DIRECTIONALLY SOLIDIFIED IRON-BASE EUTECTIC ALLOYS

Surendra N. Tewari
Lewis Research Center
Cleveland, Ohio 44135

NATIONAL AERONAUTICS AND SPACE ADMINISTRATION · WASHINGTON, D. C. · DECEMBER 1976
Pseudobinary eutectic alloys with nominal compositions of Fe-25Ta-22Ni-10Cr and Fe-15.5Nb-14.5Ni-6.0Cr were directionally solidified at 0.5 centimeter per hour. Their microstructure consisted of the fcc, iron solid-solution, matrix phase reinforced by about 41-volume-percent, hcp, faceted Fe$_2$Ta fibers and 41-volume-percent, hcp, Fe$_2$Nb lamellae for the tantalum- and niobium-containing alloys, respectively. The microstructural stability under thermal cycling and the temperature dependence of tensile properties were investigated. These alloys showed low elevated-temperature strength and are not considered suitable for application in aircraft-gas-turbine blades although they may have applicability as vane materials.
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Lewis Research Center

SUMMARY

In the research reported herein the $\gamma$-$\epsilon$ pseudobinary eutectic compositions in the Fe-Ta-Ni-Cr and Fe-Nb-Cr systems were identified and directionally solidified, and their suitability as an advanced aircraft-gas-turbine blade material was investigated.

The nominal eutectic alloy compositions (in wt %) of Fe-15.5Nb-14.5Ni-6.0Cr and Fe-25Ta-22Ni-10Cr had freezing ranges from $1344^\circ$ to $1313^\circ$ C and from $1364^\circ$ to $1332^\circ$ C, respectively. Their directional solidification at 0.5 centimeter per hour in a modified Bridgman furnace with a melt temperature of about $1760^\circ$ C resulted in the formation of niobium (or tantalum) oxide and aluminum oxide inclusions. A melt temperature of about $1680^\circ$ C yielded a relatively inclusion-free length of 6 centimeters at the bottom of the bar, which was used for tensile property measurements.

The alloys were directionally solidified at 0.5 centimeter per hour with a temperature gradient of about $200^\circ$ C per centimeter at the liquid-solid interface. The microstructure of the tantalum-containing alloy consisted of about 41-volume-percent, faceted, Fe$_2$Ta fibers imbedded in an iron, solid-solution matrix. The microstructure of the niobium-containing alloy consisted of alternating lamellae of about 41-volume-percent Fe$_2$Nb phase and the iron, solid-solution phase.

The tantalum-containing alloy did not show any microstructural degradation following 1800 thermal cycles from $1100^\circ$ to $425^\circ$ C (3-min interval) in an oxidation-erosion burner apparatus. The niobium-containing alloy was not investigated for its microstructural stability under thermal cycling.

The tensile strengths of the alloys decreased from about 800 to 900 MPa at room temperature to about 175 MPa at $1100^\circ$ C. The reduction in area increased from less than 2 percent at room temperature to about 3 to 9 percent at $1100^\circ$ C.

Based on this investigation the Fe-25Ta-22Ni-10Cr and Fe-15.5Nb-14.5Ni-6.0Cr eutectics are not suitable for aircraft-gas-turbine blade materials because of their low elevated-temperature strength and their solidification processing problems. However, they may have application as vane materials by further composition modification.

†National Research Council - National Aeronautics and Space Administration Research Associate.
INTRODUCTION

Directionally solidified eutectic alloys are presently being considered as the next generation of aircraft-gas-turbine blade materials. Their use is expected to result in significant engine performance advantages because of their 50° to 100° C increase in allowable metal temperatures over superalloys (ref. 1). The eutectic alloys being investigated for such an application generally have a nickel- or cobalt-base matrix that is reinforced by intermetallic fibers or lamellae (ref. 2). A lamellar, Ni₃Nb-reinforced, nickel-base alloy (γ/γ' - δ, ref. 3) and a fibrous, TaC-reinforced, cobalt-base alloy (CoTaC, ref. 4) have probably received the most intensive investigation. Identification and development of new, potentially promising eutectic systems with properties superior to γ/γ' - δ or CoTaC are desirable.

