

New Insights into the Electro-Slag Remelting Process using Mathematical Modeling

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Abstract

A mathematical model was developed to simulate the ESR process for cylindrical ingots. Typical results from this model which include current and joule heat distribution, temperature and flow field in the process are presented here. The model also predicts metallurgical parameters of interest like solidification time, cooling rate and the Rayleigh number. Inputs to the model include geometrical parameters like electrode and ingot diameter, slag height, and melting parameters like current, melt rate, power. Other inputs include slag & alloy properties and heat transfer coefficients. The effect of melting power and electrode & ingot diameter on the predicted flow and temperature within the process is examined. Model predictions are compared against experimentally measured pool shape from a 0.432 m diameter ESR ingot. Simulations were also conducted for different alloys using the identical melting parameters.

Introduction

There is renewed interest in modeling the Electro-Slag Remelting (ESR) process as evidenced by the surge in publication in the past few years [1-9]. This recent spike in activity is in part due to the need for such a tool in the specialty metal processing industry for new process development and optimization of existing melting parameters. The basic mathematical description of the ESR process was developed in the 80's [10, 11]. Most of the recent efforts have essentially adopted the same formulation, embedded within commercially available CFD codes. These days commercial CFD models are widely used within this industry as these codes are robust, have user friendly interfaces for pre and post processing, and the developers provide web based technical support. Also, the advent of faster computers has significantly reduced the run times for these process models.

A sketch of the ESR process is shown in Figure 1-A, typically in this process AC current is applied and the energy necessary to melt the electrode is generated by joule heating from the slag, whose resistivity is three orders of magnitude higher than that of the molten metal. There are a few variants of the ESR process, in the static mold process, the entire solidifying ingot is contained within the copper mold, where as in either the moving mold or the ingot withdrawal process, only a part of the ingot is contained within the short mold, and the remaining ingot is exposed to the atmosphere.

In this paper, typical results from ESR modeling using COMPACT-ESR™ will be illustrated [12]. The details of formulation, including the governing equations, boundary conditions, and

the numerical algorithm is discussed elsewhere, and is not discussed here [13]. The model performs a comprehensive analysis of the process for axi-symmetric, steady-state conditions using control volume technique for both static and moving mold ESR. A frame of reference attached to the top of the slag is used for the analysis so that the solidified ingot moves at the casting velocity through the computational grid as show in Fig 1-B.

The time-averaged electromagnetic behavior for applied current is governed by the magnetic diffusion equation. The magnetic field, in turn, determines the distributions of Lorentz forces in the slag and the molten pool, and the Joule heating in the slag. The turbulent flow field in the slag and the metal pool, created by the Lorentz and buoyancy forces, are analyzed by solving the time-averaged Navier-Stokes equations. The two-equation $k-\epsilon$ model is used to model the nonuniform turbulent mixing in the slag and the molten pool. The temperature fields in the slag and the ingot are governed by the energy conservation equation. As the metal droplets fall through the slag, they absorb heat from the slag. The loss of heat from the slag to the mold accounts for the presence of slag skin on the surface and considers the effect of the gradual loss of contact of the ingot due to shrinkage. The resulting computational model differs from earlier studies in its completeness of the analysis of the flow and thermal interactions between the slag and the metal regions based on advanced turbulence model for accurate simulation of turbulent mixing and rigorous treatment of thermal boundary conditions at the mold. The computational model is available in the software program COMPACT-ESRTM and is used for performing analysis of the ESR process of interest.

The main focus of this article is to provide insights into this process by showing salient results from this modeling effort using typical processing parameters used for remelting specialty alloys. The results of the electromagnetic field distribution, temperature and flow field presented here are for a 0.356 m diameter electrode being remelted into a 0.432 m diameter ingot using a 0.127 m slag height.

