Lecture Notes in Mechanical Engineering

Gujjala Raghavendra B. B. V. L. Deepak Manoj Gupta *Editors*

Recent Advances in Mechanical Engineering, Volume 2

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Recent Advances in Mechanical Engineering, Volume 2

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Structural, Mechanical, and Corrosion Resistance Properties in 3.5% NaCl Solution of Electroless Deposited Ternary Ni–P–W System



Muralidharan Ramachandran, Pranay Vagad, Ramavtar Sharma, P. P. Deshpande, Ravi Bhatkal, and Dinesh Semwal

Abstract Low phosphorous electroless Ni–P coating containing W was prepared by incorporating sodium tungstate at different concentrations in a commercial low phosphorous electroless nickel bath. A total of five samples of Ni–P–W were prepared with different concentrations and compared with commercial low-P EN coating. The structure and the microstructure analysis showed Ni phase in as-plated samples and Ni and Ni₃P phase in the heat-treated samples. The results from SEM-EDS show no presence of W which was also confirmed by using ICP-OES analysis. The microhardness evaluated on the cross-section of the samples followed the standard trend of a low phosphorous coating. Potentiodynamic polarization test in 3.5% NaCl showed that the corrosion rate decreases by an order of magnitude after heat treatment at 400 °C for 1 h. Similar observation was made from the EIS studies of the as-plated and heat-treated samples. Heat treatment decreases the corrosion rate by an order of magnitude when compared to the as-plated samples.

Keywords Electroless Ni · Tungsten · Microstructure · Microhardness · Heat treatment · Corrosion resistance

1 Introduction

In recent years, electroless nickel has gained attention from researchers because of its increasing demand in various industrial applications. Properties like uniformity, wear and abrasion resistance, corrosion resistance, hardness, solder ability, and coefficient of friction make it suitable for several applications in the chemical and petrochemical,

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marine, electrical and electronics, medical and pharmaceutical, military, automotive, and aerospace industries [1]. The conventional electroless nickel-phosphorous deposition forms a coating with good adhesion to complex geometries of metallic as well as non-metallic substrates [2]. Its tuneable properties in the low P (2–5 wt.%), mid P (6–9 wt.%), and high P (10–12 wt.%) ranges can be further enhanced by the addition of ternary alloying elements or secondary phases. There are numerous literatures that have been published on the ternary Ni–P systems such as Ni–Cu–P [3, 4], Ni–Mo–P [5], Ni–W–P [6–8], Ni–Cr–P [9], and Ni–Fe–P and Ni–Fe–P–B [10]. Several rare earth additions to Ni–P bath such as Ni–La–P, Ni–Ce–P [11–13] have been reported in the literature.

Several nanomaterial-based Ni–P coatings have also been reported in the literature such as Ni–P–TiO₂ [14, 15], Ni–P–SiC and Ni–P–Si₃N₄ [16], Ni–P–CNT [17], and Ni–P–ZrO₂ [18] to name a few. These coatings have varying properties depending on the dispersion material and its concentration such as good anticorrosion property, decrease of coefficient of friction, and enhanced microhardness.

In this paper, sodium tungstate is added to a commercial NiP bath to get Ni–P–W ternary alloy coating. Tungsten and its alloys are known for mechanical, tribological, electrical, electro-erosion properties. Incorporation of tungsten in EN coating improves its wear resistance. Due to solid solution strengthening by tungsten into nickel matrix its properties like hardness and high-temperature stability are improved [19]. In literature, various authors studied properties like friction and wear behavior [2, 19, 20], corrosion resistance [2, 21–23], and hardness [2, 19–23]. This study is focused on the surface morphology, structural determination, surface hardness, and corrosion resistance of tungsten incorporated low phosphorous electroless nickel. Commonly heat treatment is conducted after electroless coating, and as per the findings of various authors, the properties improve after formation of solid solution of alloying element of the bath [2, 22, 24, 25].

2 **Experimental**

For the synthesis of NiP and NiPW coatings, a commercial low phosphorous chemistry from Coventya India Pvt. Ltd., ENOVA EF-243, was used. The chemistry was used as-it-is to produce NiP coatings while sodium tungstate was added at varying concentrations to produce NiPW coatings. Table 1 describes the nomenclature of the coatings and its corresponding sodium tungstate concentration.

