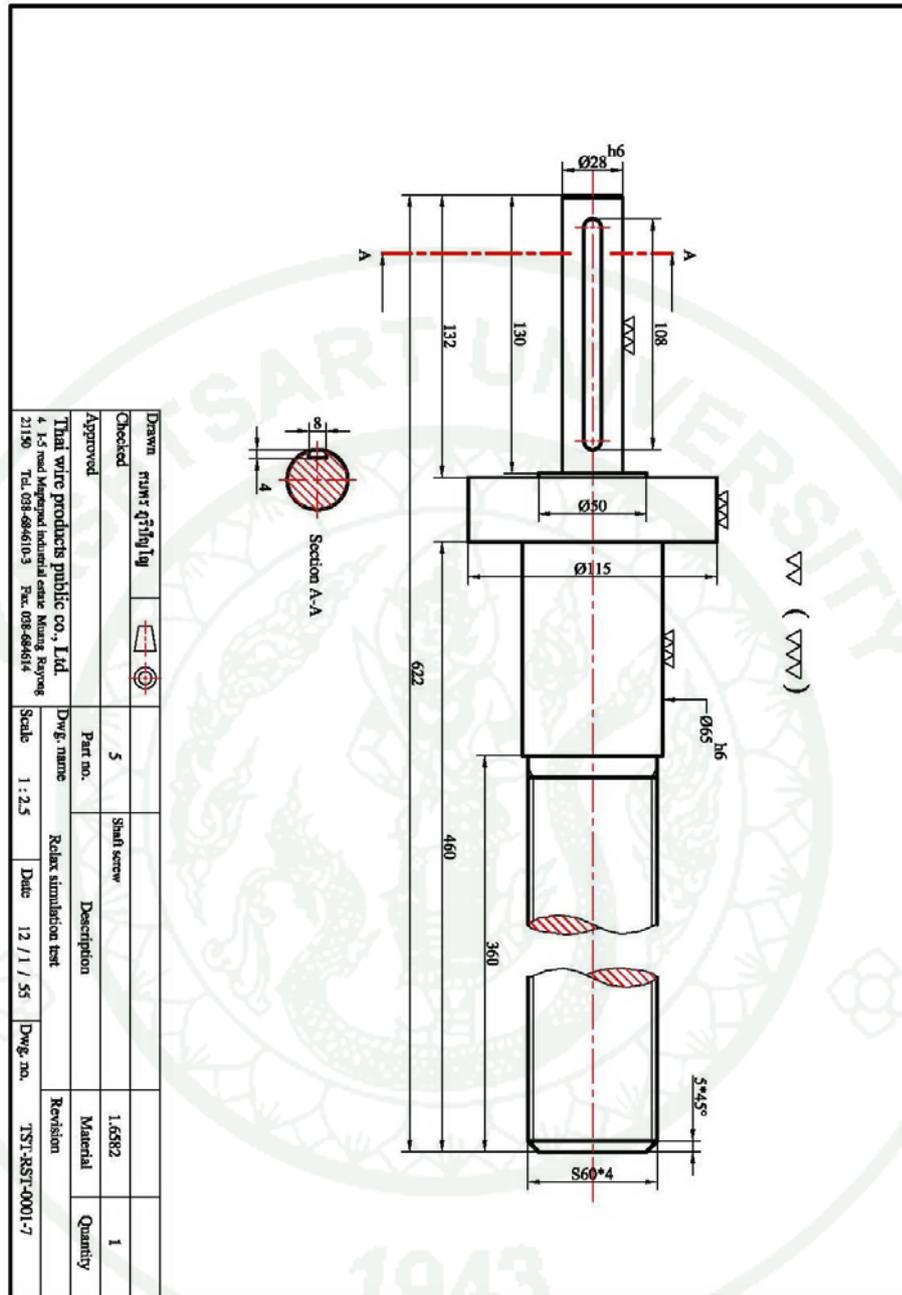
Appendix Figure E5 Breakdown of parts (2) - upper support plate



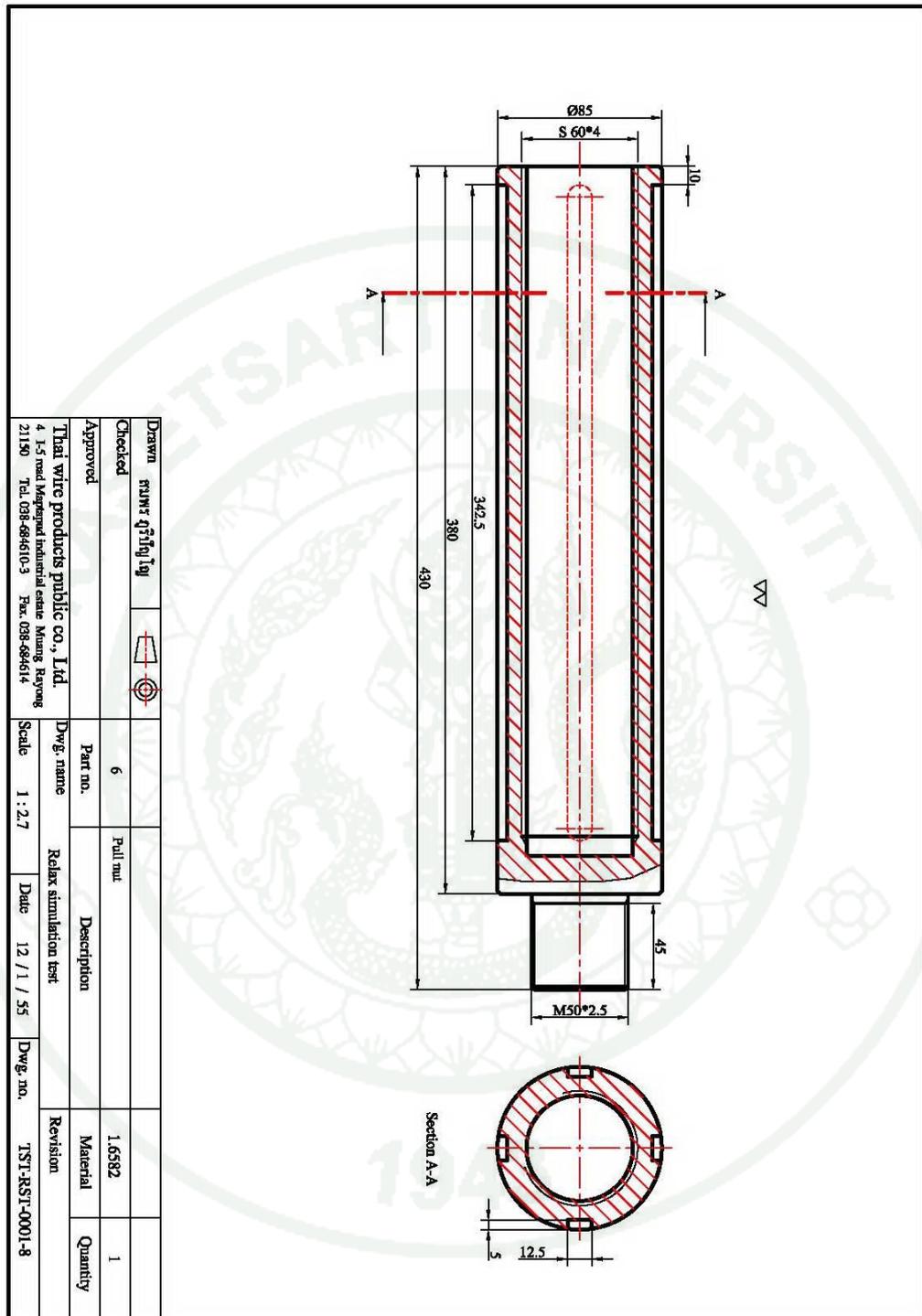
Appendix Figure E6 Breakdown of parts (3) - column