Since the mechanical properties of the reinforcing intermetallic phases are generally not known, it is not possible to select a potentially promising eutectic system based on this criterion. Therefore, one must consider such properties as the eutectic melting point, the density of the phases, the volume fraction of the reinforcing phase, the possibility of solid-solution and precipitation strengthening of the phases, the possibility of alloying for improved oxidation resistance, the absence of any allotropic transformations, and a relatively constant mutual solubility of the phases as a function of temperature. The last two characteristics are needed to provide microstructural stability under thermal cycling.

The Fe-Ta-Ni-Cr and Fe-Nb-Ni-Cr systems were selected for this study because they appeared attractive based on the foregoing property criteria. Depending on the Fe/Ni ratio the matrix was expected to be a body-centered cubic (bcc) or face-centered cubic (fcc) solid-solution phase, and the reinforcing phase was expected to be hexagonal Fe₂Ta or Fe₂Nb. A directionally solidified, Fe-23Cr-13.3Nb, pseudobinary eutectic alloy had been prepared and previously examined by Jaffrey and Marich (ref. 5). However, they could not achieve plane front solidification and therefore produced an alloy with a cellular microstructure.

Temperature-dependent allotropic transformations have been shown to be a potential source of microstructural instability under thermal cycling (ref. 6). The Fe-Nb and Fe-Ta binary eutectic compositions reported in reference 7 were modified by nickel additions to stabilize the fcc, iron solid-solution phase. Chromium additions were further made to the alloys to improve their oxidation resistance.

In this investigation iron-base eutectic alloys reinforced by the ε-phase (Fe₂Ta or Fe₂Nb) were directionally solidified and studied to determine their suitability as aircraft-gas-turbine blade materials. Their microstructural stability under thermal cycling and the temperature dependence of their tensile properties were studied.
MATERIALS, APPARATUS, AND PROCEDURE

Materials

The purities of raw materials used in this study are shown in table I.

Apparatus

The directional solidification apparatus, which is a modified Bridgman furnace, is shown in figure 1. The crucible containing the ingot was heated by radiation from a graphite susceptor positioned inside an induction coil. The alumina heat shield surrounding the graphite susceptor was used to minimize the heat loss from the susceptor. The power was supplied by a 7.5-kilowatt radiofrequency generator operating at 400 kilohertz. For any given power setting a flat liquid-solid interface was obtained just below the induction coil by adjusting the thickness of the alumina spacer between the susceptor and the water-spray chill ring. The induction coil was more densely wound at the bottom to provide greater localized heating at the solid-liquid interface.

Procedure

Master melting. - Initial 1.2-kilogram heats were melted in a 50-kilowatt, 10-kilohertz induction furnace in calcia-stabilized zirconia crucibles. The environment was first evacuated and then partially backfilled with argon. The melts were poured into preheated zircon shell molds to make cylindrical bar ingots (1-cm diam, 16-cm length) for subsequent directional solidification. Each shell mold provided six bar ingots.

Bleedout and eutectic composition determination. - The approximate eutectic composition was obtained by the eutectic bleedout technique (ref. 8). A bar ingot of the off-eutectic composition alloy was slowly heated in the Bridgman furnace. Eutectic regions on the bar surface, being the lowest melting-point constituent, melted first and solidified in a sleeve-like appearance at the bottom of the bar. This eutectic bleedout material was analyzed by spectrochemical analysis, and thus the first approximation of the eutectic alloy composition was obtained. The bleedout technique was repeated on the first approximation alloy, thus yielding the base-alloy compositions used for subsequent directional solidification and property evaluations. Freezing ranges of the base-alloy compositions were determined by a differential thermal analysis technique.

