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Abstract: The influence of the carbon content on the microstructure, phase transformation and hardness of an iron-based cermet is studied. The cermet is constituted by a high-alloyed steel as matrix, and TiCN particles (50 vol. %) as reinforcement. The material is produced by conventional powder metallurgy techniques, that is, uniaxial pressing and sintering, and the carbon content is varied from 0 wt % to 1 wt %. The aim of the research is the understanding of the transformations undergone by the material with increasing C amounts when temperature is increased. For this purpose, the cermet is studied by Mechanical Spectroscopy (MS) and Differential Thermal Analysis (DTA) and characterized by XRD, SEM and hardness measurements. The equilibrium phase diagram calculated by Thermocalc software contributes to explain the differences found on phase transformations with respect to the C content of the cermet.

High temperature transformations in a steel-TiCN cermet.

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Abstract

The influence of the carbon content on the microstructure, phase transformation and hardness of an iron-based cermet is studied. The cermet is constituted by a high-alloyed steel as matrix, and TiCN particles (50 vol. %) as reinforcement. The material is produced by conventional powder metallurgy techniques, that is, uniaxial pressing and sintering, and the carbon content is varied from 0 wt % to 1 wt %. The aim of the research is the understanding of the transformations undergone by the material with increasing C amounts when temperature is increased. For this purpose, the cermet is studied by Mechanical Spectroscopy (MS) and Differential Thermal Analysis (DTA) and characterized by XRD, SEM and hardness measurements. The equilibrium phase diagram calculated by Thermocalc software contributes to explain the differences found on phase transformations with respect to the C content of the cermet.

Keywords

Cermet, Internal friction, Phase transformation, Differential thermal analysis

Introduction

Iron-matrix cermets are an interesting and promising group of metal matrix composites which could compete in cutting and forming applications with some conventional cermets and cemented carbides (containing Ni and Co as matrix elements). The interest of these materials are related to environmental and health issues, as Co and Ni are scarce, expensive and strategic materials; in particular, WC-Co has been included in the latest report of the US Department of Health & Human Services '12th Report on Carcinogens', published on June 11, 2011, as one of 240 substances that may increase risk for cancer. Similarly, the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) has listed nickel compounds within group 1 (there is sufficient evidence for carcinogenicity in humans) and Ni metallic and alloys as 2B (possibly carcinogenic to humans). In front of these metals, Fe is a non-toxic, abundant, and lower cost metal that can also be hardened by heat treatment [1] thus reducing the need for amounts of ceramic content as high as conventional cermets. There are however some disadvantages, mainly related to the processing, due to the lower wettability during liquid phase sintering between iron and TiCN particles than Ni and Co matrixes [2], and to the risk of producing reaction products that lead to embrittlement. The addition of some elements or compounds, such as Mo, Mo₂C or WC [3-6], as well as Cr [3, 7] have been reported to improve the sintering performance of cermets. The addition of those alloying elements to the Fe matrix also increases hardness and hardenability, as well as the volume fraction of carbides formed during sintering that increase the total amount of the ceramic phase. Therefore, a commercial alloy containing Mo, W, Cr and V was selected as matrix for the development of the Fe-based cermet present in this work.

Besides the alloying elements, the C content has also a great influence on the final properties of the cermets. Many research works have highlighted the influence of the carbon content on the properties

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4 of Ni/Co-TiCN cermets [7-10]. However, there are no systematic studies on the influence of the C
5 content on Fe matrix composites, a former paper by the authors of this work illustrated the variation of
6 mechanical properties as well as of the microstructural changes in several systems formed by Fe and
7 TiCN [11]. The complex microstructure shown in these cermets and the complex relations among the
8 constituents make it difficult to identify the parameters affecting the final properties. Moreover, these
9 Fe-based cermets can be heat treated to improve the hardness and strength, and it is necessary to
10 understand their effects. Mechanical Spectroscopy (MS) has been selected as a technique to study
11 these phenomena, as it has demonstrated to be a useful tool to investigate the mechanical properties
12 and their relation with microstructure of complex materials as cermets [12, 13]. Other techniques such
13 as Thermoelectric Power (TEP), Differential Thermal Analysis (DTA) and Thermomagnetometry are
14 used in this study for a better understanding of the phenomena involved. The theoretical phase
15 diagram of the system, calculated by Thermocalc software, helps to explain some of the experimental
16 results.
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20 Mechanical Spectroscopy is a technique that measures the damping capacity of a material [14] that
21 derives from energy dissipation. If a periodic stress is applied to the sample ($\sigma(t) = \sigma_0 \sin(i\omega t)$), the
22 strain ($\epsilon(t) = \epsilon_0 \sin(i[\omega t - \phi])$) lags behind stress by a phase lag ϕ . The energy dissipation occurs
23 because of dislocation motion, grain boundary migration and grain-boundary sliding.
24 The thermoelectric power (TEP), also known as Seebeck coefficient (S) or simply thermopower, is a
25 measure of the Seebeck effect. This effect consists in the appearance of an open circuit voltage, ΔV ,
26 when a temperature difference, ΔT , is applied along a sample. The thermoelectric power is then
27 defined by
28

$$S = \lim_{\Delta T \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{\Delta V}{\Delta T} \right) \quad (1)$$

