

A Simple Approach to Selecting Automotive Body-in-White Primary-Structural Materials

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ABSTRACT

A simple strategy for building lightweight automobile body-in-whites (BIWs) is developed and discussed herein. Because cost is a critical factor, expensive advanced materials, such as carbon fiber composites and magnesium, must only be used where they will be most effective. Constitutive laws for mass savings under various loading conditions indicate that these materials afford greater opportunity for mass saving when used in bending, buckling or torsion than in tensile, shear or compression. Consequently, it is recommended that these advanced materials be used in BIW components subject to bending and torsion such as rails, sills, "A-B-C" pillars, etc. Furthermore, BIW components primarily subject to tension, compression, or shear, such as floor pans, roofs, shock towers, etc., should be made from lower cost steel. Recommendations for future research that are consistent with this strategy are included.

INTRODUCTION

Future body-in-white primary-structures will have to be designed according to a multitude of more complex, stringent, and often conflicting-objectives. These objectives include: providing higher levels of occupant protection; enhancing fuel economy and environmental friendliness through reduced mass and recyclability; reducing NVH through providing high attachment stiffness and noise abatement; providing a rigid foundation to bolster handling; maintaining or improving styling and packaging flexibility; ensuring reasonable longevity; and of course, offering all this with little or no increases in cost. No easy task.

The relative importance of each of these objectives will determine which materials are best suited for various parts of the BIW. An attempt is made herein to select materials for a highly idealized BIW primary-structure under the context of a hypothetical prioritization

of these conflicting objectives. Although, all of the body-in-white objectives are critical to a product's success, it is necessary to prioritize them. For the purposes of this study, the priority is: first, cost, safety and mass reduction; second, handling and NVH; and third, styling flexibility and longevity. Recommendations are not meant to be specific to sedans, sports utility vehicles or "cross-over" vehicles. However, the idealized BIW considered here is a generic four door sedan.

In order to break down the problem of materials selection into manageable pieces, this study attempts to use a systems methodology.¹ In this spirit, the BIW (a.k.a. the overall system) is broken up into the following interdependent sub-systems: materials (steel, aluminum, polymer matrix composites, etc.); primary-structural components (B-pillars, floor pans, bumpers, body side apertures, etc.); joining elements (spot welds, laser welds, adhesives, screws, rivets, etc.); hang-on panels (hoods, doors, trunk lids, gas tank lid, etc.); and surface coatings (E-coat, galvanization, anodized material, paints, etc.). The first two sub-systems are the main focus of this paper.

THE MATERIALS SUB-SYSTEM

Key materials properties to be considered for fulfilling the hierarchy of BIW objectives are cost per kilogram ($\$/kg$), density (ρ), yield and ultimate strength (σ_y and σ_{UTS}), modulus (E), density-specific strength (σ_{UTS}/ρ), density-specific stiffness (E/ρ), cost-specific strength ($\sigma/\$$), cost-specific stiffness ($E/\$$) and elongation-to-failure (ϵ). Specific values for these properties for a variety of structural materials are listed in Table 1. These values are the basis for the materials

Table 1. Overview of Materials Properties

	Raw materials cost \$/kg	Density (g/cm ³)	Yield Strength (MPa)	Elastic Modulus (GPa)	Strength/Density	Stiffness/Density	Strength(\$/kg)	Stiffness(\$/kg)
Steel								
AerMet100	33	7,86	1724	200	219,3	25,4	52,2	6,1
low range HSLA	0,66	7,86	290	200	36,9	25,4	439,4	303,0
high range HSLA	0,66	7,86	503	200	64,0	25,4	762,1	303,0
low range dual phase	1,1	7,86	1020	200	129,8	25,4	927,3	181,8
high range dual phase	0,99	7,86	530	200	67,4	25,4	535,4	202,0
low range TRIP	0,99	7,86	379	200	48,2	25,4	382,8	202,0
high range TRIP	1,43	7,86	496	200	63,1	25,4	346,9	139,9
Stainless steel	1,65	7,86	276	193	35,1	24,6	167,3	117,0
high range austenetic stainless	1,76	7,86	552	200	70,2	25,4	313,6	113,6
Aluminum								
6061-T6	3,19	2,77	241	70	87,0	25,3	75,5	21,9
A356	2,42	2,77	207	70	74,7	25,3	85,5	28,9
7075-T6	3,41	2,77	441	70	159,2	25,3	129,3	20,5
Magnesium								
AZ91	3,52	1,77	159	45	89,8	25,4	45,2	12,8
AM50	3,41	1,77	124	45	70,1	25,4	36,4	13,2
AZ31-H24	na	1,77	221	45	124,9	25,4	na	na
Titanium								
6V-4Al sheet	74,00	4,46	947	115	212,3	25,8	12,8	1,6
3V-2,5Al sheet	24,75	4,46	707	100	158,5	22,4	28,6	4,0
Beryllium	860	1,94	34,5	303	17,8	156,2	0,04	0,35

