

Measurement of friction in galling testing – an example of its use in characterising the galling behaviour of hardfacings at ambient and elevated temperature

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Abstract

Galling is a category of severe adhesive wear that is defined by surface damage arising between sliding solids, distinguished by macroscopic, usually localized, roughening and creation of protrusions above the original surface. The identification of galling is through a visual observation of the tested surface and is therefore inherently subjective. Due to the microscopic processes behind the onset of galling being poorly understood, further work is needed to understand the behaviour of different materials under galling conditions, both at room temperature and elevated temperature.

The current paper describes the development of a new galling testing apparatus, broadly under the ASTM G196 configuration with the addition of in-situ torque measurements and an automated worm drive for sample rotation as well as band heaters allowing tests at elevated temperatures up to a maximum applied stress of 950 MPa. Results from galling tests conducted at room temperature and 300 °C for both Stellite 6 (Co-based) and Tristelle 5183 (Fe-based) hardfacings are presented.

The results show that the galling resistance of Tristelle 5183 is significantly reduced at elevated temperature (<52.8 MPa) compared to room temperature (158.3 MPa). In the case of Stellite 6, galling was not observed at either room temperature or 300 °C up to the maximum tested stress of 950 MPa.

Keywords:

Galling; tribotesting; galling stress; hardfacing; torque measurement

1 Introduction

Whilst galling is a common failure mode of materials in sliding contact, the causes and mechanisms behind it are poorly understood [1]. Galling is a form of severe adhesive wear that is defined by the ASTM committee G02 on wear and erosion in Standard G40 as, “a form of surface damage arising between sliding solids, distinguished by macroscopic, usually localized, roughening and creation of protrusions above the original surface” [2]. It can occur on one or both mating surfaces and, by definition (as described in the ASTM standard), must be visible by the human eye. However, adhesive deformation leading to surface roughening on the microscale is often referred to as incipient galling [3, 4]. It is recognised that galling shares many of the features of other forms of wear (such as adhesive

35 wear) but (to directly quote Budinski and Budinski [4]) “*The feature of galling that sets itself apart from*
36 *other forms of wear is the severity and size of protrusions from the original surface that form during the*
37 *rubbing process.*”

38 Galling is undesirable and often expensive to remedy within an industrial setting as it can lead to the
39 total failure of components. It results in material being raised from the surface which impedes sliding
40 against other surfaces and in severe cases can result in cold welding of mated components leading to
41 seizure [3, 4].

42 Any situation with metals in sliding contact can suffer from galling, with the tendency to gall depending
43 upon (amongst other things) the material types and applied load borne by the contact. Examples of
44 situations that regularly suffer from galling issues include the sheet metal stamping industry, industries
45 that use highly loaded threaded fasteners, applications which cannot adequately lubricate sliding
46 surfaces due to contamination problems (such as sanitary systems, food processing, medical devices,
47 nuclear reactors etc.) and the nuclear industry (valves) [1, 4-7]. Factors that have been suggested to
48 affect the galling behaviour of a mating pair are: material composition, crystal structure, surface
49 morphology, hardness, temperature, sliding speed, sliding distance, surface oxides and stacking fault
50 energy [1, 4, 8-12]. Due to the range of factors that can affect the galling behaviour of a mating pair,
51 there is no single stress level at which the wear behaviour definitively changes to galling; instead, the
52 galling frequency of a material is said to increase with increasing stress [3].

53 Two of the most common laboratory galling test methods are those described in the ASTM standards
54 G98 and G196 [13-15]. The most widely used galling test is the ASTM G98 Standard Test Method for
55 Galling Resistance of Materials; this method uses button-on-block contact conditions in which a solid
56 pin of Ø12.7 mm is rotated against a stationary block [14]. Although this method is widely used, results
57 of galling stress can vary significantly between investigators [3, 12]. Hummel et al. [12] also found that
58 the lowest galling stress can be over five times smaller than the highest non-galling stress for 303
59 stainless steel. It is suggested that the principal reason for this is that the identification of whether galling
60 has occurred has no quantitative definition and is therefore inherently subjective. Additionally, the ASTM
61 G98 standard does not specify the size of the corner radius of the button specimen; some users may
62 remove the burrs on the edge of the sample whilst others may leave it sharp which can lead to
63 differences in results from different users [3]. Waite et al. showed that the stress concentration
64 increased as the corner radius was decreased and that the location of the stress concentration occurs
65 at the point of maximum sliding distance (maximum radial distance) as shown in Figure 1 [16]. The
66 combination of maximum sliding distance and the stress concentration as well as the area of zero
67 tangential velocity at the centre of the rotating button results in galling typically occurring at the edge of
68 the sample [3].

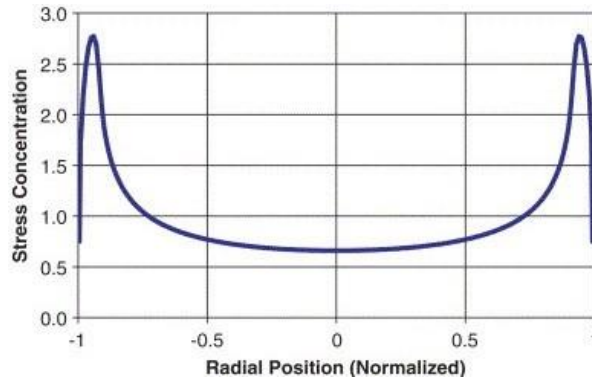


Figure 1 Plot of stress concentration factor versus normalized radial position along the diameter of a G98 galling pin with a 1.3 mm corner radius [16]

The ASTM G196 test method was developed by Hummel [3] to circumvent the issues associated with the ASTM G98 method. The testing configuration utilises two hollow cylinders which are mated resulting in a contact in the shape of an annulus [3]. The hole in the centre of the samples removes the point of zero velocity and an alignment pin is located in the centre of the samples which results in greater alignment throughout the test. The stress concentration is also said to be more evenly distributed across the contacting faces [3]. However, the ASTM G196 test method requires a large number of tests to be conducted and is therefore often expensive. Although the ASTM G196 is an improved test method for determining the galling behaviour of a material compared to ASTM G98, it still relies on the judgement of the investigator as to whether the material has galled. The rotation of the sample is also typically driven by hand (although automated sample rotation is allowed for in the standard) which can result in inconsistent sliding speeds, sliding distance and (commonly) stop and start events during rotation for sample re-gripping.