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33 The combination of both techniques has been used before by Mari et. al, to analyze the
34 microstructural changes in steels [15-17]; in particular, room temperature thermoelectric power has
35 been previously found to vary inversely to the concentration of interstitial C in ferrite [18] and
36 martensite [19]. In this work, the same techniques are used to study the influence of the C content on
37 the behavior of an iron-based cermet reinforced with TiCN particles.
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40 **Experimental procedure**

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42 The investigated composite materials consist of a Fe alloy matrix and 50 vol% of $\text{TiC}_{0.5}\text{N}_{0.5}$ particles as
43 reinforcement. The composition of the Fe alloy is 6.2 wt. % W, 4.8 wt. % Mo, 4.1 wt. % Cr, 1.8 wt. % V
44 and 0.85 wt. % C, which corresponds to the high-speed steel grade M2, used as prealloyed powder,
45 as it contains all the elements desired for the matrix. To study the effect of the carbon content,
46 different amounts of graphite were added to the matrix leading to materials with composition [M2 + X
47 wt. % C] + TiCN 50 vol. %, where X is 0, 0.5 and 1. To facilitate the reading comprehension the
48 samples are denoted as S0, S05 and S1, respectively. The density and particle size of the starting
49 powders are given in Table 1
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52

53 Table 1. Characteristics of raw materials.
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56 The powders were blended during 4 hours in a Turbula® multidirectional mixer, and then processed
57 by the conventional powder metallurgy route (CPS): uniaxial pressing at 700 MPa into rectangular
58 bars (31.6 x 12.9 x 4 mm) and sintering in vacuum (10^{-4} mbar) at 1400 °C during 60 minutes.
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4 The density of the processed samples was measured by He pycnometry, while the hardness was
5 measured in the Vickers scale with 30 kg load (HV30). X-ray diffraction (XRD) and scanning electron
6 microscopy (SEM) were used for crystallographic and microstructural analysis, respectively.
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9 A thermodynamic simulation of the equilibrium phase diagram of the cermet was performed using
10 ThermoCalc software [20]. Calculations are based on the Gibbs free energy minimization code and
11 mass conversion rule, in combination with the TCFE5 database (Scientific Group Thermodata
12 Europe).
13

14 The thermal behaviour of the sintered samples was investigated by Differential Thermal Analysis
15 (DTA) in a SETARAM equipment (SETSYS Evolution 16/18). The analyses were performed in an
16 Al_2O_3 crucible under Ar (99.999 %) atmosphere up to 1500 °C, with heating and cooling rates of
17 10°C/min.
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19
20 The Curie temperature was determined by thermomagnetometry measurements [21] performed in a
21 Perkin-Elmer TGA7 Thermogravimetric Analyser equipped with a small permanent magnet. The
22 measurements were performed at temperature up to 900 °C with a heating rate of 10°C/min. The
23 magnet was kept during all the measurements in the same position, as much as possible, to ensure
24 that the magnetic field gradient affecting the samples was the same.
25

26 Mechanical Spectroscopy (MS) measurements were performed by means of a forced inverted torsion
27 pendulum working at a constant frequency of 1 Hz. Sintered samples (30 x 3 x 0.5 mm) were
28 submitted to three heating cycles increasing the upper temperatures (1100K, 1250K and 1350K).
29

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31 TEP measurements were carried out at room temperature placing the sintered sample (30 x 3 x 0.5
32 mm) between two copper blocks at 10 °C and 30 °C, respectively.
33

