EFFECT OF FLUID FLOW ON INCLUSION COARSENING IN LOW-ALLOY STEEL WELDS

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Abstract

Oxide inclusions form in welds because of deoxidation reactions in the weld pool. These inclusions control the weld microstructure development. Thermodynamic and kinetic calculation of oxidation reaction can describe inclusion characteristics such as number density, size, and composition. Experimental work has shown that fluid-flow velocity gradients in the weld pool can accelerate inclusion growth by collision and coalescence. Moreover, fluid flow in welds can transport inclusions to different temperature regions that may lead to repeated dissolution and growth of inclusions. These phenomena are being studied with the help of computational coupled heat transfer, fluid-flow, thermodynamic, and kinetic models. The results show that the inclusion formation in steel welds can be described as a function of the welding processes, process parameters, and steel composition.
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Introduction

The relationship between inclusions and formation of a high-toughness phase, namely acicular ferrite in low-alloy steel welds, is well known (1-4). Past research has focused on maximizing acicular ferrite amount in welds by controlling welding processes, process variables, and welding consumable parameters. Research has shown that there is a complex interaction between inclusion characteristics, prior austenite grain size, and weld metal hardenability. In a low-alloy steel weld, the small addition of titanium lead to a change in the inclusion composition and resulted in a transition in the microstructure from bainitic to acicular ferrite [see Fig. 1]. This in turn lead to the best combination of strength and toughness. This paper describes the inclusion formation in low-alloy steel welds.

![Image](image_url)

Figure 1: Optical micrographs of low-alloy steel welds showing the transition from a bainitic to an acicular ferrite microstructure with small additions of titanium (5): (a) after the addition of 7 wt.ppm of titanium and (b) after the addition of 32 wt.ppm of titanium.

Inclusion Formation in Steel Welds

Inclusions form in steel welds as a result of the reaction between dissolved aluminum, titanium, silicon, and manganese with dissolved oxygen, sulfur, and nitrogen. The inclusion characteristics such as volume fraction, size, number density, composition, and type of surface compounds have influence on the subsequent solid-state transformations. Extensive characterization of inclusions in welds has been performed (4-5). The results show that the inclusions are heterogeneous and might have formed from sequential oxidation and sulfide and nitride formation (4). Moreover, it has been observed that the inclusion characteristics are affected by welding process parameters, weld composition, and deoxidation conditions in the welding arc atmosphere. Until recently, there has been no predictive model to describe inclusion characteristics as a function of welding process parameters and composition because of its complexity. The complexity is caused by simultaneous formation of many phases (oxides, sulfides, and nitrides) during weld cooling. The kinetics of one reaction can interfere with the kinetics of the other reactions.

In the last five years, progress has been made to understand this complex inclusion formation and models have been developed to describe the inclusion formation as a function of welding process parameters [4,6-8]. In this work, oxidation kinetic equations have been extended to describe inclusion formation in steel welds, with some assumptions [4]. In the model, only simple oxides were considered. At a particular temperature, thermodynamic equilibrium between liquid steel and only one stoichiometric oxide was considered, ignoring the effects of other phases. The calculations were consistent with multicomponent thermodynamic calculations between two phases. The oxide to form first was determined by the magnitude of its driving
force for formation, $\Delta G$, and was assumed to nucleate homogeneously. Subsequent oxides were
assumed to form heterogeneously on the first oxide. To model the reactions during continuous
cooling, additivity of volume fractions was assumed. The weld cooling curves were modeled
using analytical equations.

The inclusion model developed with the aforementioned assumptions has been shown to be very
sensitive to weld metal composition and weld cooling conditions. Evaluations of this model for
a wide range of welding processes and weld cooling conditions showed its potential as a weld
consumable design tool. During evaluation of inclusion formation in high-energy-density welds
such as electron beam and laser beam welds, the inclusion model predicted the expected trends
of increasing inclusion number density with increase in weld cooling rate [7]. However, the
calculated number density did not compare well with experimental measurements. This
inconsistency is attributed to the inaccuracy of analytical equations in the calculated cooling rate
for electron beam and laser beam welds and can be alleviated by using computational heat
transfer and fluid-flow models.

Inclusion Coarsening Caused by Collision and Coalescence

The model described previously ignored the effects of fluid flow in the weld pool. To
incorporate the possible effects of fluid flow, we need to use experiments to understand the
physical mechanisms. Therefore, controlled isothermal melting experiments were performed in
a thermomechanical simulator [6]. In this experiment, the weld metal regions from a submerged
arc (SA) steel weld were extracted and heated to a melting temperature of 1480 °C. Because of
temperature gradients and current flow in the melt zone, vigorous fluid flow was induced during
the isothermal coarsening experiment. Therefore, this experiment is different from the
coarsening conditions in a static melt. Optical microscopy revealed rapid change in the inclusion
size distribution with a holding time at 1480°C. Figure 2 compares the inclusion size
distribution in the as-welded condition from the SA weld and after an isothermal hold of 60
seconds. Quantitative size distributions in the as-welded condition, after 10 and 60-s hold times,
are compared in Figure 3. Results from other intermediate hold times also showed a steady
increase in the inclusion size and a reduction in the number density.