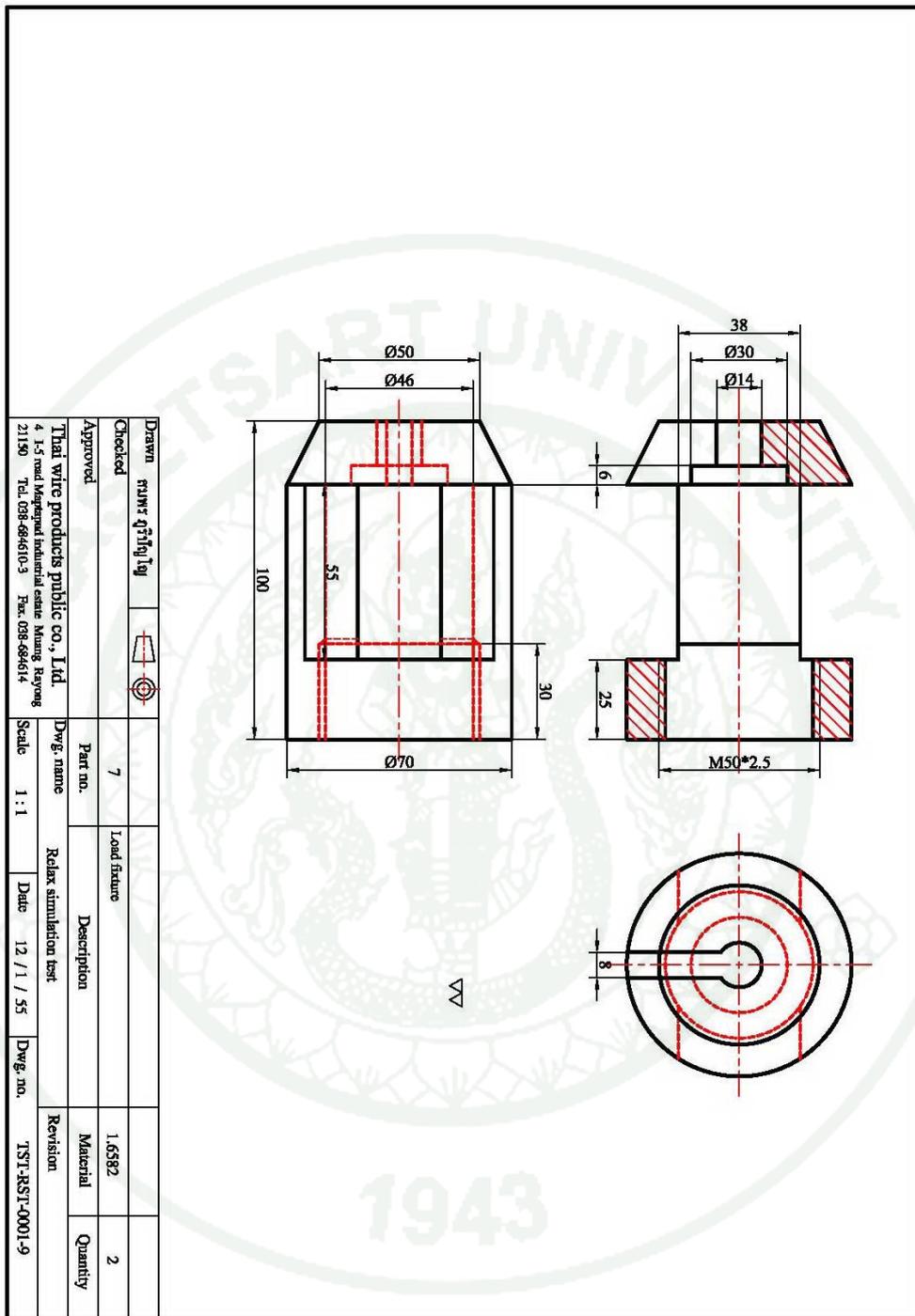
Appendix Figure E7 Breakdown of parts (4) - housing shaft bearing



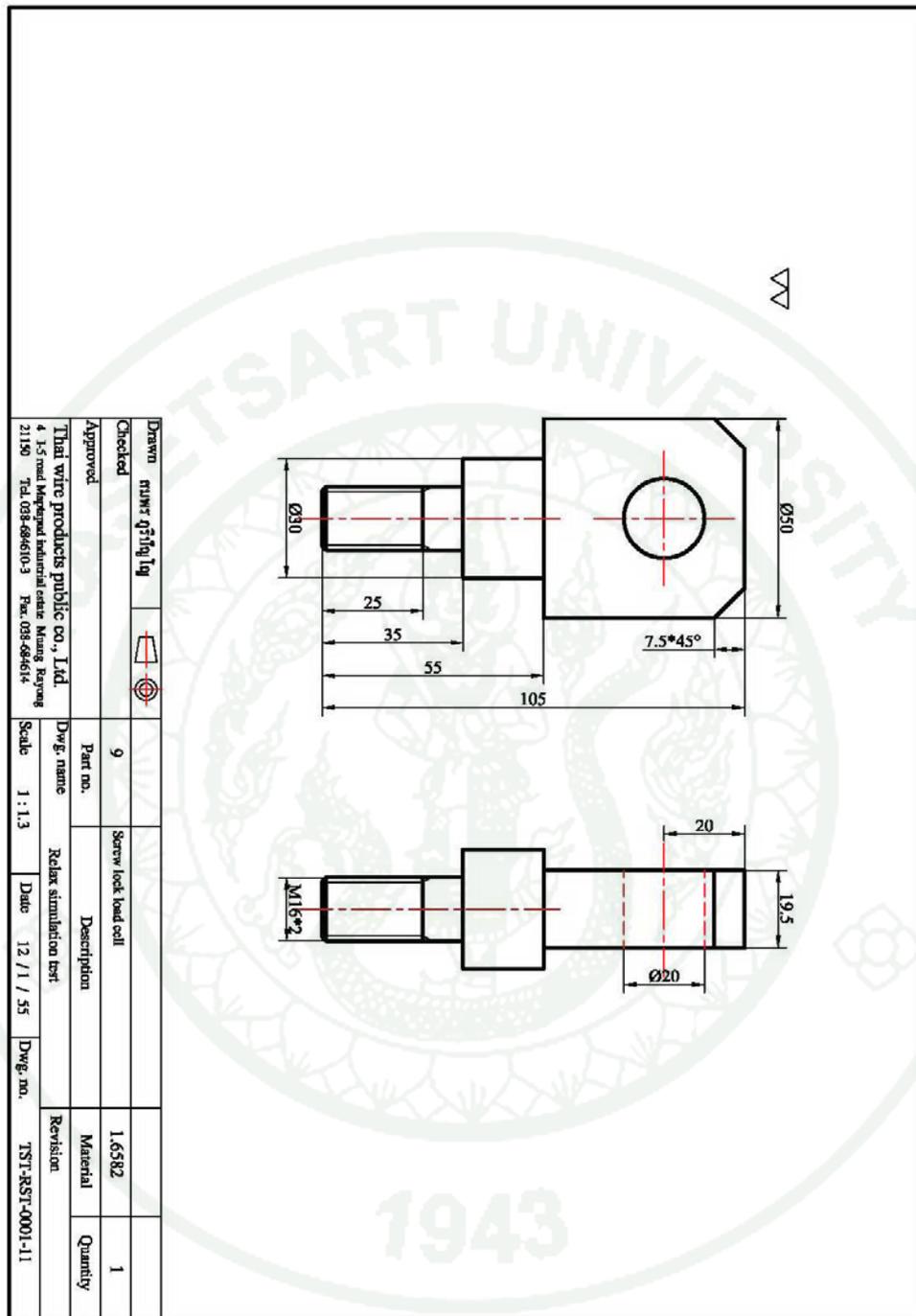
Appendix Figure E8 Breakdown of Parts (5) - shaft screw