Table 1. Cont'd

	Raw materials cost \$/kg	Density (g/cm ³)	Yield Strength (MPa)	Elastic Modulus (GPa)	Strength/Density	Stiffness/Density	Strength/(\$/kg)	Stiffness(\$/kg)
Carbon Fiber								
UD, Vf=70%, epoxy matrix	8,5	1,60	1500	181	937,5	113,1	176,5	21,3
UD, Vf=50%, vinyl ester matrix	6,9	1,79	1662	117,2	928,5	65,5	240,9	17,0
UD, Vf=50%, polypropylene matrix	6	1,41	1641	117,2	1163,8	83,1	205,1	14,7
SRIM UD Vf=47%	8,2	1,44	1262	110,3	876,4	76,6	153,9	13,5
SRIM 0/90 Vf=37%	6,86	1,47	545	44,8	370,7	30,5	79,4	6,5
RTM UD Vf=60%	9,42	1,49	1627	131	1091,9	87,9	172,7	13,9
RTM 0/90 Vf=50%	8,56	1,44	531	51,7	368,8	35,9	62,0	6,0
Chopped fiber, urethane, Vf=39%	5,20	1,41	160	37	113,5	26,2	30,8	7,1
Fiberglass								
UD, Vf=45%, epoxy matrix	2	1,80	1062	38,6	590,0	21,4	531,0	19,3
RTM Iso Vf=28%	2,4	1,61	172	11,03	106,8	6,9	71,7	4,6
RTM UD Vf=47%	2,24	1,88	703	35,2	373,9	18,7	313,8	15,7
RTM 0/90 Vf=47%	2,24	1,88	372	24,8	197,9	13,2	166,1	11,1
Chopped fiber, urethane, Vf=30	1,90	1,66	224	12,9	134,9	7,8	117,9	6,8
Polymers								
LCP	26,4	1,61	110	11	68,3	6,8	4,2	0,4
Nylon	6,6	1,14	82,7	2,76	72,5	2,4	12,5	0,4
ABS	3,52	1,13	41	2,28	36,3	2,0	11,6	0,6
Polyester	2,2	1,34	55	2,4	41,0	1,8	25,0	1,1
PET	3,08	1,63	158	9	96,9	5,5	51,3	2,9
Polyolifn	2,86	1,19	32	3,03	26,9	2,5	11,2	1,1
Polycarbonate	3,74	1,20	65,5	2,4	54,6	2,0	17,5	0,6
Polystyrene	1,98	1,04	55	3,1	52,9	3,0	27,8	1,6
PBT	2,2	1,14	59	2,76	51,8	2,4	26,8	1,3

█ = estimated value

selection calculations made in the Primary-Structural Components Sub-Systems sections (next section).

Most of the materials included in Table 1 are of current practical interest. However, for the sake of better defining the spectrum of available properties and cost, many materials currently either too costly or of insufficient mechanical properties (and likely to remain, in one or both categories, for some time) are listed. Beryllium, for instance, is included because its density specific elastic properties are greater than nearly any other material. However, at \$858 per kilogram, it is far too expensive. The other end of the mechanical properties and cost spectrums are marked by polystyrene and ABS. Of materials lying near the more practical part of both the cost and properties spectrums, steel, aluminum, magnesium, fiberglass and carbon fiber composites are listed. Within each of these materials systems an attempt has been made to describe their individual spectrum of available properties. For example, under steels, properties for AerMet 100 (a nine component ultra-high strength steel) to low-alloy steels are listed. Likewise with carbon fiber and glass fiber polymer matrix composites, properties for variants ranging from unidirectional tape in an epoxy matrix to random chopped in a thermoplastic matrix are listed. Perhaps the latter materials are the only structural fiber composites that will be affordable to the mainstream auto industry for some time.

The spectrum nature of materials properties discussed above emphasizes a critical point regarding materials; like the BIW, they too are a system of interdependent sub-systems. Again, as with the BIW, manipulation of their interdependent sub-systems produces a spectrum of properties/performances. The number and complexity of sub-systems is dependent on the particular material. For example, some ultra-high strength steels can be broken down into the following subsystems:¹ the martensite matrix; strengthening dispersions (metal carbides); retained austenite dispersion; grain boundary mater; and grain refining dispersion. These sub-systems are manipulated through yet another sub-system of processing steps: alloying, solidification, solution treat, quenching, and tempering. If the quench step is performed at the wrong rate, the result could be not enough retained austenite and subsequent low toughness. If the tempering step is done at too low a temperature, the thermodynamic driving force for precipitation of metal carbides could be too low leading to a coarse dispersion and poor ductility. If lanthanum is left out during alloying, phosphorous may not be sufficiently gettered out of the grain boundaries which will lead to poor resistance against hydrogen embrittlement. And so on. Indeed, all of this is of gargantuan complexity and on the surface not seemingly of much value to a body engineer. So why write about it? To emphasize the extreme number of imaginable sub-system permutations and therefore point to the fact that table values make up only a small number of points on a multi-dimensional space of materials properties. The point of practical interest here is: never be satisfied with

table values. Indeed, it is almost always appropriate to challenge material suppliers to tailor their product's properties for a given application. Ask for more!