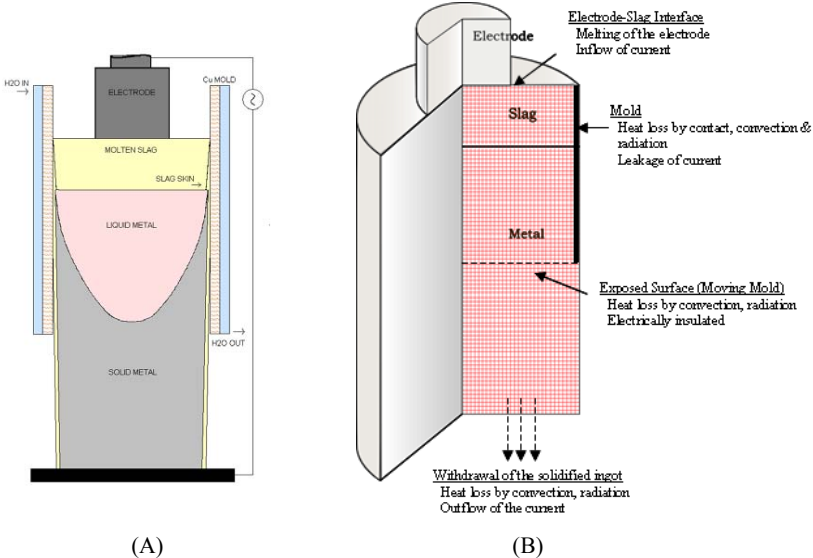


Figure 1: Sketch of the Electro-Slag Remelting process (A) and the 2-D axi-symmetric computational domain and boundary conditions at the interface and surface (B).

Modeling Results and Discussion

The electromagnetic field distribution in ESR is shown in Figure 3, and the computed results are consistent with those from an analytical model [7]. As the current enters from the electrode into the slag it diverges, due to a larger cross-sectional area and again redistributes as it enters the ingot due to smaller skin depth (~ 0.0762 m) in the ingot. This is clearly seen in the current density vectors shown in Fig 3-A. The current density within the slag is uniform except at the surface of the electrode, where as in the ingot, it decays from surface to the center, with a maximum of nearly 1×10^5 A/m² at the surface. The computed magnetic field distribution is shown in Fig. 3-B, the maximum field is in the slag, in the vicinity of the edge of the electrode. The computed electrode magnetic force, which results from the interaction of the applied current with its associated magnetic field is shown in figure 3-C. The force field is predominantly in the radial direction, towards the symmetry axis. Due to the divergence of the current at the edge of the electrode, the force field is also large in this region of the slag, with a maximum of 500 N/m³, under these operating conditions. The force in the metal, close to the slag-metal interface ranges from 300 N/m³ at the surface to 5 N/m³ at the center.

The calculated temperature distribution in the slag and within the entire ingot is shown in Figure 4-A. The joule heating in the slag under these conditions is nearly 247 kW, the maximum slag temperature is a few inches below the top surface, and is 1800^o K, which is nearly 250^o K above the slag liquidus. Under these conditions the pool is relatively shallow, with a depth of 0.127 m at the center. The flow in the slag is stronger than the molten pool as seen in Fig 4-B and 4-C.

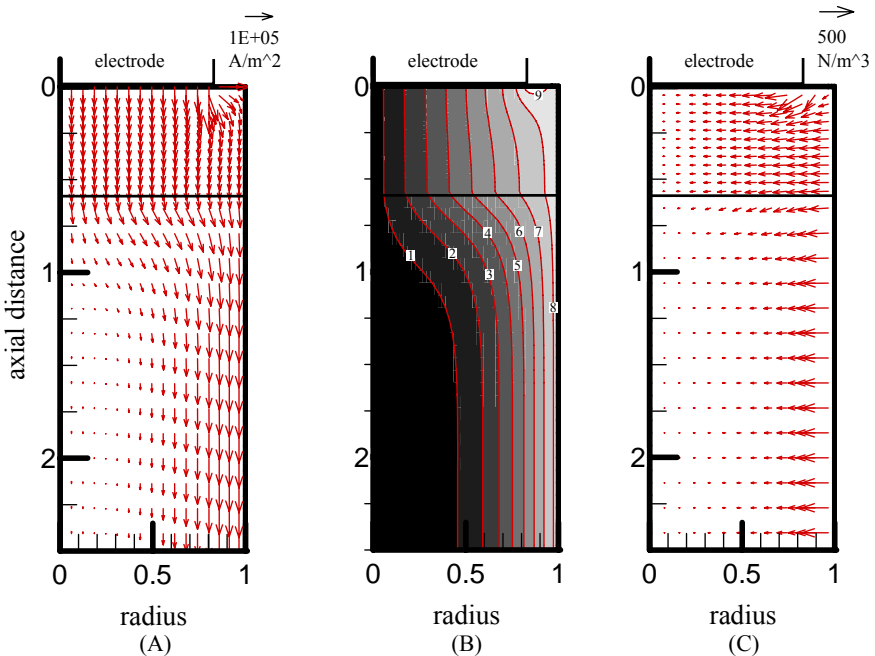


Figure 3: Calculated current density (A), magnetic field (B), and electromagnetic force (C). For the magnetic flux density, B field, there are 9 contours ranging from 5×10^{-4} T (contour 1) to 9×10^{-4} T (contour 9). The total applied current is 6.5 kA (rms), 60Hz. The axial and radial distances are normalized with respect to the ingot radius of 0.2159 m (8.5 inch).

