Microstructural and mechanical evaluations of SAW by manufactured granular basic bonded Cr, Mo, and Cr–Mo active fluxes on ST37 low carbon steel

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Abstract
Bead-on-plate submerged arc welding was conducted on St37 steel by manufactured Cr, Mo, and Cr–Mo active basic fluxes produced via the unfused bonded method. The base metal heat-affected zone and weld metal (WM) microstructures were identified and characterized by optical microscopy and scanning electron microscopy. Furthermore, each element’s recovery rate (η) and slag factor (α) determine the amount of element transferred from flux into WM. Then, the ferrite morphologies volume fraction of WMs was measured. Moreover, the chemical analysis of slag and inclusions was evaluated by point scan energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy and extensively discussed. The number density and size of the inclusions as well as their effects on the acicular ferrite (AF) formation were also elaborated. Then, the WMs’ longitudinal tensile strength and Vickers hardness (HV) were measured. Finally, the Charpy V-notch test was conducted to determine the impact toughness; the fracture surfaces were investigated, as well.

Keywords Submerged arc welding · Unfused flux · Active bonded flux · Acicular ferrite · Inclusion · Slag · Impact test · Fractography

1 Introduction
Submerge arc welding (SAW) is one of the main heterogeneous fusion welding processes due to its inherent properties such as high joining and deposition rates, deep weld penetration, high-quality weld surface, thick section welding ability, and automatic mode operation. This process is most commonly used in heavy industries such as shipbuilding, tube and pipe manufacturing, large-scale structures, power plants, chemical, and nuclear installations [1–4].

The weld metal’s (WM) microstructure and mechanical properties can be controlled by adding various alloying elements such as Mo and Cr into flux and the WM’s chemical composition [5, 6]. Active (alloying) flux should be prepared by unfused methods like agglomerated (bonded) fluxes method rather than a fused one to prevent alloying element degradation and oxidation [7–10]. One of the most critical factors affecting the fusion zone’s (FZ) mechanical properties and microstructure is the WM alloying elements that are dictated by base metal (BM) and welding wire (WW) chemical composition, heat input, flux characteristics, dilution, and chemical reactions of the slag-WM [11]. Furthermore, the basicity index (BI), which is defined as the proportion of basic to acidic compounds of the flux ingredients (such as CaO, SiO2, TiO2, Al2O3), determines the ability of the flux to protect alloying elements [12].

It is well known that steel welding relies on the optimum size and number density of nonmetallic inclusions as a potent heterogeneous nucleation site, which promotes acicular ferrite (AF) formation [13–15]. The best impact toughness in steels is achieved through AF due to the high angle grain boundary (HAGB) density and chaotic fine interlocking sheaves microstructure [16–18]. Mabucci et al. [19] showed that manganese depletion in the ferrite matrix–manganese sulfide interface is associated with manganese...
precipitates form on the oxide inclusions during cooling; this is one of the critical mechanisms of AF formation.

The appropriate size of nonmetallic inclusions for AF nucleation stated in the literature is 1.1 μm. Besides, the minimum inclusion size for nucleation is 0.2 μm [20, 21]. Tae-kyu et al. [22] examined low-carbon steel WM and classified the inclusions into two groups of the non-nucleant and the nucleant. Then, by examining the inclusions’ size, the researchers concluded that the nucleant inclusions were much larger than the non-nucleant inclusions. Therefore, by increasing the size of the inclusions with a given chemical composition, the normal and sympathetically nucleation of AF increased. In fact, by increasing inclusion size, the nucleation of ferritic laths with different crystalline orientations was boosted, which resulted in improved mechanical properties[23, 24].

