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1	Investigation of the tribological and mechanical properties of
2	FeCrMoCB coating on AISI 52100 Bearing steel
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14	Abstract
15	This study examines the mechanical and tribological properties of FeCrMoCB amorphous coatings on AISI 52100
16	bearing steel using laser cladding (LC). Two samples with varying LC parameters were compared to uncoated polished
17	steel. Analytical methods included scanning electron microscopy (SEM), X-ray diffraction (XRD), microhardness
18	testing and tribological tests via a high-frequency reciprocating rig (HFRR) tribometer under both dry and lubricated
19	conditions, were employed. Sample S1 exhibited a microhardness five times that of uncoated steel and a 95% reduction
20	in wear volume loss under dry conditions. Under grease-lubricated, S1 showed a 20% reduction in the coefficient of
21	friction and a 93% reduction in wear volume loss. Sample S2 also outperformed uncoated steel. These results highlight
22	the significant benefits of FeCrMoCB coatings.
23	
24	Keywords: AISI 52100 steel, Fe-based amorphous coating, amorphous content, Laser cladding, wear resistance,
25	microhardness, tribological properties.

26 1 Introduction

27 Wear is the gradual, unwanted loss pertaining to material from mechanical components' surfaces. The 28 tribological qualities of these components are successfully enhanced by surface engineering technology, which applies 29 high-performance coatings to their surfaces to reduce deterioration. Amorphous and nanocrystalline materials, as 30 promising new materials, are becoming more and more popular in a number of industries because of their improved 31 mechanical qualities, which include strength, wear resistance, hardness, as well as corrosion resistance [1], [2]. Fe-32 based amorphous alloys are widely acknowledged for their exceptional mechanical, magnetic, corrosion, and wear 33 resistance properties [3], [4]. Still, their use is limited to powders, thin strips, and millimeter rods due to production 34 challenges and brittleness [5] To overcome the application limitations of Fe-based amorphous alloys, they are 35 fabricated into coatings, addressing room temperature brittleness and size constraints while retaining their inherent 36 properties. Surface coating technology effectively expands the functions of Fe-based amorphous alloys in 37 engineering by depositing a thin coating onto a substrate, thereby utilizing the alloy's properties and reducing material 38 costs [6]. The preparation of crack-free metallic amorphous coatings is challenging due to the thermal stress induced 39 during the laser-cladding process and the intrinsic brittleness of metallic glasses [7].

40 Various techniques are employed to prepare crack-free Fe-based amorphous coatings, which include plasma 41 spray, high-velocity oxygen fuel (HVOF), arc spray, laser cladding (LC) detonation spray, as well as many others. 42 Nevertheless, as the powder particles are sprayed in a semi-molten condition, they get plastically distorted and piled 43 on the substrate, which results in an amorphous coating with high porosity (2% to 5%) as well as low adhesion strength. 44 In comparison to other preparation techniques, LC offers several advantages, including rapid cooling rates (up to 1011 45 K/s), metallurgical bonding, simplicity in automation, low heat-affected zones, as well as no pollution [8]. Amorphous 46 coatings fabricated via LC technology exhibit notable benefits, such as minimized crack formation, low dilution rates, 47 precise size regulation, and straightforward scalability for industrial production [9]. Hence, employing laser 48 technology for amorphous coating preparation represents a novel surface processing approach that harnesses the rapid 49 heating and cooling properties of lasers, along with the respective advantages of amorphous alloys [10].

In recent decades, researchers have extensively explored LC utilization to prepare Fe-based amorphous coatings.
 Research has concentrated on the effects of scanning speed, laser power, powder feeding rate, as well as additional
 factors on the mechanical and microstructure characteristics of the resultant coatings [11]. To further demonstrate, S.

53 L. Wang [12] created Fe-based amorphous composite coatings with composition of а 54 Fe44.72C08.57Cr14.95M026.9C3.2B1.28Y3.01 (wt.%) by LC on mild steel surfaces. These coatings outperformed 316L 55 stainless steel in NaCl solution in terms of wear and corrosion resistance because they had fewer pores as well as 56 cracks and were metallurgically attributed to the substrate. Major elements (Ni, Co, Fe, Cr), small atom elements (B, 57 Si, C, P), as well as large atom elements (Y, W, Zr Mo, Nb) (MSL), are currently found in the more advanced Fe-based 58 amorphous systems [13]. Performance-wise, wear resistance as well as mechanical characteristics are the main areas 59 of study for Fe-based amorphous coatings, usually with a constant composition [14].