In keeping with this philosophy of materials as complex systems, it is useful to represent a given material system's properties as regions on a graph. Ashby^{2,3} provides an especially convenient method of doing so and "pseudo-Ashby diagrams" are presented for the specific (normalized) values listed in Table 1 in Figures 1 and 2. Defining the exact geometry of these regions is out of the scope of this paper, and admittedly, those shown are approximate. The conclusions from Figures 1 and 2 that deserve special emphasis are:

1. Within 4%, steel, stainless steels, magnesium, aluminum and 6V-4Al titanium all have the same density-specific stiffness.
2. The density-specific strength of the lowest-grade carbon fiber composites is about the same as medium-grade auto industry eligible steels. However, these same carbon fiber composites exhibit better density-specific stiffness than these metals.
3. Steel needs a yield strength greater than 586 MPa to beat most aluminum and magnesium alloys on a density-specific strength basis.
4. Low-grade fiberglass composites do not perform better than high- and medium- grade monolithic (single material) polymers.
5. On a cost-specific stiffness and cost-specific strength basis, automotive eligible steels are tough to beat. This is why they are so popular in the auto industry.

THE PRIMARY-STRUCTURAL COMPONENTS SUB-SYSTEM

The mechanical performance of materials under loading conditions consistent with those endured by the primary-structural components (A,B,C-pillars, front and rear rails, roof, floor pan, bumpers, rear quarter panels, etc.) of the BIW are analyzed in this section. After determining which materials are most appropriate for various loading conditions, materials are recommended for use in primary-structural components. A full list of the components is given in Table 2 along with their loading/failure mode for a variety of BIW global loading conditions. Closure panels such as doors, fenders (front

