

# On the high cycle fatigue resistance of austenitic stainless steels with surface gradient microstructures: Effect of load ratio and associated residual stress modification

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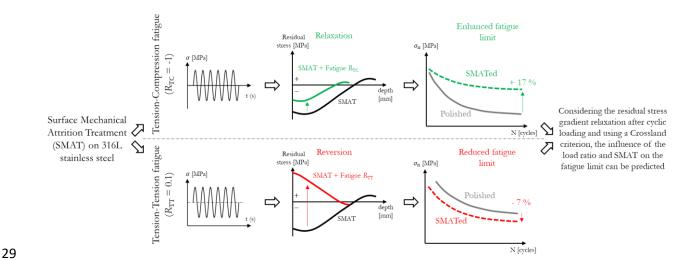
- 1 On the high cycle fatigue resistance of austenitic stainless steels with surface gradient
- 2 microstructures: effect of load ratio and associated residual stress modification

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### 13 Abstract

- 14 The effect of gradient microstructure generated by ultrasonic surface mechanical attrition treatment (SMAT)
- 15 on the fatigue performance of an austenitic stainless steel has been evaluated in the context of localized and
- 16 general plasticity by comparing two load ratios: fully reversed tension-compression (TC)  $R_{TC} = -1$  and
- tension-tension (TT)  $R_{\text{TT}} = +0.1$ , respectively.
- After identical SMAT processing conditions, the fatigue limit was enhanced by +17% for  $R_{TC}$  while it was
- reduced by -7 % for  $R_{\rm TT}$ . Under  $R_{\rm TC}$  cyclic loading, self-heating of the specimens and sub-surface martensitic
- 20 transformation occurred but not for  $R_{TT}$ . The residual stress measurements have also revealed that while the
- 21 stress gradient was smoothed after the  $R_{TC}$  fatigue loading, it was completely reverted for the  $R_{TT}$  one. In turns,
- 22 the fatigue crack initiation sites and propagation were modified between the  $R_{\rm TT}$  and  $R_{\rm TC}$  loading conditions.
- Considering the stabilized surface residual stress after fatigue loading, the use of a Crossland criterion allowed
- 24 to explain both the effects of load ratio and SMAT on the high cycle fatigue behavior of the stainless steel. It
- 25 turns out that under the studied loading conditions the modifications of residual stress state can be considered
- as the primary factor governing the varying fatigue performances and the observed triggering at different
- 27 initiation sites.

### 28 Graphical abstract



*Keywords:* Surface mechanical attrition treatment (SMAT), ultrasonic shot peening (USP), 316L austenitic stainless steel, fatigue, load ratio, residual stresses

### 1. Introduction

In the last two decades, functionally graded materials (FGMs) have been broadly studied, particularly those with varying properties from surface to core. In addition, such materials offer unique mechanical or chemical properties through microstructure or hardening gradients. As a result, automotive, aeronautic, or energy production industries expect them to produce higher efficiency and more reliable components [1, 2], especially those subjected to fatigue issues.

In cases such as corrosion, friction wear, or fatigue for which the surface is a critical issue, surface modifications may be sufficient to improve the properties of the mechanical part. In terms of fatigue, as most cracks initiate from the surface, inducing a compressive residual stress state by shot peening improves the fatigue limit of a wide variety of materials [3-7]. Also, surface severe plastic deformation (SPD) processes that lead to FGMs having an ultrafine grain (UFG) surface microstructure represent a way to enhance the functional properties of materials. Among those processes, surface mechanical attrition treatment (SMAT) or ultrasonic shot peening (USP) are derived from conventional shot peening (CSP) [8-12]. They differ from CSP because the motion of the shots is made within a confined chamber so that the shots can impact the surface of the sample, by colliding and bouncing on the chamber walls, for a potentially longer time and with a wider range of incidence angles. This leads to an increased number of activated slip systems allowing to very effectively refine the microstructure leading to a UFG state at the surface and the formation of a gradient

microstructure [13, 16]. SMAT or similar treatments were suggested to be efficient ways to enhance the fatigue behavior of many metallic alloys due to the coupled effect of microstructure, hardening gradient, and compressive residual stresses [17-22]. However, some manuscripts suggested that SMAT can be detrimental for some materials or if the chosen set of parameters for the SMAT treatment is not optimized [23-27].

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The 316L stainless steel is an example of highly used austenitic steel that, despite its good oxidation and corrosion resistances as well as its good formability, suffers from moderate mechanical properties. Different strengthening processes have been studied as a way to improve the mechanical properties of such alloys without giving up too much of their other characteristics [28-30]. By inducing hardening, residual stresses, and UFG microstructure layer, SMAT or similar processes have also been suggested to improve the fatigue behavior of 316L stainless steel. Indeed, Masaki et al. measured a nearly 100 % increase of the fatigue limit of 316L samples after hard shot-peening (HSP) when loaded in rotating bending [31]. Uusitalo et al. [18] and Roland et al. [32] respectively observed an 83 % and 21 % higher fatigue limit after performing SMAT with 3 mm diameter beads on 316L. Comparatively, with similar SMAT treated 316L samples, Sun et al. highlighted that the number of cycles to failure was unchanged compared to the untreated ones in the low cycle fatigue (LCF) regime despite the enhanced stress amplitudes for the SMAT-processed specimens [33]. Here again, on austenitic stainless steels, the literature gives apparently conflicting results. This unchanged fatigue life was proposed to be due to the higher residual stress relaxations induced by the higher strain amplitudes in LCF than in high cycle fatigue (HCF). This was then further investigated by Sun et al., who reported an almost fully relaxed residual stress gradient after a fatigue test conducted at 1.25 % of strain amplitude [34]. Huang et al. even measured a slight tensile residual stresses gradient after 3 % strain [35]. Therefore, this suggests that the macroscopic plastic strains could be affecting the residual stress gradient relaxation after fatigue loading, and then the fatigue life of SMAT processed samples. But, most of the fatigue testing available in the literature [30, 32, 35] have been conducted in fully reversed loading condition (R = -1), and as in this configuration the measured fatigue limits were in the same range of magnitude as the yield strength of the material, no data about the effect of macroscopic strain on the HCF behavior of SMAT processed 316L are available.

Thus, the goal of the present work is to shed some light on the exact capability of the SMAT to enhance the high cycle fatigue behavior for different loading conditions by taking the well-known commercial 316L stainless steel as a good test subject. Special attention will be paid to the effect of surface roughness and, as the

applied load ratio directly influences the macroscopic strains, to the evolutions of hardness and residual stress redistributions after fatigue loading.

### 2. Materials and Methods

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### 2.1. Sample preparation and surface treatment

The studied material was an AISI 316L stainless steel formed by swaging above 1040 °C into a 20 mm diameter bar. Table 1 summarizes the chemical composition of this steel together with the resulting martensite start temperature  $M_{\rm S}$  and the  $M_{\rm d30}$  temperature at which 50 % of martensite is formed when the material is subjected to a 30 % true strain. A heat treatment of 40 min at 900 °C was done on this raw material, resulting in a homogeneous microstructure with an average grain size of approximately 30 µm. Tensile tests revealed a yield stress  $\sigma_{vs}$  = 220 MPa, an ultimate tensile stress  $\sigma_{UTS}$  = 650 MPa and an elongation to failure of 105 %. Fatigue specimens with a 9 mm diameter and a 12.5 mm gauge length were machined. In order to remove the plastically deformed and heat-affected zone induced by machining, a layer of about 75 µm was removed by grinding the samples before polishing them to a mirror finish surface. While half of the polished samples were kept in this condition (initially polished condition - Table 2 a), the other half was treated by SMAT (SMAT condition - Table 2 a). The treatment was carried at a hitting distance of 20 mm for 60 min using a SONATS ultrasonic shot peening device [36] equipped with a sonotrode made of Ti-6Al-4V that was vibrating at a 60 µm amplitude and a 20 kHz frequency. A total of 4.1 grams of brand new 2 mm diameter 100C6 beads were inserted in the dedicated polyoxymethylene chamber before each treatment and two samples were treated simultaneously. The samples were rotated at a speed of 20 revolutions per minute during this surface mechanical attrition treatment. For specific analysis that will be described later on, some of these SMATed samples were mirror polished after a delicate grinding procedure with 1000 grit SiC abrasive paper (SMAT + polished condition - Table 2 a), resulting in a removed thickness of approximately 35 µm. All the above-mentioned surface conditions are gathered in Table 2 a with their respective surface roughness.