Mild steel (MS) material of dimensions 10 cm \times 7 cm \times 0.1 cm was used as substrate. The substrate was cleaned and pretreated before plating in the bath. In the pretreatment process, mild substrate was subjected to de-greasing, water rinsing, pickling in 20–30% Hydrochloric acid, water rinsing, acid-dip in 5% sulfuric acid for 10 s, water rinsing, 5% ammonia dip and again followed by water rinsing. The substrate after cleaning and pretreatment was introduced into the plating bath.

The chemical composition and operating parameter of bath are shown in Table 2. Low P EN coating was also prepared using ENOVA 243 to compare with the NiPW

sodium tungstate used in	Nomenclature	Concentration of sodium tungstate (g/L)
experiments	NiP	0
	NiPW2	2
	NiPW5	5
	NiPW10	10
	NiPW20	20
	NiPW50	50

 Table 2
 Chemical composition and operating parameter of bath

Chemical composition and operating parameter	Concentration and parameter value		
Ni metal concentration	6 g/L		
Na hypophosphite concentration	24 g/L		
Bathing loading	1.0 dm ² /L		
Sodium tungstate (g/L)	2, 5, 10, 20, and 50		
Temperature of bath	88 °C		
Operating pH of bath	6.2		

samples. The thickness of the coating ranged from 50 to 60 μ m calculated by gravimetric technique. The prepared sample was cut into eight pieces by sheet cutting bench shearing machine. One cut piece from each composition of NiPW was annealed at 400 °C for 1 h. The as-plated and heat-treated samples were tested for structural, microstructural, mechanical, and corrosion properties using various techniques.

Structural characterization was carried out using a Bruker D8 Advance, XRD (Germany) with CoK α radiation (wavelength = 1.7889 Å) at an accelerating voltage of 35 kV and 40 mA. Microstructural characterization was done using a scanning electron microscope (SEM) from Carl ZEISS (Model: Sigma HV) fitted with energy dispersive spectrometer (EDS).

Mechanical property (hardness) was tested using a microhardness tester (Model: FM-700, Future Tech Corp., Tokyo, Japan). Corrosion studies were performed using a potentiostat/galvanostat (Model: Gamry Reference 1000, Wilmington, USA).

3 Results

3.1 Deposition Rate

The plating rate of the processes was measured using gravimetric technique. The weight of the panel was noted before and after plating. Based on the weight gained during the plating process, the plating rate was calculated.



Fig. 1 Variation of plating rate (μ m/h) with respect to the weight of sodium tungstate in bath (g/L)

It can be seen from Fig. 1 that the plating rate decreases with an increase in the amount of sodium tungstate in the bath. An almost linear trend was observed in the reduction in the plating rate with the increase in amount of sodium tungstate. It is also important to mention here that the finish of the plated panels was much smoother at lower concentration of sodium tungstate in the bath which became rougher with the increase in sodium tungstate concentration.

3.2 Phase Analysis

XRD patterns of the as-plated panels show the presence of only peaks that correspond to Ni (PCPDF # 01-088-2326) [26] as shown in Fig. 2. It is evident, from the XRD patterns shown for various concentrations of sodium tungstate additions, that the major orientation of the Ni is along the (111) direction. We also see the peaks along the (200) and (220) directions. The actual material that is present is an alloy of Ni and P.

Figure 3 shows the diffraction pattern of the heat-treated samples of NiPW. It can be seen from the XRD patterns that the heat-treated material is a combination of Ni and Ni₃P phases. It is confirmed by matching the peaks of PCPDF # 01-088-2326 [26] for Ni phase and PCPDF # 00-034-0501 [26] for Ni₃P phase.

Lattice parameter calculations were done using the following equation:



Fig. 2 XRD of as-plated samples of NiPW



Fig. 3 XRD of heat-treated samples (left) and (zoomed-right) samples of NiPW

$$\frac{1}{d^2} = \frac{h^2 + k^2 + l^2}{a^2} \text{ for cubic and } \frac{1}{d^2} = \frac{h^2 + k^2}{a^2} + \frac{l^2}{c^2} \text{ for tetragonal}$$
(1)

where *d* is the interplanar *d*-spacing in Å; (*hkl*) corresponds to the crystal orientation, and *a* is the lattice parameter in Å. Crystallite size was determined by using Debye–Scherrer equation [27–29].