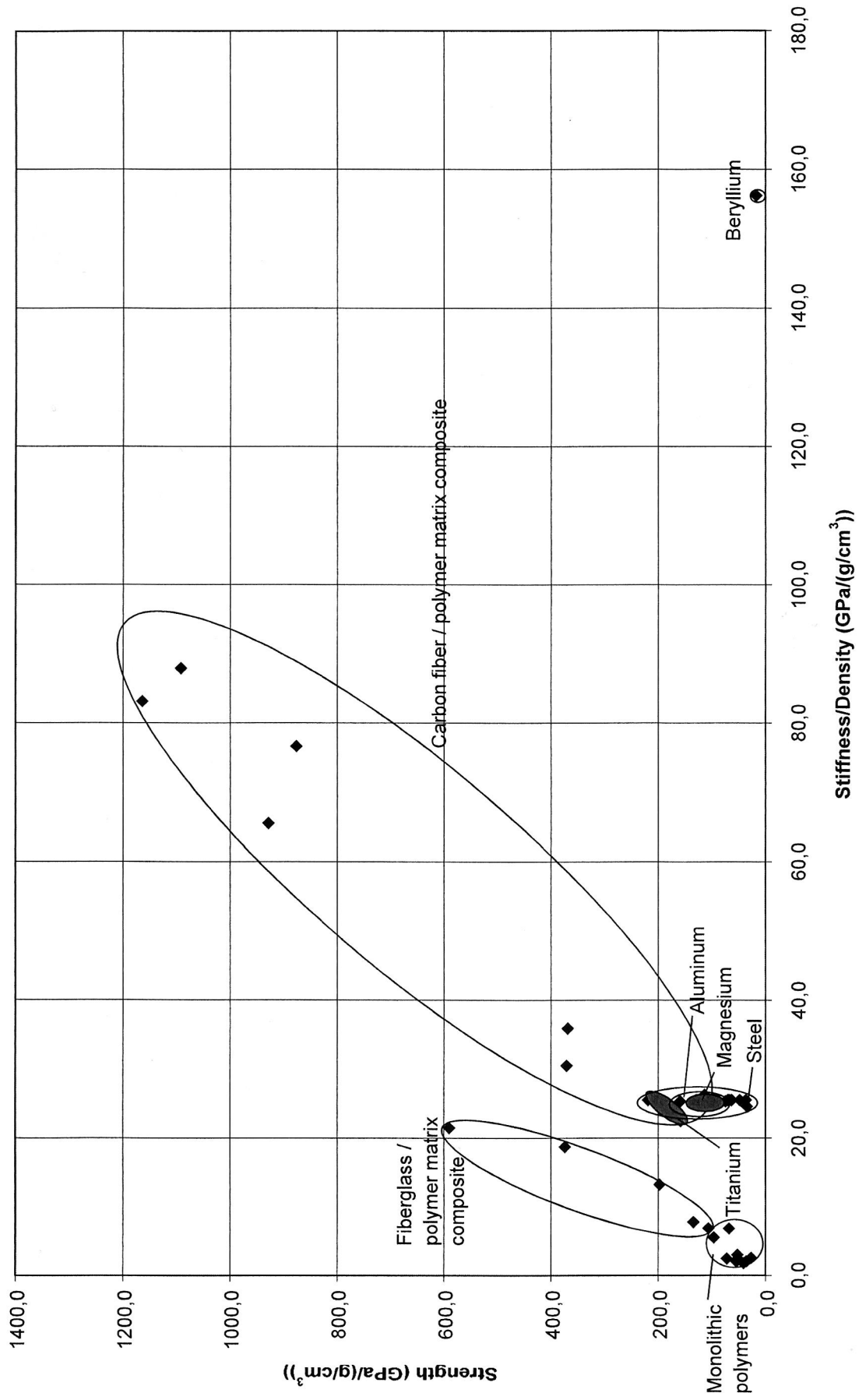


Figure 1. Density specific strength vs. density specific stiffness. Note that within 4% all of the metals (except 3-2.5 Ti) have the same density specific stiffness.

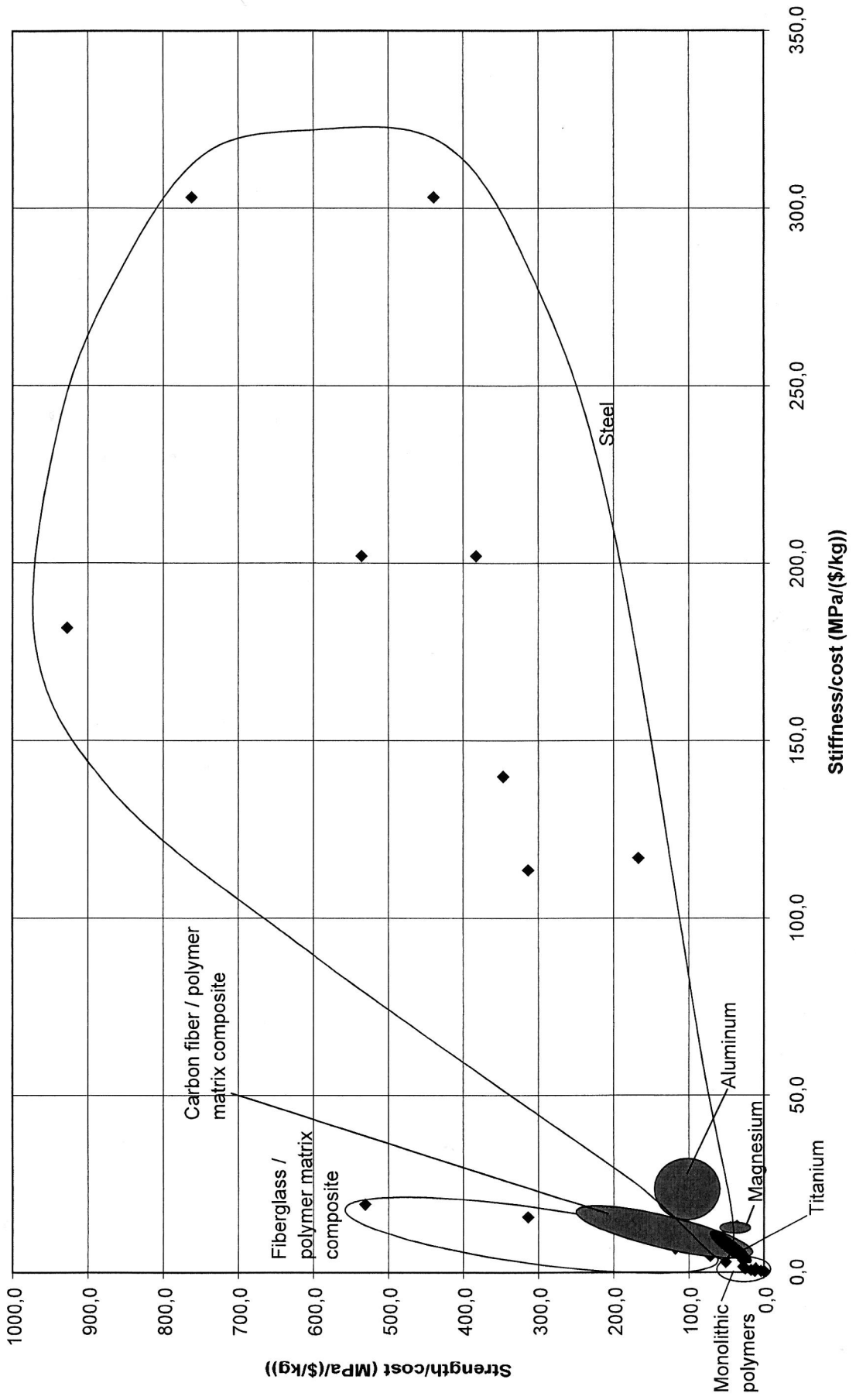


Figure 2. Cost specific strength vs. cost specific stiffness. Steel gives by far the most strength and stiffness for the money.