There are no general principles about the appropriate amount and proportion of alloying elements in WM and flux. For instance, Mo enhances the steel’s hardenability, reduces penetration, and increases tempering temperatures. It also delays the austenite to pearlite transformation much more than the austenite to bainite transformation; therefore, Mo-rich steels can be cooled continuously to produce bainite [25]. On the other hand, Cr usually has a role in enhancing the corrosion and wear resistance, hardness, and high-temperature strength of steels [26]. Bohle et al. [27] examined the effect of Ni, Mo, and Ni–Mo addition on WM of high-strength low alloy (HSLA) steels. It was found that adding 1 wt% Mo to WM increases the AF, the tensile strength, and impact toughness. Junhua et al. [28] investigations on Mo’s effect on the mechanical and microstructural properties of HSLA steels in pipelines contradict Bohle’s results. Junhua’s experiments revealed that increasing Mo would improve ultimate tensile strength (UTS) and hardness while decreasing the impact toughness.

Despite decades of employing arc welding, metallurgists still encounter many problems such as determining the exact amount of alloying elements transferred from flux to WM. Higher-strength WM needs to have higher alloying elements, leading to ductility deterioration along with cold and hydrogen cracking. Reformulating and modeling active fluxes can be a leap towards helping many researchers and industries. New generation active fluxes need to be developed to meet the requirement of weldments in service and lower the cost to performance ratio of many steel grades. Therefore, in this study, high-quality active fluxes were developed for welding, cladding, and surfacing. Moreover, microstructure, indentation hardness, tensile properties, and impact toughness of specimens welded by these fluxes were thoroughly investigated.

## 2 Materials and methods

The chemical composition of ST37 low carbon steel with the dimensions of $250 \times 120 \times 15 \text{ mm}^3$ as BM and S2 copper-coated 4 mm in diameter as WW with UTS of 450 MPa and 25% elongation is presented in Table 1.

Commercial OP139 aluminatus-basic neutral agglomerated flux with the boniszewski B1 of 1.5 with chemical composition listed in Table 2 was supplied by AMA Industrial Company as primary flux. Ferrochromium (FeCr) and ferromolybdenum (FeMo) with the chemical composition shown in Table 3 are used as the alloying powder to produce various active bonded fluxes. The OP139 was ball-milled for 2 h to reach the desired uniform particle size (20–50 μm). FeCr, FeMo, and OP139 were mixed with various weight percentages and then ball-milled for 30 min. Later on, sodium silicate adhesive (diluted to 80%) was added to various fluxes, air-dried, and baked at 350 °C for 90 min. Finally, the active fluxes were crushed and sieved to reach a uniform grain size of 0.3 to 1 mm. Table 4 gives the parameters for all the SAW welds by different fluxes. The groove characteristics for welding by SAW and the bead-on-plate technique are shown in Fig. 1a. Welding by bead-on-plate technique was performed using the fluxes re-dried for 90 min at 150 °C and automotive SAW machine. High-quality weld bead with a penetration shape factor of 2.4 and dilution of 55% is shown in Fig. 1b. Seven specimens were welded by given parameters and bonded active flux with different amounts of FeMo, FeCr, and FeCr–FeMo powders. The Cr, Mo, Mn composition of the WM is given in Table 5.

To investigate the welded specimen’s microstructure and constituent phases, the weld cross section was cut from the welded joint to $15 \times 20 \text{ mm}^2$, and its surface was mechanically grinded with different grades of silicon carbide abrasive sandpaper. Then, polishing was performed using a solution containing $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ particles with a size of 300 and 50 μm followed by 5 μm diamond paste. Finally, the specimens were etched by 2 vol% Nital (2 ml nitric acid and 98 ml ethanol) with 20-s dwell time, then went through hot air drying.

### Table 1 Chemical composition and carbon equivalent of the BM and the WW (wt%)}

| Code   | Standard | Grade | Fe   | C     | Mo  | Cr  | Mn  | Si | S  | P   | CE_{AWS} |
|--------|----------|-------|------|-------|-----|-----|-----|----|----|-----|----------|
| BM     | DIN 2391 | ST37  | balanced | 0.23 | ND  | 0.20 | 0.90 | 0.50 | 0.002 | 0.02 | 0.503    |
| WW     | DIN 8557 | S2    | balanced | 0.07 | ND  | ND  | 1.10 | 0.10 | ND  | ND  | ND       |

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FZ, HAZ, and BM microstructure of each sample were revealed by Olympus PME3 optical microscope. Clemex Image Analysis System and ImageJ software were used to determine the volume fraction of phases. Moreover, a scanning electron microscope (SEM) (TESCAN MIRA3 FEG-SEM) equipped with energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) detector was used to analyze and measure the distribution and composition of nonmetallic inclusions, slag chemical composition, and fracture mode of impact tests.