34 **Results**

35 *Microstructural study*

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37 Representative microstructures of sintered samples with different C additions (0 wt. %, 0.5 wt. % and
38 1.0 wt. %) are shown in Figure 1. Three main phases can be observed in all the samples: a grey
39 metallic matrix, black TiCN particles and a brighter phase corresponding to the carbides of the alloying
40 elements from the high speed steel matrix. This brighter phase is mainly located at the interface
41 between the metallic matrix and the ceramic TiCN particles and it is formed by a dissolution-
42 precipitation mechanism of the steel carbides during the sintering process, taking into account that
43 densification occurs by liquid phase sintering. At the beginning of the sintering cycle, during heating,
44 the alloying elements dissolved in the high-speed steel powder particles precipitate in the form of
45 carbides; in a later stage, as the temperatures involved in the sintering process of the composite are
46 above the usual sintering temperatures of the high-speed steel, the carbides are re-dissolved into the
47 metallic matrix and, upon cooling down, they are reprecipitated between the TiCN particles and the
48 matrix, using the TiCN particles as nucleation points.
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53 Figure 1: Microstructures of sintered samples S0, S05 and S1 ($[M_2 + x]/TiCN$ ($x = 0, 0.5, 1.0$ wt. % C))
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55 Some differences can be found in the microstructure of the samples with no C addition with respect to
56 those containing 0.5 and 1 wt. % C: the former is less homogeneous containing rounded metal matrix
57 areas and showing the existence of bright carbides, appearing not only around the TiCN particles but
58 also precipitated in the metal matrix. A more detailed explanation of the sintering mechanisms leading
59 to these different microstructures can be found in [11].
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4 The microstructural differences are also related to the sintered density and hardness, as shown in
5 Table 2.

6 Table 2. Hardness and relative density of sintered samples S0, S05 and S1

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8 Note that the density is expressed as relative density, that is, values obtained by pycnometry with
9 respect to the theoretical density of each composition. This is a common way to express density in PM
10 products, since it gives an indication of the residual porosity. The relative density of the samples
11 containing 0.5 and 1 wt. % C is higher than 100 % meaning that they are fully dense. Relative density
12 values exceeding 100 % are due to the reactions occurring during sintering, provoking changes in
13 phase composition and the precipitation of a large number of carbides that change the initial
14 theoretical density value (6.56 g/cm^3 for 0 % C added).
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16

17 By observing the hardness of samples with C addition it is worth noticing that hardness is almost twice
18 in comparison with the sample with no C added. This effect could be related to different causes. First,
19 the nature of the carbides may be different in samples with C addition since they are formed by a
20 dissolution-reprecipitation mechanism. Instead, in samples with no C added the carbides are primary
21 carbides formed by precipitation from the powder particles. The carbides in the C added samples are
22 located surrounding the TiCN particles while in S0 they precipitate inside the former steel particles.
23 The size of the steel areas that are free of TiCN particles it is clearly different on figure 1, and also
24 phase transformations in the steel matrix.
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27 XRD analysis of the samples $[\text{M}_2\text{X} \text{ wt. C}] + \text{TiCN}$ are shown in Figure 2. Peaks corresponding with
28 TiCN reinforcement and steel matrix can be observed in the three diffractograms, as well as peaks due
29 to the carbides of the alloying elements of the high speed steel matrix. The analysis of samples with C
30 addition (S05 and S1) show peaks corresponding with austenite while this phase is not found in the
31 analysis of the sample with no C addition (S0). Both, the presence of retained austenite and the higher
32 hardness found in samples with C added, could indicate the presence of martensite in the steel matrix.
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35 Figure 2: XRD analysis of S0, S05 and S1 sintered samples (bottom to top respectively).
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38 *Mechanical Spectroscopy (MS) and Thermoelectrical Power (TEP)*

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40 Mechanical loss spectra (as a function of temperature) (up to 1100 K (827 °C)) of samples S0, S05
41 and S1 are represented in Figure 3 for the first heating cycle. The highest damping of the mechanical
42 loss is found on the spectrum of sample with 0.5wt. % C while the lowest damping of the mechanical
43 loss is found on the spectrum of the sample with no C addition. As it has been observed in XRD
44 analysis there is a microstructural change in the steel matrix of the cermet by increasing the C content,
45 the presence of different phases on the steel matrix of the samples with C added could provoke
46 changes in the magnetic properties of the sintered samples, which is reflected in the internal friction
47 during the magnetic transformation.
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50 Figure 3: Comparison of first heating (up to 1100 K (827 °C)) spectra of sintered samples S0, S05 and S1.
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52 Thermopower measurements (TEP) are found to be very sensitive to the composition and to the
53 microstructure of a material, as has been mentioned previously. Room temperature thermoelectric
54 power has been previously found to vary inversely with the concentration of interstitial C [16, 17, 19].
55 The Seebeck coefficients values found in TEP measurements of the sintered samples, S0, S05 and
56 S1 are -0.08; -2,8 and -1,7 $\mu\text{V/K}$, respectively. Figure 4 shows the comparison of the Seebeck
57 coefficients with the internal friction measured at 1100 K upon heating of the first heating in MS
58 measurements and with the hardness of the samples; the combination of the results of both
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4 techniques indicates a higher amount of C in solid solution in the steel matrix of the sample S05 and
5 S1, which is in agreement with results obtained by XRD and justifies the values of hardness.
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8 Figure 4: Comparison of Seebeck coefficient of TEP measurements with the internal friction damping of MS
9 measurements and the hardness of the sintered samples S0, S05 and S1.