Table 2. BIW parts and their loading under a variety of global loading conditions

Global BIW Loading

BIW Part	Normal Driving Loads		Impact Loads				
	Bending	Torsion	Offset / Flat	Front impact	Rear impact	Side impact	Roof-crush
Front bumper		B	C		C		
Front rails	B	B	BU/C/B				
Upper radiator support		B/C	C				
Lower radiator support		TO	C				
Shock towers	T/C	T/C/B	C				
Wheel housings	T/C	T/C	C				
Cradle / front cross member	T/C	TO	C/BU/B				
Toe pan	T/C	T/C/S	B				
Firewall	T/C	S	B				
Plenum		TO	B				
Floor pan	T/C	T/C	BU/C		BU/C	BU/C	
Sills	T/C	B	BU/C		BU/C	B	
A-pillars	T/C	T/C	B/C/BU			B	B
B-pillars	T/C	T/C	B		B	B	B/C
Roof	T/C	T/C	BU/C		BU/C	BU/C	B
Roof rails	T/C	B	BU/C		BU/C	B	

c=compression
 t=tension
 s=shear
 b=bending
 bu=buckling
 to=torsion

Table 2. Cont'd

Global BIW Loading

BIW Part	Normal Driving Loads		Impact Loads				
	Bending	Torsion	Offset / Flat				
			Front impact	Rear impact	Side impact	Roof-crush	
Front & Rear header		T/C	B	B	BU/C	B	
Roof bow					BU/C	B	
C-pillars	T/C	T/C		B	B/C/BU	C/B	
Shelf panel				BU	C/BU		
Rear kick-up	T/C	T/C	BU/C	BU/C	BU/C		
fire tub	T/C	T/C	BU/C	BU/C	BU/C		
quarter panels	T/C	T/C		C/BU	B	C/B	
Rear shock towers	T/C	B/T/C		B			
Rear cross member		TO		B	C/BU		
Rear rails	T/C	T/C		BU/C	B		
Rear bumper	B	B		BU/C/B			
Rear deck opening		T/C		C			

c=compression
t=tension
s=shear
b=bending
to=torsion
bu=buckling

and rear), hoods, trunk lids, fuel doors, windows, etc., are not considered here as primary-structure elements.

MATERIALS SELECTION AND GEOMETRY

The Realities of Mechanics

Consider a rectangular cross-sectioned solid, thin strip of material. This strip is subject to one of six loading conditions that will cause failure in tensile, compression, shear, bending, torsion or buckling. Listed in Table 3 are constitutive laws for mass reduction when a material 2 is substituted for a material 1.²⁻⁴ Listed are relations for each of these six loading conditions for both design-for-strength and design-for-stiffness scenarios. The same relations for a hollow tube rather than a strip are listed in Table 4. Note that for buckling, only the design-for-stiffness scenario is listed, because material thickness considered safe to support a compressive load can be far too thin to prevent buckling.

Select materials properties values from Table 1 are substituted into the constitutive relations. Listed next to all the constitutive relation in Tables 3 and 4 are the rankings for six different materials in order of decreasing opportunity for mass reduction. These rankings are made with respect to a relatively high-strength steel ($\sigma_y = 550$ MPa). Values used for fiberglass and carbon fiber composites from Table 1 are "Chopped Fiber, urethane, Vf=30%" and "Chopped fiber, urethane, Vf=39%" respectively. Both data come from as-molded coupons and were chosen because they are the most likely to be affordable to the mainstream auto industry in the near future (10+ years). Aluminum and magnesium yield strength values used were 207 MPa and 138 MPa respectively, and for stiffnesses, 70 GPa and 44 GPa respectively.

Assigning Materials to Primary-Structural Components

As mentioned previously, Table 2 lists the primary-structural components as well as their local loading (tension, compression, shear, etc.) under six global BIW loading conditions. Note the first two, global bending and torsion are relevant to normal driving, while the other four relate to impact. In conjunction with the overall system requirements listed in the introduction, the rankings in Tables 3 and 4 and the loading condition in Table 2, it is possible to select materials for primary-structural components. Note that components like sills, rails, pillars, etc. are approximated as tubes, and components like floor pans, roofs, tire tubes, shelves, plenums etc. are approximated as strips.

Designing for Normal Driving Conditions

Under most driving conditions, the BIW is subject to global bending and torsion loads, and primary-structural components are typically designed for stiffness rather than strength. As can be seen in Table 2, such global loading conditions lead only to local tensile or

compressive loads in most primary-structural components. Exceptions include rails, bumpers, sills and shock towers, which are subject to bending, and front cradles, rear cradles, radiator supports and plenums, which are subject to torsion.