Enhancing the tribological performance of AISI 52100 steel is the goal of surface coating. The idea of creating a novel FeCrMoCB amorphous-crystalline composite coating layer that offers longer-term mechanical qualities and increased wear resistance is being investigated, which is unique. The macroscopic shape, microstructure, as well as performance of the cladding layer are influenced by several process parameters, each of which also impacts the others. In practical applications, it is essential to comprehensively consider various process parameters based on the specific requirements of the cladding layer. Hence, the present research fills the gap by offering the first evaluation of AISI 52100 steel's grease-lubricated wear resistance.

67

2 Materials and experimental procedures

68 The substrate material was AISI 52100 steel substrates measuring $15 \times 15 \times 4$ mm. As per the earlier research 69 [15], the substrates were polished utilizing 240-grit SiC sandpaper washed in an ultrasonic bath with deionized water 70 as well as acetone, followed by drying at room temperature. FeCrMoCB amorphous powder (0.75g) from LiquidMetal 71 Coatings® with a nominal particle size range of 20-80 µm as the coating material was preplaced on each substrate 72 using custom mold, evenly distributed with acetone, dried with a hairdryer under room temperature, and formed a 73 layer approximately 430 µm thick before coating deposition. Using a fiber laser device (ROFIN StarFiber 300, 74 Germany), the samples were created with a peak power of 300 W and operated at a wavelength of 1070 ± 10 nm. The 75 LC setup is shown in Figures 1(a), (b), and (c), which includes preplaced powder on the substrate, laser scanning 76 direction, overlap designations, and sample images before and after cladding.



79 Figure 1: (a) LC configuration, (b) laser scanning orientation and (c) visual representation of the sample post-

LC

80

78

81 The study involved the LC of two samples with different process parameters, each subjected to varying 82 parameters including scanning speed, laser power, as well as overlap percentage. A flow rate of 15 L/min of pure argon 83 was employed as a protective gas during the cladding process with a fixed working distance at 358 mm of laser 84 distance between the laser tip and the substrate for single-layer, single-pass cladding. The experiments were carried 85 out to obtain a laser-clad layer that is nearly or completely free of cracks. Table 1 lists the LC parameters wherein the 86 range of the laser power was restricted to 250-300 W in addition to the scanning velocity within 50-70 mm/s. With 87 the two optimized process laser parameters, at the substrate interface, consistent coatings with strong metallurgical 88 bonding may be achieved. All samples were sliced in the direction of the laser scanning once the cladding was finished. 89 Every specimen's surface was mechanically polished to a mirror-like finish.

Samples No.	Laser wavelength (nm)	Shielding gas flow (Ar) (l/min)	Laser power (W)	Scanning speed (mm/s)	Overlapping percentage (%)
1	1070	15	280	50	30
2	1070	15	300	70	50

91 The preparation of metallography of fabricated samples for cross-sectional analysis involved polishing with 92 sandpaper and diamond powder until a mirror-like surface and scratch-free was obtained. Then, followed by chemical 93 etching of Linsenätzmittel solution (70 mL HCl, 1000 mL ethanol, 40 g FeCl3, as well as 30 g CuCl2) for a duration 94 of 1 minute [16]. The microstructure within the coating layer (CL) was examined through SEM analysis. The 95 crystallinity of the coating was assessed using X-Raya Diffraction (XRD, Miniflex, Rigaku, Japan) with Cu radiation 96 (Cu K α , $\lambda = 0.1541$ nm). Amorphous materials exhibit a diffuse scattering pattern instead of distinct diffraction peaks 97 due to the absence of long-range atomic order. The crystalline size of each sample was calculated using Scherrer's 98 equation, where D as equation 1 [17] represents the crystalline size, K is the shape factor, λ is the X-ray wavelength, 99 β is the full width at half maximum (FWHM) in radians, and θ is the Bragg angle. The quantification of amorphous 100 content performed using the constant background method as equation 2 [18], [19] was analyzed with PDXL software. 101 Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) in conjunction with scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Phenom XL 102 Desktop) was utilized to analyze the phase as well as microstructure of laser-clad Fe-based alloy coatings. 103 Additionally, a Vickers microhardness tester (HV-1000, FALCON450G2) was employed to determine the microhardness regarding the cross-sections as well as post-processed coated surfaces. The tester was utilized with a 104 105 force of 10 kgf and a 10-second dwell period [5]. Microhardness was measured at three points on each CL surface, 106 and the average was calculated.