10
11 Figure 5 shows the comparison of the spectra of the third heating cycle, carried out up to 1350 K
12 (1077 °C) for the three samples S0, S05 and S1. Spectra of samples S05 and S1 show one narrow
13 and defined peak at 839 °C and 826 °C, respectively, while sample S0 shows a wider and more
14 rounded peak at higher temperature (885 °C). As it has been noted above, this peak may correspond
15 with the phase transformation and/or the magnetic transformation of the steel matrix of the cermet.
16 Notice that in correspondence with the IF peaks a dip in the elastic shear modulus is observed.
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19 Figure 5: Comparison of third heating (up to 1350 K (1077 °C)) spectra of sintered samples S0, S05 and S1
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21 *Thermal Analyses (DTA and TM) and Thermocalc calculations*

22
23 Figure 6 shows the DTA curves of the samples with different C content up to temperatures of 1500 °C.
24 The curve corresponding to sample S0 (no C addition) shows two endothermic peaks: the first one,
25 very tiny, at around 760 °C, and a second one at 1445 °C corresponding with the appearance of liquid
26 phase in the sample; no other significant events are found. By increasing the C content in samples
27 S05 and S1, some interesting differences can be observed with respect to the S0 sample: the
28 temperature at which liquid phase appears is decreased to 1389 °C and 1387 °C respectively (Note
29 that S05 curve shows two peaks in the liquid phase formation). A new peak appears at 838 °C and
30 814 °C, respectively, and the small dip already shown in S0 sample also exists, but at a slightly higher
31 temperature, 769 °C.
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35 Figure 6: DTA curves of S0, S05 and S1 sintered samples (Heating rate: 10 °C/min)

36
37 Thermomagnetometry (TM) curves can help to identify the origin of the low temperature curves of DTA
38 analyses. As it can be seen in Figure 7, TM curves show a sudden drop in the samples weight at
39 slightly different temperatures depending on the C content: 789 °C for S0 (sample without C added);
40 796 °C for S05, and 803 °C for S1. The sudden drop in the sample weight corresponds with the Curie
41 temperature of the samples. By comparing the Curie temperature obtained by TM with the DTA curves
42 one can deduce that the first peak in DTA curves corresponds with the change of ferromagnetic to
43 paramagnetic state. The difference in measured temperatures (around 30 °C) could be due to the
44 difference between the sample and the thermocouple temperature in thermomagnetometry. It is worth
45 noticing that for samples S05 and S1 the magnetic transformation temperatures are very close while in
46 sample S0 it is 10 ° lower. The same trend is observed in the DTA measurements for the first small
47 dip.
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50 Figure 7: TM (thermomagnetometry) curves of S0, S05 and S1 sintered samples. (Heating rate: 10 °C/min)

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52 For a better understanding of the other events shown in the DTA curves, the equilibrium phase
53 diagram of the cermets was obtained by Thermocalc software (Figure 8). For the calculation of this
54 equilibrium phase diagram, taking into account the presence of TiCN in the steel matrix, the elements
55 Ti, C and N were introduced in the mass percentages that correspond to a mixture containing 50 vol.
56 % M2 and 50 vol. % TiCN. The amount of C was varied considering the additional C added to the
57 mixture (0.25 wt. %, 0.5 wt. % and 1.0 wt. % with respect to the matrix content). Taking into account
58 all the C present, including that from a) TiCN, b) the M2 matrix and c) the additional C added, the total
59 mass percentage of C varied between 4.37 wt. % for the sample with no additional C, to 5.04 wt. %
60 for the sample containing 1.0 wt. % C. The total percentage variation of C is not large since most of the C
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4 is due to the presence of TiCN. The dotted vertical lines shown in Figure 8 represent the compositions
5 with added free carbon.
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7 From the equilibrium phase diagram, it can be stated that the solidus temperature decreases by
8 increasing the carbon content, which is in agreement with the experimental results from DTA
9 measurements; the $\alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ phase transformation temperature also decreases with increasing the carbon
10 content. The region of phase transformation is very narrow for compositions with high C percentage,
11 which means that for these C content, the ferrite transformation takes few degrees, while for
12 compositions with lower C content such transformation takes about 50°C. This could be the reason
13 why the DTA cannot detect the $\alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ transformation in the S0 sample.
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16 Figure 8: Theoretical phase diagram calculated by Thermocalc. (Dotted vertical lines indicate the composition of
17 the sintered samples S0, S05 and S1).
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20 Discussion