Directional solidification. - The bar ingots obtained from the master melting were remelted and directionally solidified in an alumina tube crucible (1.3-cm i.d., 1.8-cm o.d., 30-cm length) in a modified Bridgman furnace (fig. 1) under a flowing argon
atmosphere. Directional solidification was obtained by lowering the crucible through a water-spray chill ring at a constant speed of 0.5 centimeter per hour. The temperature gradient in the liquid at the liquid-solid interface was determined to be about 200\(^o\)C per centimeter. The melts were maintained at a superheat of about 300\(^o\)C. Typical directionally solidified bar lengths were 10 centimeters. A total of 12 bars were directionally solidified. Each bar yielded one specimen for mechanical testing.

**Inspection and mechanical testing.** A flat was ground on the bar surface along its length, polished and etched electrolytically at room temperature in a solution of 0.45 liter of water, 0.015 liter of hydrofluoric acid, 0.005 liter of nitric acid, and 0.010 liter of sulfuric acid to observe the degree of alinement along the length of the bar. Directionally solidified bars with well-alined microstructures were ground to the specimen dimension shown in figure 2. Machined specimens were inspected by X-ray radiography and fluorescent dye penetrant to detect any internal or surface voids or cracks. Tensile tests were conducted at 25\(^o\), 750\(^o\), and 1100\(^o\)C in air at a constant crosshead speed of 1.2 centimeters per minute. All tests were loaded parallel to the alloy growth direction.

**Thermal cycling.** The 1.2-centimeter-diameter directionally solidified bar was subjected to 1800 thermal cycles in a burner apparatus similar to the one used by Johnston and Ashbrook (ref. 9). The alloy was heated quickly to 1100\(^o\)C in the blast of a combustion gas stream (Mach 0.3) achieved by burning a mixture of JP-5 jet fuel and air. The alloy was held in the jet for 2 minutes and then quickly cooled to 425\(^o\)C in a blast of room-temperature air at Mach 0.7. The elapsed time for each cycle was 3 minutes. The bar was taken out at regular intervals and weighed to record the weight loss as a function of the number of cycles.

**Metallography.** The microstructure and the eutectic phase alinement of the alloys were examined by light metallography. Specimens were mounted in Bakelite and polished by normal metallographic procedures, with a final polish of 0.5-micrometer alumina on microcloth. Specimens were electrolytically etched in the same etchant that was used for the inspection. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was used for fracture examination.

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### Directional Solidification

The nominal eutectic alloy compositions identified by the eutectic bleedout technique (ref. 8) and selected for directional solidification were Fe-25Ta-22Ni-10Cr and Fe-15.5Nb-14.5Ni-6.0Cr (in wt %). The tantalum- and niobium-containing alloys had freezing ranges from 1364\(^o\) to 1332\(^o\)C and from 1344\(^o\) to 1313\(^o\)C (figs. 3(a) and (b), respectively).
Under the liquid-solid-interface temperature gradient of 200°C per centimeter and a maximum melt temperature of about 1760°C (about 400°C superheat), aligned microstructures were obtained for a growth speed of 0.5 centimeter per hour. This relatively slow growth speed resulted in melt-mold contact times as long as 20 hours. The presence of trapped inclusions in the aligned microstructure was attributed to the resulting mold-metal reaction. The distribution and appearance of these inclusions in the niobium-containing alloy are shown in figure 4. Similar inclusions were observed in the tantalum-containing alloy that was solidified under the same conditions. The micrographs that are from transverse (perpendicular to the alloy growth direction) sections at 2.6 and 8.5 centimeters from the bottom end of the bar clearly show the increase in the size and number of the inclusions as the solidification progressed. These inclusions also are believed to have contributed to formation of the hot-tear microcracks observed in the microstructure (fig. 4(b) and its inset). The morphology of the inclusions is shown in more detail at higher magnification in the inset of figure 4(a). There are actually two kinds of inclusions intertwined: one light in shade, the other darker. As solidification progressed (from bottom to top of the bar) the lighter (wider) inclusions diminished in size and number, and only the darker ones (cruciform-shaped inside) were observed in the last portion to solidify.