107

 $D = \frac{K\lambda}{\beta \cos\theta}$ (Equation 1)

$$Amorphous \ content \ (AC) = \frac{Area \ under \ the \ amorphous \ background}{Area \ under \ the \ XRD \ pattern}$$
(Equation 2)

109

108

110 The FeCrMoCB amorphous coating's wear resistance was evaluated by means of dry and lubricated sliding 111 wear tests, which were carried out in ambient conditions via a high-frequency reciprocating rig tribometer (HFRR) 112 along with commercially available AISI 52100 steel balls with a 6 mm diameter as counterparts. Figure 2 depicts a

113 schematic of the wear test. Prior to testing, two coating samples underwent polishing to achieve a mirror finish, 114 ensuring uniform surface roughness across the specimens compared to uncoated polished steel. As stated in Table 2, 115 the wear tests were carried out in both lubricated as well as dry settings. Approximately 0.2 grams of mineral oil-based 116 automotive grease (NLGI 3) were applied to the samples as lubricants. NLGI 3 grease has a thicker consistency, 117 ensuring it stays in place and provides continuous lubrication even under high pressure and movement. This is 118 particularly important for automotive and industrial machinery. To minimize experimental error, three replicated wear 119 tests were conducted, and the average values of both the coefficient of friction (COF) as well as wear volume were 120 presented. As per ASTM G133-02, weight loss is a standard method for assessing wear loss [16], [20]. Hence, wear 121 volume loss was computed via the formula $V_{loss} = (m_{before} - m_{after})/\rho$, in which V_{loss} represents the wear volume 122 (mm^3) , *m* denotes the measured weight of the samples before and after wear, and ρ is the density of the substrate [5]. 123 The wear scars on the sample surfaces after the dry as well as lubricated wear test were determined utilizing SEM.



124

125

Figure 2: Schematic of High-frequency reciprocating equipment

Table 2:	Wear test	conditions
I abit 2.	tool tool	contantion

Sliding condition	Dry	Lubricated
Load (N)	5	10
Sliding speed (m/s)	0.2	0.2
Room temperature (°c)	Room temp.	Room temp.
Sliding distance (m)	576	576
Stroke length (mm)	8	8
Friction time (minutes)	60	60

127 **3** Results and discussion

128 **3.1** Structural characterization of the coatings

129 The cross-sectional morphology pertaining to the LC coating is shown in Figure 3, which shows that there are no gaps 130 or cracks in any of the coatings because they are all completely merged with the substrate. Rapid heating causes some 131 of the substrate surface to melt and forms a metallurgical link with the coating, resulting in a slightly curved border 132 between the two materials [21]. On the surface of coating samples S1, there is a 50 µm-diameter pore. This happens 133 as a result of the molten pool's liquid flowing quickly and causing splashing, which causes small pores to grow during 134 cladding. Several pores with sizes less than 5 µm are seen on the surfaces of coatings S2, especially close to the 135 coating/substrate interface where the greatest number of pores is found. This happens as a result of the molten pool's 136 bottom gas being difficult to release during the LC process. Increasing the laser power enhances the coating/substrate 137 contact and gets rid of gas pores when the scanning speed remains constant. On the other hand, insufficient laser power 138 can also cause cracks and pores because of the existence of unmelted powder particles [22]. In contrast, high laser 139 power might cause cracks owing to excessive thermal stress [23]. Moreover, the ratio of the amorphous phase ratio 140 falls with an increasing amount of laser power.





Figure 3: The cross-sectional morphology of the coatings. (a) coating S1 and (b) coating S2

To compare how various power levels affect the coating's microstructure, coatings S1 and S2 were selected for observation. Figure 4(a) reveals that coating S1 contains relatively few grains, indicating a greater amorphous content. When comparing Figures 4(b) and Figure 4(a) together, it is evident that coating S2 contains a significantly higher number of grains compared to coating S1. This indicates that increasing the laser power encourages the coating's crystallization as well as a better metallic phase. Higher laser power leads to greater heat accumulation, minimizing the cooling rate in the Heat Affected Zone (HAZ) as well as raising the coating's grain size [24].