### 2.2. Fatigue tests

The fatigue tests were load-controlled to evaluate the overall HCF performance of the studied material for different load ratios. The load ratio is defined by Equation (1), and in order to study its effect on the uniaxial fatigue behavior of the polished and SMAT states of the 316L stainless steel, both tension-compression (TC) and tension-tension (TT) fatigue tests were conducted.

$$R = \frac{\sigma_{\min}}{\sigma_{\max}} \tag{1}$$

The following values of the load ratio were selected:  $R_{\rm TC}$  = -1 and  $R_{\rm TT}$  = +0.1. The fatigue tests were carried out at room temperature at a loading frequency of 10 Hz with an 810MTS servo-hydraulic machine. Any sample reaching 10<sup>6</sup> cycles without breaking was considered a run-out and was not reused.

### 2.3. Samples characterization

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Fracture surfaces of the broken samples were analysed using optical microscopy (OM) and scanning electron microscopy (SEM) to reveal the differences in crack initiation and propagation between the different tested conditions.

In order to decorrelate the influence of the gradients of microstructure, hardness, and residual stresses, reference SMATed samples were compared to the run-out samples that experienced the highest fatigue tested stress amplitude under  $R_{TC}$  and  $R_{TT}$  without failure. They were denominated as "SMAT + Fat  $R_{TC}$ " and "SMAT + Fat  $R_{\rm TT}$ ". A final condition was studied, for which a SMATed sample was tested for one single cycle at  $R_{\rm TT}$  at the same stress level as the SMAT + Fat  $R_{\rm TT}$  one. This sample was analysed to learn about the effect of the number of fatigue cycles; it was named "SMAT +  $1 \text{Cy } R_{\text{TT}}$ ". The testing conditions and their labelling are gathered in Table 2 b. For these four conditions (SMAT, SMAT + Fat  $R_{TC}$ , SMAT + Fat  $R_{TT}$  and SMAT + 1Cy R<sub>TT</sub>), the hardening state characterization was done by standard HV 0.3/20 Vickers microhardness measurements. They were conducted on specimen cross sections perpendicularly to the SMAT layer starting 30 µm below the surface until reaching the core material. Each indent was spaced by 100 µm to avoid interference, and 10 measurements were conducted for each given depth. In parallel, the in-depth residual stress gradients before and after fatigue loading of those four samples were characterized by X-ray diffraction after successive material layer removal using electrochemical polishing. For electro-polishing, a solution consisting of a mix of 6 % perchloric acid, 35 % butoxyethanol and 59 % methanol was used. The cylindrical fatigue samples were rotated during the XRD measurement to increase the number of diffracting grains and average potential local effects. A Pulstec μ-X360s device with a mounted Cr tube operating at 30 kV and 1.5 mA allowed to obtain full diffraction rings from the two-dimensional detector. The "Analysis Tools for Electron and X-ray diffraction" (ATEX) software [37], developed in LEM3, was used for post-processing the acquired data using the " $\cos \alpha$ " method. Finally, due to the residual stress redistribution occurring during successive material layer removal, the experimentally measured gradient was corrected using the Moore and Evans relations [38].

### 3. Results

The results will be presented hereafter into different subsections. The first subsection gathers the fatigue test results. Fatigue tests were carried out at  $R_{TC}$  for both the polished and SMAT conditions to set the reference data for easier comparison with the literature. Then similar tests were conducted at  $R_{TT}$  in order to highlight the effect of the load ratio. The second subsection details the analysis of the fracture surfaces. The third subsection deals with the analysis of the run-out samples. First, the surface of the run-out samples were investigated using SEM to look for potential fatigue cracks. Also, residual stress as well as hardness evolutions were studied to get further information about the material behavior in the fatigue limit regime of the SMATed samples for both  $R_{TC}$  and  $R_{TT}$ . Finally, this result section will be concluded by a Crossland initiation criterion analysis taking into account the relaxed residual stress fields to analyse the combined effects of load ratio and SMAT.

### 3.1. Fatigue properties

Figure 1 gives the Wöhler curves obtained for the polished and the SMAT conditions for both testing conditions: TC in Figure 1 a and TT in Figure 1 b. Circles represent the polished samples while the squares and stars the SMAT and SMAT + polished conditions, respectively. The full and hollow symbols indicate the broken and run-out specimens, respectively. The experimental data were fitted using the Stromeyer equation [39] defined by Equation (2), a full line was used for fitting the polished state and a dotted line for the SMAT one, while the SMAT + polished data were not fitted due to the small number of tested specimens.

$$\sigma_{\rm a} = \sigma_{\rm D} + \left(\frac{c}{N}\right)^{(1/m)} \tag{2}$$

In Figure 1 a, the results obtained by Dureau et al. in a previous study on the 304L stainless steel [40] were superimposed. Indeed, the data reported in Figure 1 a show that the 304L and 316L samples exhibit very similar fatigue behavior for both surface conditions.

For the Wöhler curves of the samples loaded at  $R_{\rm TC}$  (Figure 1 a), the fatigue limits are estimated to be 205 MPa and 240 MPa for the polished and SMAT conditions, respectively. Clearly, the SMAT provided an increase of about +17 % of the fatigue limit at  $R_{\rm TC}$ . For this  $R_{\rm TC}$  loading condition, self-heating of the surface of the specimens as high as 150 and 250 °C was measured for the highest tested stress amplitudes for the polished and SMATed samples respectively. For the samples loaded in the range of the fatigue limit, the self-heating was less than 50 °C and considered negligible, similarly to what was reported in a previous

work [40]. For the  $R_{\rm TT}$  loading, Figure 1 b indicates that the fatigue life of the SMATed samples was very similar to the polished ones in the  $10^5$  cycle regime, while it tended to be slightly lower in the  $10^6$  cycle domain. Under  $R_{\rm TT}$ , the fatigue limits were estimated to be 230 MPa and 215 MPa for the polished and SMAT conditions, respectively. Comparatively, for the SMAT + polished specimens also loaded at  $R_{\rm TT}$ , the fatigue life as well as the fatigue limit of those specimens appeared to be slightly increased compared to the SMATed ones due to the post-polishing procedure. Contrary to what was observed for the  $R_{\rm TC}$  condition, a reduction of about -7 % is induced by the surface mechanical attrition treatment when the samples are loaded at  $R_{\rm TT}$ . The initially polished and SMAT + polished data almost superimpose for the  $R_{\rm TT}$  conditions. This indicates that the actual surface state has an influence since the post-polishing procedure restored the overall fatigue properties. Interestingly, contrary to what was reported at  $R_{\rm TC}$ , no self-heating of the specimens was measured for this load ratio.

### 3.2. Broken samples analysis

Figure 2 presents typical SEM images of the characteristic initiation sites observed on the different tested specimens. In Figure 2, the three horizontal lines correspond to the surface state of the samples (initial polished, SMAT, or SMAT + polished) while the columns rank the observations made for the two load ratios,  $R_{TC}$  or  $R_{TT}$ , with images of samples that broke under high or low stress amplitudes.

For the  $R_{TC}$  loaded samples, the comparative analysis of the fracture surfaces - at a given stress amplitude for the polished and SMAT conditions - revealed very similar fatigue crack initiation features. As marked by the red arrows in Figure 2 a1, the high stress amplitude is witnessed by the presence of a secondary crack intercepting the fracture surface in the vicinity of the initiation site of the polished sample. For the SMAT samples subjected to a high stress amplitude, as illustrated in Figure 2 b1, no such crack was observed; instead, a very distinct river line aspect was revealed. For the low stress amplitude conditions, as shown in Figures 2 a2 and b2, no difference was noticed on the initiation sites regardless of the surface condition. Thus, the observed modification of the crack initiation was more influenced by the applied stress amplitude than by the exact nature of the surface.