These inclusions were identified by electron microprobe X-ray analysis as shown in the secondary electron and X-ray micrographs of figure 5. The aluminum Kα X-ray micrograph of figure 5(b) shows the narrow, cruciform inclusion to be aluminum rich. The wider type of inclusion appears to be niobium rich in a niobium Lα X-ray micrograph (fig. 5(c)). Both inclusions were observed to be oxygen rich (fig. 5(d)). The possibility that the image contrast in figure 5(d) may have been caused by differences in X-ray background and may not be related to the presence of oxygen was investigated by observing the oxygen X-ray spectral peak with a beam on one of the inclusions. A peak in the oxygen X-ray spectrum showed that these inclusions were indeed oxygen rich. The two inclusions were therefore identified as aluminum and niobium oxides.

The mold-metal reaction responsible for these inclusions can be decreased either by using a different crucible, by changing the alloy chemistry (a smaller freezing range alloy could be aligned at a higher growth rate), or by decreasing the maximum superheat in the melt. An attempt was made to replace the recrystallized alumina crucible with an alumina-stabilized zirconia crucible. However, the zirconia crucible could not withstand the thermal shock from the water-spray quench and cracked. The melt superheat was decreased by about 80°C, thereby decreasing the maximum melt temperature to about 1680°C and resulting in about 90 percent less oxide inclusions. The alloys could not be aligned at growth speeds higher than 0.5 centimeter per hour. The bottom 6 centimeters of the bar, which was relatively free of the inclusions (at 6 cm from the bottom the oxide particles were of the size and distribution shown in fig. 4(a)), was used to investigate the mechanical properties of the directionally solidified eutectic alloys.
Chromium is known to increase the alloy freezing range in several alloys, for example, \( \gamma / \gamma' - \delta \) (ref. 10). In this reference, critical G/R values (where G is the temperature gradient in a liquid at the liquid-solid interface and R is the growth speed) required for a plane front solidification of \( \gamma / \gamma' - \delta \) eutectic alloys were observed to increase with increasing chromium concentration (ref. 10). Therefore, the possibility that, by reducing the chromium content, the alloy freezing range could be decreased and the alloy could be aligned at higher growth speeds was also investigated. This would decrease the mold-melt contact time. Two more eutectic alloys with decreasing chromium content, Fe-16.0Nb-14.9Ni-3.0Cr and Fe-16.5Nb-15.4Ni (nominal wt %), were directionally solidified under the same solidification conditions used for the other alloys tested (maximum melt temperature of 1680° C). These two alloys, however, still could not be aligned at growth speeds higher than about 0.5 centimeter per hour. This observation suggests that, in this alloy system, chromium does not have a large influence on the freezing range.

**Growth Morphology**

Niobium-containing eutectic alloy. Figure 6 shows the longitudinal (parallel to the alloy growth direction) and transverse microstructures of the directionally solidified niobium-containing eutectic alloy (Fe-15.5Nb-14.5Ni-6.0Cr). The microstructure can be seen to consist of alternating lamellae of fcc, iron solid-solution (\( \gamma \)) and hcp, intermetallic Fe\(_2\)Nb (\( e \)) phases. The approximate compositions of the phases (in wt %) as determined by the electron microprobe analysis are Fe-33.7Nb-9.8Ni-4.5Cr for the intermetallic lamellae and Fe-1.5Nb-15.6Ni-7.5Cr for the matrix phase (average of 10 analyses of each phase). X-ray diffraction analysis of the directionally solidified eutectic alloy showed the lattice parameters to be 3.55 angstroms for the fcc matrix and 4.82 and 7.87 angstroms for the \( c \) - and \( a \)-directions, respectively, of the hcp phase. The volume fraction of the intermetallic phase determined according to a new ASTM recommended practice (ref. 11) is 0.41±0.02.