The fact that the material that is deposited is an alloy of Ni and P is evident from the lattice parameter calculations shown in Fig. 4. The lattice parameter, a, for pure Ni is 3.535. But there is a variation, specifically a decrease in the lattice parameter



Fig. 4 Lattice parameter calculation from XRD data for Ni (left) and Ni₃P (right) phase

values with the addition of sodium tungstate. Only in the case of NiPW20, the lattice parameter is close to that of pure Ni.

It can also be observed from Fig. 4 that the lattice parameter, *a*, of heat-treated samples was higher than that of pure Ni. This is true for all the samples with addition of sodium tungstate. In the case of NiPW20, though, the lattice parameter was very close to that of pure Ni.

There is no specific trend seen from the amount of sodium tungstate addition to the plating bath on the variation of lattice parameter. It can still be concluded that the optimum solid solution is possible at a sodium tungstate addition of 20 g/L, where the distortion of the lattice is minimum. Further addition of sodium tungstate to the bath such as 50 g/L reduces the lattice distortion but again results in much rougher plated part. This could mean that the W that is co-deposited is not going into a solid solution with the NiP matrix.

The XRD data of heat-treated samples were analyzed for the lattice parameter variation of the Ni₃P phase. It was observed that the composition NiPW20 is the optimum in this case as well as can be seen from Fig. 4. The lattice parameter was highly distorted at other compositions but in NiPW20, both a and c of the tetragonal lattice were closer to that of pure Ni₃P.

The crystallite size calculated for the as-plated samples shows minimum crystallite size for NiPW20 sample. It was also observed that in the heat-treated samples, it was the opposite trend where the NiPW20 sample had the maximum crystallite size. The trend of change in crystallite size with change in sodium tungstate concentration is shown in Fig. 5. The crystallite size of the as-plated samples varied between 1.5 and 2 Å, while that of the heat-treated samples varied between 4 and 5 Å.

Phase analysis of the heat-treated material was done using XRD. The volume fraction calculation was done using direct comparison method [30]. The procedure to obtain volume fraction is described elsewhere [31]. An analysis of the phases in the heat-treated material shows that the amount of Ni_3P phase decreases with an increase in the sodium tungstate concentration in the bath as shown in Fig. 5.



Fig. 5 Crystallite size from XRD data for Ni and Ni₃P phases (left); volume percent of Ni and Ni₃P phases in heat-treated samples

3.3 Microstructure and Elemental Analysis

The microstructure of the NiP- and NiPW-coated samples was tested using scanning electron microscopy (SEM). As expected from electroless nickel plating, it was found that the microstructure of NiP and NiPW alloys was all cauliflower-like. The microstructure of the coated samples from NiPW10 is shown below at two different magnifications, i.e., $500 \times$ and $1000 \times$ in Fig. 6. It was also observed that there were no pores or openings in the coating, suggesting a good barrier coating on top of the MS panels. Hence, this type of coating is supposed to provide relatively good corrosion protection of the base material.

Further, the samples from the SEM analysis were also analyzed using elemental dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) in the SEM instrument. One of the main observations from the analysis was that there was no W observed in the coating in all the samples, i.e., NiPW2, NiPW5, NiPW10, NiPW20, and NiPW50.

To ensure that the analysis was correct, thin film foils were obtained from these coatings. A small portion of these films was first weighed and then dissolved in dilute nitric acid. The dissolved solution was then made up to a specific volume, and then the solution was analyzed using ICP-OES. It was found that in all the samples, i.e., NiP2, NiPW5, NiPW10, NiPW20, and NiPW50, the content of W was very minimal and was found in ppm levels as shown in Table 3.

It was a surprising fact that the addition of sodium tungstate didn't incorporate W into the coating. It acted as a stabilizer reducing the plating rate with the increase in the sodium tungstate content. The reduction of plating rate with increase in the sodium tungstate content has been given in Fig. 1.