For the samples loaded at  $R_{TT}$  at high stress amplitudes, all the samples experienced fatigue crack initiation on surface inclusions whatever the exact nature of the surface condition as seen in Figures 2 c1, d1 and e1. Moreover, all the observed inclusions exhibited a rather circular shape except for the SMAT conditions. Indeed, compared to the round solid inclusion shown in Figure 2 c1 for the polished sample, the inclusion seen

in Figure 2 d1 for the SMAT sample exhibits numerous sharp angles and facets. Indeed, in the case of rather large particles located at or just beneath the surface, the repeated impacts can result in their fragmentation directly under the action of SMAT. This can explain why fragmented inclusions were observed in some SMAT samples (Figure 2 d1) but not in the polished ones (Figure 2 c1). Figures 2 e1 highlights, once again, an initiation on a surface solid inclusion for the SMAT + polished condition; even if the inclusion was even ejected from the fracture surface for this specific sample, leaving a cavity. For the lowest stress amplitudes, initiation also occurred at the surface for the three conditions. However, inclusions were never observed at the initiation site of the analysed initial polished and SMAT conditions. Figure 2 c2 demonstrates that, as no inclusion is found, fatigue cracks are probably initiated on surface roughness induced by plasticity such as slip bands. In contrast, Figure 2 d2 shows that for the SMAT, initiation occurred on a dimple (i.e., a surface asperity induced by SMAT), as will be confirmed in Figure 3. For the SMAT + polished samples loaded at low stress (Figure 2 e2), initiation occurred at a surface inclusion as previously described for the  $R_{TT}$  high stress conditions. However, due to the lower number of tested samples, it seems speculative to conclude that no change in the initiation mechanism is observed when reducing the stress amplitude in the case of SMAT + polished samples.

Figure 3 gathers the EDX maps corresponding to the four areas surrounded by red rectangles in Figure 2. Only the case of  $R_{TT}$  samples is presented because the analysis carried out on the initiation sites of the  $R_{TC}$  samples did not reveal any inclusion or chemical heterogeneity. As shown in Figure 3 a, the inclusion found at the initiation site of the polished sample loaded at high stress amplitude is a rather complex calcium-aluminate oxide also containing magnesium. The inclusion visible in Figure 2 e2 for the case of a low stress SMAT + polished sample loaded at  $R_{TT}$  was another calcium aluminate oxide containing magnesium and silicon. The inclusions could also be simple aluminium oxides, as shown in Figure 3 b for a SMAT sample loaded at high amplitude. The most probable explanation for the presence of these different oxides is that they are initially formed between the molten metal and the slag by the addition of deoxidation products during the argon oxygen decarburation process. As explained by Zhang et al. [41], this usually leads to the formation of characteristic oxides based on SiO<sub>2</sub>, CaO, and Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. These oxides being solid in the molten metal due to their higher melting temperature, they are present in the final product as inclusions of different oxide chemistry. These observed inclusions have a fairly nodular shape with a diameter of about 10  $\mu$ m regardless of their composition. On the other hand, Figure 3 c reveals that the dimple defect observed in Figure 2 d2 is filled by aluminium, titanium, and vanadium. This chemical composition corresponds to the characteristic

contamination layer that can form during sufficiently long surface mechanical attrition treatment. Such type of contamination layer is known to form by erosion ablated scraps coming from the 100C6 shots, the Ti-6Al-4V sole of the sonotrode or even particles from the chambers. Such contamination layer was already observed by Samih et al. and was even shown to reach depths of approximately 5 µm due to the pile-up, ablation, and deposition mechanisms for similar SMAT conditions [42]. These observations were later confirmed by Chemkhi et al. on SMATed 316L stainless steel [43]. This contamination layer is known to affect the reactivity and corrosion resistance of the SMAT treated surfaces [10]. Its chemistry was also shown to have determining consequences regarding the wear behavior of the shot peened surfaces due to its effect on the exact nature of the abrasive oxides that form during dry contact friction [44].

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Figure 4 compares the macroscopic optical observations of the fracture surfaces of the different tested specimen conditions (line a) with sketches of the fracture sequence with topology of these fracture surfaces (line b). For the  $R_{TT}$  loading conditions, the observed features for the SMAT and the SMAT + polished samples were similar; thus, only the SMAT condition is shown. For the  $R_{TC}$  loading condition of the polished sample (Figure 4 a1), the observation shows a fairly straight propagation front perpendicular to the propagation direction (i.e., sample radius) before the final fracture. Comparatively, the propagation region forms an internal circular-like area for the SMAT samples (Figure 4 a2). The same behavior was observed in a previous study on a 304L stainless steel treated by SMAT and loaded at  $R_{TC}$  [40]. For the  $R_{TT}$  loading conditions (Figure 4 a3 and a4), semi-circular crack fronts were observed before the occurrence of a ductile fracture for all conditions. At this scale, no obvious difference in the shape of the fracture surfaces was observed when comparing the different polished and SMAT samples loaded at R<sub>TT</sub>. Figures 4 b1, b2, b3, and b4, give the topology of the fracture surfaces and the initiation site was taken as the reference point for the measured altitude. The propagation plateau in the case of the  $R_{TC}$  polished sample is perfectly perpendicular to the loading axis, as indicated in Figure 4 b1 by the large domain of blue colour pointed by the red arrow. Comparatively, in the central region of the fracture surface of the  $R_{\rm TC}$  SMAT sample, a slight angle of about 7  $^{\circ}$  was observed perpendicular to the crack propagation direction due to the higher stress amplitude, as shown in Figure 4 b2. In addition as indicated by the dotted black arrows, the fatigue fracture surface delimited by the circle-like dotted line in Figure 4 b2 continued toward the hardened surface by a propagation zone inclined at 45 °. Minor differences can be noticed on the fracture surfaces when comparing the  $R_{\rm TT}$  conditions (Figures 4 b3 and b4). However, inclined propagation zones are visible in the vicinity of the surface for the shot peened samples, as outlined in Figure 4 b4 by the regions delimited by the curved dotted lines and pointed by the red arrows. These

specific crack propagation features for the SMAT samples loaded at  $R_{TC}$  and  $R_{TT}$ , because they were not visible for the initial polished samples, are then linked to the presence of the SMAT affected layer. They can either result from the microstructure and especially texture effects, as was already discussed for several UFG metallic materials such as interstitial-free steel [45], aluminium alloy [46], or commercially pure copper [47]. As the texture modifications under SMAT are rather weak [48], the modifications in crack propagation are more likely due to the tri-axial field of residual stress generated in this region. It leads to a curved crack propagation path, as discussed by Cotterell and Rice [49]. As shown by comparing Figures 4 b1, b2, b3, and b4, the failure sequence always consists of three stages. For all conditions, it starts with a surface crack initiation followed by a propagation phase and finishes with a ductile fracture. However, as confirmed by the larger domains of grey contrast in Figures 4 b3 and b4, the ductile fracture occurred after much shorter fatigue crack propagation for the  $R_{TT}$  than for the  $R_{TC}$  ones (Figures 4 b1 and b2). This is expected since, for an identical stress amplitude, the maximum macroscopic stress is more than twice as high for the  $R_{TT}$  loading condition than for the  $R_{TC}$  one. Also, due to this much higher stress while breaking, samples loaded at  $R_{TT}$  experienced necking and bending, leading to a much more deformed final section (Figures 4 b3 and b4) compared to the  $R_{TC}$  samples for which the original circular section can still be clearly distinguished (Figures 4 b1 and b2).

### 3.3. Unbroken samples analysis

Figure 5 presents the characteristic surface state of the run-out samples observed by SEM. For  $R_{TC}$ -the images are not presented because, for the polished samples, the observation only revealed fine witness marks of plastic activity while, for the SMAT samples, observation was nearly impossible due to the roughness of the surface and the presence of the contamination layer (previously discussed in Figure 3 c) partially covering the sample surface. For  $R_{TC}$ , Figure 5 a reveals fine witness marks of plastic activity visible on the polished surface. Some favourably oriented grains exhibit slip bands which usually are parallel. Such traces were not visible for the SMAT samples (Figure 5 b) due to the roughness of the surface and the presence of the contamination layer (previously discussed in Figure 3 c) partially covering the sample surface. For  $R_{TT}$ , as shown in Figure 5 c, the surface of the polished samples is very affected by the fatigue loading. Indeed, it is covered with highly pronounced slip bands and the deformation of the grains creates a micro-roughness leading to the classic "orange-peel" aspect of the deformed samples. For the  $R_{TT}$  loaded SMAT samples, Figure 5 d illustrates that the contamination layer covering the SMAT sample surface is not homogeneous. Indeed, in Figure 5 d, the yellow dashed curve delimits the left end side where the rough surface of the fatigue sample is visible from the right end side where the contamination layer appears in a darker colour. Once again, the rough

SMAT surface does not allow to identify surface plasticity. Comparatively, as indicated by the red arrows, it is interesting to notice that the contamination layer of the samples has fractured during the fatigue loading due to the elongation of the stainless steel substrate. For the SMAT + polished condition, slip bands are visible at the surface of the samples (Figure 5 e). However, due to the refined microstructure generated during SMAT, the slip bands are not as straight as for the initial polished state. Figure 5 has shown that different surface states and plastic activity were identified for the different studied conditions. Nevertheless, fatigue crack initiation was never detected for run-out samples regardless of their surface condition or the imposed stress amplitude and load ratio. This indicates that initiation seems to be the key aspect to consider when studying the effect of SMAT on the HCF behavior of stainless steel.