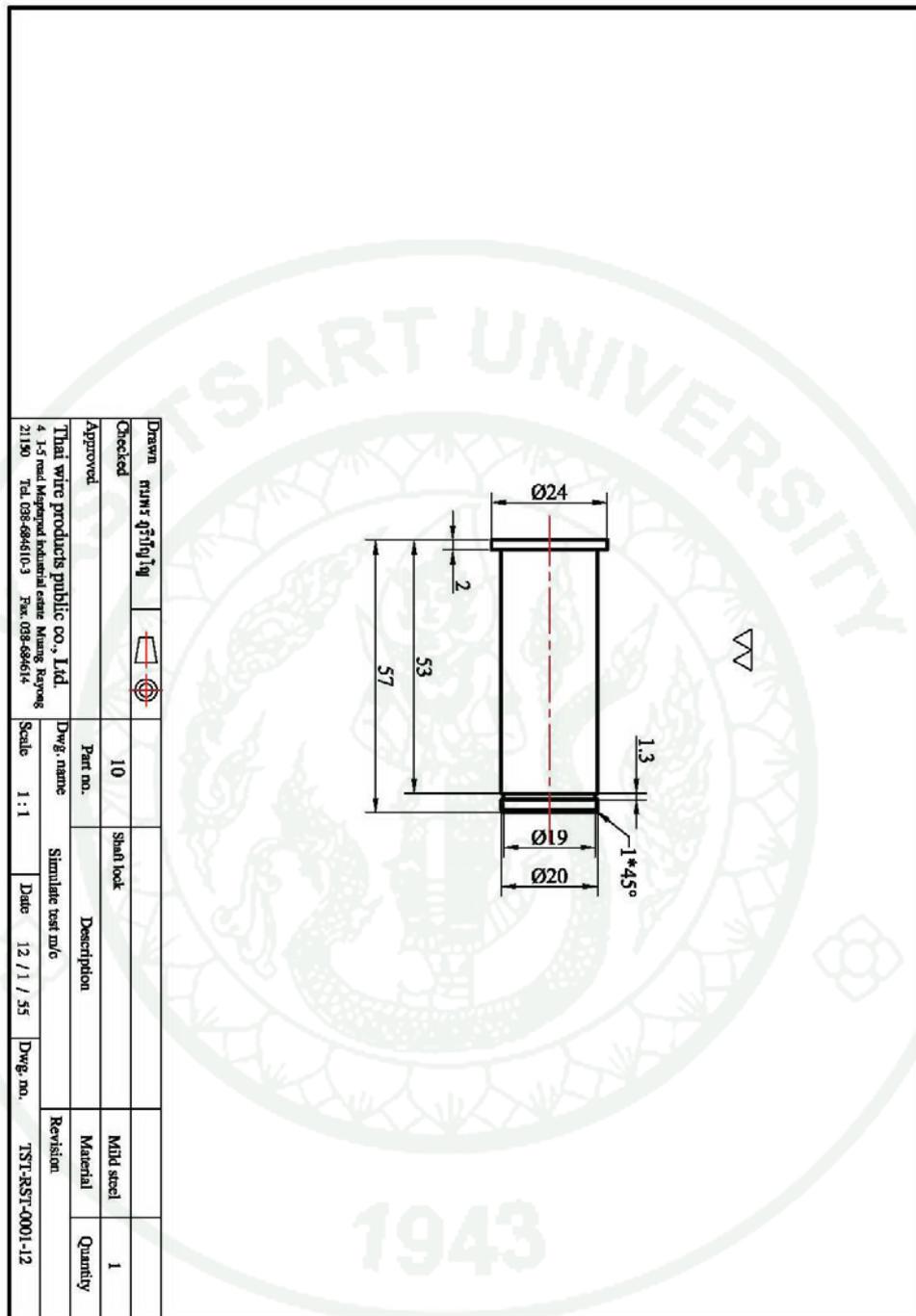
Appendix Figure E9 Breakdown of parts (6) - pull nut



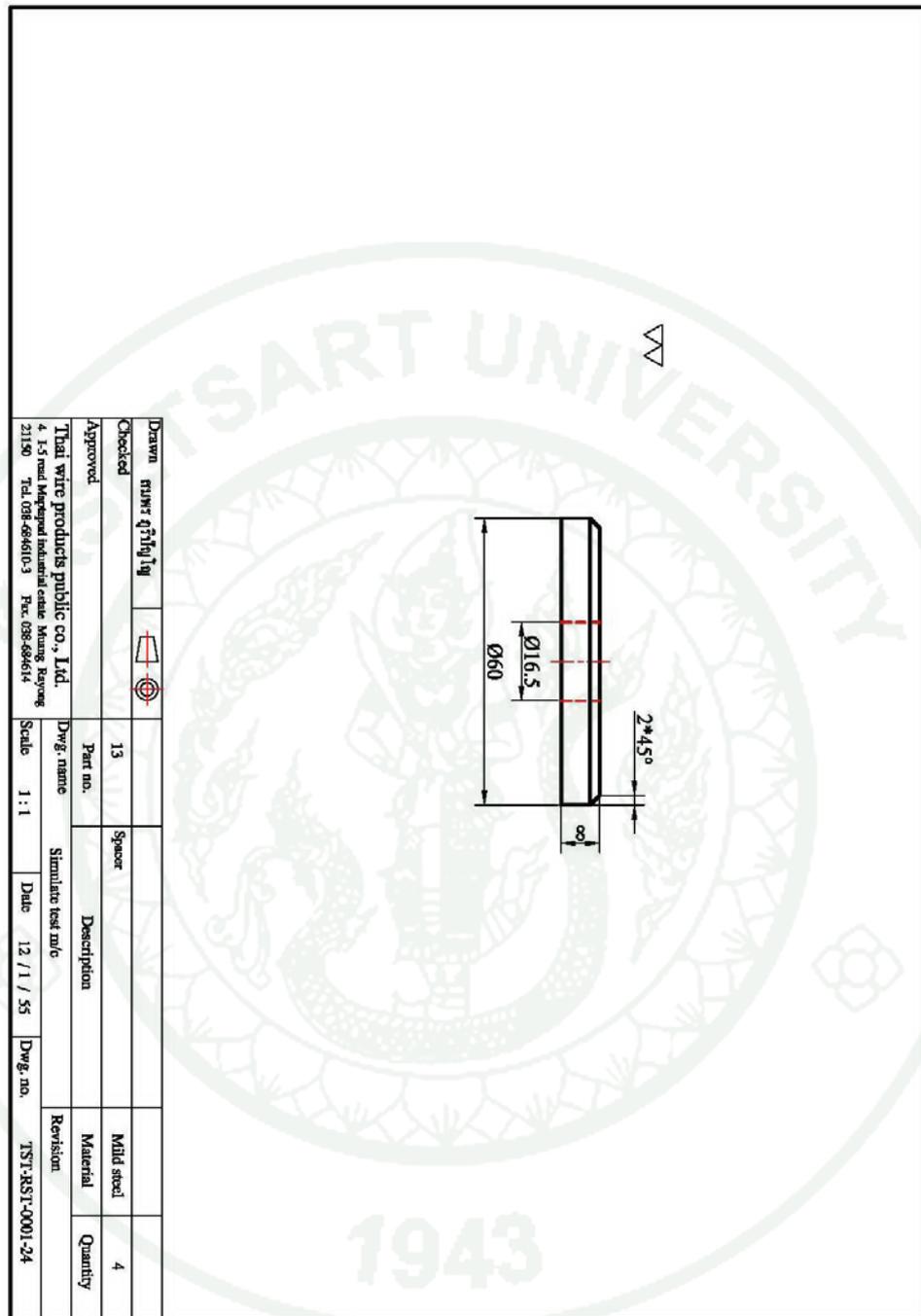
Appendix Figure E10 Breakdown of parts (7) - load fixture