Fault boundaries formed by two adjacent regions of lamellae with slight misalignment can be seen in the transverse microstructure (fig. 6(b)). Unlike Jaffrey and Marich (ref. 5), who observed both the fibrous (at the cell center) and the lamellar (at the cell boundaries) microstructures, only the lamellar microstructure was observed in this investigation. Jaffrey and Marich were not able to obtain a plane front solidification of their Fe-23Cr-13.3Nb eutectic alloy and as a result observed only cellular microstructures. Probably the lamellar morphology is the more energetically favored one for the Fe-15.5Nb-14.5Ni-6.0Cr composition, and as a result only lamellar microstructure was obtained in the present work under plane front solidification conditions.
Tantalum-containing eutectic alloy. - Figure 7 shows the longitudinal and transverse microstructures of the directionally solidified Fe-25Ta-22Ni-10Cr eutectic alloy. The microstructure consists of hcp, intermetallic Fe$_2$Ta (e) fibers imbedded in an fcc, Fe-Ni solid-solution (γ) matrix. The approximate compositions (in wt %) as determined by the electron microprobe X-ray analysis are Fe-45.0Ta-14.1Ni-7.0Cr for the intermetallic phase and Fe-4.4Ta-29.5Ni-12.3Cr for the matrix phase (average of 10 analyses of each phase). These fibers appear to be faceted when viewed at higher magnifications. Some fibers can be seen joining and forming plates in the transverse section (fig. 7(b)) in a manner similar to that observed in an Al-Al$_3$Ni eutectic alloy (ref. 12). Less than 10 percent of the cross-sectional area contained such plates.

Note that the microstructure is fibrous despite the large volume fraction, 0.41±0.03, of the second phase. It is believed that the volume fraction of the second phase (which according to ref. 13 should be fibrous in the absence of any surface-energy anisotropy only up to 0.28 volume fraction), the growth velocity of the alloy (ref. 14), and the surface-energy anisotropy of the interface (ref. 13) are the factors that determine whether the directionally solidified eutectic microstructure will be fibrous or lamellar. However, the exact reasons why similar phases (Fe$_2$Nb against Fe$_2$Ta) should develop different microstructures in a similar matrix under the same solidification conditions are not understood.

Thermal Cycling

Directionally solidified, lamellar eutectic alloys are generally known to possess good microstructural stability during thermal cycling (refs. 15 and 16). Fibrous eutectic alloys, on the other hand, frequently have shown microstructural instability during thermal cycling (ref. 17). The Fe-25Ta-22Ni-10Cr fibrous eutectic alloy was therefore subjected to thermal cycling in air between 1100$^\circ$C and 425$^\circ$C, in 3-minute cycles, to investigate its microstructural stability under thermal cycling. After 1800 cycles the microstructure of the alloy was examined. Significant microstructural instability of Fe$_2$Ta fibers due to thermal cycling was not observed (fig. 8). There was only occasional evidence of fiber pinchoff following the thermal cycling (fig. 8(b)). It is believed that if this alloy were subjected to a substantially larger number of cycles, the Fe$_2$Ta fibers would break down into segments. These could eventually coarsen and spheroidize, as was observed for chromium fibers in a directionally solidified NiAl-Cr eutectic alloy (ref. 18). The surface oxidation of the alloy was observed to a depth of about 150 micrometers. Below an oxide scale of about 150 micrometers a region of about 60 micrometers can be seen where only preferred oxidation of the Fe$_2$Ta phase has taken place (fig. 8(c)). Since tantalum is more susceptible to oxidation than the nickel-base solid solution, preferred oxidation of the Fe$_2$Ta phase is to be expected.
No systematic study was made of the oxidation resistance of the alloy. However, measurements were made of the weight loss that occurred during thermal cycling, and the results are shown in figure 9. The Fe-25Ta-22Ni-10Cr eutectic alloy examined has slightly better oxidation resistance than the \(\gamma/\gamma' - \delta\) eutectic alloy (ref. 15). However, its oxidation resistance is much inferior to that of B-1900, which was subjected to approximately similar thermal cycling treatments.