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Figure 6 gives the evolutions of the longitudinal component of the residual stress tensor with respect to the depth below the surface for different conditions. Figure 6 a compares the stress gradient after fatigue on a run-out sample for the  $R_{TC}$  loading (SMAT + Fat  $R_{TC}$  condition for  $\sigma_a = 240$  MPa) with the reference SMAT one. Figure 6 b shows the evolutions of the stress state for  $R_{TT}$  loading after one cycle (SMAT + 1Cy  $R_{TT}$  for  $\sigma_a$  = 215 MPa) and after another fatigue run-out (SMAT + Fat  $R_{TT}$  also for  $\sigma_a$  = 215 MPa). The reference SMAT sample characterization is presented by solid black curves, while dotted and dashed lines are used after loading. As the 316L stainless steel samples underwent stress- or strain-induced martensitic phase transformation during the SMAT process, two phases did coexist. Thus, in the graphs, circles are the measured values of residual stress in austenite ( $\gamma$ ), while squares are used for martensite ( $\alpha$ '). The error bars represent the standard deviation of each linear fit used in the " $\cos \alpha$ " method for each measured point. For clarity, they are only displayed when the standard error is more than 50 MPa. As shown by the solid black curves in Figures 6 a and b, SMAT allowed to create a compressive residual stress gradient along about 600 µm below the treated surface. Due to the stress and strain fields, a partial martensitic transformation occurred in the first 100 µm below the surface. This is rather consistent with the observations of Novelli et al. on the 304L stainless steel [50], even if it has to be recalled that the austenite in the 304L is less stable and then more susceptible to undergo martensitic transformation than for the 316L. For the reference SMAT condition, surface residual stresses of approximately -600 MPa and -900 MPa were evaluated in austenite and martensite, respectively. The maximum values of residual stresses were recorded slightly below the surface. They were -750 MPa for austenite at 100 µm below the surface and -1 GPa for martensite at a depth of 25 µm. These results are consistent with observations made by different authors [34, 40, 51]. Interestingly, after fatigue, stress relaxation took place in very different ways depending on the loading conditions. As shown in Figure 6 a for

the R<sub>TC</sub> loading, the surface stresses were relaxed by approximately 50 % in both austenite and sub-surface martensite for the SMAT + Fat  $R_{TC}$  sample. This resulted in approximately constant internal stress levels along the first 100 µm below the surface with values of -250 MPa and -500 MPa in the austenite and martensite phases, respectively. In addition to this compressive residual stress relaxation, the depth of the gradient was also reduced down to 275 µm. Moreover, it is very interesting to notice that additional martensite was created during the cyclic loading at depths below 200 µm (down to about 350 µm because deeper investigations were not conducted). Thus, due to the load condition of SMAT followed by fatigue at  $R_{TC}$ , martensite was present in a fait amount at depth in the range 0-100 µm and bellow 200 µm but not detected in the 100-200 µm depth domain. For the R<sub>TT</sub> loading conditions, a reversion of the residual stress state was revealed. Indeed, for the SMAT + Fat R<sub>TT</sub> sample, surface stresses of +850 MPa and +1250 MPa were measured in austenite and martensite, respectively. Similarly to what was observed on the SMAT + Fat R<sub>TC</sub>, the residual stresses stored in martensite were relatively constant but, in this case, no additional stress- or strain-induced martensite was formed in the subsurface. In austenite, the internal stress level decreased almost linearly as a function of depth down to 350 µm below the surface. Interestingly, the stress gradient was almost completely reverted after only one cycle of  $R_{\rm TT}$  fatigue. Indeed, surface stress of +750 MPa in austenite and +1150 MPa in martensite were measured for the SMAT + 1Cy  $R_{TT}$  sample.

Figure 7 compares the SMAT reference hardness gradient with the ones measured after the different loading conditions. Figures 7 a, b, and c present the results for the SMAT + Fat  $R_{TC}$ , SMAT + Fat  $R_{TT}$ , and SMAT + 1Cy  $R_{TT}$  samples, respectively. Each point represents the average value and the error bars are the minimum and maximum hardness values measured at the corresponding depth. The hardness gradient for the reference SMAT sample before fatigue is displayed in every graph. It is characterized by a maximum value of 500 HV measured 50  $\mu$ m below the surface and an estimated total hardened layer of about 600  $\mu$ m. These values are consistent with data from the literature on the 316L and 304L alloys after comparable surface mechanical attrition treatments [34, 40, 52, 53]. After cyclic loading for one cycle or more, the curves of the SMAT + Fat  $R_{TC}$ , SMAT + Fat  $R_{TT}$ , and SMAT + 1Cy  $R_{TT}$  samples depict a general gradient evolution that is quite similar to the reference SMAT one. However, when sufficient fatigue cycles were applied (i.e., for the two SMAT + Fat conditions in Figures 7 a and b), a slight softening was detected at the subsurface between 100 and 200  $\mu$ m (as indicated by the single red arrows), while, as pointed by the double red arrows below 600  $\mu$ m, a hardening was measured in the so-called "core material". Differences in the behavior of dislocations can explain these two opposite phenomena. Indeed, during cyclic loading, the annihilation of

dislocations created under SMAT occurs, thus leading to softening in the subsurface. Similar explanation was given in the work of Sun et al. in which a similar behavior was observed [33]. In the core material, new dislocations were created during fatigue, and the material was hardened. The stabilized value in the core is 220 HV, which represents an increase of about 10 % compared to the initial hardness of the material. The absence of significant differences for the SMAT + 1Cy  $R_{TT}$  sample indicates that several cycles of fatigue are needed to reach the stabilized hardened state.

### 3.4. Crossland criterion

The fact that the residual stress gradient after fatigue was shown to be drastically different for both loading conditions (RTC and RTT) indicates that not only the macroscopic loading has to be considered to understand the influence of SMAT on the fatigue limits for those two load ratios. Moreover, as for each tested conditions the fatigue limit was shown to be characterised by the incapacity of fatigue cracks to initiate, an initiation endurance criterion taking into account the multiaxial stress field at the surface of the fatigue samples, such as the Crossland criterion [54], seems to be a way to understand the difference of effectiveness of such treatment in the HCF regime. Three hypotheses were considered to establish the Crossland criterion. The first one is that the initial polished samples were exempt from residual stress due to the surface polishing after machining. The second one is that the free surface of the SMAT samples is considered to be under a plane stress state and that the shear components  $\sigma_{12}$  and  $\sigma_{21}$  are negligible compared to the longitudinal and tangential ones  $\sigma_{11}$  and  $\sigma_{22}$ . The third one is that only the residual stress state measured in austenite was considered because the proportion of martensite was limited and not quantified in detail, so that a "rule of mixtures" could not be used. Considering that the estimated fatigue limits are  $\sigma_{RTC}^{polished} = 205$  MPa,  $\sigma_{RTC}^{SMAT} = 240$  MPa,  $\sigma_{RTC}^{SMAT} = 230$  MPa, and  $\sigma_{RTC}^{SMAT} = 215$  MPa, and that the stabilized surface residual stress tensors after fatigue loading of the SMAT samples are:

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$$\underbrace{\underline{RS}}_{R_{TC}}^{SMAT} \begin{bmatrix} -229 & \sim 0 & 0 \\ \sim 0 & -512 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \underbrace{\underline{RS}}_{R_{TT}}^{SMAT} \begin{bmatrix} +872 & \sim 0 & 0 \\ \sim 0 & -225 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The following two stress tensors invariants were calculated.  $J_{1,\max} = \frac{1}{3} tr\left(\underline{\underline{\sigma}}_{max}\right)$  and  $\sqrt{J_{2,a}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}} \underline{\underline{S}}_a : \underline{\underline{S}}_a$  where  $\underline{\underline{S}}_a$  is the stress amplitude tensor deviator defined by  $\underline{\underline{S}}_a = \underline{\underline{\sigma}}_a - \frac{1}{3} tr\left(\underline{\underline{\sigma}}_a\right) \cdot \underline{\underline{I}}$ . The results are plotted in Figure 8 for the different load ratios and surface state conditions. The two points corresponding to the fatigue limits of the polished conditions for  $R_{TC}$  (hollow circle) and  $R_{TT}$  (filled circle) are located in a similar  $\sqrt{J_{2,a}}$  area

of the graph due to the comparable measured fatigue limits. However, the point representing the polished  $R_{\rm TT}$  (filled circle) condition is shifted to the right on the  $J_{1,\rm max}$  axis compared to the  $R_{\rm TC}$  (hollow circle) one due to the higher maximum stress during cycle for this load ratio. Comparatively, for both SMAT conditions, the residual stress state acts as a mean stress during cyclic loading. Thus, due to the compressive stress field, the point corresponding to the  $R_{\rm TC}$  SMAT condition (hollow square) is pushed in the region of the graph where  $J_{1,\rm max}$  is negative. Because of the surface tensile residual stresses for  $R_{\rm TT}$  SMAT (filled square), the corresponding point is shifted to the right end side of the graph. The four points are almost aligned in a slightly decreasing trend indicating the negative effect of the maximum hydrostatic pressure, which is usually observed in the Crossland criterion representations [54, 55]. Moreover, the obtained fitted linear curve separates the graph into two regions. The region below the curve corresponds to the "safety domain" where failure will not occur. In contrast, the region above the line represents the "failure domain" in which cracking will occur, and fracture of the sample should happen.

### 4. Discussions

The previous section has shown that the load ratio applied to a specimen has a non-negligible impact on the potential effect of SMAT on the HCF behavior of austenitic stainless steels. Indeed, our results have shown that the SMAT allowed to increase the fatigue limit of samples loaded at  $R_{TC}$ =-1 by about +17 % for both the 316L and 304L steels, while a reduction of -7 % was observed when samples were loaded at  $R_{TT}$ =+0.1. For  $R_{TC}$ , such improvement has already been observed in fully reversed loading (R=-1), whether the steel was loaded in tension-compression [32, 40] or alternating flexural or rotating bending [18, 40]. In comparison, for  $R_{TT}$ , no direct comparison with data from the literature is available for stainless steels treated by SMAT. While mechanical surface treatments are carried out to enhance the fatigue limit of materials, they appear to potentially have the opposite effect and actually reduce it. In such case, it is most of the time attributed to the modified surface roughness and generated surface defects. Thus, the first section of this discussion will deal with the direct effect of the surface integrity on the fatigue behavior. This will be shown to be insufficient to fully explain the differences in behavior. Then, the influence of the plastic deformation mechanisms on the microstructure and hardness as well as the role of the residual stress evolutions and their effect on the fatigue crack initiation mechanisms will be discussed.

### 4.1. Effect of the surface integrity on fatigue crack initiation

It is often proposed that the reduction in fatigue properties is due to surface defects that lead to faster fatigue crack initiation and compensate the benefits of the surface compressive residual stresses and hardened layer. This hypothesis can be found in several works focusing on a wide variety of materials and loading conditions. Kumar et al. studied uniaxial tension-tension fatigue at R = +0.1 after 30 min and 60 min of SMAT on the 718 Inconel superalloy [56] and on a Ti-6Al-4V titanium alloy [24]. While minimal effect was obtained on the superalloy [56], the reduction of the fatigue limit observed after 60 min of SMAT in the Ti-alloy [24] was proposed to be due to the increase of micro-damage linked to the increased treatment time. Tian et al. drew a similar conclusion for a C-2000 nickel-based superalloy loaded at R = +0.1 under four-point bending for which, after an improvement of 50 % in the fatigue limit after 30 min of SMAT, the fatigue life was systematically reduced when the treatment duration was increased (60 min, 90 min and 180 min). This was also discussed in the LCF and very high cycle fatigue (VHCF) regimes by Pandey et al. [57] and by Gao et al. [58], who respectively studied a 7075 aluminium alloy and a TC11 titanium alloy loaded at R=-1after different SMAT-processing times. For the Al-alloy, the number of cycles to failure was almost unchanged after 30 sec and 60 sec of SMAT, increased for 180 sec but was reduced back to the initial performances after 300 sec of surface modification treatment [57]. The number of cycles to failure of the Ti-alloy was reduced by approximately one to two decades for a "mild" surface modification condition and even further for a more drastic SMAT one [58]. These negative behaviours were again attributed to the easier initiation of the fatigue cracks which was cancelling the improved crack propagation resistance due to the compressive residual stress layer [57, 58]. Maurel et al. studied the effect of SMAT duration when combined with ageing heat treatment on the fatigue behavior of two aluminium alloys, namely a 2024 and 7075 series [26]. Some samples were aged before SMAT and some after SMAT. By carrying SMAT on the soft solution treated condition (SMAT before ageing), the fatigue limits were unchanged for the 2024 alloy and reduced by about 15 % for the 7075 one. Comparatively, for both materials, conducting SMAT on the hardened material (SMAT after ageing) led to a reduced samples surface roughness resulting in an increase of about 20 % of the fatigue limits.

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Considering the non-negligible number of publications highlighting the fatigue life reduction after severe SMAT-processing as the consequence of the increased roughness, it would be tempting to attribute the reduction of the fatigue limit observed in this work at  $R_{TT}$  to the formation of dimples due to the high number of impacts. However, as shown in Figure 2, such initiation mechanism on dimples was only detected for the SMATed samples loaded at  $R_{TT}$  under low stress amplitudes. Instead, for the other  $R_{TT}$  conditions, crack initiation mainly occurred around inclusions that were already present in the raw material while no obvious

difference was found in the initiation sites comparing polished and SMATed samples for the  $R_{TC}$  conditions. However, it is clear that the "quality" of the surface has an effect on the fatigue properties. Indeed, for the SMAT samples that were mirror polished and tested at  $R_{TT}$ , the properties were restored to those of the initially polished material (Figure 1 b). Thus, the action of smoothing the surface after SMAT had a positive effect on the fatigue properties. From this point of view, Bagherifard et al. also observed an additional (+10 %) increase in the fatigue limit of severely shot peened low-alloy steel samples after conducting a grinding post-processing [59]. An additional confirmation of the importance of the surface state in initiating the fracture is the absence of any surface crack on the run-out samples (Figure 5). However, our overall results clearly show that, even if the roughness of the surface and the presence of stress raisers must have an effect on the fatigue properties, it is not the primary reason for the difference in behavior observed between the  $R_{TC}$  and  $R_{TT}$  loading conditions.