The mechanical evaluation comprises Vickers hardness (HV), Charpy V-notch (CVN), and longitudinal tensile test (LTT). The Vickers hardness indentation test using a Bohler instrument (Bohler, Germany) was conducted with a 10 kgf and dwell time of 30 s to measure the hardness values of WMs. Samples for LTT, as shown in Fig. 1a, were prepared along the welding direction from WM according to the standard of ASTM E8M. Tensile tests were performed at ambient temperatures and a constant strain rate of $1.33 \times 10^{-3}$ s$^{-1}$ with sample gauge length and diameter of 25 and 6 mm, respectively. To determine the room temperature impact toughness, three specimens were prepared for the CVN impact test under the standard of ASTM E23-18 with dimensions of three specimens were prepared for the CVN impact test.

The reported values are the mean results of the three welded specimen were machined, as shown in Fig. 1b. The reported values are the mean results of the three samples.

### 3 Results and discussion

#### 3.1 Microstructural characterization

Figure 2 signifies the phase fraction of different WMs, while Fig. 3 displays the microstructures of BM, HAZ, and WM welded by neutral agglomerated flux (NAF) and neutral bonded flux (NBF).

| Table 2 | Compositions of the neutral agglomerated flux (wt%) |
|---------|-----------------------------------------------------|
| Flux    | Standard | Grade | SiO$_2$+TiO$_2$ | CaO+MgO | Al$_2$O$_3$+MnO | CaF$_2$ |
| OP139   | DIN 32,522 | B AB 1 67 AC 12 MHP5 | 20% | 25% | 35% | 15% |

The BM microstructure consists of primary allotriomorphic polygonal ferrite (PF) along with a small amount of pearlite (P). The HAZ microstructure is a combination of grain boundary PF and WF. These two expected microstructures are attained according to the weld cooling rate and chemical composition of BM [8]. A similar WM microstructure is achieved for both NAF and NBF, including AF and prior austenite grain boundary ferrite. The amount and type of different ferrite morphologies are approximately equal in both NAF and NBF, which means that the change in the unfused neutral flux manufacturing method does not affect the attained phases and morphologies.

By using the following equation to calculate the percent of element $E$ transferred from flux into WM in SAW [3]:

$$\%E_{\text{WM}} = D \cdot \%E_{\text{BM}} + (1 - D) \cdot \%E_{\text{WW}} + \alpha \cdot \eta_E \cdot \%E_F$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)

where $\%E_{\text{WM}}$, $\%E_{\text{BM}}$, $\%E_{\text{WW}}$, and $\%E_F$ are the $\%E$ in the WM, BM, WW, and active flux, respectively; $D$, $\eta_E$, and $\alpha$ are the dilution, recovery rate of element $E$, and slag factor, respectively. Since WW and BM does not have any Cr and Mo; Eq. 1 will be simplified to

$$\%E_{\text{WM}} = \alpha \cdot \eta_E \cdot \%E_F.$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

The slag factor and recovery rate data are calculated and reported in Table 5. This data stated that the recovery rate is reduced whenever using more than one element in the flux. Moreover, by increasing the Mo percentage in the flux, the Mo recovery rate is reduced, but the Cr’s recovery rate increased by increasing the flux’s Cr percentage.