In the slag, the computed flow shows two distinct loops, electromagnetic forces drive the flow in the counter-clockwise direction where as at the slag surface the clockwise flow is buoyancy driven. Whereas in the pool, the flow is buoyancy driven and is nearly an order of magnitude lower than that of the slag. The high values of the ratio of turbulent to molecular viscosity seen in Fig. 4-D indicate that the flow in the slag is highly turbulent, on the other hand, in the molten metal pool, the flow is nearly laminar and turbulence does not play a major role in heat distribution in the ingot.

Metallurgical parameters of interest like cooling rate, dendrite arm spacing and solidification time derived from the computed temperature distribution are shown in Figure 4-D. For a 0.4318 m diameter ESR ingot, the solidification time at the center is nearly 2500 Sec.

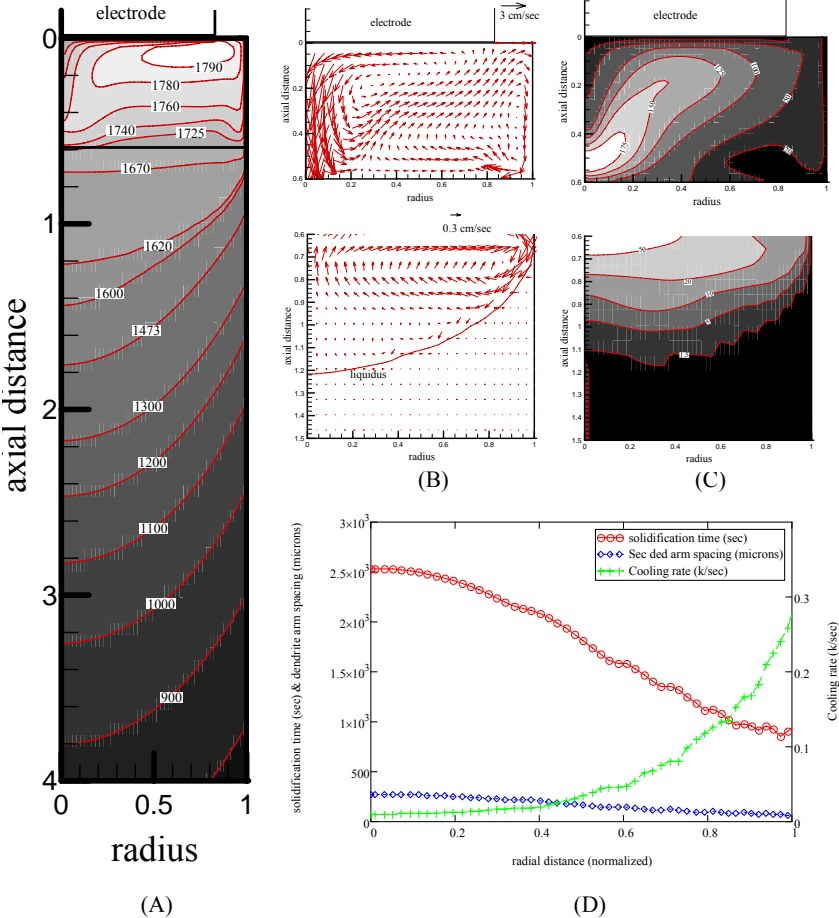


Figure 4: Computed results from the model for a 0.4318 m diameter ingot remelted at 6.5 kA. The steady state temperature distribution, in ⁰K, within the slag and ingot (A), flow in the slag and molten metal pool (B), the ratio of turbulent to laminar viscosity (C) and other parameters of interest (D). Metal properties and 60/20/20 slag properties were obtained from literature /14-17/.

Another parameter of interest to process metallurgists is the dimensionless Rayleigh number, because beyond a critical value the likelihood defect formation in the cast ingot increases considerably /18/. At higher values of this number, the inter-dendritic flow in the mushy zone becomes unstable, and promotes channel formation by shearing the dendrites which manifests in a freckle type defect in the ingot. The predicted Rayleigh number in figure 6 increases with increasing pool power, and is maximum in between the center and mid-radius of the ingot. As power increase, the pool gets deeper and the slope of the liquidus isotherm increases. There is considerable debate on the critical Rayleigh number beyond which freckle originates; however, once the maximum threshold is determined the model does provide guidelines for the optimum operating window for the process.