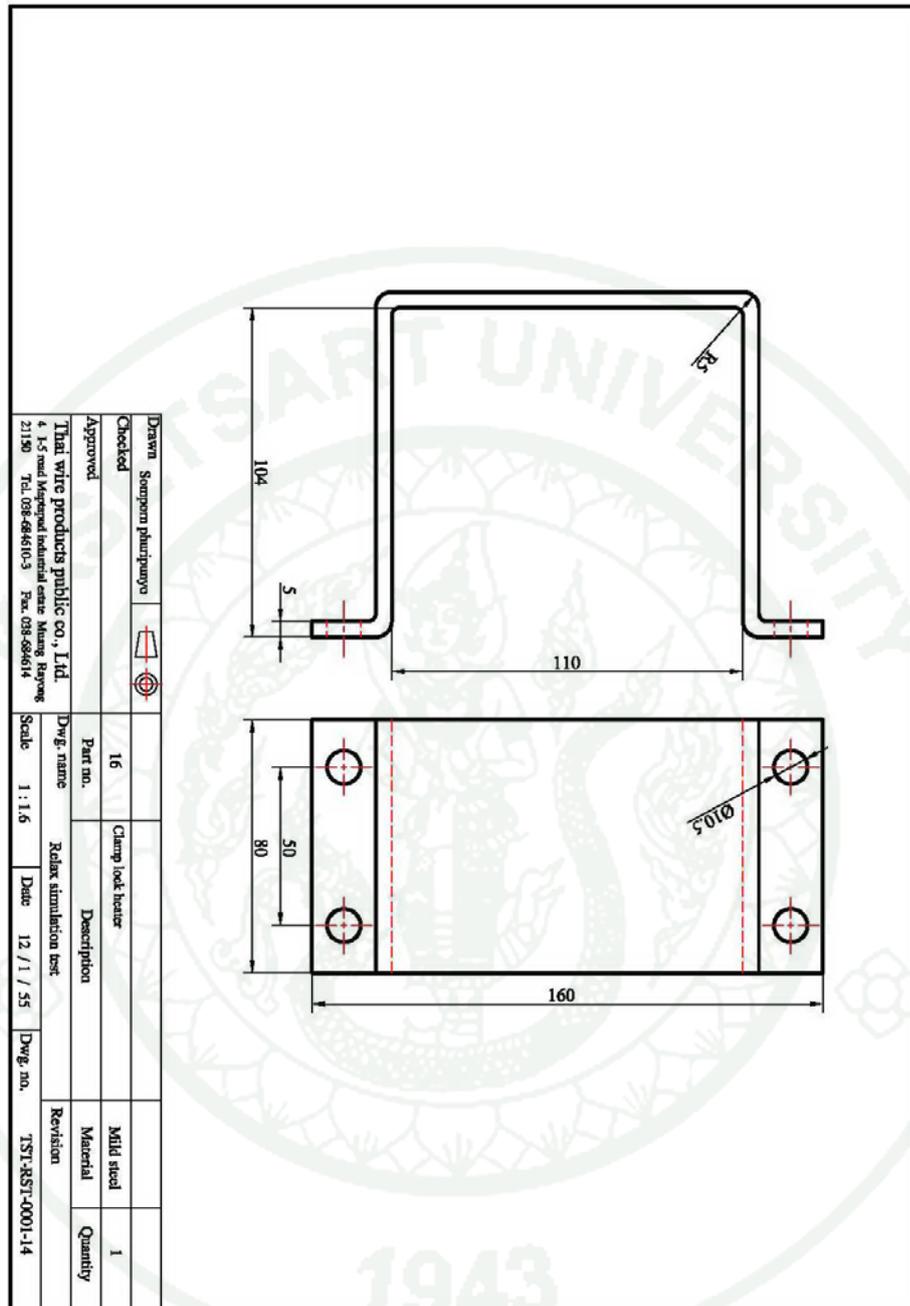
Appendix Figure E11 Breakdown of parts (9) - screw lock load cell



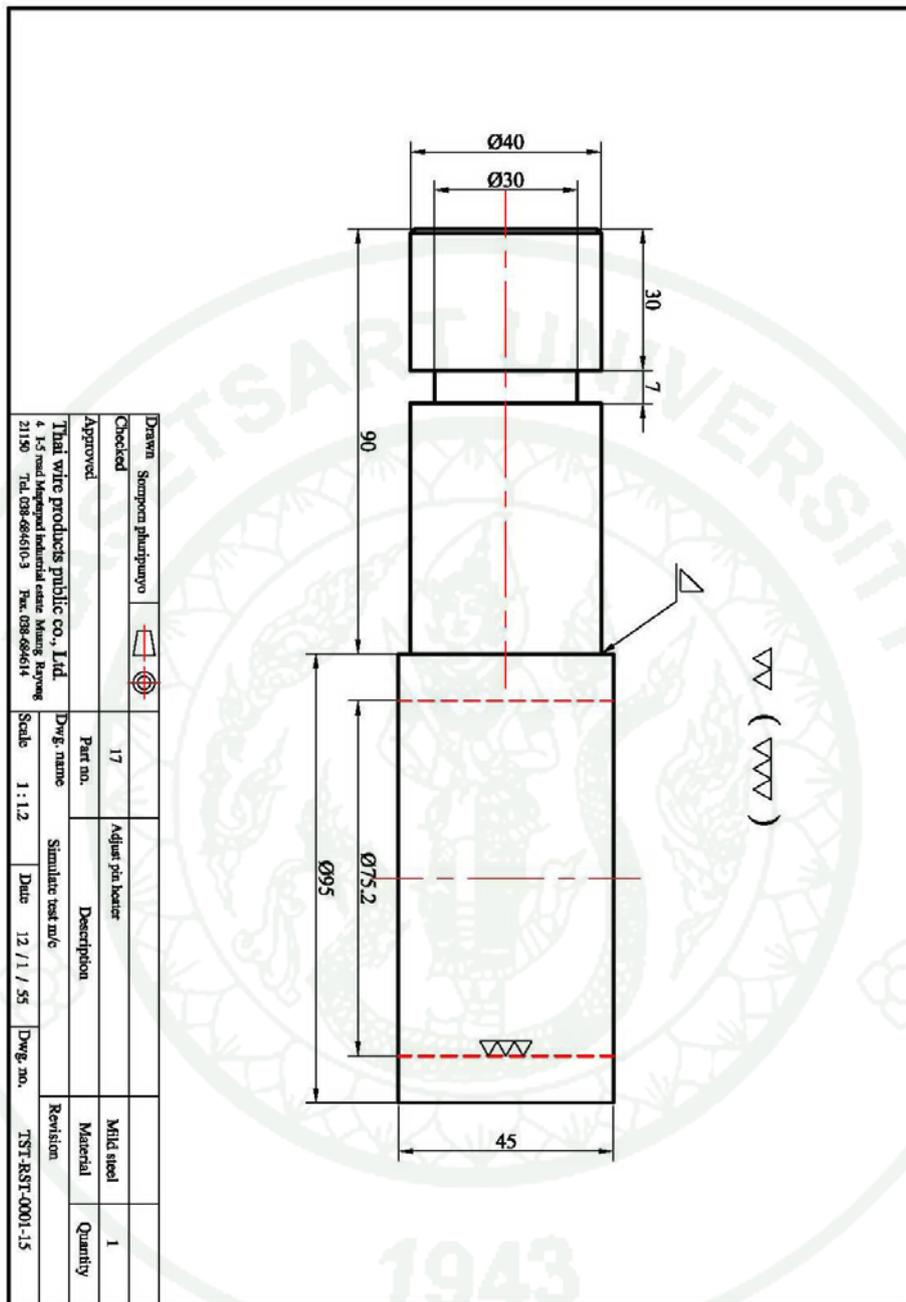
Appendix Figure E12 Breakdown of parts (10) - shaft lock