Figure 4 demonstrates the WM microstructure welded by Cr active bonded fluxes and Mo active bonded fluxes. According to Table 5 and Fig. 2, incorporating 5 wt% FeMo into flux (ABF5Mo) causes the addition of 0.4 wt% Mo into the WM, increases the AF or carbide free bainite formation to 87%, and reduces the PF to 12% by inclusion-assisted heterogeneous nucleation. Increasing flux FeMo to 10 wt% (ABF10Mo) causes insertion of 0.7 wt% Mo into WM, 28% bainite formation while decreasing AF fraction to 70% and producing a little amount of grain boundary allotriomorphic ferrite. On the other hand, utilizing 5 wt% FeCr in the flux (ABF5Cr) increases WM’s Cr to 0.4 wt% and produces 57 vol% AF in the WM. Increasing flux FeCr to 10 wt% (ABF10Cr) adds 1.5 wt% Cr into the WM; as the AF decreases to 50 vol%, 46% of the microstructure comprises bainite. Compared to NBF, Cr and Mo addition is found to be

| Table 3 | The composition of active powders (wt%) |
|---------|----------------------------------------|
| Powder  | Cr | Mo | Fe | C |
| Ferrochromium (FeCr) | 75 | ND | 24.7 | 0.3 |
| Ferromolybdenum (FeMo) | ND | 45 | 54.9 | 0.1 |
quite effective in promoting AF formation. However, AF Vol% decreases by increasing the Cr and Mo content up to 10 wt%. Moreover, the higher percentage of Cr and Mo caused bainite formation due to the effect of higher alloying elements [29, 30].

Figure 5 shows the microstructure of the WMs by simultaneous addition of the different amounts of FeCr and FeMo into the bonded flux. As 1.5 wt% FeCr and 2.5 wt% FeMo (ABF2.5) are added into the flux, 0.2 wt% Cr and 0.2 wt% Mo are transferred into the WM. ABF2.5 microstructure comprises AF morphology predominantly with 83 vol% along with 17% grain boundary allotriomorphic ferrite. By increasing FeCr content to 3 wt% and FeMo to 5 wt% (ABF5), WM’s Cr and Mo enhanced to 0.28 wt% and 0.35 wt%, respectively. In ABF5, the AF fraction of microstructure turns to 95 vol%, and the amount of allotriomorphic ferrite is further reduced to 5 vol%, and the whole microstructure morphology changes to favorable AF by the assisting of the proper size and number density of nonmetallic inclusions. Moreover, ferritic laths nucleate on larger inclusions to reduce the larger curvature of the inclusion-ferrite interface [9, 27]. Large inclusions promote AF nucleation and are favored by the system, while smaller ones hinder the grain boundary migration and may be engulfed by large laths [6, 31, 32]. By adding 6 wt% FeCr and 10 wt% FeMo into the flux (ABF10), WM’s Cr and Mo increase to 0.45 and 0.61 wt%, respectively. ABF10 samples’ AF vol% decreases to 60%, but 38% bainite forms and low strength allotriomorphic ferrite almost disappears. The effect of the simultaneous addition of Cr and Mo on the formation of AF is far better than the effect of an individual addition of these elements. Increasing FeCr and FeMo makes the reconstructive transformation of allotriomorphic grain boundary ferrite sluggish and promotes the displacive transformation of AF and bainite [15, 33].

Increasing cooling rates (CR) change the microstructure into acicular ferrite and rapid CR results in the emergence of upper bainite with little harmful microphases. Moreover, it is possible to increase the AF vol% by increasing WM’s prior austenite grain size and oxygen content. The oxygen concentration of steel BMs is almost always less than that of the WM’s; therefore, oxygen can be a positive boon or a negative bane. It helps to have a higher number density of complicated inclusions while reducing prior austenite grain size and inclusion size [34–36]. Figure 6 indicates the size and number density of inclusions within different morphologies. Irregular-shaped nonmetallic inclusions comprise a wide variety of oxides and compounds with various crystalline and amorphous phases [9, 22]. These inclusions are favorable sites for stimulation of AF nucleation, and their characteristics have a significant influence on the microstructure. The nature of the
inclusions varies by the chemical composition of the WM. ABF5 comprises moderate inclusion number density with 95 vol% acicular ferrite, demonstrating that high inclusion number density does not necessarily produce a higher vol% of AF. Additionally, the proper inclusion size range is necessary for AF nucleation since larger ones deteriorate mechanical properties, whereas the smaller ones are engulfed by ferritic laths.