Since preliminary measurements had shown that the Fe-15.5Nb-14.5Ni-6.0Cr eutectic alloy had low elevated-temperature strength, its microstructural stability under thermal cycling was not investigated. However, this alloy is lamellar and is therefore expected to show good microstructural stability under thermal cycling. Its oxidation resistance is probably poor, similar to that of the Fe-25Ta-22Ni-10Cr alloy discussed previously because niobium is similar to tantalum in its chemical affinity for oxygen.

### Mechanical Properties

**Tantalum-containing eutectic alloy**. - The temperature dependence of the tensile properties of the Fe-25Ta-22Ni-10Cr eutectic alloy is shown in table II and figure 10. The ultimate tensile strength of the alloy decreased with increasing temperature from about 900 MPa at room temperature to about 175 MPa at 1100\(^\circ\) C. Also note in this figure that the elevated-temperature strength properties of this alloy are much inferior to those of the \(\gamma/\gamma' - \delta\) alloys currently under investigation (ref. 3). The strength values appear still less attractive when one compares the density of 9.1 g/cm\(^2\) (measured for this alloy) with 8.6 g/cm\(^3\) for \(\gamma/\gamma' - \delta\). The Fe-25Ta-22Ni-10Cr eutectic alloy therefore does not have sufficient strength to compete with \(\gamma/\gamma' - \delta\) alloys for gas-turbine blade applications.

The Fe-25Ta-22Ni-10Cr alloy exhibited low ductility (fig. 10). The reduction-in-area values, however, cannot be considered representative of the alloy capability since oxide particles were abundant. The presence of these oxide particles in the fracture region is expected to adversely affect the alloy ductility (ref. 19). Based on the fracture examination discussed in the next paragraph, the alloy without any oxide inclusions would be expected to possess low ductility at room temperature and 750\(^\circ\) C; however, at 1100\(^\circ\) C it should show considerably more ductility than the observed 3 to 8 percent reduction in area indicates (fig. 10).

The microstructural features of tensile fracture in the Fe-25Ta-22Ni-10Cr alloy are shown in figure 11. A longitudinal section through the room-temperature tensile fracture (fig. 11(a)) shows the brittle Fe\(_2\)Ta fiber fracture between ductile regions of the matrix. Occasional cracking of fibers immediately below the fracture surface and some evidence of fiber pullout can also be observed in this figure. Figure 11(b), a SEM micrograph of the room-temperature fracture surface, shows more clearly the ductile
necked failure of the matrix and the brittle failure of fibers with shattered ends. A longitudinal section through a 750°C tensile fracture (not shown) also showed similar brittle fiber failure and ductile failure of the matrix. The corresponding elevated-temperature, 1100°C, fracture (fig. 11(c)) on the other hand showed that the fibers had broken into short segments close to the fracture surface. The surrounding matrix, however, filled up the cracks created by such fiber segmentation and very few voids were observed. This type of fiber segmentation is expected to result in higher ductility at 1100°C (fig. 10) in the absence of oxide inclusions. The oxide film at the fracture surface (fig. 11(c)) was observed because the tests were conducted in air.

Niobium-containing eutectic alloy. - Figure 12 shows the temperature dependence of the tensile properties of the Fe-15.5Nb-14.5Ni-6.0Cr eutectic alloy. The alloy has an ultimate tensile strength of about 780 MPa at room temperature. The strength decreases with increasing temperature, and at 1100°C it is only 175 MPa. The alloy is also considerably weaker than the γ/γ' - δ eutectic alloy at elevated temperatures and is not considered suitable as an aircraft-gas-turbine blade material. It may also be noted in figure 12 that this alloy shows considerably more strength above 550°C than was observed for a directionally solidified, Fe-23Cr-13.3Nb eutectic alloy by Jaffrey and Marich (ref. 5). This strength increase over the alloys investigated in reference 5 may be due to a much better aligned microstructure than the cellular microstructure of the reference 5 alloys, a higher volume fraction of Fe2Nb phase (41 percent against their 22 percent), and a fcc matrix phase against their bcc matrix.