21
22 There would be two possibilities to explain the sharp peaks that appear in the internal friction spectra
23 of the present samples and in particular those containing carbon: the magnetic and the $\alpha \rightarrow \gamma$
24 transformation. However, the comparison of the internal friction spectra with TM and DTA
25 measurements clearly shows that the maxima that characterize the spectra at between 825 °C and
26 885 °C are related with the $\alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ transformation. The magnetic transition therefore seems not to have
27 much influence on the internal friction spectrum. This may appear in contradiction with the
28 measurements made by Bolognini et al. [22]. These authors find a drop of internal friction at the Curie
29 temperature and another one at the temperature of the $\alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ transformation. However, these
30 measurements were made in the MHz frequency range. At these frequencies the contribution of
31 micro-Eddy currents to internal friction is high [23].
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35 Apparently, in the present case (1Hz) the magnetic component does not have a strong influence on
36 internal friction. Considering the $\alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ transition only, it is noticeable that a strong increase of damping
37 is observed before the transition. This might be due to an increase of dislocation mobility or to a drop
38 of the elastic constants before the transition. We are therefore in presence of a pre-transitional
39 phenomenon. In the present case, a drop in the elastic shear modulus is visible before the transition in
40 Figure 5. A drop of the elastic constants (soft mode) in martensitic transformations has been
41 discussed by Bideaux [24], who gets to the conclusion that in cobalt no soft mode exists and that the
42 pre-transitional drop of elastic constants is due to the increased mobility of dislocation. In iron, the
43 transformation is not really martensitic and proceeds by nucleation and growth. Since in the present
44 case we have a composite material, it is likely that dislocations play a major role for accommodation.
45 Clearly, the comparison of the three grades shows that the $\alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ transformation occurs at lower
46 temperature when some carbon is added. Moreover, the drop of internal friction at the transformation
47 is sharper. It is unlikely that this could be due to the presence of martensite. In fact, at that
48 temperature all martensite is transformed into ferrite [17]. However, the presence of martensite might
49 be inferred by the increase of TEP in samples S1 and S05. Internal friction is quite a sensitive method
50 to detect the presence of martensite. In fact, as demonstrated in [16, 25] the presence of a huge
51 Snoek-Köster type peak is detected at around 500 K in martensitic carbon steels. Effectively a peak is
52 detected in S05 that show the maximum hardness and minimum TEP. In [17], it is clearly shown that
53 TEP provides quite a good assessment of the quantity of martensite present in carbon steels. The
54 presence of retained austenite and the high value of hardness in samples with C addition (S05 and
55 S1) could also indicate the presence of martensite in the metallic matrix of these samples.
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59 The equilibrium phase diagram shows that the solidus temperature decreases by increasing the C
60 content; this result is in agreement with the decrease of the melting point (appearance of liquid phase)
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4 found in DTA curves of the samples. The same phase diagram also justifies the decrease of the
5 transformation, $\alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ temperature by increasing the C content.
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8 Table 3 summarizes phase and magnetic transformation temperatures of S0, S05 and S1 sintered
9 samples measured by MS, TM and DTA, and compares them with those calculated with the
10 equilibrium phase diagram for the same compositions. The results are satisfactory showing similar
11 transformation temperatures. The combination of these techniques seems therefore a good approach
12 to understand these complex materials.
13

14 Table 3: Transformation temperatures measured by DTA, TM and MS of S0, S05 and S1 sintered samples, and
15 calculated in the equilibrium phase diagram of their compositions
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18 **Conclusions**

19
20 The magnetic and phase transformations of a steel-matrix cermet with 50 vol% TiCN particles have
21 been identified by means of a combination of techniques, such as Mechanical Spectroscopy (MS),
22 Differential Thermal Analysis (DTA), Thermomagnetometry (TM) and Thermoelectrical Power (TEP).
23 These results are relevant for heat treatment and high temperature behavior of the materials.
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25
26 MS can also indicate that in the composite material the magnetic component does not have a strong
27 influence on internal friction. The strong increase of damping observed before the $\alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ transition might
28 be due to an increase of dislocation mobility.
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31 The study of the influence of C content reveals differences between materials: the solidus temperature
32 as well as the $\alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ phase transformation and magnetic transformation of M2/TiCN cermet are
33 decreased by increasing the C content of the steel matrix. MS technique also reveals a sharper drop
34 of internal friction at the $\alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ phase transformation when the C content increases.
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37 The high hardness of samples with C addition combined with the presence of retained austenite
38 indicates the presence of martensite in the steel matrix, which is confirmed by the low value of TEP of
39 these samples.
40

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Table 1. Characteristics of raw materials.