Figure 7 reveals the EDS point scan chemical analysis of inclusions in different WMs. Oxygen content, cooling rate, alloying elements, BI, and prior austenite grain size affect the inclusion size and composition, which later manipulate the AF vol%. Inclusions have 10–15 wt% oxygen in their analysis, and according to the results, by the addition of FeCr and FeMo into the flux, Mo and Cr-rich nonmetallic inclusions are formed, promoting

| Code      | Flux          | Mn  | Cr  | Mo  | ηCr | ηMO | α     | %D |
|-----------|---------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-------|----|
| NAF       | OP139         | 1.06| -   | -   | -   | -   | 0.41  | 55 |
| NBF       | OP139         | 1.10| -   | -   | -   | -   | 0.38  | 62 |
| ABF5Mo    | OP139-5%FeMo  | 1.13| -   | 0.40| -   | 0.46 | 0.39  | 48 |
| ABF10Mo   | OP139-10%FeMo | 1.05| -   | 0.71| -   | 0.38 | 0.42  | 52 |
| ABF5Cr    | OP139-5%FeCr  | 1.08| 0.4 | -   | 0.34| -   | 0.31  | 50 |
| ABF10Cr   | OP139-10%FeCr | 1.10| 1.53| -   | 0.55| -   | 0.37  | 52 |
| ABF2.5    | OP139-2.5%FeMo-1.5%FeCr | 1.03| 0.20| 0.20| 0.38| 0.38 | 0.47  | 65 |
| ABF5      | OP139-5%FeMo-3%FeCr | 1.00| 0.28| 0.35| 0.29| 0.36 | 0.43  | 59 |
| ABF10     | OP139-10%FeMo-6%FeCr | 1.06| 0.45| 0.61| 0.27| 0.37 | 0.37  | 60 |
AF nucleation. The following conditions increase the nucleation of AF fostered by inclusions: (1) slight lattice strain misfit between the inclusions and matrix, (2) the positive thermal strain around inclusions due to the significant difference in coefficient of thermal expansion (CTE) with matrix, (3) the minimization of the interface energy, and (4) forming manganese-free zone around the MnS included inclusions [25, 31]. Figure 8 shows the results of the EDS point scan analysis of the ABF5 slag. According to the results, by adding FeCr and FeMo into the flux, 0.37 wt% Mo and 0.03 wt% Cr are lost from flux into the slag, emphasizing the role of element recovery rate in active fluxes. Elements have different recovery rates and are affected by the presence of other elements. In addition, the Mn in the slag is 3.23 wt% by considering the slag to the WM ratio, which is a significant loss.
3.2 Tensile and indentation hardness evaluation

Figure 9 represents the mechanical properties of the WM s, including the results of the LTT and Vickers hardness indentation test. The tensile and hardness values of the WM-NBF and WM-ABF are almost the same and higher than that of BM owing to AF’s formation without jeopardizing the toughness. The ABF5Mo enhances the hardness value of the WM’s, improves the UTS, reduces the ductility slightly, and increases the strength due to the solid solution mechanism of alloying elements and acicular ferrite formation with high dislocation density [37–39]. Further increasing in WM’s Mo content, ABF10Mo increases the UTS, yield stress (YS), and hardness, but reduces the elongation by 50% compared to NBF. AF and the formation of bainite are the main reason behind these changes.

On the other hand, ABF5Cr increases UTS to 554 MPa and reduces ductility by 23%. The UTS and hardness value of ABF10Cr are improved by 73% and 11%, respectively, but the elongation decreases sharply by 67% because of the reduction of AF vol% and increase of bainite. Microphases and morphologies rather than AF are detrimental to WM toughness since crack can propagate quickly through the matrix.