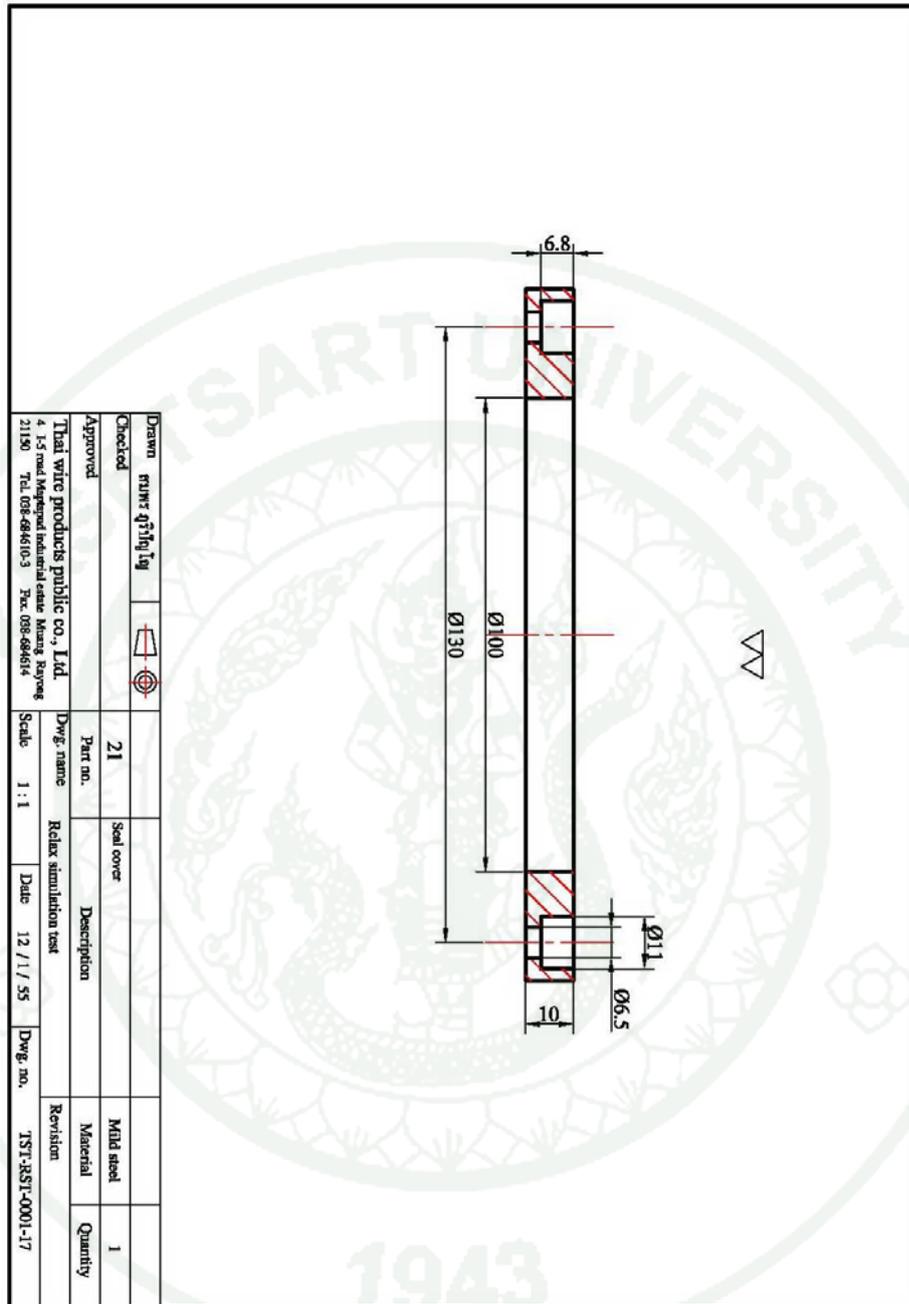
Appendix Figure E13 Breakdown of parts (13) - spacer



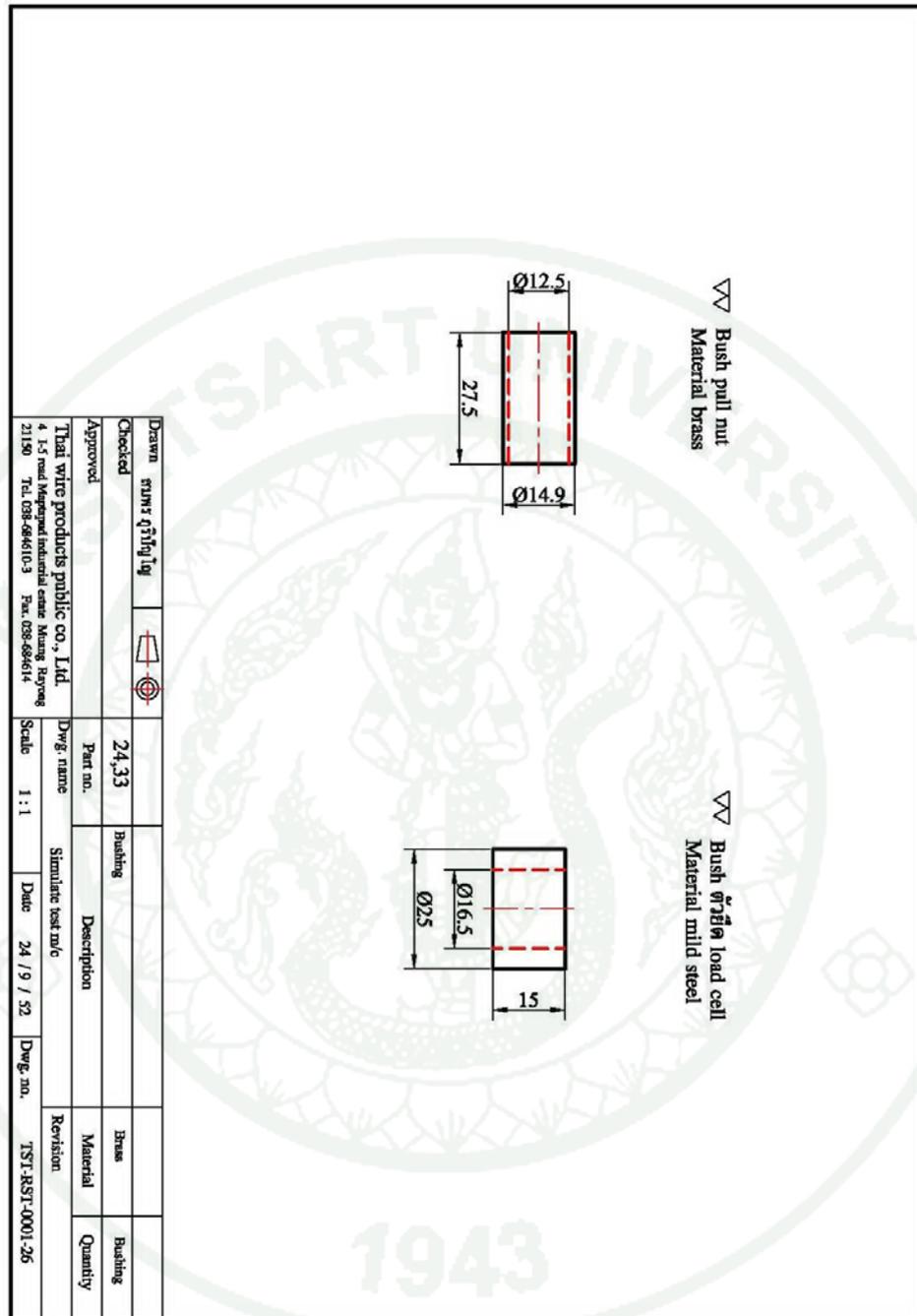
Appendix Figure E14 Breakdown of parts (16) - heater clamp



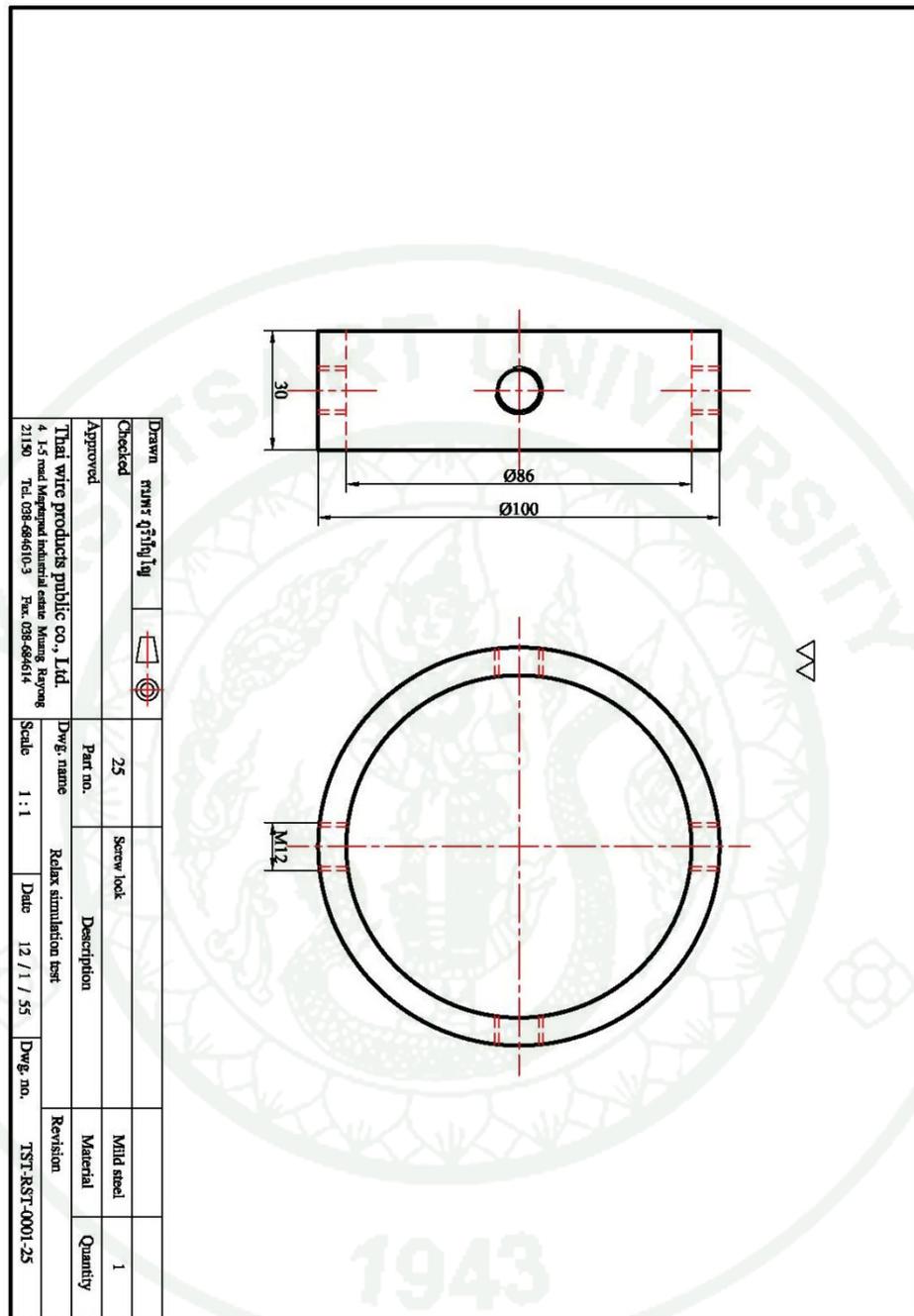
Appendix Figure E15 Breakdown of parts (17) - adjust pin heater