Figure 7 shows the relative percentages of Ni, P, and W in the coating. As explained earlier there was no W found in the coatings. As the proprietary chemical obtained from Coventya India Pvt. Ltd. was a low phosphorous chemistry, the content of P was about 2.45 wt.% as can be observed from Fig. 7. Another interesting finding is that the amount of P content (in wt.%) steadily decreased with an increase in the content of sodium tungstate in the bath. This is clearly depicted in the graph shown



Fig. 6 SEM of NiPW10 at magnifications of $500 \times$ and $1000 \times$

Sample	Tungsten (in %)
NiPW2	0.061
NiPW5	0.09
NiPW10	0.06
NiPW20	0.026
NiPW50	0.081

in Fig. 7. This was also seen in the volume percent analysis of the phases from XRD where the concentration of the Ni_3P phase decreased with the increase in the sodium tungstate concentration in the bath (Fig. 5).

3.4 Hardness

 Table 3
 ICP analysis results

for NiPW systems

The as-plated hardness of the NiP system was about 660 $HV_{0.05}$ as can be seen in Fig. 8. The indentation was formed on the cross-section of the coating as can be



Fig. 7 Wt.% of elements in the coating at various concentrations of sodium tungstate addition

seen from the inset in Fig. 8. Many a times, the indentation doesn't form a perfect diamond shape with equal diagonals. In such case, the readings must be retaken. The heat treatment was done at 400 °C for a time of 1 h. This led to the formation of Ni₃P phase as was seen in the XRD of the heat-treated samples. The formation of Ni₃P phase increases the hardness, and it was about 900 HV_{0.05}.

In the case of NiPW, the maximum hardness was achieved in the NiPW20 sample in both the as-plated and the heat-treated samples. The as-plated hardness was about 693 $HV_{0.05}$, while that of heat-treated sample was about 942 $HV_{0.05}$. In general,



Fig. 8 Indentation formed on the cross-section of the coating during hardness testing (inset); effect of heat treatment temperature and W concentration on the hardness of the plated panels

both the binary NiP system and the ternary NiPW systems follow the same trend of hardness in the as-plated and the heat-treated samples except for a marginal change.

3.5 Corrosion Resistance in 3.5% NaCl

3.5.1 Potentiodynamic Polarization Test

The test coupons were plated with NiPW and were tested using potentiostat/ galvanostat instrument. From the graphs obtained during the testing, I_{corr} and E_{corr} were obtained. This is tabulated in Table 4. The corrosion rate in mpy was also determined based on the I_{corr} values obtained. It can be seen from the table that the corrosion rate is in general higher for the as-plated samples compared to the heat-treated samples in the case of NiPW5 and NiPW10. This is due to the formation of Ni₃P phase in the heat-treated samples. The corrosion current was very low for the NiPW2 sample which led to lower corrosion rate. It is also noted in the NiPW2 sample that the corrosion rate for the heat-treated sample was higher than the as-plated samples.

Figure 9 shows polarization curves for as-plated NiPW samples and heat-treated NiPW samples in 3.5 mass% NaCl solution. The corrosion potential, corrosion current densities, and corrosion rate values are tabulated in Table 4. For the NiPW2 sample, corrosion potential shifted from -582 mV for an as-plated sample to -479 mV for a heat-treated sample. Table 4 revealed that the corrosion potential of heat-treated samples was more noble (positive) than that of as-plated samples. The positive shift indicates an anodic protection mechanism in the case of heat-treated samples. The corrosion rate for heat-treated samples was significantly lower than that of the as-plated samples owing to the formation of Ni₃P phase in the heat-treated samples. When compared to NiPW5 and NiPW10 samples, the corrosion rate for NiPW2 samples is significantly lower.

Sample		Icorr	$E_{\rm corr}~({\rm mV})$	Corrosion rate (mpy)
NiPW2	As-plated	21.40 nA	- 582.0	0.005
	Heat-treated	50.40 nA	- 479.0	0.002
NiPW5	As-plated	260.0 µA	- 521.0	36.14
	Heat-treated	30.40 µA	- 461.0	3.253
NiPW10	As-plated	190.0 µA	- 534.0	26.39
	Heat-treated	31.30 µA	- 456.0	3.352

Table 4 Potentiodynamic polarization test on NiPW-coated samples



Fig. 9 Tafel plots for NiPW as-plated (left) and NiPW10 heat-treated (right) samples

3.5.2 Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy

EIS measurements were made on the samples coated with NiPW. These measurements, in terms of Bode and Nyquist plots, are depicted in Figs. 10 and 11. The Z_{mod} and Z_{real} values were determined from the Bode and Nyquist plots, respectively.