### 4.2. Effects of the cyclic stress on the plastic deformation mechanisms

Exploring alternative hypotheses for the variable effectiveness of SMAT to enhance the fatigue limit at  $R_{\rm TC}$  and  $R_{\rm TT}$ , the effect of the different type of loading has to be discussed. Indeed, the fact that half of the fatigue life of the samples tested at  $R_{TC}$  occurs under a compressive state and that the maximum stress during cycle is higher for R<sub>TT</sub> imply very different macro- and micro- strains that may lead to the occurrence of different damage mechanisms. The difference in material response to the different loading conditions can be witnessed by two major observations. The first one is the self-heating of the samples observed at  $R_{TC}$  for a 10 Hz frequency but not at  $R_{\rm TT}$ . The self-heating at  $R_{\rm TC}$  is not detailed in the present paper but is completely identical to the one observed on the 304L stainless steel studied in a previous work [40] in which the same fatigue behavior at R<sub>TC</sub> was obtained (Figure 1 a). In contrast, no self-heating was recorded at R<sub>TT</sub>. To observe such self-heating, a much higher loading frequency should probably be used. Indeed, Tian et al. also measured a self-heating on a 316LN loaded at R = -1 at 10 Hz but had to increase the testing frequency to 70 Hz to start observing relevant self-heating at R = +0.1 [60]. The second evidence is the difference in microstructure evolution in the core of the sample between the  $R_{TC}$  and  $R_{TT}$  loading conditions. Indeed, during the tensioncompression cyclic loading of the SMATed samples, the martensitic transformation occurred at depth below 200 µm (Figure 6 a). Interestingly, this transformation did not occur in the regions closer to the surface at 100-200 µm, probably due to the too high density of dislocations already present in the SMATed highly hardened domain that prevented the austenite to martensite phase transformation. This is in good accordance with the literature about the conditions required for athermal martensitic transformation in steels. Indeed, it

was shown that enhancing the yield stress of the parent phase (austenite) by a moderate increase of the dislocation density [61, 62] or decreasing the grain size [63] both lead to a reduction in the  $M_S$  temperature. Such lowered value of  $M_S$  implies that a greater mechanical work is required to allow martensitic transformation; in other words, a greater stability of the austenite in this region. In contrast, neither stress- nor strain-assisted martensitic transformation was triggered under the tension-tension fatigue condition used in this work. Due to the negative values of  $M_{\rm S}$  and  $M_{\rm d30}$  for this alloy (Table 1), a significant strain is required to induce  $\gamma \to \alpha'$  phase transformation, as it was the case in the first 100 µm due to the severe plastic deformation induced by SMAT. The fact that phase transformation occurred during cyclic loading under  $R_{TC}$  and not under  $R_{\rm TT}$  conditions seems rather counter intuitive. Indeed, it is widely admitted that the martensite volume increases with strain [61, 64] and such phenomena is considered in recent modelling [65]. Also, Lebedev et al. showed that for a 18Cr-10Ni stainless steel, the martensitic transformation is more advanced when the sample is subjected to tension than compression [66]. Then, considering that the samples are subjected to higher strains for  $R_{\rm TT}$  than  $R_{\rm TC}$  and are exclusively undergoing tensile loading at  $R_{\rm TT}$ , it would be fair to expect a higher volume fraction of martensite for  $R_{TT}$  than  $R_{TC}$ . The exact opposite is observed here, indicating that other parameters are affecting the stability of austenite when subjected to cyclic loading. Lebedev et al. also reported that it is unusual to find martensite in fatigue loaded samples except on the crack path where the stress triaxiality is much higher than in the rest of the samples [66] which might be an essential aspect to consider in order to understand the observed phase transformation.

Nevertheless, even if these differences in the plastic deformation mechanisms and resulting microstructures were observed due to the different loading conditions, they are not at the origin of the differences in the fatigue properties. Indeed, the observed phase transformation is supposed to have negligible influence on the surface fatigue crack initiation because it occurred 200  $\mu$ m below the surface. In addition, in Figure 1 the 304L and the 316L stainless steels were shown to have identical fatigue behavior at  $R_{TC}$  even if Dureau et al. highlighted that the surface of the 304L was fully martensitic after SMAT [40]. Moreover, the analysis of hardness gradient after different fatigue loading conditions revealed limited changes in the hardening state in the SMAT affected region for  $R_{TC}$  and  $R_{TT}$  conditions. As the evolutions of hardness followed the same trends, it should have an equally beneficial contribution to the fatigue life enhancement for both load ratios after SMAT and, consequently, it is also not responsible for the fatigue life reduction at  $R_{TT}$ .

One of the major difference revealed by the analysis of the run-out samples is that the residual stress gradient evolutions after fatigue were drastically different under  $R_{TC}$  and  $R_{TT}$ . The compressive stress state

relaxation observed for R<sub>TC</sub> was commonly observed after fatigue loading for many materials and testing conditions [4, 5, 19, 31, 40, 51] and sometimes even led to a fully relaxed stress field [34]. Comparatively, the gradient reversion leading to the formation of tensile residual stress gradient generally occurs for quasi-static loading or when overloads occur during fatigue [35, 67-71]. In our case, the inverted residual stress state was formed after the first cycle of fatigue and remained during the whole fatigue life of the samples. As the internal stresses redistributions are essentially a matter of mechanical equilibrium between the sub-surface layer affected by the SMAT and the core, the maximum applied stress during cyclic loading governs the residual stress evolutions. For the studied samples, the maximum applied loads during cycles were respectively  $\sigma_{R_{\text{TC}}\,\text{max}}^{\text{SMAT}} = 240 \text{ MPa}$  and  $\sigma_{R_{\text{TT}}\,\text{max}}^{\text{SMAT}} = 477 \text{ MPa}$ .  $\sigma_{R_{\text{TC}}\,\text{max}}^{\text{SMAT}}$  is then equal to 35% of the maximum tensile stress  $\sigma_{\rm UTS}$  (= 650 MPa), and 110 % of the yield stress  $\sigma_{\rm ys}$  (= 220 MPa). On the other hand,  $\sigma_{\rm RTT\,max}^{\rm SMAT}$  is equal to 72% of  $\sigma_{\rm UTS}$  thus 215 % of  $\sigma_{\rm ys}$ . As  $\sigma_{R_{\rm TC}\,\rm max}^{\rm SMAT}$  was close to the yield stress, the core of the samples experienced small strains at  $R_{TC}$ , leading to moderate residual stress relaxations. In contrast,  $\sigma_{R_{TT}}^{SMAT}$  being twice the yield stress, the applied tensile strain has reverted the distribution of residual stresses. In both cases, those redistributed and stabilized residual stresses act as a local mean stress superimposed to the macroscopic loading, thus changing the stress field during cycling. This can help to understand the differences in the observed fatigue crack initiation mechanisms.

For the  $R_{TC}$  conditions, the maximum applied loads are just a few tens of MPa above the material elastic limit, causing only moderate and localized plastic strain. As confirmed by the surface analysis in Figure 2, these levels of plasticity are not large enough under the  $R_{TC}$  conditions to initiate cracking on inclusions regardless of the stress amplitude, especially for the SMAT samples due to the surface compressive residual stress. If Kakiuchi et al. observed one initiation on such calcium-aluminate inclusion in a 304L stainless steel treated by SMAT and then loaded at R=-1 under rotating bending [72], it should be noticed that their fatigue tests were conducted at a temperature of 300 °C. It is possible that this elevated temperature can facilitate the use of these particles as stress raisers because it enhances the differences in mechanical properties between the austenitic matrix and the hard inclusion.

For the  $R_{TT}$  conditions, the much higher applied stress than for  $R_{TC}$  led to macroscopic straining of the samples highlighted by the high density of slip bands in Figure 2, thus damaging the inclusions interface with the steel matrix. This allowed the inclusions to be activated as initiation sites. This is particularly true for the

SMATed and SMAT + polished samples due to the superimposed macroscopic tensile loading and surface high tensile residual stress states.

Finally, as the surface inspection of the run-out samples never revealed non-propagating fatigue cracks, the resistance of the material to fatigue crack initiation was shown to rule the fatigue limit in the high cycle fatigue regime. Then, the redistributed residual stress fields were taken into account into a Crossland fatigue initiation criterion and provided a good description of both the effect of load ratio and SMAT. The residual stress state was then considered the first-order parameter governing the fatigue performance of SMATed austenitic stainless steels samples. Therefore, the development of numerical models to predict the cyclic response of SMATed samples and the residual stress field evolutions after such cyclic loading seems to be a very interesting way of predicting the fatigue life of gradient microstructure stainless steels components under various loading conditions.

### 6. Conclusions

Uniaxial fatigue tests have been conducted on an austenitic stainless steel with load ratios  $R_{TC}$  = -1 and  $R_{TT}$  = +0.1, to evaluate the high cycle fatigue performance of the gradient microstructure generated by SMAT in a context of local or general plasticity. The fatigue limit change resulting from SMAT was beneficial

530 at  $R_{TC} = -1 (+17 \%)$  and detrimental at  $R_{TT} = +0.1 (-7 \%)$ .