Under the design-for-stiffness scenario, carbon fiber ranked first in opportunity for minimizing mass for all loading conditions. Consequently, it would make sense to build every primary-structural component from carbon fiber.⁶⁻⁹ However costs would be too high.⁹⁻¹⁵ A lower cost strategy is as follows. For the loading case tension/compression/shear loading, and under the design-for-stiffness scenario, carbon fiber ranks first, but steel ranks a relatively close second. Therefore, as the lowest cost material, steel should be used for components such as floor pans, roofs, shock towers, firewalls, etc, which, in this study, endure only tensile, compressive, or shear loads. In these applications, carbon fiber only offers a 3% greater opportunity for mass savings compared to steel, whereas in bending and torsion (strip only) applications, it offers a 68% greater opportunity for mass savings. Therefore, most components subject to bending or torsion should be in carbon fiber.

Another option for bending and torsion components would be the second ranking, but lower cost, magnesium.^{5,16} In fact, bending / torsion components such as radiator supports and cradles have shapes that are more suited to cast magnesium than carbon fiber SMC. However, as magnesium has no fatigue limit,¹⁷ in designing a given part to meet fatigue requirements, it is possible that the part becomes too thick to realize any mass saving. The possibility of this happening is related to stress concentrations within the part and microstructure. Prediction requires specific part modeling.

Designing for Normal Driving Conditions and Impact

Maximizing mass savings opportunities and minimizing cost are more difficult when designing for impact than when designing for normal driving conditions. Instead of designing for stiffness, it is necessary to design for strength, and in every design-for-strength loading category in Tables 3 and 4, steel ranks last. Carbon fiber or fiberglass composite materials rank first or second, and magnesium ranks either third or second. Because of cost considerations, it is recommended that the most cost effective opportunity for mass savings is to use the more expensive materials in direct impact load paths only: in bumpers, rails, A-B-C pillars, roof rails, and sills. Moreover, it is recommended that these primary-structural components become the primary energy management structures and components such as floor

Table 3. Constitutive relations for mass reduction for materials strips

Loading	Constitutive law for mass savings	Ranking	% of Steel's mass assuming $\sigma_y=550$ MPa
Tension/Compression /Shear	Design-for-strength	$\frac{m_2}{m_1} = \frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} \frac{\sigma_{y1}}{\sigma_{y2}}$	1. Fiberglass 52 2. Carbon fiber 62 3. Magnesium 90 4. Aluminum 94 5. Steel -
	Design-for-stiffness	$\frac{m_2}{m_1} = \frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} \frac{E_1}{E_2}$	1. Carbon fiber 97 2. Steel - 3. Magnesium 100,1 4. Aluminum 100,7 5. Fiberglass 327
	Design-for-strength	$\frac{m_2}{m_1} = \frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} \left(\frac{\sigma_{y1}}{\sigma_{y2}} \right)^{1/2}$	1. Fiberglass 33 2. Carbon fiber 33 3. Magnesium 45 4. Aluminum 58 5. Steel -
		Design-for-stiffness	$\frac{m_2}{m_1} = \frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} \left(\frac{E_1}{E_2} \right)^{1/3}$
Torsion	Design-for-strength	$\frac{m_2}{m_1} = \frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} \left(\frac{\sigma_{y1}}{\sigma_{y2}} \right)^{1/2}$	1. Fiberglass 33 2. Carbon fiber 33 3. Magnesium 45 4. Aluminum 57 5. Steel -
	Design-for-stiffness*	$\frac{m_2}{m_1} = \frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} \left(\frac{E_1(1+\nu_2)}{E_2(1+\nu_1)} \right)^{1/3}$	1. Carbon fiber 32 2. Magnesium 37 3. Aluminum 50 4. Fiberglass 53 5. Steel -
Buckling	Design-for-stiffness	$\frac{m_2}{m_1} = \frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} \left(\frac{E_1}{E_2} \right)^{1/3}$	1. Carbon fiber 32 2. Magnesium 37 3. Aluminum 50 4. Fiberglass 53 5. Steel -

*Assumes isotropic material, where ν is Poisons ratio. Values assume $\nu=0.3$ for all materials