The main aim of this paper is to demonstrate the value of torque/friction measurements in characterising galling behaviour of representative hardfacing alloys at room temperature and at 300 °C in air using a modified G196 galling test rig which facilitates the uninterrupted and steady rotation of test samples under very high normal loads (up to 90 kN). One of the hardfacing alloys selected for study was the cobalt-based alloy Stellite 6 which is known for its excellent wear and galling resistance [9]. Stellite 6 has been traditionally used for nuclear power plant valves but due to the wear particles being transmuted to radioactive cobalt-60 in the reactor core, there is a need to replace this material in this environment [9]. The high galling resistance of Stellite 6 has been said to be due to its low stacking fault energy [17-21] which, under mechanical stress, promotes strain induced martensitic transformation and work hardening. This reportedly results in the formation of an easy-shear layer due to the transformation of the metastable face-centred cubic structure of the cobalt into a hexagonally close-packed (HCP) phase at the wear interface. The shear induced alignment of the hexagonal close-packed planes parallel to the sliding direction is said to improve galling resistance with the shear and adhesive transfer restricted to this layer. Studies on Stellite 6 at elevated temperature also show the formation of protective oxide layers which have been reported to be beneficial to its wear resistance [18, 20]. The other alloy selected was the iron-based alloy Tristelle 5183. High silicon stainless steels, such as the Tristelle family, have been introduced as potential lower cost alternatives to cobalt-based alloys for anti-galling applications [22].

2 Experimental procedure

2.1 Description of galling test rig

A test rig was developed in order to carry out galling tests under the ASTM G196 (Standard Test Method for Galling Resistance of Material Couples) [13] configuration. This method consists of two concentric hollow cylindrical specimens with their ends mated resulting in a contact area in the shape of an annulus. An alignment pin is located in the centre hole of the samples to ensure concentricity between the two specimens throughout the test. A schematic diagram of the G196 test configuration is presented in Figure 2.

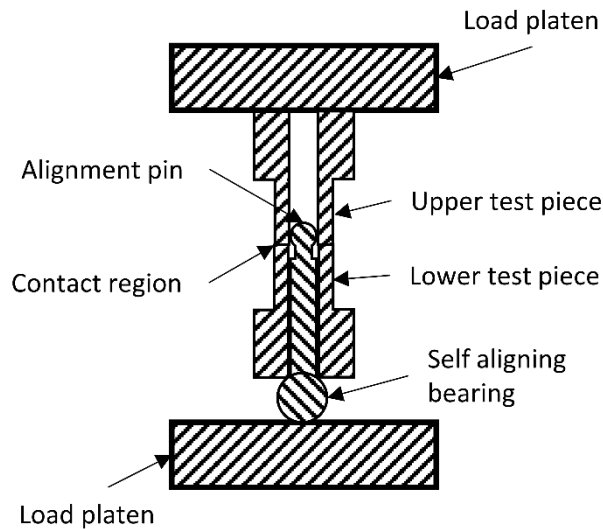


Figure 2 Schematic diagram showing a cross-sectional view of the test configuration. Loading is applied via the platens, the lower test piece remains stationary whilst the upper test piece is rotated through 360°.

A cross-sectional diagram of the test rig is presented in Figure 3. The rig conforms to a die-set configuration which is designed to fit into an Instron 5985 universal testing machine. The four support columns maintain alignment between the upper and lower sections of the rig. The base of the rig is fixed to the bed of the Instron machine and the upper section is attached to its load cell. Testing can be conducted up to a maximum normal load of 90 kN which, under the G196 sample dimensions, equates to a nominal contact pressure of 950 MPa.

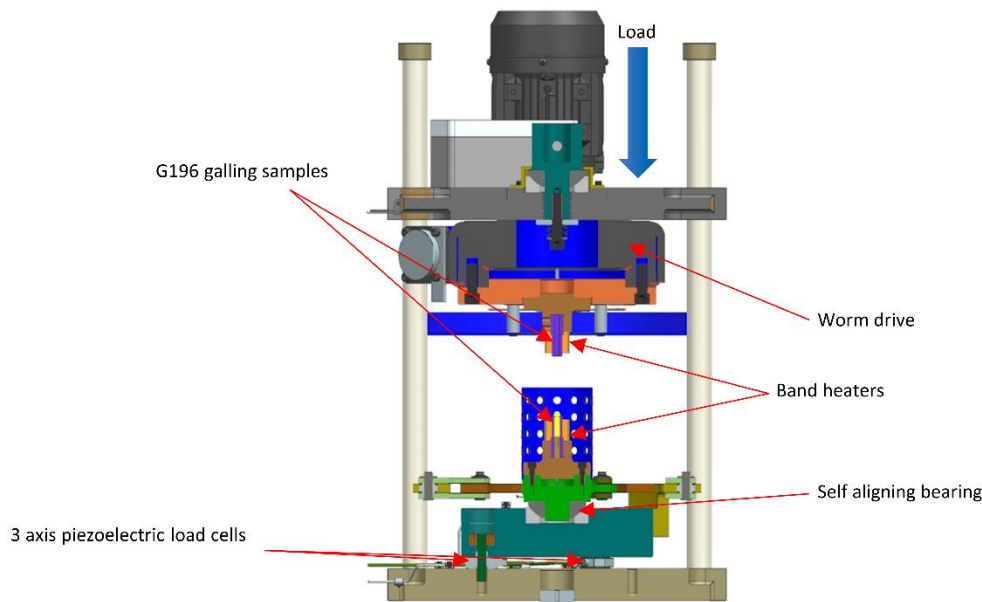


Figure 3 Schematic diagram showing a cross-sectional view of the of the galling test apparatus.

The use of an automated worm drive to rotate the upper test piece results in a constant and repeatable angular speed and distance for each test. A self-aligning bearing allows the transverse movement and angular displacement of the lower test piece whilst preventing any rotation about the central axis. This mechanism ensures repeatable pin alignment which results in symmetrical load distribution about the axis of rotation at the start of the test. This repeatable uniform loading is of paramount importance to high quality galling testing.

The test pieces are held in a chuck and secured by four grub screws which are screwed onto two flats on the base of the samples at 90° apart. The bottom chuck is fixed to the self-aligning bearing whilst the upper test piece is rotated through a single 360° turn per test. The continuous rotation of the test piece is conducted via a variable speed automated worm drive. For this work, the maximum speed setting was utilised which completes one full (360°) rotation in 14 seconds ($\sim 0.45 \text{ rad s}^{-1}$).

The vertical load and the torque are measured from the output of three sensitive 3-axis piezoelectric load cells (Kistler Instruments Ltd.) which are located under the base plate arranged at 120° apart; the sensitivity of the load cells is 8.1 pC N^{-1} for the shear force (torque) and 3.7 pC N^{-1} for the normal load. In this work, data were acquired at a sampling rate of 10 Hz.