ABF2.5 YS, UTS, and HV improve by 28%, 17%, and 3%, while elongation decreases by 24%. ABF2.5’s AF vol% increases to 83%, enhancing the UTS. Moreover, ABF5’s YS, UTS, and HV increase by 37%, 23%, and 9%, while elongation decreases by 39% due to the high

Fig. 4 Optical microscopy of WM s by active bonded flux with: (a) 5 wt% FeMo, (b) 10 wt% FeMo, (c) 5 wt% FeCr, (d) 10 wt% FeMo

Fig. 5 Optical microscopy of WM s by active bonded flux with: (a) 2.5 wt% Mo and 2.5 wt% Cr, (b) 2.5 wt% Mo and 2.5 wt% Cr, (c) 5 wt% Cr and 5 wt% Mo
AF vol% (97%). Finally, ABF10 YS, UTS, and HV rise by 56%, 35%, and 5%, respectively, but due to reducing the AF to 60% and the 38 vol% bainite formation, elongation is reduced slightly by 38%. It is found that by increasing alloying elements, hardenability increases due to the high WM’s CE, which causes the formation of bainite and an increase in UTS. The high percentage of AF, approximately higher than 70%, does not have an enormous effect on tensile properties, while the generation of bainite further increases the UTS by sacarifying the elongation.

It seems that at least 50% AF, along with WF and allotriomorphic ferrite, is acceptable. On the other hand, mechanical properties can be discussed by considering the effect of nonmetallic inclusions. According to the classical Griffith theory, as Eq.3 [40], it can be concluded that the larger the inclusion sizes the lower the critical stress for cleavage fracture mode.

$$\sigma_c = \left(\frac{\pi E\gamma_p}{(1-\nu^2)d}\right)^{1/2}$$

where $\gamma_p$ is the fracture’s effective surface energy, $\nu$ is the Poisson’s ratio, and $d$ is the size of a crack. Here, $d$ can be considered as the inclusion size. Hence, to optimize the WM toughness, based on the principle, the acceptable size distribution of inclusions can help the formation of AF effectively but cannot lower the critical fracture stress.

As shown by Eq. 3, inclusions also play a critical role in the toughness; hard and brittle inclusions, along with large size, promote crack nucleation and propagation through grain boundary allotriomorphic ferrite [7, 11, 13]. Therefore, optimum inclusion size and density number, which have good lattice matching with the matrix, stimulate sheaves of heterogeneously AF formation, deflecting and
hindering crack propagation and arresting the cracks to maximize the toughness.

### 3.3 Impact toughness and fractography

The results of the CVN impact test of different WMs are presented in Fig. 9. As regards impact toughness, mean values of the WM’s toughness are relatively higher than BM at any fluxes, implying that the predominantly AF microstructure formation in WMs is generally responsible for good toughness. The WM’s impact toughness of NAF and NBF is 144 and 146 J, respectively, so changing the unfused welding flux’s production method has almost no effect on the impact toughness. Compared to BM, the impact toughness of the NAF and NBF is sharply boosted by 440%.
By adding alloying elements into the flux, the impact toughness of the WMs is reduced. The result is still controversial, being both in agreement and contradiction with literature. Different BM, types, and amounts of alloying elements in the WM, welding parameters, impurities inserted in the WM by the welding flux, and different amounts of hydrogen, nitrogen, oxygen, sulfur, and phosphorus in the WM are the main reasons for the controversial results. The impact toughness of all the alloyed WMs is compared with NBF. ABF5Mo and ABF10Mo both have induced a 28% reduction in the impact toughness due to the presence of inclusions and detriment phases (coarse bainite zones). These sites acts as potential sites for crack initiation and propagation stages for both ductile and cleavage fracture. As a result, the impact toughness has experienced a slight decrease.

On the other hand, ABF5Cr impact toughness significantly decreases by 36%. By further Cr increasing, ABF10Cr impact toughness is reduced abruptly by 59% to 60 J. Both ABF10Mo and ABF10Cr comprise bainite, which includes Fe₃C among ferrite phases, and the nature of cementite should be considered, as well.