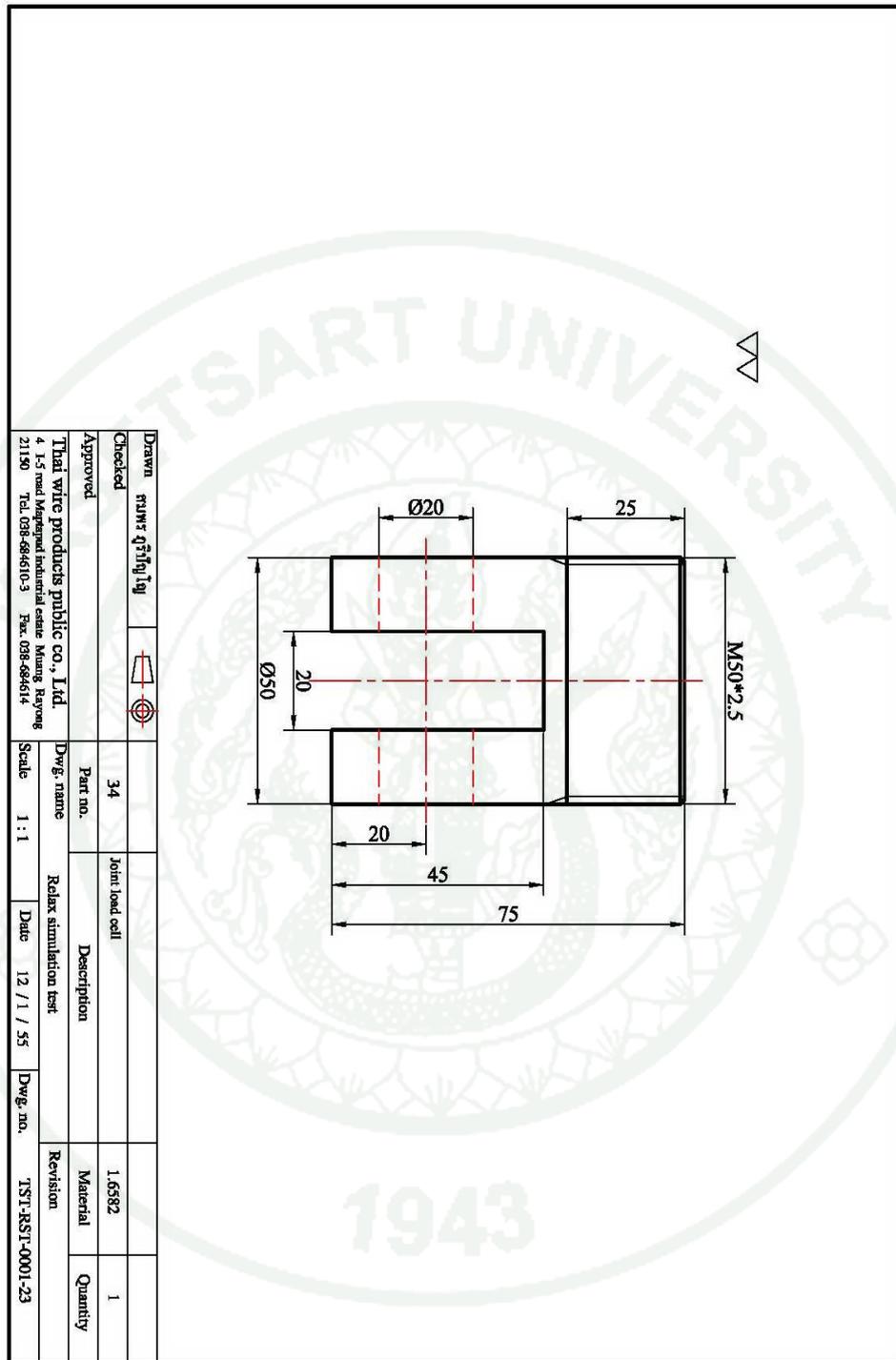
Appendix Figure E17 Breakdown of parts (21) - seal cover



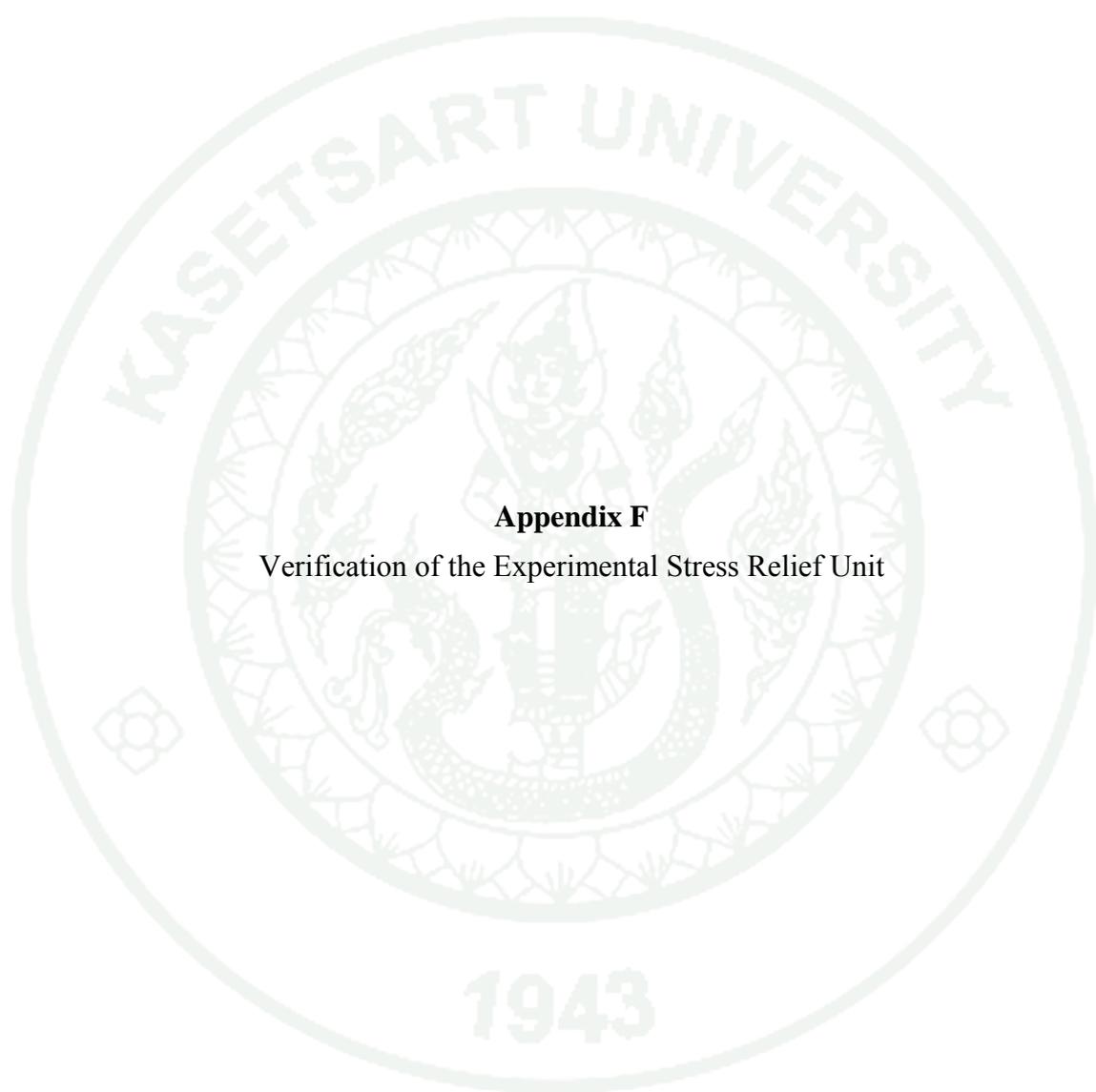
Appendix Figure E18 Breakdown of parts (24, 33) - bushing