Band heaters with copper bushings surround the test pieces which allow elevated temperature tests to be conducted with a maximum operating temperature of 700 °C. K-type thermocouples are inserted into machined slots in the copper bushings to constantly monitor and control the temperature of the heaters.

2.2 Materials and Test procedure

The alloys examined in this work were the Co-based hardfacing alloy Stellite 6 and Fe-based hardfacing alloy Tristelle 5183, both supplied by LSN Diffusion (Llandybie, UK), the compositions of which are

146 presented in Table 1. Both had been manufactured by hot isostatic pressing (HIPing) of gas atomised
147 powder.

148 The test pieces are hollow cylinders of 50 mm length where the contacting face is Ø12.7 mm outer
149 diameter (OD) and Ø 6.375 mm inner diameter (ID). Testing was conducted on samples with parallel
150 ground surfaces giving them a surface roughness (Ra) of approximately 0.2 – 0.4 µm as measured by
151 stylus profilometry on a sample disc by taking an average roughness from measurements taken in
152 different directions along the sample. Prior to testing, any burrs were removed using 400 grit silicon
153 carbide paper on the outer and inner diameter perpendicular to the test surface. The surfaces were
154 then cleaned using cotton wool and ethanol.

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156 **Table 1 Compositions of alloys as determined by chemical analysis**

Alloy	Element (wt%)									
	C	Co	Cr	Fe	N	Nb	Ni	Si	W	Other
Stellite 6	0.96	Bal.	27.08	0.73	-	-	0.87	1.47	5.01	0.07
Tristelle 5183	2.08	-	21.72	Bal.	0.05	6.90	10.39	4.67	-	0.73

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158 The normal load was applied by an Instron 5985 testing machine operating in load-controlled mode.
159 Tests were carried out from an initial normal load of 5 kN (52.8 MPa) for Tristelle 5183 and from 80 kN
160 (844 MPa) for Stellite 6. After one full rotation, the samples were removed and inspected for galling
161 characteristics. These characteristics included concentric striations of severe macroscale surface
162 roughening where the grinding marks are no longer observed and/or cold welding of the two samples.

163 If galling had not occurred, testing was conducted on a new pair of samples at a load 5 or 10 kN greater
164 than the previous load. This was repeated until signs of galling were observed. Once galling had
165 occurred, repeat tests were conducted on new samples at 5 kN above and below the load at which
166 galling was initially observed. In the instance that galling did not occur at the higher load, the test
167 procedure was repeated until consistent galling was observed. For this work, a minimum of two tests
168 were conducted at each load. Due to limited sample availability in the test programme, the ASTM G196
169 standard test method was not followed (the standard test method requires at least 48 tests to be
170 conducted in order to determine a galling load).

171 When testing at the elevated temperature of 300 °C, the following procedure was followed to determine
172 the temperature at the contacting surface. A wire thermocouple was placed between the two contacting
173 surfaces of samples which were then brought into contact with an applied load less than 0.5 kN (<5.3
174 MPa). The band heater settings were adjusted until the measured temperature in the contact stabilised
175 at 300 °C ± 5 °C. These band heater settings were then maintained for the galling tests with that material
176 type (where no in-contact thermocouple was in place), with these settings being regularly re-checked.

2.3 Materials Characterisation

Microstructural characterisation was performed using optical microscopy, scanning electron microscopy (SEM) using secondary electron (SE) and backscattered electron (BSE) imaging and energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX) analysis. The surface to be examined was progressively ground to a 1200 grit finish, diamond polished to a 1 µm finish and given a final polish using 0.06 µm colloidal silica. SEM was conducted using a Quanta 600 utilising a tungsten filament source and a 20 kV beam.

Following testing, visual examinations were made on the samples as well as stereoscopy of the tested surfaces.

Hardness measurements were performed on polished samples using a Vickers indenter and a 20 kg load. Ten indents were performed on each material and a mean hardness was calculated from these.

2.4 Analysis of torque data

Short term fluctuations in the measured torque in the galling tests were quantified by calculating the deviation of the raw data from smoothed data. The torque data were smoothed by Savitzky-Golay filtering using a 3rd degree polynomial and 25 data points. The absolute deviation from the smoothed torque was calculated for every point and an average was taken from all points recorded after two seconds into the test.

The coefficient of friction, μ , in an annular contact of this type is given by the following equation [23]:

$$\mu = \frac{3}{2} \frac{r_2^2 - r_1^2}{r_2^3 - r_1^3} \left(\frac{T}{F_a} \right) \quad (1)$$

where T is the torque, r_1 and r_2 are the inner and outer radii respectively of the contacting faces and F_a is the applied normal force. The specimen radii r_1 and r_2 (as per ASTM G196) are 3.1875 mm and 6.3500 mm respectively. Using these values, Equation 1 can be simplified to:

$$\mu = 202.3 \left(\frac{T}{F_a} \right) \quad (2)$$

3 Results

3.1 Characterisation of hardfacing alloys

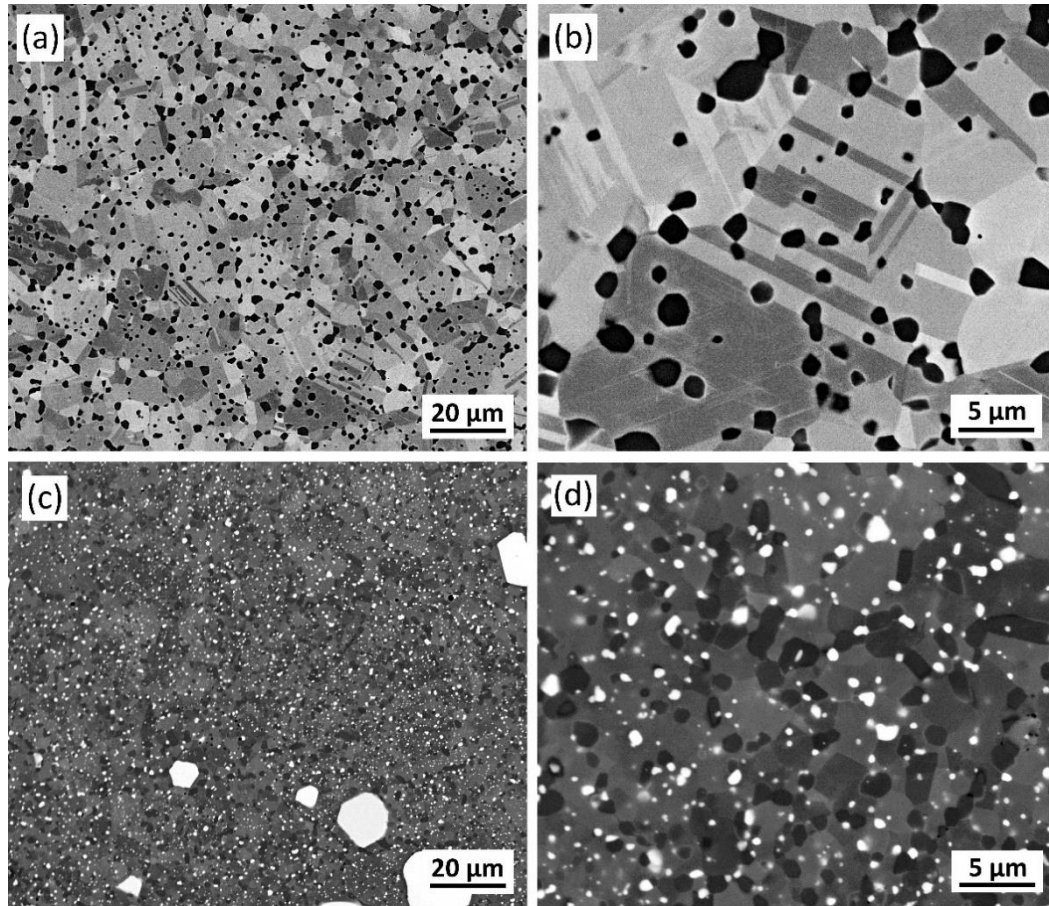
The hardnesses of the alloys were measured to be 368 ± 1 HV₂₀ for Tristelle 5183 and 401 ± 3 HV₂₀ for Stellite 6.

SEM-BSE micrographs of HIPed Stellite 6 are shown in Figure 4 (a & b) and reveal dark-contrast, equiaxed chromium-rich carbide precipitates (M₇C₃), ranging in size between ~ 1 and 5 µm, in a Co-rich matrix in which grain and annealing twin boundaries are clearly visible. Figure 4 (c & d) show BSE micrographs of Tristelle 5183 in which the bright-contrast precipitates are the NbC phase, the dark grey contrast precipitates (~ 1-2 µm in size) are the M₇C₃ phase and the lighter grey contrast matrix is principally a γ -Fe fcc matrix.. The matrix contrast variation arises from BSE channelling contrast and the presence of small amounts of α -Fe and π -ferrosilicide. The NbC has a bimodal size distribution with most of the precipitates being < 2 µm in size but a small number being up to ~ 5 – 20 µm in size (Figure

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4 (c)). It has previously been shown [24] that the large NbC particles are formed during the alloying and melting of the material prior to gas atomisation of the melt. The resultant gas atomised powder is subsequently HIPed.

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Figure 4 BSE SEM micrographs of polished HIPed materials as follows: (a & b) Stellite 6 showing a dark contrast M_7C_3 phase and a dark and light grey phase for the cobalt matrix as well as annealing twins; (c & d) Tristelle 5183 showing a bright contrast NbC phase, a dark grey M_7C_3 phase and a lighter grey matrix of varying contrast.

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3.2 Galling test results

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3.2.1 Observations of surface features

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Representative optical microscope images of Tristelle 5183 samples tested at room temperature and 300 °C are presented in Figure 5. In these micrographs, galling is characterised by concentric striations of severe macroscale surface roughening where the grinding marks are no longer observed (indicated by the blue arrows). Dark areas, where the grinding marks are difficult to observe, are seen on some of the sample surfaces (indicated by red arrow). In these areas the surface was visibly polished to a near mirror finish during the galling testing. Due to the direct light from the stereo microscope, the polished areas reflect the light and appear dark when imaged such as observed in Figure 5 (b) (indicated by the red arrow).

228 At room temperature, surface polishing of Tristelle 5183 is observed at a load of 10 kN as evidenced
229 by the darker surface of Figure 5 (b). In Figure 5 (a), other than some mild polishing in the top right
230 section, the sample is largely unworn. At a load of 15 kN, further polishing is observed; however,
231 adhesive deformation features appear to lie in the transition between galling initiation (microscale
232 adhesion) and galling (Figure 5 (c & d)). Areas of concentric markings, consistent with microscale
233 adhesion where the grinding marks are no longer visible, can be observed (as indicated by the blue
234 arrows). This subjective interpretation of surface features highlights a fundamental limitation of the
235 identification of galling by optical methods. At 20 kN (Figure 5 (e & f)), galling is clearly observed (as
236 indicated by the blue arrow).

237 Galling can be observed in all tests on Tristelle 5183 at 300 °C, even at the lowest tested load of 5 kN
238 as indicated by the blue arrow in Figure 5 (g). At each load, large areas of concentric deformation can
239 be observed. With 10 and 15 kN loads, severe galling deformation is observed across the entire surface
240 of one sample (Figure 5 (j & k)).

241 In some tests, the severity of wear can differ significantly across the sample surface such as in (Figure
242 5 (i & l)). This is due to the stochastic nature of galling and can depend on the location and time from
243 the start of the test at which the galling occurs.