Table 4. Constitutive relations for mass reduction for tubes

Loading	Constitutive law for mass savings	Ranking	% of Steel's mass assuming $\sigma_y=550$ MPa	
Tension/Compression /Shear	Design-for-strength	$\frac{m_2}{m_1} = \frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} \frac{\sigma_{y1}}{\sigma_{y2}}$	1. Fiberglass 2. Carbon fiber 3. Magnesium 4. Aluminum 5. Steel	52 62 90 94 -
	Design-for-stiffness	$\frac{m_2}{m_1} = \frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} \frac{E_1}{E_2}$	1. Carbon fiber 2. Steel 3. Magnesium 4. Aluminum 5. Fiberglass	97 - 100,1 100,7 327
Bending	Design-for-strength	$\frac{m_2}{m_1} = \frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} \left(\frac{\sigma_{y1}}{\sigma_{y2}} \right)^{2/3}$	1. Fiberglass 2. Carbon fiber 3. Magnesium 4. Aluminum 5. Steel	38 41 57 68 -
	Design-for-stiffness	$\frac{m_2}{m_1} = \frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} \left(\frac{E_1}{E_2} \right)^{1/2}$	1. Carbon fiber 2. Magnesium 3. Aluminum 4. Fiberglass 5. Steel	42 48 60 83 -
Torsion	Design-for-strength	$\frac{m_2}{m_1} = \frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} \left(\frac{\sigma_{y1}}{\sigma_{y2}} \right)$	1. Fiberglass 2. Carbon fiber 3. Magnesium 4. Aluminum 5. Steel	52 62 90 94 -
	Design-for-stiffness*	$\frac{m_2}{m_1} = \frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} \left(\frac{E_1 (1 + \nu_2)}{E_2 (1 + \nu_1)} \right)$	1. Carbon fiber 2. Steel 3. Magnesium 4. Aluminum 5. Fiberglass	97 - 100,1 100,7 327
Buckling	Design-for-stiffness	$\frac{m_2}{m_1} = \frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} \left(\frac{E_1}{E_2} \right)^{1/2}$	1. Carbon fiber 2. Magnesium 3. Aluminum 4. Fiberglass 5. Steel	42 48 60 83 -

*Assumes isotropic material, where ν is Poisons ratio. Values assume $\nu=0.3$ for all materials

panels, roofs, shock towers, firewalls, etc., become ancillary. Accordingly, and as discussed in the previous section, it is recommended that floor panels, roofs, shock towers, and firewalls be made of steel. Finally, attempting to use fiberglass as a low cost alternative to carbon fiber is not recommended because it ranks low in all design-for-stiffness loading conditions.

A list of recommended materials and processing routes for all primary-structural components is tabulated in Table 5 and shown graphically in Figure 3.

Many concerns have arisen regarding the performance of composite impact structures.¹⁸⁻²⁴ Certainly, composites absorb energy by a different mechanism than metals. Metals absorb energy via plastic deformation, while composites absorb energy through splintering, functional sliding between fibers and matrices, and the subsequent creation of surface area/energy. A large body of data indicates the greater effectiveness of the latter mechanism. Recognize that all Formula 1 and CART racing cars rely on composite crash structures.¹⁹

GAUGE THICKNESS

Up to this point, it has been assumed that enough macro-geometrical control is available in all of the materials considered above, such that superfluous material is eliminated, and every infinitesimal parcel of material is stress to near its limit (but not beyond). The mass/strength balance would indeed be optimized. However, this assumption is not realistic and superfluous mass will always be present. The amount of superfluous mass is design specific and can not be meaningfully estimated here. Nevertheless, as a first approximation, gauge thickness can be estimated and compared against current processing capabilities. Based on sheet steel gauges used on rails and sills on current Chrysler Concord vehicles, carbon fiber SMC parts would have to be a minimum of 1.5 mm thick. Internal research at DaimlerChrysler AG indicates that such thickness is possible with SMC but mass-volume processing techniques are not yet available. Cast magnesium would have to be ~ 2 mm thick. Given the current high-pressure die-casting capabilities of magnesium, this would be a challenge. Finally, mass efficient substitution of either DP (dual phase) or TRIP steels for the standard steel used in rail or sill application would require sheets 0.25 to 0.5 mm thick. This is likely too thin to handle off-axis loads. Moreover, NVH would likely suffer due to low attachment stiffness. If steel is to be used in such thin gauges, it may be advantageous to use the steel/polymer/steel sandwich materials that are currently available.

OVERVIEW AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE WORK

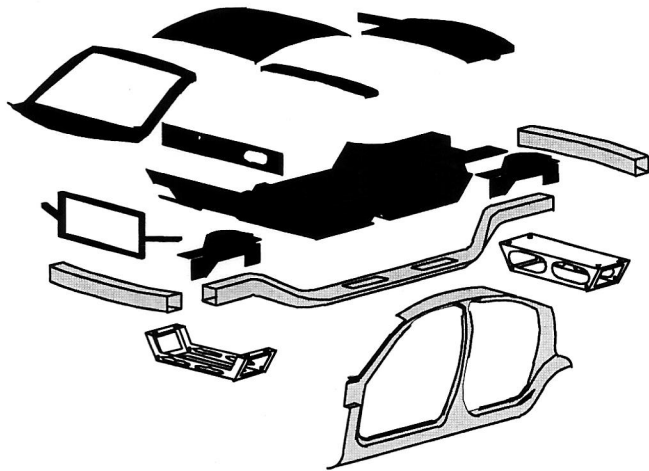
A hierarchy of body-in-white (BIW) performance objectives has been defined and strategy for achieving these objectives through materials selection has been described. As the first step in achieving this, a database of structural materials properties for materials potentially applicable in BIWs has been assembled. This database attempts to define a multidimensional space with axis of cost, density, strength, and stiffness. Moreover, in order to emphasize that within each materials system (steel, aluminum, magnesium, fiberglass, etc.) there is an equivalent multidimensional space, the database is represented in a graphical format where a region rather than a point is used to denote a materials system. The next step has been to break up the BIW into primary-structural components and define their local loading case (tension, compression, bending, torsion, etc.) for global loading conditions relevant to both normal and impact scenarios. Constitutive relations consistent with design-for-strength and design-for-stiffness scenarios for each of the local loading cases were defined and materials ranked for potential for mass reduction. From these rankings it is clear that the mass/strength/stiffness balance can best be optimized when the entire vehicle is made from carbon fiber composites. However, as cost is of highest priority, this is not possible. Consequently, it is recommended to use carbon fiber to form a one-piece rail and sill structure, and to use steel in the floor and roof structures where carbon fiber would be of the least use. The strategy is to use the expensive material where will be of most benefit.