Appendix Figure E19 Breakdown of parts (25) - screw lock



Appendix Figure E20 Breakdown of parts (34) - joint load cell



Appendix F

Verification of the Experimental Stress Relief Unit

Verification of the Experimental Stress Relief Unit

Having constructed an experimental stress relief unit for the purposes of this research project, it is necessary to verify that both the production unit and the experimental unit are equivalent in terms of performance. The treatment parameters of temperature and tension should be the same using both units. This is achieved by subjecting both units to statistical T-testing.

1. T-test for Temperature

The temperature settings of both units are independently tested to provide the data shown in Appendix Table F1 below.

Appendix Table F1 Temperature observations

Observation Number	Production line temperature	Stress relieve unit temperature
1	355	354
2	354	355
3	354	353
4	353	352
5	403	403
6	400	402
7	401	402
8	402	403

The temperature data is then be subjected to statistical T-testing to confirm the equivalence of both units as shown in appendix table F2.

Appendix Table F2 T-test for temperature

Two-sample T for Production line temperature vs Stress relief unit temperature

	N	Mean	St Dev	SE Mean
Production line temp	8	376.3	27.0	9.6
Stress relive unit temp	8	376.8	27.3	9.6

Difference = $\mu(\text{Production line temp}) - \mu(\text{Stress relive unit temp})$

Estimate for difference: -0.5

95% CI for difference: (-29.8, 28.8)

T-Test of difference = 0(vs not=): T-Value = -0.04 P-Value = 0.971 DF = 13

Because the p-value is more than 0.05, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected and we can conclude that the mean temperature of the production line unit is equivalent to that of the experimental unit.

2. T-test for Tension

The tension settings of both units are independently tested to provide the data shown in Appendix Table F3 below.

Appendix Table F3 Tension observations

Observation Number	Production Line tension (kgf)	Stress Relief Unit tension (kgf)
1	2300	2301
2	2301	2301
3	2300	2302
4	2301	2303
5	1200	1200
6	1200	1201
7	1202	1203
8	1201	1202

The tension data is then be subjected to statistical T-testing to confirm the equivalence of both units as shown in appendix table F4.

Appendix Table F4 T-test for tension

Two-sample Test for Production line tension vs Stress relive unit tension

	N	Mean	St Dev	SE Mean
Production line	8	1751	588	208
Stress relive unit	8	1752	588	208

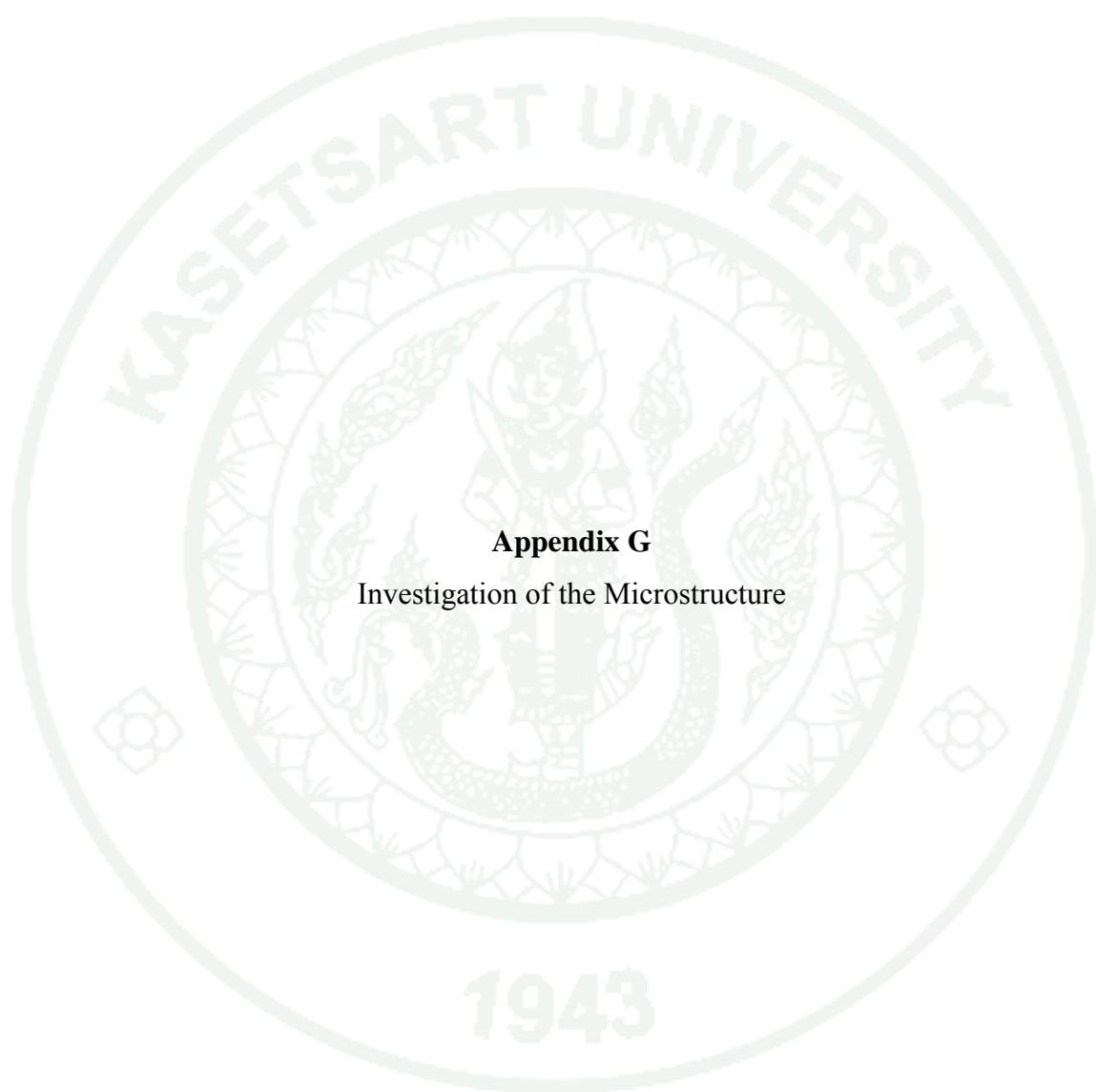
Difference = μ (Production line tension) - μ (Stress relive unit tension)

Estimate for difference: -1

95% CI for difference: (-636, 634)

T-Test of difference = 0(vs not =): T-Value = -0.00 P-Value = 0.997 DF = 13

Because the p-value is more than 0.05, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected and we can conclude that the mean tension of the production line unit is equivalent to that of the experimental unit.



Appendix G
Investigation of the Microstructure



MATERIAL PROPERTIES ANALYSIS AND DEVELOPMENT CENTRE (MPAD)

Request No. : MAL 1455/54

Date : 3 October 2011

Date of request : 29 September 2011

Page : 1 of 6

REPORT ON ANALYSIS / TESTING

For

Thai Wire Products Public Company Limited
4 I-5 Road, Maptaphud Industrial Estate, T. Maptaphud A. Muang Rayong 21150

Testing/analysis/investigation of : SG005700-0014-T390-45-250, SG005700-0013-T375-45-250,
 and SG005700-0012-T350-45-250

Method of testing/analysis/investigation : Microstructure analysis according to ASM Handbook Vol. 9-2004 and
 Hardness test (HV10) according to ASTM E 384-10^{E2}

Result of testing/analysis/investigation :

The test results are attached.