The micrograph in Fig. 2 (b) suggests that collision and coalescence might facilitate inclusion
coarsening. From the literature, it is known that such a growth will be accelerated by the
presence of a fluid-flow gradient (9). Theoretical calculation of inclusion growth by collision
and coalescence by Lindborg and Torssell (9) was used to examine the present results. The
calculations indicate that the change in inclusion size distribution occurs rapidly in the early
stages. The calculated change in inclusion size distribution compared well with the experimental
measurements.

These results suggest that rapid inclusion collisions occur in welds. However, it is important to
consider additional complexities caused by the spatial variation of temperature gradients,
velocity gradients, and weld cooling rates. Therefore, the collision and coalescence process may
be most pronounced in certain regions of the weld pool. Numerical heat transfer and fluid-flow
models have to be used to describe the spatial variation of the velocity gradients in the weld
pool, which are dealt with in the next section.
Coupled Heat Transfer, Fluid Flow, and Inclusion Model

The aforementioned experimental work illustrates that we need to describe inclusion formation with computational heat transfer and fluid flow models. This will allow for predicting the nature and extent of inclusion growth caused by collision and coalescence, as well as enhanced oxide nucleation caused by local weld cooling conditions. To accomplish this task, previously developed inclusion model (4) was coupled with a generalized computational heat transfer and fluid-flow model (10).

The temperature and velocity fields and the shape and size of the weld pool are calculated using the equations of conservation of mass, momentum, and energy in three dimensions. Using the finite difference method, the coordinate system of the grid was fixed to the moving heat source. The governing equations are modified according to the fixed grid system. The details of this model are given in refs. 10 and 11.
For simplicity, only the growth and dissolution of Al₂O₃ inclusion were considered. The growth and dissolution were related to thermal excursions caused by the motion of the Al₂O₃ particles along with the fluid movement. Approximating the exact solution at a number of mesh points, starting from the initial point and moving forward, the trajectories of inclusion particles were calculated. The above model was applied to the submerged arc welding conditions given in ref. 4. The weld pool temperatures, fluid-flow vectors, and a typical inclusion trajectory are shown in Fig. 4.

Trajectories of thousands of inclusions throughout the weld metal region were calculated. The calculations yield thermal excursions experienced by these inclusions as they move through the weld pool region before they are engulfed by the solid-liquid interface. Typical temperature excursions experienced by two inclusions (A and B) at different locations are shown in Fig. 5. The plot shows, depending on the nature of thermal cycle, the inclusion may show continuous growth or repeated dissolution and growth, respectively. Thermal cycles experienced by the inclusions A and B are shown in Fig. 5. Figure 6 shows the corresponding inclusion size variation for these two inclusions. Similar calculations were repeated for many locations, and the results showed complex growth and dissolution of inclusions. In addition, the results indicated that the inclusion size is related to the residence time in the liquid steel (Fig. 7). Note that the variation of inclusion size with the cube root of residence time is similar to the behavior expected by the Ostwald ripening theory [4]. However, in these calculations the inclusion formation was described only by diffusion controlled growth and dissolution caused by thermal excursions.
Figure 5: Top two plots compare thermal excursions and bottom plot shows surface temperature gradients and the 2-D projection of the 3-D path of two inclusions A and B predicted by the computational model.

Figure 6: Comparison of inclusion growth and dissolution characteristics for inclusions A and B shown in Fig. 5.
Figure 7: Diameter of thousands of inclusions as a function of the cube root of their residence time in the weld pool calculated by the computational model. The straight line in the plot shows the relation expected by the Ostwald ripening theory.

By calculating the nucleation rate for Al₂O₃ for various locations, the size distribution of the inclusions was estimated. The effect of fluid flow on the inclusion size distribution was accounted for by considering average residence time and average velocity gradients. The calculations were found to be in agreement with experimentally measured data. These calculations illustrate that it is indeed possible to quantitatively describe complex inclusion formation. Further improvements of this model are being pursued to consider other types of oxides, solidification effects, and elimination of inclusions to the slag.

**Summary and Conclusions**

The oxide inclusions that form in low-alloy steel welds affect microstructure development and properties. In controlled isothermal experiments, inclusion coarsening was accelerated by collision and coalescence was induced by velocity gradients.

A coupled heat transfer, fluid-flow, and inclusion model has been developed to describe the aforementioned phenomena in low-alloy steel welds as a function of weld metal composition and process parameters. The calculations show that most of the inclusions undergo complex spatial motion caused by fluid flow in the weld pool, which results in complex thermal excursions. These thermal excursions may lead to repeated growth, dissolution, and collision and coalescence of inclusions.

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