In order to examine the effect of alloy properties on temperature field, simulations were conducted for iron and nickel based alloys using the same melting parameters, geometry, side wall boundary conditions and slag properties. Only the alloy properties were different, and these values were obtained from the commercial software package JMatPro /19/. Results shown in figure 7 clearly indicate larger solidification range for alloys 718 and A-286 compared to the steels. Another interesting prediction is that as the liquidus temperature decreases, the molten metal head at surface increases. This in turn decrease the contact resistance at the surface is, and hence heat losses from the ingot mold contact region are higher, resulting in a shallower pool, and a slightly lower slag temperature.

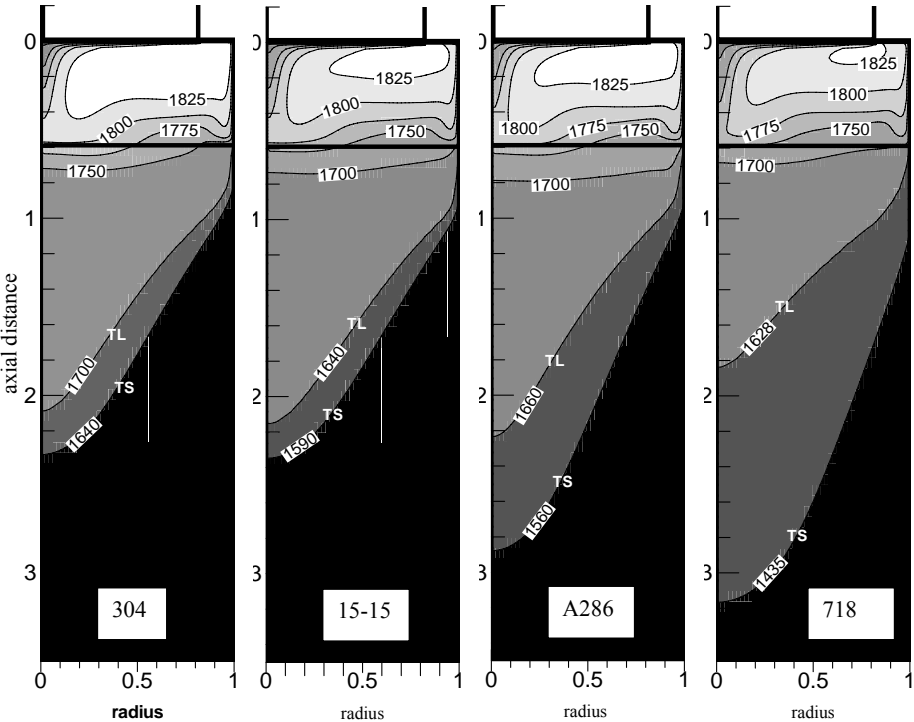


Figure 7: Computed ESR slag temperature ($^{\circ}\text{K}$) and pool profile for steels and high temperature alloys. The geometry, slag properties and operating parameters are identical in all four cases. Simulations were carried out at an operating current of 11 kA.

Simulations were also carried out to examine the effect of another key melting parameter, which is the diameter of the electrode to be remelted. Typically in a moving mold ESR process, the electrode diameter is lower than that of a static mold ESR process. Hence to illustrate these effects, simulations were carried out for a 0.508 m diameter ingot, processed using an electrode diameter of 0.356 m and 0.432 m, which represents a typical scenario for both moving mold and static mold ESR process. The slag height was held at 0.1524 m, and the current was also maintained at 11 kA in both cases. Simulations were carried out using thermo-physical properties of 304 stainless steel. Computed temperature distribution is shown in Figs. 8-A and 8-B. The slag temperature for the moving mold case is nearly 50°K higher. The pool depth shown in Fig. 8-B is also higher, 0.365 m compared to 0.305 m for the static mold. The mushy zone size remains relatively the same in both cases at 0.05 m. The joule heat density is plotted in figures 8-C and 8-D. As the electrode diameter decreases, for the same current, the joule heat in the slag increases considerably. Under these conditions, the total heat generated in the slag is nearly 20% higher for the 0.356 m diameter electrode. The difference in the nature of the flow field in the slag and the pool is minimal in these two cases shown in Fig 8-A and 8-B. The flow field in the slag has two recirculating loops as described earlier.