Fig. 10 Bode plot for NiPW as-plated (left) and heat-treated (right) samples



Fig. 11 Nyquist plot for NiPW as-plated (left) and heat-treated (right) samples

The electrochemical impedance spectra were modeled using equivalent circuit shown in Fig. 12. It consists of the coating capacitance C_c , the coating resistance R_c , the double layer capacitance C_{dl} , and the charge transfer resistance R_{ct} . All impedance values obtained from the Bode and Nyquist plots by using an equivalent circuit are recorded in Table 5.

In the Bode plots, the high-frequency and low-frequency portions correspond to capacitive and resistive behavior, respectively (Fig. 10). The impedance (Z_{mod}) value of the NiPW2 sample is enhanced from 1452 k Ω cm² for the as-plated sample to 2811 k Ω cm² for the heat-treated sample. Similarly, impedance (Z_{mod}) values for heat-treated NiPW5 and NiPW10 samples are higher than for as-plated samples. Higher impedance values (Z_{mod} and Z_{real}) are seen in the NiPW2 samples than in the NiPW5 and NiPW10 samples.

In the case of coated mild steel, corrosion resistance can be estimated by the addition of charge transfer resistance and coating resistance [32]. The corresponding values for the as-plated NiPW2, NiPW5, and NiPW10 samples were 1083 k Ω cm², 873.9 Ω cm², and 214.68 Ω cm², respectively. Corrosion resistance values for NiPW2, NiPW5, and NiPW10 samples in the case of heat-treated samples were



	•			• • •			
Sample		$Z_{\rm real} (\Omega {\rm cm}^2)$	$Z_{\rm mod} (\Omega {\rm cm}^2)$	$R_{\rm ct} (\Omega {\rm cm}^2)$	$C_{\rm dl}({\rm F})$	$R_{\rm c} (\Omega {\rm cm}^2)$	$C_{\rm c}~({\rm F})$
NiPW2	As-plated	1370×10^{3}	1452×10^3	1.84×10^{5}	$^{1.02}_{10^{-8}} \times$	8.99×10^{5}	1.07×10^{-8}
	Heat-treated	2671×10^3	2811×10^3	9.66×10^4	3.338×10^{-9}	1.85×10^{6}	5.66×10^{-8}
NiPW5	As-plated	893	959.5	370.3	1.71×10^{-5}	503.6	7.06×10^{-5}
	Heat-treated	1055	1089	652.2	9.36×10^{-7}	420.9	6.06×10^{-4}
NiPW10	As-plated	274.7	288.6	42.68	4.51×10^{-5}	172	4.86×10^{-4}
	Heat-treated	649.3	724.2	27.49	9.02×10^{-6}	407.1	2.41×10^{-4}

Table 5 Impedance values obtained from Bode and Nyquist plots

1946.6 k Ω cm², 1073.1 Ω cm², and 434.59 Ω cm², respectively. As capacitance depends upon the area, the lower values of coating capacitance shown by the heat-treated sample as compared to the as-plated samples indicate less electrochemical degradation. Higher impedance, coating resistance, charge transfer resistance values, and the lowest values of coating capacitance in the case of the heat-treated samples revealed its higher electrochemical resistance ability as compared to asplated samples owing to the formation of the Ni₃P phase. These findings support the potentiodynamic polarization results.

4 Conclusion

An effort was made to obtain tungsten incorporated NiP coatings. The W incorporation was not happening in this acidic medium of the electroless nickel bath. This was confirmed by EDS and ICP-OES results. In NiPW coating baths, increasing the concentration of sodium tungstate decreases the plating rate. Increase in cross-sectional hardness was observed after heat treatment similar to that of NiP coatings. XRD of NiPW coating show the presence of nickel phosphide (Ni₃P) phase after heat treatment. SEM images of NiPW show uniform coating without any discontinuity or cracks. It was observed from the EDS results of NiPW-coated samples that an increase in sodium tungstate concentration in bath reduces the phosphorus content. ICP-OES results confirm the presence of tungsten in the coating in small amounts (0.1–0.05%). Potentiodynamic polarization test shows that the corrosion rate increases with increase in tungstate content. The corrosion rate decreases around an order of magnitude after heat treatment.