ABF2.5 and ABF5 have the same impact toughness of about 115 J; however, their impact toughness is 21% lower than that of NBF. As Mo and Cr are further increased, the amount of AF decreases, and a higher proportion of harder and more brittle zones (ab bainitic ferrite), which ease the crack initiation within the microstructure, is formed; this is responsible for a 33% inferior impact toughness. Another detrimental effect is that brittle phases also cause the formation of microcracks, which lead to intergranular fracture [15]. Therefore, optimum WM tensile toughness and impact toughness are achieved through a higher vol% of AF, which provide more effective obstacles in the its matrix to impede the crack propagation.

Figure 10 shows the fracture surface of different WMs through the CVN impact test. All samples’ fracture mode is a combination of ductile and brittle. NBF comprises regular and elongated dimples and voids with a considerable amount of shear facets [41, 42].

The critical stress for void nucleation is highly dependent on inclusion size and can be calculated by Eq. 4 [43]. Here, \(d\) is inclusion diameter, \(E\) is particle’s Young modulus, \(\gamma\) is stress-concentration factor at particle, \(\gamma\) is particle’s surface energy, and \(\sigma_v\) is the critical stress for void nucleation. So, the smaller the inclusion size, the higher critical stress is required to form a critical crack size around the inclusion, though this stress criterion is essential but not sufficient condition for void nucleation [43].

\[
\sigma_v = \left(\frac{6E\gamma}{qd}\right)^{1/2}
\]  

(4)

ABF5Mo includes deeper dimples with embedded inclusions. ABF5Cr impact toughness is 93 J and incorporates higher inclusion size (more than 1 µm), which are responsible for a large fraction of shear facets and shallow dimples, approved by Eqs. 3 and 4, subsequently leading to dominant dangerous intergranular brittle fracture mode.

Fig. 9 Main tensile properties, Vickers hardness, and impact absorbed energy of the examined samples
density of inclusions on the fracture surface is observed in ABF5. ABF5 has the impact toughness of 113 J; it also comprises voids and debonded particles, indicating voids nucleation and coalescence, which later give rise to crack formation [44, 45].

4 Conclusion

In this study, the bonded unfused method was used to manufacture active welding fluxes by incorporating the different amounts of Cr and Mo to basic neutral agglomerated OP139 flux. The submerged arc welding (SAW) by the bead-on-plate technique with the manufactured fluxes was used to implement a weld pass on ST37 low carbon steel. The following results were obtained:

1. The microstructure, tensile properties, and impact toughness of WMs achieved by bonded and agglomerated neutral unfused fluxes were almost the same. Moreover, alloying elements were added to the bonded fluxes without adversely affecting the welding flux’s functions, such as protecting and purifying the weld puddle.
2. The largest vol% of acicular ferrite (95%) was formed by incorporating 5% FeMo and 3% FeCr in the flux.
Besides, the size and number density of nonmetallic irregular inclusions had a significant effect on the heterogeneous intragranular nucleation and growth of the sympathetic or autocatalytic acicular ferrite laths. The mean size and number density of inclusions obtained from Mo fluxes are more than Cr fluxes.

3. While adding 5% FeCr into flux (ABF5Cr) caused a 57% formation of acicular ferrite in WM microstructure, 5% FeMo resulted in an 87% acicular ferrite formation. Additionally, FeCr flux increased UTS intensely and decreased the impact toughness and elongation sharply.

4. Incorporating Cr–Mo in the WM caused a higher 77% of acicular ferrite than each element’s individual addition. The constant increase of WM’s Cr–Mo continuously enhanced UTS and HV, whereas declined elongation and impact toughness. Therefore, 10% FeMo and 6% FeCr (ABF10) improved UTS and HV of neutral bonded flux by 35% and 11%, respectively, while brought about a 33% lower impact toughness and a 38% lesser elongation.

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Author contribution All persons who meet authorship criteria are listed as authors, and all authors certify that they have participated sufficiently in the work to take public responsibility for the content, including participation in the concept, design, analysis, writing, or revision of the manuscript. Furthermore, each author certifies that this material or similar material has not been and will not be submitted to or published in any other publication before its appearance in the Welding Journal.

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