In order to get an approximation of how effective this strategy is at fulfilling the prioritization of BIW objectives listed in the Introduction, a rough finite element model was constructed applying the materials selection in Table 5 to the Chrysler Concorde. Except for gauge thickness, part geometry was not changed. Without getting into too much detail, the results indicate that a 40% reduction in mass is possible but at a 20% decrease in static bending and torsion stiffness. With respect to these metrics, the prioritization has been met because mass reduction is prioritized higher than stiffness. However, materials costs are estimated to increase by 96% and this does not include extra processing costs associated with composites. Surely, this is not consistent with the prioritization of cost. Indeed, under today's construction paradigm of welded steel stampings, cost parity while using composite materials or non-ferrous metals poses a formidable challenge.

Table 5. BIW primary structural components and recommended materials

BIW Part	Recommended Material	Processing Route
Front bumper	Low-grade carbon fiber composite	Fabric stamping or RTM
Front rails	Low-grade carbon fiber composite	Fabric stamping or RTM
Upper radiator support	Magnesium	Cast
Lower radiator support	Magnesium	Cast
Shock towers	Steel	Stamp
Wheel housings	Steel	Stamp
Cradle / front cross member	Aluminum	Cast
Toe pan	Steel	Stamp
Firewall	Steel	Stamp
Plenum	Magnesium	Cast
Floor pan	Steel	Stamp
Sills	Low-grade carbon fiber composite	Fabric stamping or RTM
A-pillars	magnesium inside/carbon outside	SMC
B-pillars	Low-grade carbon fiber composite	SMC
Roof	Steel	Stamp
Roof rails	Low-grade carbon fiber composite	SMC
Front & Rear header	Magnesium	Cast
Roof bow	Steel	Stamp
C-pillars	magnesium inside/carbon outside	SMC
Shelf panel	Magnesium	Cast
Rear kick-up	Steel	Stamp
tire tub	Steel	Stamp
Rear shock towers	Steel	Stamp
Rear cross member	Aluminum	Cast
Rear rails	Low-grade carbon fiber composite	Fabric stamping or RTM
Rear bumper	Low-grade carbon fiber composite	Pultrusion
Rear deck opening	Steel	Stamp

RTM = Resin Transfer Molding
 SMC = Sheet Molding Compound



- Low-grade carbon fiber composite
- Steel
- Cast magnesium
- Cast aluminum

Figure 3. The primary structural components and recommended materials.

Costs for composites materials will continue to decrease. However, whether these cost reductions will ever be able to offset a price increase of 96+%, maybe unlikely. Consequently, parts consolidation strategies need to be employed. As mentioned previously, rail and sill structures should be combined. Roof header and A- and C- pillars can likely be combined via large castings. The concept of combining radiator supports and headlight buckets into a single casting is not new. Finally, as described in Reference 25, a floor pan, a rear kick-up and a tire tub structures can also perhaps be combined into an ultra-large casting. As it is recommended herein that these pieces be made from steel, research into making cost effective ultra-thin walled steel castings²⁶ should be pursued.

Aside from this very serious issue of cost, at least one more severe challenge exists with the strategy described here. Construction of multi-material BIWs involves the combination of disparate thermal expansion rates and subsequent residual stresses. Indeed, carbon fiber composites can have an order of magnitude different coefficient of thermal expansion than steel. This means that in climates which experience extremes of cold and hot, loosening of bonds or even catastrophic failure could occur. However, this joining problem is likely not insurmountable. Structural bonding²⁷⁻³¹ has potential because adhesives typically have lower modulus than the material being joined and can therefore

reduce stress concentrations. In addition, a large body of experience and success exists in the similar problem of joining metals to ceramics for high temperature applications. A typical solution is to sandwich a layer of material with an intermediate thermal expansion coefficient between the ceramic and the metal. The result is a reduction in the stress concentration at the interfaces between the three materials and an increase in resistance to failure from thermal cycling. So, as a final recommendation, a similar strategy for joining polymer matrix composites and metals should be investigated.

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