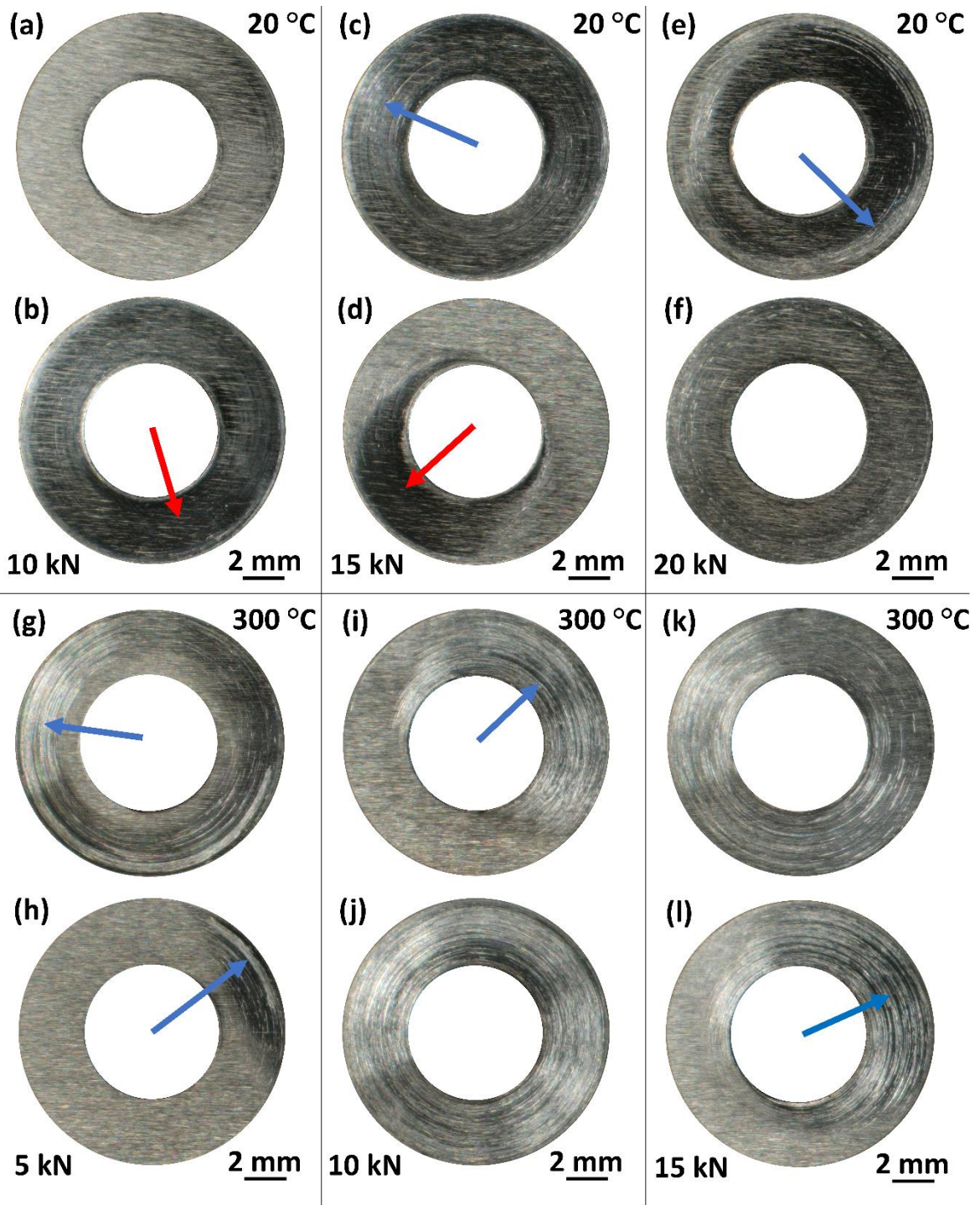
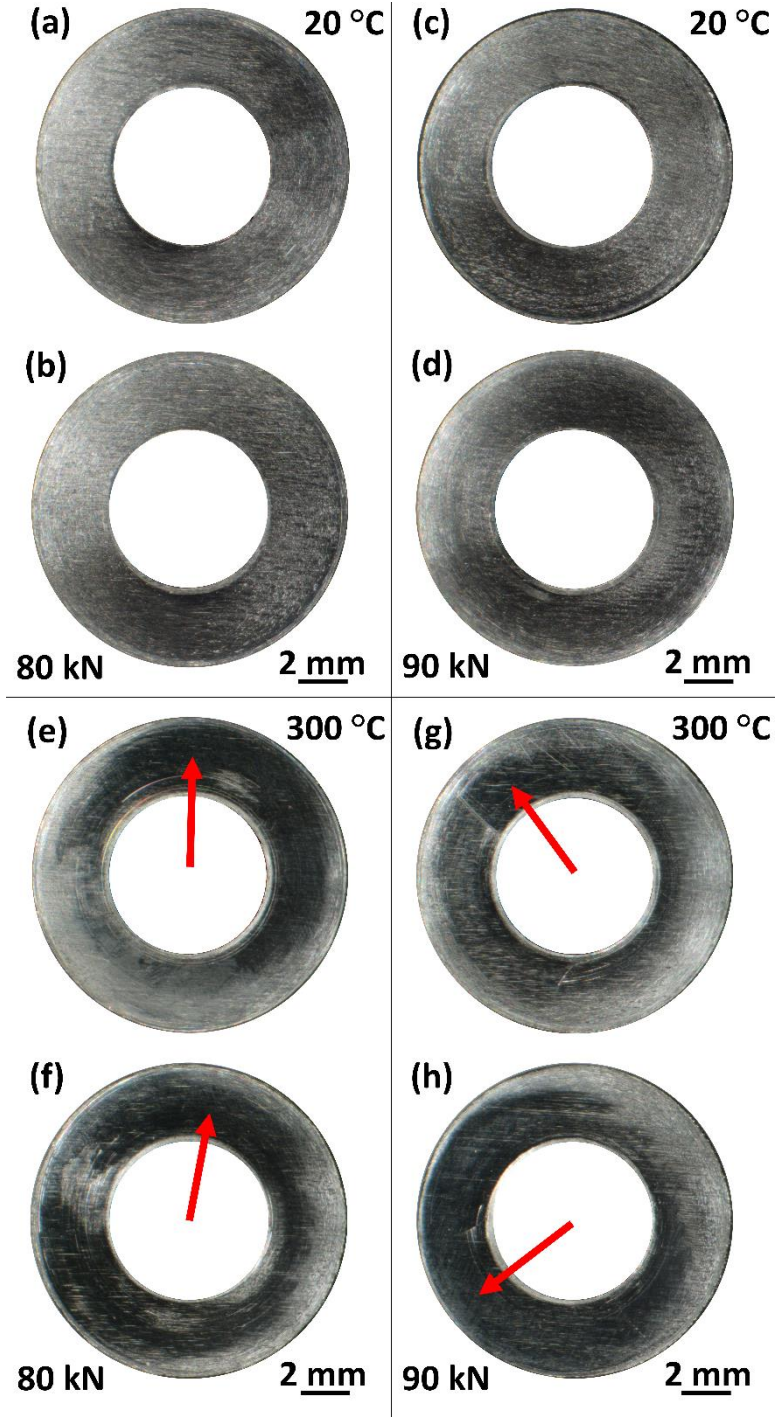


Figure 5 Stereo microscope images of surfaces of Tristelle 5183 following tests at room temperature and 300 °C under different loads (red arrow indicates surface polishing, blue arrows indicate galling behaviour).