After fatigue loading, no cracks were detected at the surface of any of the run-out samples, indicating that the resistance to fatigue crack initiation was governing the fatigue limit in the HCF regime. Processing inclusions already present in the initial material were the predominant initiation sites for crack nucleation for  $R_{TT}$  rather that surface defects. The evolution of residual stresses was proved to be the primary parameter governing the fatigue response: the compressive residual stress generated by SMAT was partially relaxed at  $R_{TC}$  while it was fully reverted after only one cycle of  $R_{TT}$  loading.

The beneficial effect on the fatigue limit (improved by +17 %) for  $R_{TC} = -1$  loading is due to the sub-surface compressive residual stresses present in the hardened gradient microstructure that overcome the negative effect of the surface defects induced by SMAT. During fatigue loading at  $R_{TC}$ , self-heating of all the specimens occurred together with sub-surface martensitic transformation for the SMATed samples. Nevertheless, these two modifications had a negligible impact on the fatigue properties.

The detrimental effect on the fatigue limit (reduced by -7 %) for  $R_{\rm TT}$  = +0.1 is associated to the high imposed macroscopic stresses that caused a complete reversion of the compressive residual stress gradient towards tension. This very high tensile stress leads to faster fatigue crack initiation compared to the untreated material. In this case, no self-heating nor sub-surface martensitic transformation were revealed, but the much higher stress at  $R_{\rm TT}$  was proposed to be responsible for the initiations on inclusions. In this case, the combined negative effects of tensile residual stresses and surface roughness leads to a slightly reduced fatigue limit for SMAT specimens.

For the  $R_{\rm TT}$  loading condition, a mirror polishing procedure after SMAT allowed to restore the fatigue limit (same as the untreated condition) but did not improve it. This is a confirmation that (i) the redistribution of residual stress was of primary importance for controlling the high cycle fatigue behavior and (ii) the surface defects created by SMAT were not responsible for the incapacity of the SMAT to improve the fatigue limit at  $R_{\rm TT}$ .

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## 559 <u>Declaration of competing interest</u>

- The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could
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Table 1 Chemical composition of the studied 316L stainless steel

	С	Mn	Si	S	Р	Cr	Ni	Mo	Cu	N	Fe	$M_{\rm S}$ [° C]	<i>M</i> <sub>d30</sub> [° C]
Wt [%]	0.029	1.499	0.341	0.03	0.22	16.605	10.370	2.036	0.127	0.047	Balance	-210	-1

a)

Testing condition name	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 5	Ra [µm]
Initially polished		Machined	Mirror polished	/	/	$0.017 \pm 2.5.10^{-3}$
SMAT	Heat treated 900 °C 40 min			SMATed	/	$1.621 \pm 0.23$
SMAT + polished					Mirror polished	$0.018 \pm 1.4.10^{-3}$

b)

Analysed unbroken sample	Load ratio	Stress amplitude [MPa]	Number of cycles	
SMAT	/	/	/	
$SMAT + Fat R_{TC}$	-1	240	$2.10^{6}$	
$SMAT + Fat R_{TT}$	+0.1	215	$4.10^{6}$	
$SMAT + 1Cy R_{TT}$	+0.1	215	1	

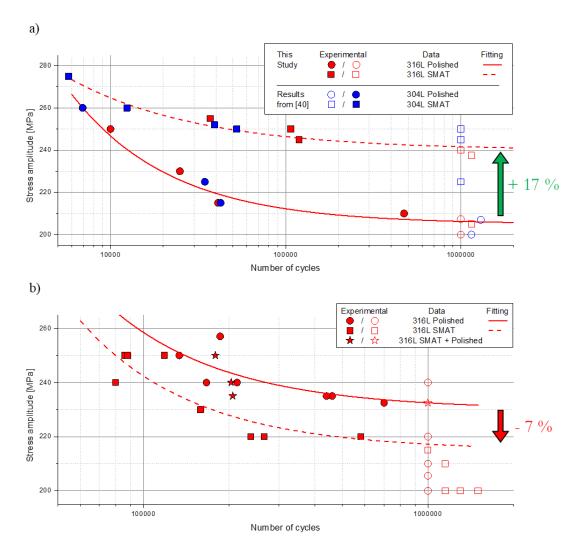


Figure 1 Wöhler curves of a) polished and SMAT 316L and 304L samples loaded at  $R_{TC}$ =-1 and b) polished, SMAT and SMAT + polished 316L samples loaded at  $R_{TT}$ =+0.1

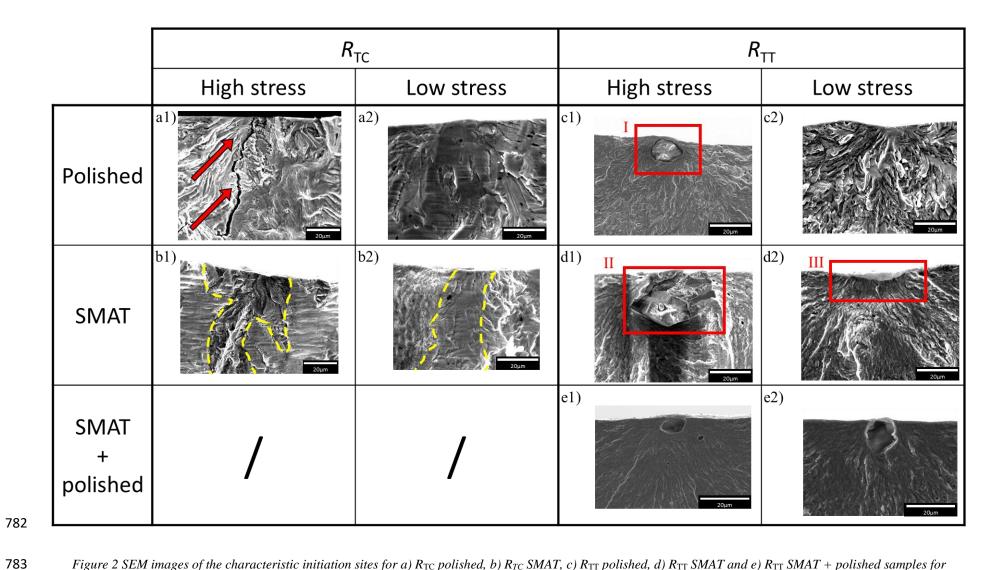


Figure 2 SEM images of the characteristic initiation sites for a)  $R_{TC}$  polished, b)  $R_{TC}$  SMAT, c)  $R_{TT}$  polished, d)  $R_{TT}$  SMAT and e)  $R_{TT}$  SMAT + polished samples for respectively 1) high and 2) low stress amplitudes