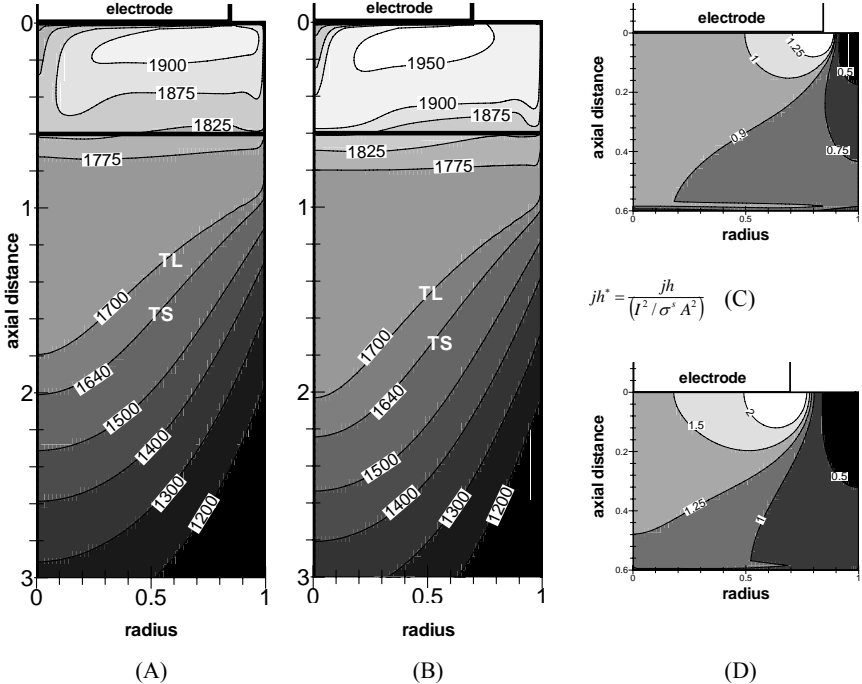


Figure 8: A comparison between the predicted temperature (°K) distribution in static mold ESR (A) and moving mold ESR (B) for a 304 stainless steel ingot at the same current. The predicted joule heat density in the slag: static mold (C), and moving mold (D). The joule heat density is normalized with respect to the ratio of the square of the applied current density (I^2/A_i^2) to the electrical conductivity of the slag, σ^2 .

Conclusion

A comprehensive model for the ESR process has been developed using a commercial CFD package, capable of predicting the electromagnetic field, flow, temperature distribution and metallurgical parameters that are of interest to process engineers in both moving mold and static mold processes. Analysis of the process using this model shows that the flow in slag is turbulent, driven by the strong electromagnetic forces, where as in the molted pool, the electromagnetic force is potential, and hence the flow is buoyancy driven and is weaker. The predicted Rayleigh number and solidification time are useful indicators for determining the upper bounds for key melting parameters. At lower power, the molten metal pool is shallow and shaped like a “bowl”, and as the power input increases the pool becomes more “conical”.

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CENTRIFUGAL CASTING OF COMPLEX GEOMETRIES: COMPUTATIONAL MODELLING AND VALIDATION EXPERIMENTS

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Abstract

Centrifugal casting offers one route through to high quality products in difficult to cast high temperature low superheat alloys. The coupling of free surface flows and complex rotating geometries, resulting in significant centrifugal forces, combined with rapid heat transfer and solidification yields a significant computational modelling challenge. The objective of the work reported here is to develop a comprehensive computational model of centrifugal casting that can reliably predict the macro-defects that arise from the process. In this contribution we describe:

- A computational framework for modelling the filling and solidification of centrifugal castings,
- a series of large scale centrifugal casting experiments with the full complexity of a target industrial system, together with
- a sensitivity study of a principal boundary conditions.

Introduction

Two of the principal drivers of the development of modern aircraft engines are the requirement for increased engine efficiency and reduced environmental impact. In part, this can be achieved by using new materials and new design of turbine blades. Materials which offer an attractive balance of properties and may show a path to achieving these goals often have to be formed into geometries which are difficult to manufacture. New materials in this field [1] tend to be highly reactive with the processing environment leading to other processing issues such as low superheat due to the use of induction skull melting. Components such as low pressure turbine blades which can best utilise the properties on offer tend to be characterised by thin aerofoil sections of a few millimetres thickness and hundreds of millimetres length. This results in limited filling of thin section components if casting using conventional gravity methods [2].

Centrifugal casting is an attractive method for the production of thin section castings as, under the action of the centrifugal force, metal can overcome the backpressure due to surface tension and fill mould sections with thicknesses substantially less than a millimetre. However, due to the low superheat and high liquid metal velocity developed there is a high risk of free surface turbulent flow and of the associated entrainment through free surface turbulence [3] and trapping of gas present in the flow [2]. It is therefore essential that casting process simulation tools are able to represent these effects.