Representative images of Stellite 6 samples tested at room temperature and 300 °C are presented in Figure 6. Galling was not observed on Stellite 6 samples at room temperature or at 300 °C up to the maximum tested load of 90 kN (950 MPa contact pressure). Significant amounts of surface polishing

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are observed as evidenced by the dark surface features (which are highly reflective of incident light) covering the entire surfaces of room temperature tested samples and as indicated by red arrows on the 300 °C tested samples. A greater degree of localised surface polishing was observed at 300 °C (Figure 6 (e-h)) compared to room temperature (Figure 6 (a-d)). Although wear was inflicted on the surfaces, no areas of concentric striations or severe macroscale surface roughening were observed.

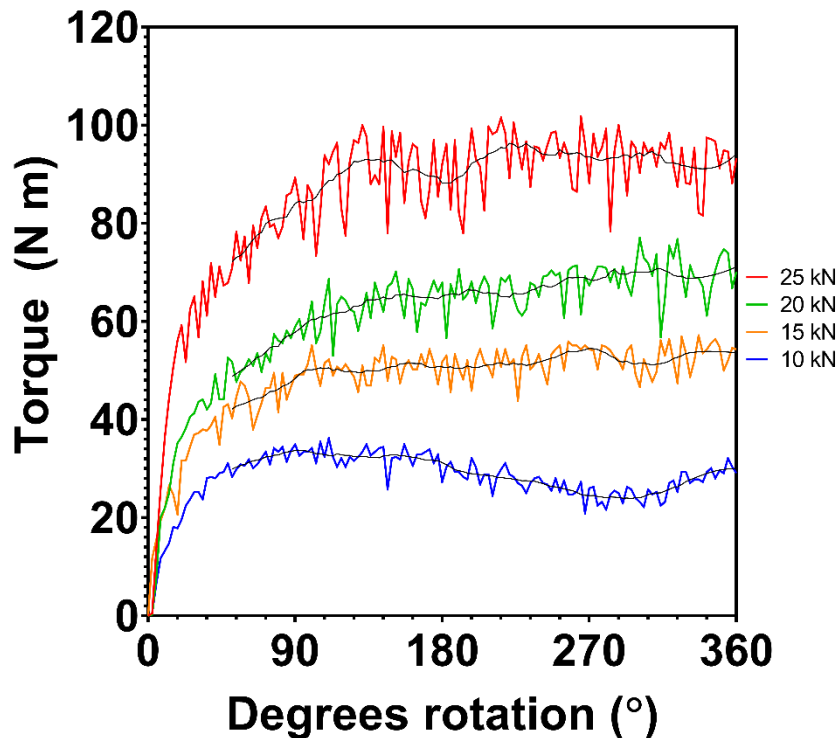


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Figure 6 Stereo microscope images of tested Stellite 6 sample surfaces at room temperature and 300 °C; galling was not observed at the maximum tested load.

259 3.2.2 Torque measurements

260 Representative histories of torque versus sample rotation recorded during the galling testing of Tristelle
261 5183 at room temperature are presented in Figure 7, with the black lines representing the smoothed
262 torque data. The torque is observed to increase with increasing normal load as expected. At 10 kN (i.e.
263 below the galling load determined from optical examination of the surfaces following testing), the
264 fluctuations in torque from the smoothed data appear to be smaller than those observed in tests at the
265 higher normal loads that produced galling. It is postulated that these fluctuations relate to localised cold
266 welding followed by fracture that occurs during the initiation of galling.



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268 **Figure 7 Variation of torque with sample rotation during galling tests on Tristelle 5183 at room**
269 **temperature. Galling was not observed visually at 10 kN. The increase in galling observed**
270 **correlates with an increase in deviation from the smoothed torque (black line).**

271 To quantify these short-term torque fluctuations, the deviation from the smoothed torque was calculated
272 at each point (from two seconds into the test and onwards) and an average deviation was calculated
273 for each test. The results are presented in Table 2. A clear increase in average deviation from the
274 smoothed torque is observed with increasing load at room temperature as the adhesive wear becomes
275 more severe.

276 The torque histories for the galling tests on Tristelle 5183 at a normal load of 15 kN at both room
277 temperature and 300 °C are presented in Figure 8. Tests at both temperatures resulted in macroscopic
278 galling behaviour and little difference is observed in the maximum torque values. However, the rate of
279 increase of torque was higher for the test conducted at 300 °C, possibly due to the more severe damage
280 accumulation observed at elevated temperature. The average deviation from the smoothed torque was

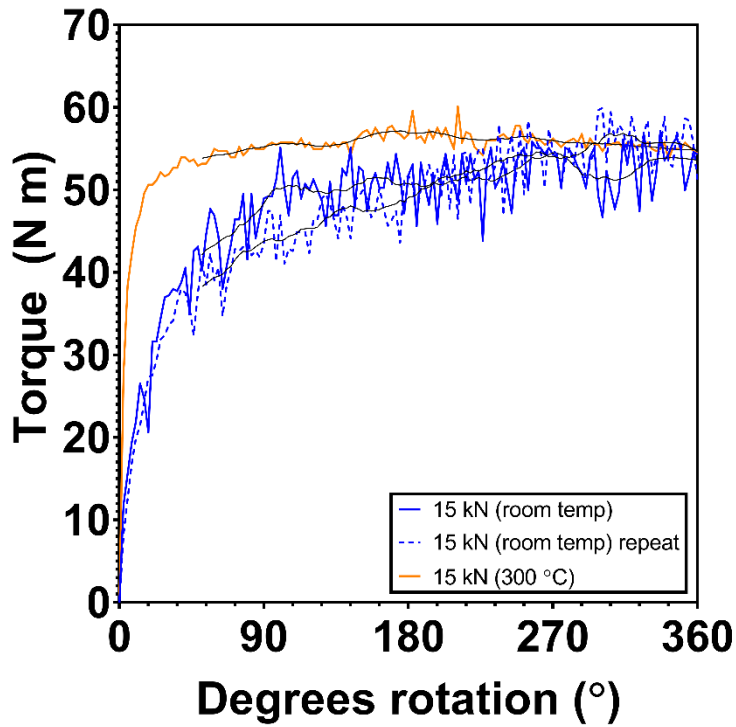
281 significantly lower during the elevated temperature test (0.49 N m at 300 °C compared with 2.04 N m
282 at room temperature), even though the adhesive behaviour was much more severe at the higher
283 temperature. Unlike the room temperature behaviour, short term torque fluctuations in tests at 300 °C
284 were found not to change with increasing load as shown in Table 2. This is believed to be due to a
285 change in wear mechanisms at elevated temperature.