Figure 4: The microstructure of the coatings. (a) coating S1 and (b) coating S2

151 An EDS line scan was performed to investigate the coating as well as the substrate's element distribution, as shown 152 in Figure 5. Since the findings for both coatings are identical, just the EDS line scan result for coating S1 is shown. 153 The coating area shows a uniform distribution of elements, with higher levels of Fe, Cr, and Mo. Past research indicates 154 that adding trace amounts of Cr to amorphous alloys enables the formation of a protective surface film, effectively 155 preventing internal wear and corrosion [25]. Furthermore, by preventing Cr oxide from dissolving, Mo improves 156 pitting resistance while also maintaining the protective film and fostering chemical consistency [21]. The corrosion 157 resistance of the present Fe-based amorphous alloys is improved by Cr and Mo enrichment, making them ideal for 158 cost-effective, high-strength, and corrosion-resistant applications [26].







Figure 5: The EDS of the coating S1 and the line scan

161 **3.2** Amorphous content

162 The Fe-based amorphous powder's XRD patterns are illustrated in Figure 6. The usual halo peaks at 40 to 47° confirm 163 the powder's complete amorphous state, and there are other weak peaks representing crystalline phases. As a result, 164 the powders consist mostly of amorphous phases with trace amounts of crystal phases. The XRD patterns for two 165 samples of laser-clad coatings made at various process settings are shown in Figure 7, where the Full Width at Half 166 Maximum (FWHM) of the XRD peaks is used to quantify grain size. The two coatings display five crystal phases of 167 Fe, C, Fe₂₃B₆ Fe-Cr, as well as Fe₃C, and their diffraction peak positions are nearly identical. In the meantime, the 168 amorphous content of the different amorphous coatings is demonstrated in Figure 8. Table 3 shows the XRD analysis 169 for samples S1 and S2, detailing the FWHM and crystalline sizes at each peak, calculated using Scherrer's equation 170 as equation 1. From table 3, the average crystalline sizes are 6.34 nm for S1 and 6.27 nm for S2, indicating a subtle 171 structural variation and also highlighting a slight difference in crystallite size that may reflect structural variation 172 between the samples. FWHM analysis of XRD peaks, especially around 44.5° and 45°, shows that the sharper peaks 173 in S2 indicate larger crystallites, while the broader peaks in S1 suggest smaller grains or higher residual stress, which 174 correlates with the increased hardness in S2 due to enhanced crystallization at higher laser power.

175 In the meantime, the amorphous content of the different amorphous coatings was estimated using the constant 176 background method [27], [28] according to equation 2 as result illustrated in Figure 8. The coatings S1 as well as S2 177 possess a higher crystalline phase content, attributed to their maximum overlap of 50%. As adjacent passes overlap 178 during cladding, the overlapping areas re-melt as well as re-solidify, having higher overlapping percentages causing 179 thermal and residual stress that foster uniform grain nucleation and result in varied microstructures [29]. Since the 180 underlying coating is not exposed to air and cannot cool instantly, it will undergo crystallization. Both samples show 181 the presence of the same phases but with varying intensities. The relative peak heights suggest that coating S2 has 182 more of the crystalline phases Fe₂₃B6 and Fe compared to S1 attributed to its use of the greatest laser power at 300 183 W.



Figure 6: X-ray diffraction patterns of iron-based amorphous powder.





Figure 7: XRD patterns of Fe-based amorphous composite coatings: (a) S1 and (b) S2



samples S1 and S2

Dool		<u>S1</u>			<u>82</u>		
Position	2 0 (°)	FWHM (β)	Crystalline Size, D (nm)	2 0 (°)	FWHM (β)	Crystalline Size, D (nm)	
1	31.40	0.79	10.33	34.92	7.85	1.06	
2	35.10	3.56	2.33	37.46	0.76	10.89	
3	37.56	0.84	9.92	41.18	0.80	10.55	
4	41.32	0.89	9.51	43.84	0.75	11.34	
5	43.94	0.69	12.26	44.44	0.51	16.72	
6	44.52	0.55	15.59	45.82	1.68	5.13	
7	48.10	1.46	5.95	47.96	1.39	6.21	

 8	50.46	1.76	4.96	50.3	1.71	5.10
9	57.04	8.82	1.02	56.94	8.24	1.09
10	64.70	2.85	3.29	64.72	5.12	1.83
11	70.40	5.00	1.94	72.66	5.30	1.85
12	72.86	2.00	4.93	75.34	2.42	4.14
13	75.40	2.64	3.80	60.5	1.61	5.69
14	82.06	3.66	2.87	81.9	1.71	6.13

190







Figure 8: Amorphous content of Fe-based amorphous composite coatings.