The Fe-15.5Nb-14.5Ni-6.0Cr alloy has low ductility (fig. 12). The reduction in area is about 2 percent at room temperature and 750°C, although at 1100°C it is about 9 percent. However, as for the tantalum-containing alloy, if this alloy could be directionally solidified without any oxide inclusions, it would be expected to show improved ductility (especially at 1100°C, as evidenced by fracture morphology).

The microstructural features of tensile fracture in the Fe-15.5Nb-14.5Ni-6.0Cr eutectic alloy are shown in figure 13. The fracture behavior of the niobium-containing alloy is similar to that of the tantalum-containing alloy, except for the fact that the niobium-containing alloy is lamellar and the tantalum-containing alloy is fibrous. A longitudinal section through the room-temperature fracture surface (fig. 13(a)) shows the brittle fracture of the Fe2Nb lamellae and the ductile fracture of the matrix. Some evidence of broken sections of lamellae being pulled out at the fracture surface was also observed. The ductile, necked, failure mode of the matrix lamellae and the brittle, flat, Fe2Nb fracture are shown in figure 13(b), an SEM micrograph of the room-temperature fracture surface. A longitudinal section that passed through the 750°C tensile fracture surface (not shown) exhibited a fracture appearance very similar to the one at room temperature (i.e., ductile matrix and brittle Fe2Nb phase). Some ductility in the Fe2Nb fibrous phase above 700°C was observed by Jaffrey and Marich (ref. 5). No such ductility was observed here in Fe2Nb lamellae that failed due to 750°C tensile
fracture. The $1100^\circ$ C tensile failure (fig. 13(c)) showed some ductility in both the ma-
trix and the reinforcing phase. The $Fe_2Nb$ lamellae separated into segments and par-
tially spheroidized in the region immediately below the fracture, causing occasional
voids to form. Since these tests were conducted in air the fracture surfaces were
heavily oxidized (fig. 13(c)).

CONCLUDING REMARKS

In conclusion, the directionally solidified, iron-base eutectic alloys $Fe-25Ta-22Ni-
10Cr$ and $Fe-15.5Nb-14.5Ni-6.0Cr$ have low elevated-temperature strength, low du-
ctility at low to intermediate temperatures, and solidification processing problems (very
low growth speed and resultant oxide inclusions). They are not considered suitable for
application as aircraft-gas-turbine blade materials. However, they may have potential
as vane materials, which are subjected to much lower stresses, particularly if oxide
inclusions can be eliminated.

SUMMARY OF RESULTS

Pseudobinary eutectic alloys with the nominal compositions (in wt %) of $Fe-25Ta-
22Ni-10Cr$ and $Fe-15.5Nb-14.5Ni-6.0Cr$ were directionally solidified at 0.5 centimeter
per hour in a modified Bridgman furnace having a temperature gradient of about $200^\circ$ C
per centimeter at the liquid-solid interface. Their microstructural stability under
thermal cycling and the temperature dependence of their tensile properties were inves-
tigated. The following results were obtained from this study:

1. The $Fe-25Ta-22Ni-10Cr$ and $Fe-15.5Nb-14.5Ni-6.0Cr$ pseudobinary eutectic
alloys had freezing ranges from $1364^\circ$ to $1332^\circ$ C and from $1344^\circ$ to $1313^\circ$ C, respec-
tively.

2. Directional solidification at 0.5 centimeter per hour with a maximum melt tem-
perature of about $1760^\circ$ C resulted in the formation of trapped inclusions in the alined
microstructure. These were identified as niobium (tantalum) oxide and aluminum oxide.
A decreased melt temperature of about $1680^\circ$ C resulted in a relatively inclusion-free
bottom 6 centimeters of the directionally solidified bar, which was used for tensile
property evaluation.

3. The microstructure of $Fe-25Ta-22Ni-10Cr$ eutectic alloy consisted of about
41-volume-percent, hexagonal close packed (hcp), faceted $Fe_2Ta$ fibers imbedded in a
face-centered-cubic (fcc), iron solid-solution matrix. The microstructure of the
$Fe-15.5Nb-14.5Ni-6.0Cr$ eutectic alloy consisted of alternating lamellae of about
41-volume-percent, hcp, $Fe_2Cb$ phase and the fcc, iron solid-solution phase.