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287 **Table 2 Mean torque deviation from the smoothed torque data for Tristelle 5183 at room**
288 **temperature and 300 °C**

Load (kN)	Mean deviation in torque from the smoothed data	Mean deviation in torque from the smoothed data
	Room temp (N m)	300 °C (N m)
5	-	0.56
10	1.35	0.45
15	2.04	0.49
20	2.44	-
25	4.44	-

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 291 **Figure 8** Variation of torque with sample rotation during galling tests on Tristelle 5183 under
 292 **15 kN** load at room temperature and at 300 °C. The room temperature test resulted in some
 293 **adhesive behaviour** whilst severe galling was observed at 300 °C. Black lines represent the
 294 **smoothed torque.**

295 The torque results for Stellite 6 tested at 80 kN and 90 kN (at both room temperature and 300 °C) are
 296 presented in Figure 9 (a & b) respectively. Galling was not observed in any of these tests but the torque
 297 was significantly lower when tested at elevated temperature at both loads. Tests at room temperature
 298 also revealed an initial maximum in the torque followed by a gradual decline throughout the test,
 299 whereas at 300 °C the torque generally remained constant following the initial increase. The torque was
 300 seen to increase with load at room temperature, however, at 300 °C the torque showed little change
 301 with increasing load.

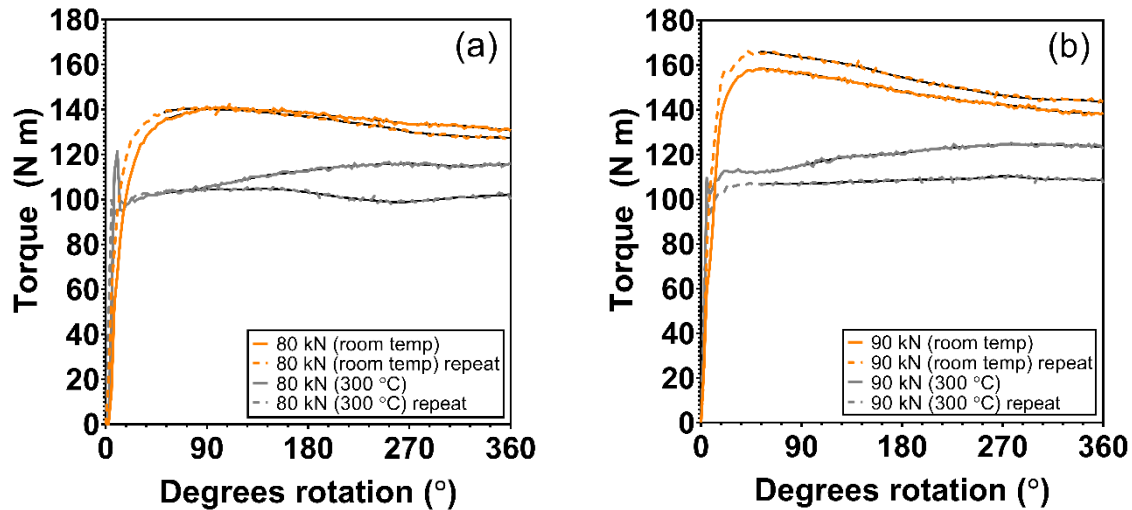


Figure 9 Variation of torque with sample rotation during galling tests on Stellite 6 under (a) 80 kN load and (b) 90 kN load at both room temperature and 300 °C. Galling was not observed visually in these tests. Black lines represent the smoothed torque.

The average deviation from the smoothed torque for Stellite 6 tested at 80 and 90 kN are presented for room temperature and elevated temperature in Table 3. Stellite 6 exhibited a similar average deviation for both temperatures.

Table 3 Mean torque deviation from the smoothed torque data for Stellite 6 at room temperature and 300 °C.

Load (kN)	Mean deviation in torque from the smoothed data	Mean deviation in torque from the smoothed
	Room temp	300 °C
	(N m)	(N m)
80	0.40	0.43
90	0.46	0.44

4 Discussion

4.1 Coefficient of friction

In order to compare the torque results for Stellite 6 and Tristelle 5183, the results of friction coefficient (calculated from equation 2) for Tristelle 5183 at 10 kN and Stellite 6 at 90 kN (room temperature and 300 °C) are presented in Figure 10. It is clear from duplicate tests that the repeatability is good for Stellite 6. Despite the spread in results for Tristelle 5183, the alloys show distinctly different galling

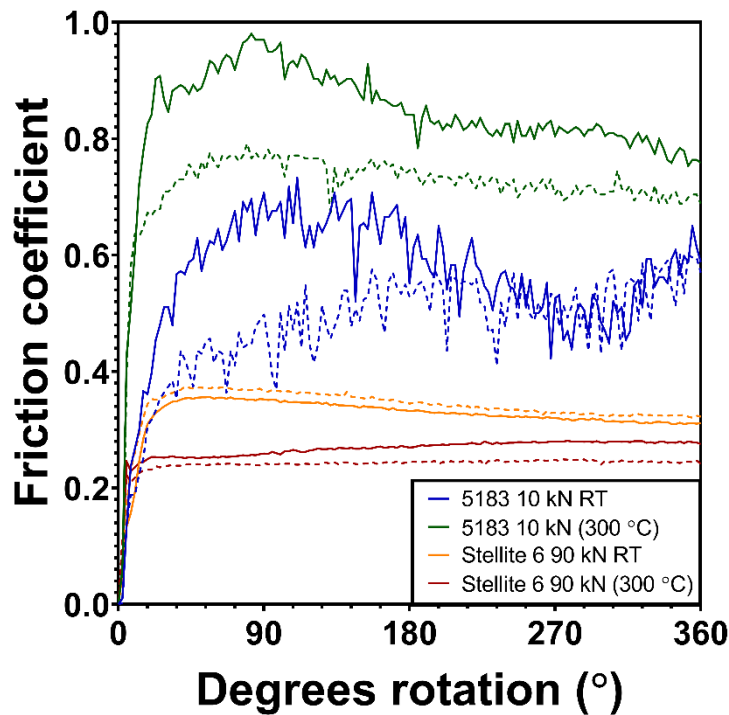
318 behaviour. Therefore, although galling is stochastic in nature, the use of an automated motor to turn the
319 samples at a constant speed offers an improvement over the ASTM G196 standard which allows
320 samples to be turned by hand as well as allowing stopping to re-grip the turning tool.

321 The friction coefficient for Tristelle 5183, tested at 10 kN, increased at elevated temperature which is
322 expected due to the greater amount of damage inflicted on the material at 300 °C. Galling was not
323 observed in the room temperature tests but was observed in the test carried out at 300 °C.