Raw material	Supplier	Supplier data		Experimental data	
		Density (g/cm ³)	Particle size (μm)	Density (g/cm ³)	Particle size (μm)
TiC _{0.5} N _{0.5}	H.C. Starck	5.03	D50 = 2.0 - 4.0	5.12	D50 = 3.957
High Speed Steel, M2	Osprey	8.56	D90<16	8.09	D50= 8.147

Table 2. Hardness and relative density of sintered samples S0, S05 and S1

Sample	Hardness (HV30)	Relative density (%)
S0	665 ± 35	96.4
S05	1336 ± 9	100.6
S1	1348 ± 28	100.4

Table 3: Transformation temperatures measured by DTA, TM and MS of S0, S05 and S1 sintered samples, and calculated in the equilibrium phase diagram of their compositions

Sample	$\alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ phase transformation temperature (°C)			Magnetic transformation. Curie temperature (°C)	
	DTA	Mechanical Spectroscopy	ThermoCalc	DTA	Thermomagnetometry
S0	-	885	870	760	789
S05	838	839	815	769	796
S1	814	826	800	769	803

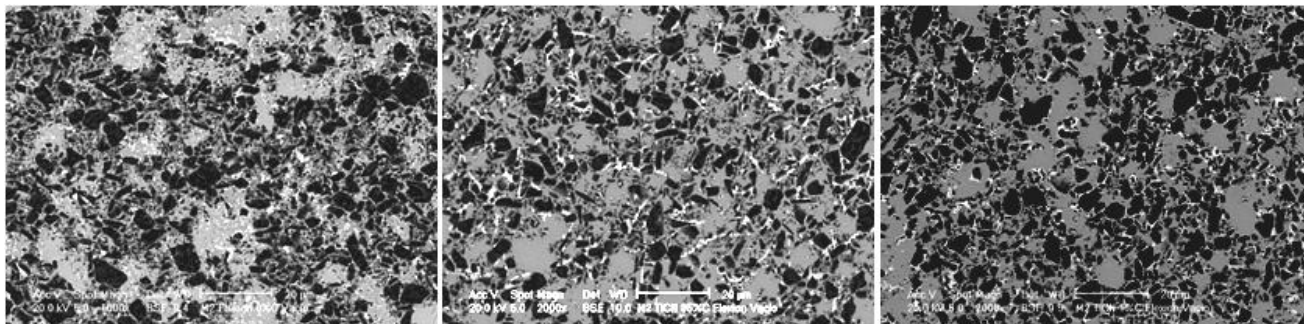


Figure 1: Microstructures of sintered samples S0, S05 and S1 ([M2 + x]/TiCN (x=0, 0.5, 1.0 wt. % C))

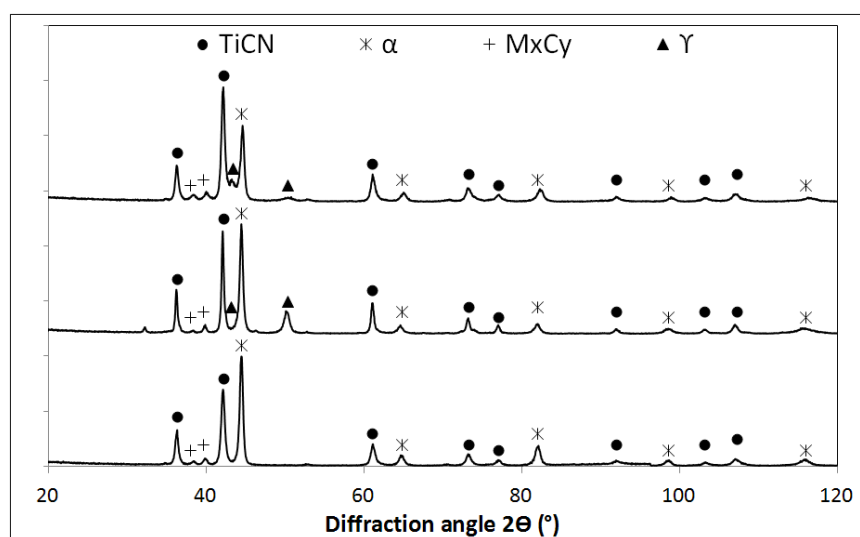


Figure 2: XRD analysis of S0, S05 and S1 sintered samples (bottom to top respectively).