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Dry Ice Cooling Effect on Friction Stir Welded AA6061 Alloy Using Brass Interlayer



Korra Nagu and Adepu Kumar

Abstract This study investigated the impact of employing dry ice cooling and a brass interlayer on the metallurgical and mechanical behavior of AA6061 welded alloy. Friction stir welding (FSW) is commonly used to weld Al alloys as an alternative to the fusion welding process. Generally, FSW leads to the formation of recrystallized and refined grains in comparison to base metal. Despite the presence of grain refinement in the stir zone without an interlayer, the material experienced a reduction in strength due to thermal softening. The addition of a brass interlayer in between the welds during FSW produced strong metallurgical intermetallics. The production of strengthening metallurgical intermetallics enhanced weld mechanical properties with interlayer. However, strength recovery was not achieved in the heat-affected zone with normal cooling. Furthermore, premature failure was caused by the formation of brittle and hard intermetallics in the weld's stir zone containing the interlayer. Therefore, dry ice cooling was employed to increase the hardness in the heat-affected zone and the overall strength of the weld. Dry ice cooling with the interlayer reduced heat-affected zone softening and enhanced hardness. Moreover, by employing dry ice cooling in conjunction with the interlayer, the formation of hard intermetallics was inhibited, and the volume of intermetallics was significantly reduced due to the rapid cooling rate. As a result, the overall strength of the weld joint was increased from 247 MPa with normal cooling to 268 MPa with dry ice cooling.

Keywords Dry ice cooling \cdot Natural cooling \cdot Friction stir welding \cdot Brass interlayer \cdot Intermetallics

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1 Introduction

Aluminum alloys are widely utilized in the aerospace and automobile industries, mainly due to their high strength and comparatively moderate density [1]. The most used friction stir welding (FSW) as solid-state welding procedure overcomes the difficulty of welding Al alloys with fusion welding processes [2]. The FSW procedure comprises when a rotating tool penetrates at the abutting edges of two weld materials, due to the shoulder's shearing action and high normal pressure, and frictional heat is primarily produced. The tool transverse along the line joining can transport the material from one side to another side which will carried forward and rotated around the pin. Consequently, at the rear of the retreating side, there is an accumulation of material resulting in forming the weld joint. Hence, the movement and rotation of the material facilitated the bonding and consolidation of the weld pieces, resulting in a robust and seamless weld [3]. As a result of the dynamic recrystallization process and the intense deformation of the material during FSW, the weld joint's stir zone exhibits the presence of small, equiaxed grains [4]. Even though FSW was utilized to produce fine and recrystallized grains, the softening at the SZ brought on by the weld heat cycle reduces the strength of the weld joint [5, 6]. Hence, there is a need to enhance the weld joint strength. Moreover, numerous researchers have attempted to increase the weld joint strength through tool design, FSW parameters optimization, and post-weld heat treatment [7]. The aforementioned processes are not highly effective methods, as they may require additional time for the design and fabrication of tools, lead to wastage of base material, and involve significant costs for optimization, ultimately diminishing the overall welding economy. A few researchers have proposed introducing an appropriate interlayer between weld plates to overcome the aforementioned challenges and enhance joint strength. A soft material such as Zn was used as an interlayer to weld A17020 alloy using FSW by Wilson et al. [8]. They carried out the research by varying the thickness with constant composition of interlayer material. The researchers described that a Zn interlayer with a thickness of 100 µm enhanced mechanical properties more than other interlayers. This improvement can be attributed to the effective diffusion of Zn particles within the Al matrix, leading to enhanced grain refinement. The researchers' Mokabberi et al. [9] investigation focused on three different interlayer materials (Cu, Zn, and brass) having varying hardnesses on metallurgical mixing and enhancement of mechanical properties. The findings revealed that the utilization of brass interlayers led to improved mechanical properties. This enhancement was attributed to the intermixing reaction between the aluminum matrix and brass particles, forming robust intermetallic compounds (IMCs) through the distribution and diffusion of brass particulates. A single interlayer (Cu) with high hardness and heat treatment to form a good metallurgical bond with aluminum base metal was used by Khojastehnezhad et al. [10]. They concluded that the synthesis of Al₄Cu₉ and Al₂Cu intermetallics increased the weld's mechanical properties. The mechanical properties can be enhanced attributed to lower the thickness of intermetallics. Cooling rate plays a vital role in reducing the thickness of intermetallics and in forming a strong metallurgical bond. Moreover, the cooling rate