10
4. The Fe-25Ta-22Nb-10Cr alloy did not show any microstructural degradation following 1800 thermal cycles. The niobium-containing alloy was not investigated for its microstructural stability under thermal cycling.

5. The Fe-25Ta-22Ni-10Cr alloy had a density of about 9.1 g/cm³, and its tensile strength decreased from about 900 MPa at room temperature to about 175 MPa at 1100°C.

6. The Fe-15.5Nb-14.5Ni-6.0Cr alloy had a density of about 7.7 g/cm³, and its tensile strength decreased from about 780 MPa at room temperature to about 175 MPa at 1100°C.

Lewis Research Center,
National Aeronautics and Space Administration,
Cleveland, Ohio, July 29, 1976, 505-01.

REFERENCES


TABLE I. - RAW MATERIALS

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<th>Element</th>
<th>Purity, wt %</th>
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TABLE II. - TEMPERATURE DEPENDENCE OF TENSILE PROPERTIES
OF IRON-BASE EUTECTIC ALLOYS

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Composition, wt %</th>
<th>Temperature, °C</th>
<th>Ultimate tensile strength MPa</th>
<th>Reduction of area, percent</th>
<th>Plastic elongation, percent</th>
<th>Yield strength MPa</th>
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Figure 1. - Bridgman directional solidification apparatus.

Figure 2. - Tensile test specimen. (Dimensions are in cm, except thread specification, which is in inches.)
Differential thermal analysis of Fe-25Ta-22Ni-10Cr.

Differential thermal analysis of Fe-15.5Nb-14.5Ni-6.0Cr.

Figure 3. - Differential thermal analysis trace of iron-base eutectic alloys.
Figure 4. - Appearance and distribution of inclusions in directionally solidified, $\gamma - \varepsilon$ eutectic alloy Fe-15.5Nb-14.5Ni-6.0Cr. Transverse light micrographs; melt temperature, 1760° C.

(a) 2.6 Centimeters from bottom.

(b) 8.5 Centimeters from bottom.
Figure 5. - Identification of aluminum oxide and niobium oxide inclusions in directionally solidified eutectic alloy Fe-15.5Nb-14.5Ni-6.0Cr.
Figure 6. - Microstructure of directionally solidified eutectic alloy Fe-15.5Nb-14.5Ni-6.0Cr.

Figure 7. - Microstructure of directionally solidified eutectic alloy Fe-25Ta-22Ni-10Cr.
Figure 8. Effect of 1800 thermal cycles (1100°C to 425°C at 3-min intervals) on microstructure of directionally solidified eutectic alloy Fe-25Ta-22Ni-10Cr.
Figure 9. - Specific weight change in directionally solidified eutectic alloy Fe-25Ta-22Ni-10Cr due to thermal cycling.

Figure 10. - Effect of temperature on tensile properties of directionally solidified eutectic alloy Fe-25Ta-22Ni-10Cr.
Figure 11. - Effect of temperature on tensile fracture morphology of directionally solidified eutectic alloy Fe-25Ta-22Ni-10Cr.
Figure 12. - Effect of temperature on tensile properties of directionally solidified eutectic alloy Fe-15.5Nb-14.5Ni-6.0Cr.

Ultimate tensile strength of Fe-15.5Nb-14.5Ni-6.0Cr
Reduction in area of Fe-15.5Nb-14.5Ni-6.0Cr
Ultimate tensile strength of Fe-23Cr-13.3Nb (ref. 5)
Ultimate tensile strength of γ/γ' - δ (ref. 3)
(a) Room temperature.

(b) Room temperature (SEM micrograph).

(c) Temperature, 1100°C.

Figure 13. - Effect of temperature on tensile fracture morphology of directionally solidified eutectic alloy Fe-15.5Nb-14.5Ni-6.0Cr.
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