Tested/analyzed/investigated by

1. Preecha K.
2.
3.
4.

Approved by

(Sumate Poomiapirodce, Ph.D.)
 Director of Material Property Analysis Laboratory

Examined by

P. Thapnuay
 (Mrs. Pachanee Thapnuay)

This report contains 6 pages.

FS - MPAD - GEN- 510-1-01/02/48

Remark : The above results are valid exclusively for tested/analysed samples as mentioned in this report. Publication of the results on testing and analysis is prohibited unless written permission is obtained from the governor of TISTR

Thailand Institute of Scientific and Technological Research
 35 Moo 3, Technopolis Tambol Klong 5 Amphoe Khlong Luang Pathum Thani 12120 Thailand
 Tel. (66) 0 2577 9000 Fax: 0 2577 9009
 E-mail : listr@listr.or.th Website : www.listr.or.th

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TISTR

**MATERIAL PROPERTIES ANALYSIS AND DEVELOPMENT CENTRE (MPAD)
MATERIAL PROPERTY ANALYSIS LABORATORY (MAL)**

Request No. : MAL 1455/54**Date :** 3 October 2011**REPORT****Customer:** Thai Wire Products Public Company Limited**Page :** 2 of 6

Thai Wire Products Public Company Limited has commissioned the Material Properties Analysis and Development Centre, Thailand Institute of Scientific and Technological Research (MPAD/TISTR) to carry out microstructure analysis, and hardness test (HV10) of the specimens of SG005700-0014-T390-45-250, SG005700-0013-T375-45-250, and SG005700-0012-T350-45-250.

The results are as follows:



FS - MPAD - MAL- 510-1-01/02/48

Thailand Institute of Scientific and Technological Research
35 Moo 3, Technopolis Tambol Klong 5 Amphoe Khlong Luang Pathum Thani 12120 Thailand
Tel. (66) 0 2577 9000 Fax 0 2577 9009
E-mail : tistr@tistr.or.th Website : www.tistr.or.th

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TISTR

MATERIAL PROPERTIES ANALYSIS AND DEVELOPMENT CENTRE (MPAD)
MATERIAL PROPERTY ANALYSIS LABORATORY (MAL)

Request No. : MAL 1455/54

Date : 3 October 2011

REPORT

Customer: Thai Wire Products Public Company Limited

Page : 3 of 6

Analysis date : 30 September 2011



≈ 1000X

Etchant : 3% Nital

Fig. 1 Microstructure of a cross-section of the specimen of SG005700-0014-T390-45-250 shows

- Patented structure : Pearlite.



≈ 1000X

Etchant : 3% Nital

Fig. 2 Microstructure of a longitudinal section of the specimen of SG005700-0014-T390-45-250 shows

- Patented structure : Stretched pearlite.

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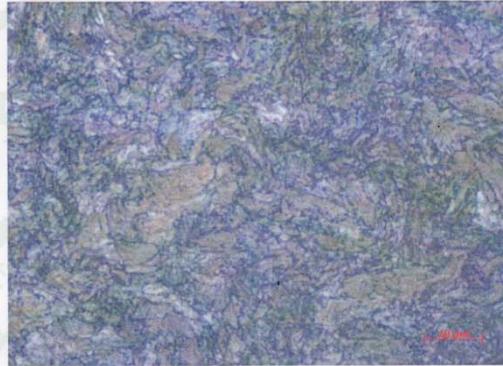
Thailand Institute of Scientific and Technological Research
35 Moo 3, Technopolis Tambol Klong 5 Amphoe Khlong Luang Pathum Thani 12120 Thailand
Tel. (66) 0 2577 9000 Fax 0 2577 9009
E-mail : tsitr@tsitr.or.th Website : www.tsitr.or.th

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MATERIAL PROPERTIES ANALYSIS AND DEVELOPMENT CENTRE (MPAD)	
MATERIAL PROPERTY ANALYSIS LABORATORY (MAL)	
Request No. : MAL 1455/54	Date : 3 October 2011
REPORT	
Customer: Thai Wire Products Public Company Limited	Page : 4 of 6

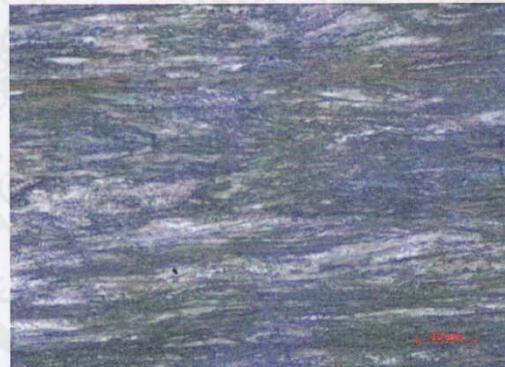
Analysis date : 30 September 2011



Etchant : 3% Nital

Fig. 3 Microstructure of a cross-section of the specimen of SG005700-0013-T375-45-250 shows

- Patented structure : pearlite.



Etchant : 3% Nital

Fig. 4 Microstructure of a longitudinal section of the specimen of SG005700-0013-T375-45-250 shows

- Patented structure : Stretched pearlite.

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Thailand Institute of Scientific and Technological Research
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MATERIAL PROPERTIES ANALYSIS AND DEVELOPMENT CENTRE (MPAD)
MATERIAL PROPERTY ANALYSIS LABORATORY (MAL)

Request No. : MAL 1455/54

Date : 3 October 2011

REPORT

Customer: Thai Wire Products Public Company Limited

Page : 5 of 6

Analysis date : 30 September 2011



≈ 1000X

Etchant : 3% Nital

Fig. 5 Microstructure of a cross-section of the specimen of SG005700-0012-T350-45-250 shows

- Patented structure : pearlite.



≈ 1000X

Etchant : 3% Nital

Fig. 6 Microstructure of a longitudinal section of the specimen of SG005700-0012-T350-45-250 shows

- Patented structure : Stretched pearlite.

FS - MPAD - MAL- 510-1-01/02/48



MATERIAL PROPERTIES ANALYSIS AND DEVELOPMENT CENTRE (MPAD)

MATERIAL PROPERTY ANALYSIS LABORATORY (MAL)

Request No. : MAL 1455/54

Date : 3 October 2011

REPORT

Customer: Thai Wire Products Public Company Limited

Page : 6 of 6

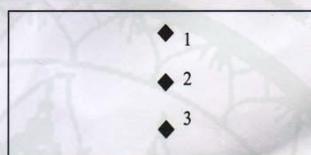
Test date : 30 September 2011

Hardness survey location of

SG005700-0014-T390-45-250, SG005700-0013-T375-45-250, and SG005700-0012-T350-45-250.



Cross-section



Longitudinal section

The results of Vickers hardness test (HV10) of

SG005700-0014-T390-45-250, SG005700-0013-T375-45-250, and SG005700-0012-T350-45-250.

Sample	Test point	1	2	3
SG005700-0014-T390-45-250	cross-section	508	498	508
	longitudinal section	503	508	508
SG005700-0013-T375-45-250	cross-section	514	498	503
	longitudinal section	508	503	508
SG005700-0012-T350-45-250	cross-section	508	498	503
	longitudinal section	508	514	503

FS - MPAD - MAL - 510 - 01/02/48

CURRICULUM VITAE

NAME : Mr. Dan Tong-in

BIRTH DATE : January 22, 1956

BIRTH PLACE : Bangkok, Thailand

EDUCATION	: <u>YEAR</u>	<u>INSTITUTE</u>	<u>DEGREE/DIPLOMA</u>
	1978	King Mongkut's of Technology North	B.S. (Mechanical Engineering)
	1988	King Mongkut's of Technology North	M.S. (Mechanical Engineering)

POSITION/TITLE : Plant Manager

WORK PLACE : Thai Wire Products Public Company Limited

POSITION/TITLE : President

WORK PLACE : Mahamitr Engineering Company Limited

PRESENTATIONS : The effect of stress relieving treatment condition on the quality of pressed concrete wire International Conference. 2009 Finland.

: Oral presentation “Using DOE to reduce costs and improve the quality of pre-stressed concrete wire in the manufacturing process” 2007. Republic of Slovenia.