in FSWed dissimilar welds or welds with interlayer results in reduced intermetallics, which can form strong metallurgical bonds between interlayer particles and the Al matrix. This strong bond formation leads to an enhancement in the tensile strength of the overall weld joint [11, 12]. Even though Cam et al. [13] employed external cooling simultaneously with a high-strength interlayer to enhance weld strength, no improvements were observed in microstructural and mechanical properties. Nevertheless, the researchers recommend the use of external cooling as a means to enhance weld performance. Additionally, some researchers have directed their attention toward achieving very rapid cooling rates, such as with liquid nitrogen or dry ice, to improve weld properties. Bansal et al. [14] performed FSW using a speedy cooling rate, including deep cryogenic treatment. The researchers noted that rapid cooling increased grain refinement, improving mechanical properties like toughness and strength. This observation highlights the positive impact of fast cooling on enhancing the overall quality and performance of the weld. Liu et al. [15] investigated the impact of liquid oxygen (O_2) on the mechanical properties and microstructural characteristics of FSWed aluminum alloy. They observed the influence of rapid cooling rates on the sharpening of textures in welds, reduced grain growth, and improved mechanical properties. Generally, a faster cooling rate possesses higher specific heat compared to normal cooling. Furthermore, it has demonstrated tremendous promise for enhancing ductility and mechanical properties [16]. In addition, the rapid cooling process can effectively reduce the tensile residual stresses within the weld zone. This reduction in residual stresses is highly advantageous for enhancing the fatigue performance of the joints. By minimizing these stresses, the weld joints become more resistant to fatigue failure, thereby increasing their durability and reliability [17].

According to existing literature, faster cooling significantly affects metallurgical properties, reducing the formation of IMCs in the SZ of FSWed joints. Based on the available literature, there is a need for further investigation into the combined effect of very rapid cooling methods, such as dry ice, and the utilization of an interlayer on the metallurgical behavior and mechanical properties of AA6061 welded using friction stir welding. In contrast to naturally cooled FSW joints, this specific combination has yet to be extensively studied or documented. By employing brass as the interlayer, this study aims to enhance the mechanical properties and microstructural characteristics of dry ice-cooled AA6061 weld joints.

2 Materials and Methods

The weld material utilized in the current investigation consists of AA6061-T6 plates with a thickness of 6 mm. A brass interlayer, composed of 58% Cu and 36% Zn (0.2 mm thin), was taken as the interlayer material. The welding procedure was done with the help of a cylindrical profiled tool with left-hand threads (Fig. 1a). Figure 1b depicts the placement of the brass interlayer positioned between the two weld plates, and Fig. 1c depicts the actual FSW process. Tool rotational speed of 800 rpm, tool penetration depth of 0.2 mm, and traverse speed of 25 mm/min are used in this study.



Fig. 1 a Cylindrical profiled tool with threading, b representation of FSW with interlayer, and c actual welding process

The welding process was conducted in four distinct phases to enable a comparative and detailed analysis of the cooling's impact. This phased approach allowed for a comprehensive examination of how different cooling conditions affected the evolution of IMCs and precipitates within the weld joint. Natural cooling: without interlayer (NCWO) and with interlayer (NCWI); dry ice cooling: without interlayer (DIWO) and with interlayer (DIWI). For DIWO and DIWI welding, the dry ice cooling treatment was applied immediately after FSW along the traverse line of the tool.

To attain a proper finish on the microstructural weld materials, they were initially sliced in a perpendicular direction to the weld. Subsequently, they underwent polishing using various grades of SiC sheets. Following the polishing process, the samples were etched in an etchant. Both a scanning electron microscope (SEM) and a three-dimensional optical microscope (OM) were employed for microstructure investigation. The weld joint's hardness was assessed using a Vickers hardness testing machine, applying an indentation force of 100 g for 10 s, and maintaining a spacing of 0.5 mm between each indentation. By the ASTM-E8 standard, samples intended for the tension test were cut across the weld direction. A universal testing machine (UTM) was utilized to perform the tension test, and the average of three sample results was calculated to obtain a representative measurement.