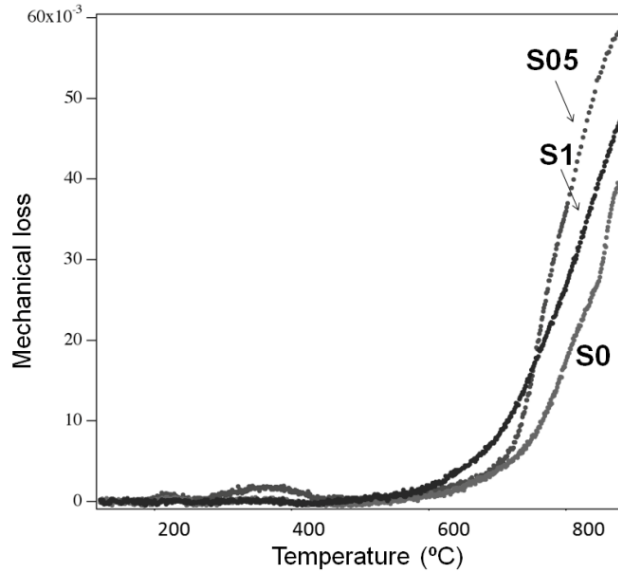


Figure 3: Comparison of first heating (up to 1100 K (827 °C)) spectra of sintered samples S0, S05 and S1.

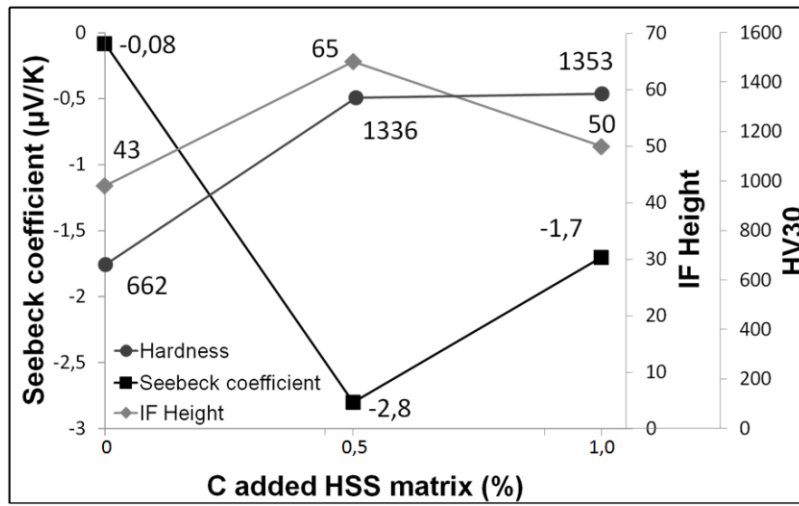


Figure 4: Comparison of Seebeck coefficient of TEP measurements with the internal friction damping of MS measurements and the hardness of the sintered samples S0, S05 and S1.

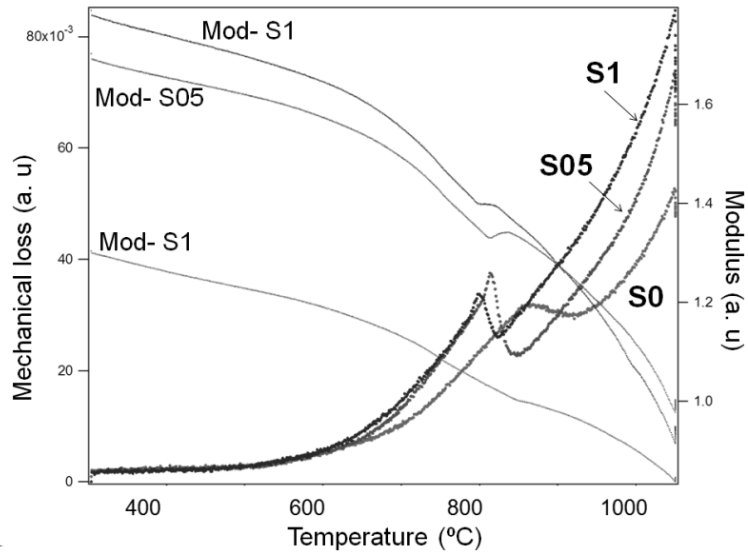


Figure 5: Comparison of third heating (up to 1350K (1077°C)) spectra of sintered samples S0, S05 and S1