324 Stellite 6 was not observed to exhibit galling behaviour at any of the loads employed in the tests.
325 Interestingly, the torque and friction coefficient for Stellite 6 was lower when tested at 300 °C compared
326 to room temperature for both 80 kN and 90 kN tests. The friction coefficient for Stellite 6 tested at 90 kN
327 was also significantly lower than that of Tristelle 5183 tested at 10 kN at both room temperature and
328 300 °C. This could be expected since Stellite 6 is well-known for its low friction behaviour and resistance
329 to galling [18, 19].

330 The torque traces for Stellite 6 also exhibited smoother curves, with fewer short-term fluctuations
331 confirming the lack of adhesive behaviour compared to Tristelle 5183. The friction coefficients for
332 Stellite 6 tested at 80 kN were almost identical to those observed during tests at 90 kN at both
333 temperatures.

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336 **Figure 10** Variation of friction coefficient with sample rotation during galling tests on 5183 under
337 10 kN load and Stellite 6 under 90 kN load at room temperature and 300 °C. Galling of Tristelle
338 5183 was not observed at room temperature but was observed at 300 °C. Galling was not
339 observed on Stellite 6 at either temperature. Dashed lines represent duplicate tests

340 The coefficient of friction data presented in Figure 10 show that torque measurements, when combined
341 with an automated worm drive to rotate samples at a constant speed, can be very useful, both in
342 identifying the presence of adhesive wear and also in characterising the behaviour of the material during
343 galling testing. The differences observed in wear behaviour of the two materials and also of each
344 material at the different temperatures would not have been so clearly evident if conducting the sample
345 rotation by hand due to inconsistencies in applied rotational speeds and stop-start events.

346 The torque revealed a clear lack of adhesive behaviour on Stellite 6 even at the maximum tested load
347 of 90 kN (950 MPa), whereas Tristelle 5183 exhibited clear adhesive behaviour in most tests. A change
348 in behaviour was observed on both materials at 300 °C, but further work needs to be carried out to
349 understand this change in wear mechanisms at elevated temperature.

351 **4.2 Behaviour of Tristelle 5183**

352 Tristelle 5183 exhibited galling behaviour from normal loads of 15 kN (158.3 MPa) at room temperature
353 and from the lowest tested normal load of 5 kN (52.3 MPa) at 300 °C. This reduction in galling
354 resistance at elevated temperature could be due to the softening of the material at higher temperature or
355 due to an increase in stacking fault energy which decreases the tendency for the fcc matrix to undergo
356 a deformation induced martensitic transformation [25-28]. This could also explain the smaller short-term
357 torque fluctuations observed at elevated temperature but more work needs to be conducted on this
358 aspect to further understand the effects of temperature on the galling behaviour of this iron-based alloy.

359 Although short-term torque fluctuations were lower at 300 °C for Tristelle 5183, a higher maximum
360 torque was observed during 10 kN tests at 300 °C compared to those at room temperature, with this
361 being expected due to the increase in galling and adhesive wear at elevated temperature. When tested
362 at 15 kN, in which galling behaviour was observed at both room temperature and 300 °C, the maximum
363 torque reached was similar at both temperatures.

364 At room temperature, an increase in short term torque fluctuations with increasing load and therefore
365 increasing adhesive behaviour was observed. This is likely to be caused by the formation and breaking
366 of adhesive bonds that takes place during adhesive wear and galling and demonstrates the value of
367 torque measurements in identification of the occurrence of galling.

369 **4.3 Behaviour of Stellite 6**

370 No galling was observed on Stellite 6 up to the maximum tested load of 90 kN (950 MPa) at both room
371 temperature and 300 °C. The impressive wear resistance of Stellite 6 is not fully understood, however,
372 a large amount of literature has been published on this subject. One of the most common proposed
373 reasons for the wear behaviour of Stellite 6 is due to its low stacking fault energy which promotes strain
374 induced martensitic transformation and work hardening resulting in the formation of an easy-shear layer
375 at the wear interface [17-21]. It is expected that this is occurring on the contacting surfaces under the
376 testing conditions investigated, however, further work is needed to investigate this.

377 Stellite 6 exhibited surface polishing at both temperatures, with an increase in surface polishing
378 observed at 300 °C. A lower torque was also observed for tests conducted at 300 °C; this may be due

379 to the formation of protective oxide layers or a change in stacking fault energy [18, 20], however, further
380 work needs to be conducted to investigate this. For the purpose of this paper, the focus is to
381 demonstrate the value of torque measurements in galling to reveal these differences in behaviour that
382 would otherwise not be apparent under the current ASTM G196 test method.

383 Large short-term torque deviations were not observed for Stellite 6 at both test temperatures which
384 suggests a lack of adhesive behaviour.

386 5 Conclusions

- 387 • An improved galling rig was developed to perform tests under the ASTM G196 configuration.
388 It employs an automated worm drive to rotate the sample at a constant angular speed (0.45
389 rad/s) over a fixed rotation (2π radians, i.e. 360°) whilst measuring the frictional torque
390 throughout the test.
- 391 • Repeatable galling testing can be conducted under the ASTM G196 configuration up to high
392 contact pressures of 950 MPa through the use of a mechanical drive.
- 393 • Measurement of torque provides information as to the evolution of coefficient of friction
394 during individual galling tests; such information is not available from tests which are not
395 instrumented in this way.
- 396 • The torque, combined with automated sample rotation at a constant speed, has been shown
397 to help identify the presence of adhesive wear and changes in deformation behaviour for
398 different materials and different temperatures.
- 399 • The changes in torque reveal a change in frictional / deformation behaviour, for both
400 materials, at elevated temperature as witnessed by the differences in friction coefficient and
401 torque fluctuations.
- 402 • The galling resistance of Tristelle 5183 was significantly lowered when tested at 300°C
403 whereas there was no evidence of galling in Stellite 6 up to the maximum tested load of
404 90 kN (950 MPa) at both room temperature and 300°C . Additionally, Stellite 6 exhibits a
405 lower friction coefficient at elevated temperature than at room temperature.

407 Acknowledgements

408 The authors would like to thank CNR Services International Ltd., Nottingham, UK. for the design and
409 build of the galling rig and supplying the schematic in Figure 3. The authors gratefully acknowledge
410 funding from Rolls-Royce plc. M.J. Carrington also acknowledges funding from the Faculty of
411 Engineering, University of Nottingham in support of a PhD studentship. The authors would also like the
412 thank the Nanoscale and Microscale Research Centre (nmRC) at the University of Nottingham for
413 providing access to their instrumentation.

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