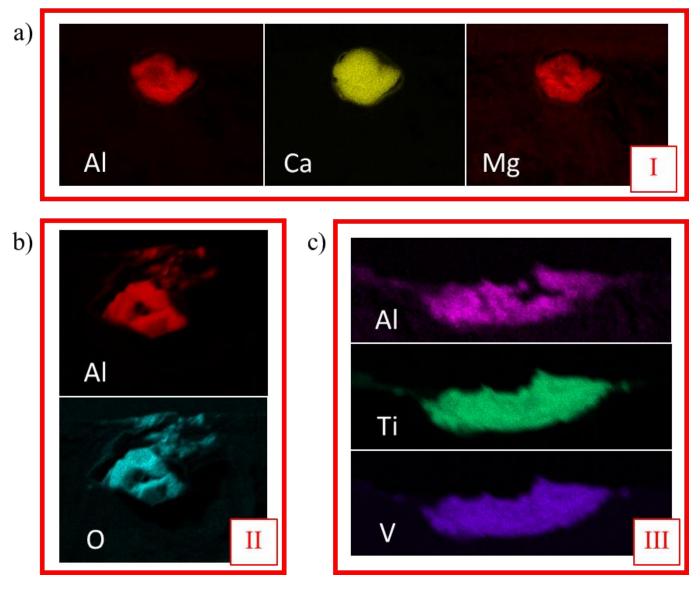


Figure 3 EDX maps corresponding to the regions highlighted in red in Figure 2

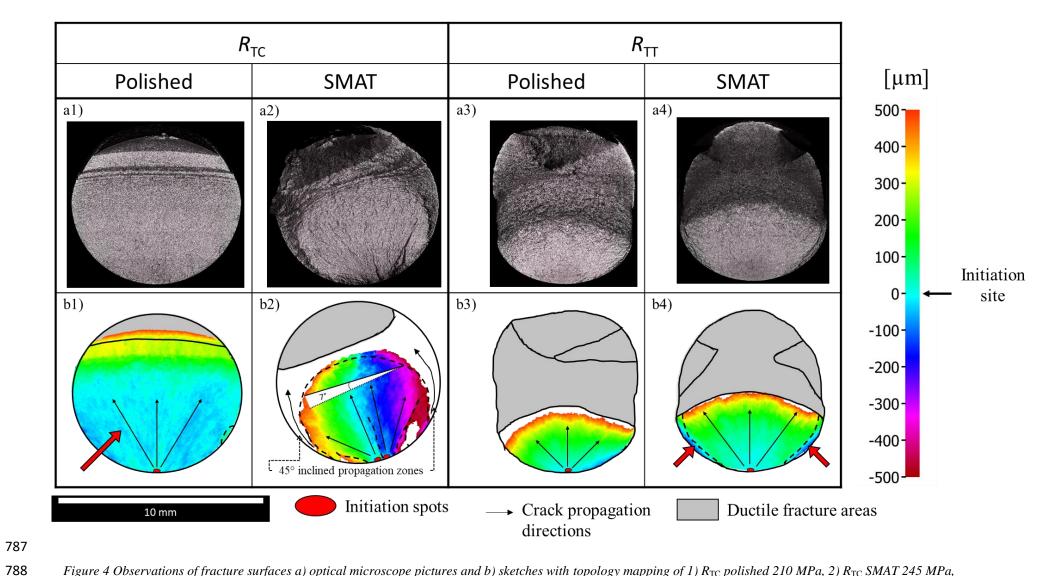


Figure 4 Observations of fracture surfaces a) optical microscope pictures and b) sketches with topology mapping of 1) R<sub>TC</sub> polished 210 MPa, 2) R<sub>TC</sub> SMAT 245 MPa,

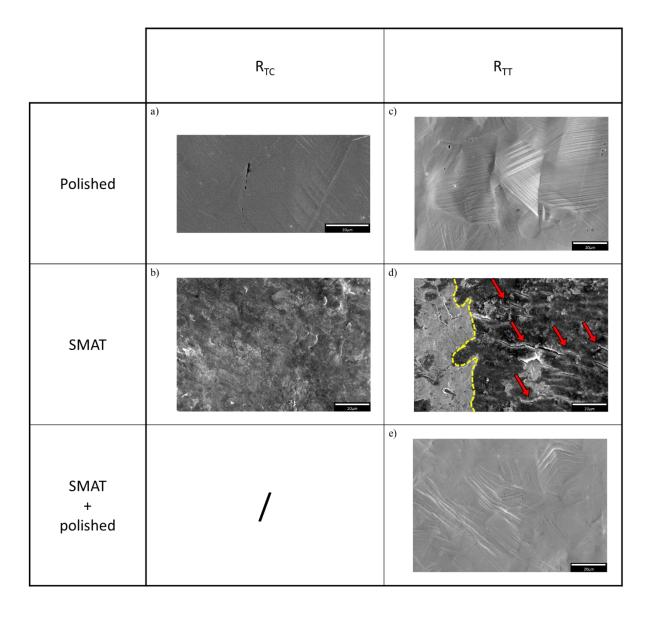


Figure 5 SEM images of the surface of a)  $R_{TC}$  polished, b)  $R_{TC}$  SMAT, c)  $R_{TT}$  polished, d)  $R_{TT}$  SMAT and e)  $R_{TT}$  SMAT + polished run-out samples

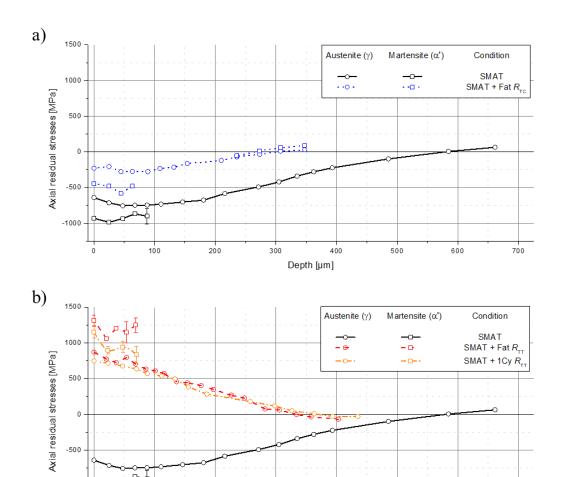


Figure 6 Evolution of the residual stresses in both austenite and martensite as a function of the depth below the treated surface a) for the SMAT + Fat  $R_{TC}$  condition and b) for the SMAT + Fat  $R_{TT}$  and SMAT + 1Cy  $R_{TT}$ , conditions compared to the SMAT gradient

Depth [µm]

-1000

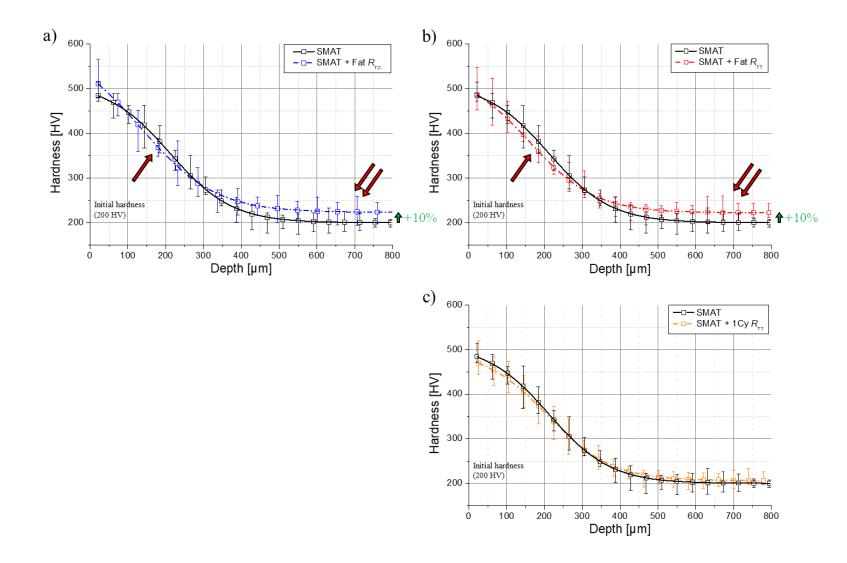
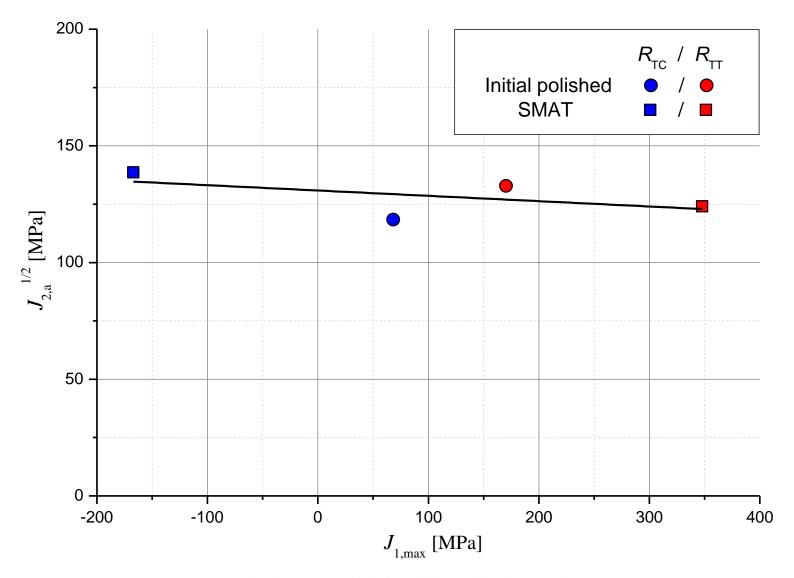


Figure 7 Evolution of hardness as a function of the depth below the treated surface after a)  $SMAT + Fat R_{TC}$ , b)  $SMAT + Fat R_{TT}$  and c)  $SMAT + ICy R_{TT}$ , compared to the SMAT gradient



 $Figure\ 8\ Crossland\ criterion\ established\ for\ all\ the\ tested\ load\ ratios\ and\ surface\ states$