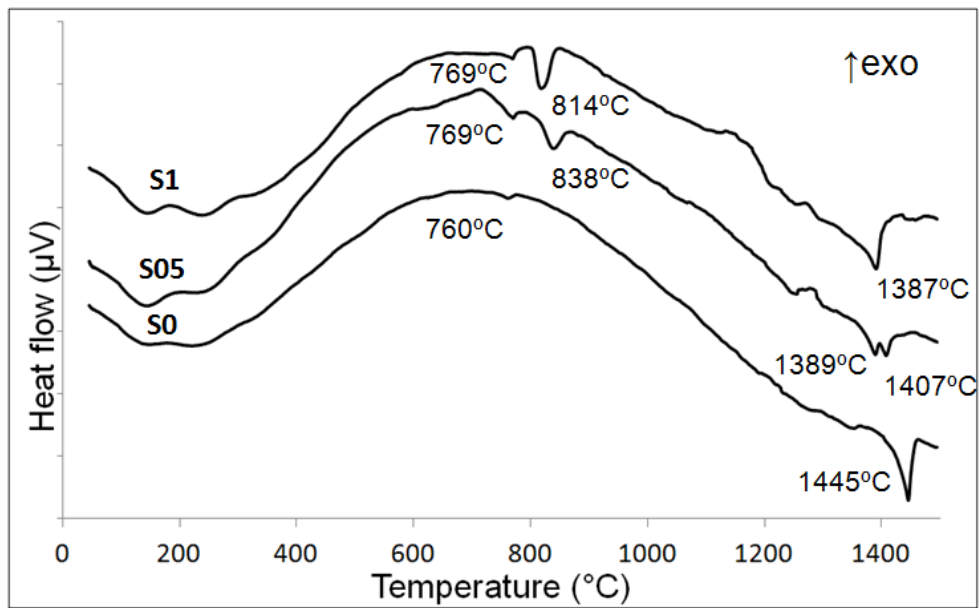


Figure 6: DTA curves of S0, S05 and S1 sintered samples (Heating rate: 10 °C/min)

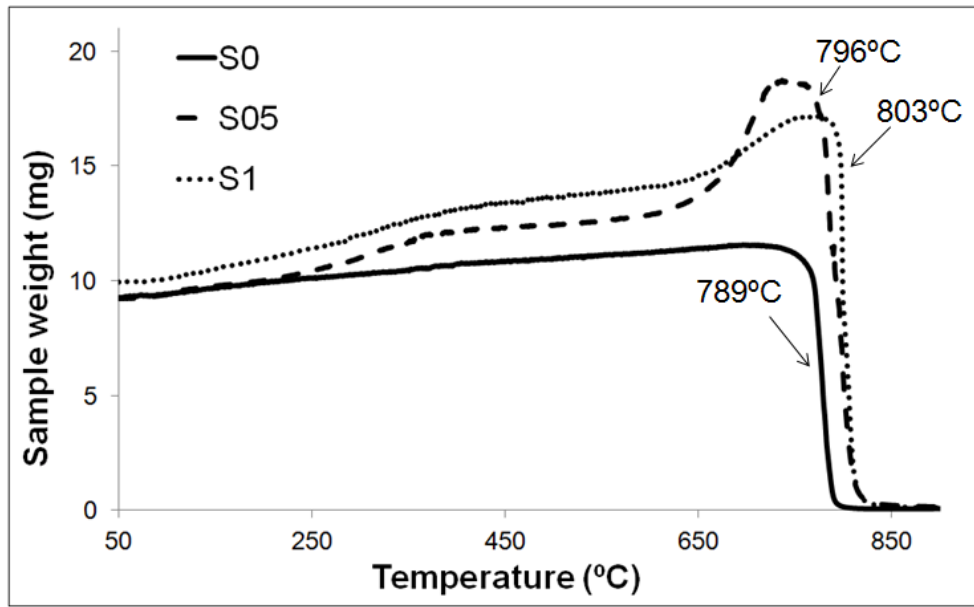


Figure 7: TM (thermomagnetometry) curves of S0, S05 and S1 sintered samples. (Heating rate: 10 °C/min)

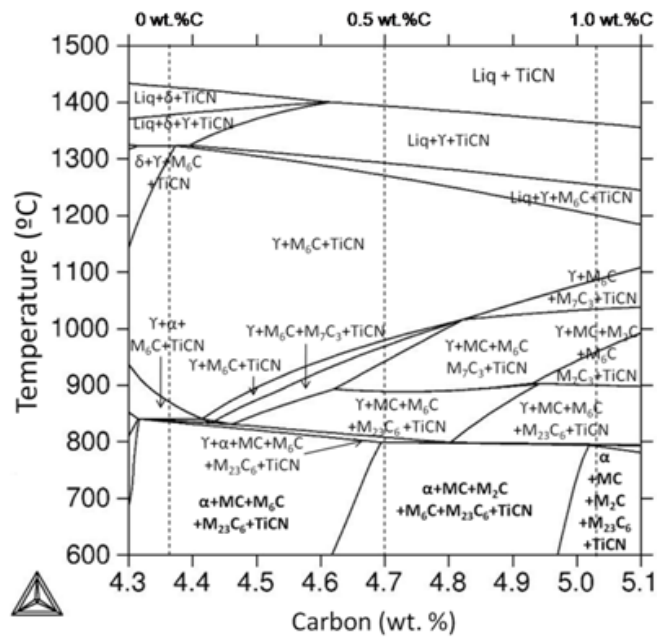


Figure 8: Theoretical phase diagram calculated by Thermocalc. (Dotted vertical lines indicate the composition of the sintered samples S0, S05 and S1).