These two coating samples exhibit a balanced combination that comprises both crystalline and amorphous phases, providing a combination of wear resistance, hardness, toughness, as well as thermal stability. Thus, the higher level of amorphous content in S1 is reflected by its lower XRD peak intensities, whereas S2, with slightly lower amorphous content, shows higher peak intensities. This indicates that S2 possesses superior crystalline quality or a greater proportion of crystalline material compared to S1. Supported by literature [30], this balance is crucial for effective coatings, making samples S1 and S2 ideal for achieving optimal coating performance in industrial settings.

199 3.3 Microhardness

The fluctuation in microhardness over the clad specimen's thickness is depicted in Figure 9. Because of the synergistic strengthening effect from the amorphous phase, intermetallic compound, as well as solid solution, Fe-based amorphous coatings have microhardness 3 to 5 times greater than the substrate. Figure 9 depicts the cross-sectional microhardness distribution of the coated samples utilizing a step distance of 0.1 mm from the surface to a depth of 1.2 mm coating. Consequently, figure 9(i) the microhardness in S1 rapidly diminishes as we move from the coating layer

205 to the diffusion layer. For sample S1, the microhardness at the top surface reaches approximately 1107 HV10, 206 gradually decreasing to 950 HV10 at the interface, and further down to 360 HV10 in the substrate. This shows that S1 207 has a more gradual change in mechanical properties, which might result in stronger bonding between the coating and 208 the substrate. Meanwhile in figure 9(ii) samples S2 the top surface exhibits a slightly higher hardness of around 1161 209 HV10, transitioning to 970 HV10 at the interface, and reducing to 350 HV10 in the substrate, showing a similar 210 hardness it sharply decreases. This could improve durability and performance under mechanical stress. Samples S1 211 and S2 maintain the highest hardness values near the surface, with S2 showing a gradual decrease from 1161 HV10 212 at the surface to approximately 200 HV10 at 1.2 mm depth. This gradient is typical for hard coatings applied on softer 213 substrates, ensuring a hard, wear-resistant surface while preserving the overall toughness of the component [31]. This 214 is because the scanning speed, laser power, as well as overlapping percentage profoundly influence the surface 215 microhardness profiles of samples by determining the extent and uniformity of surface hardening. Thus, it generally 216 produces deeper and more consistent hardening, as demonstrated most effectively in both samples.





Figure 9: Microhardness profile along the cross-section of fabricated sample's different location: (i) S1 & (ii) S2

As shown in **Figure 7**, the variations in microhardness between samples S1 and S2 are closely linked to the distribution of amorphous and crystalline phases. Regions exhibiting higher hardness correspond to areas with increased crystalline content, where the dense atomic packing and limited dislocation enhance structural integrity. Conversely, zones with a greater proportion of amorphous phases display lower hardness, as the disordered structure is more prone to deformation. The data in **Figure 7** clearly reflect this relationship, providing a visual representation of how the

224 phase distribution affects hardness. This correlation not only clarifies the mechanisms behind hardness variations but 225 also highlights the crucial role of phase composition in enhancing wear resistance and durability, key factors for the 226 coating's performance in demanding applications. The microhardness of the FeCrMoCB coating is the highest; the 227 cladding layer's average microhardness is approximately 1100 HV, 5 times greater than that of the AISI 52100 steel 228 substrate [32]. This is about the same hardness as typical Fe-based amorphous composite coatings [29]. This high 229 microhardness is attributed to the production of a greater fraction of amorphous phase in the coatings S1 as well as 230 S2, as indicated by the results of XRD patterns and microstructures. Simultaneously, the incorporation of Cr into the 231 composite coating has a strengthening impact on the supersaturated solid solution phenomena, which should be taken 232 into account [33]. In the appropriate Fe-Cr ratio, the coating under study in this research displays a dense atomic 233 accumulation condition. The coating is ideal for increasing the wear resistance of conventional industrial materials 234 because of its high microhardness as well as elastic modulus, which outperform those of common steel and alloy. 235 Overall, a higher overlapping percentage results in a thicker coating but with reduced microhardness. While the 236 coating's diffusion zone is widened by greater laser power, the coating's microhardness is unaffected. As a result, the 237 hard phase as well as the amorphous component have a direct impact on the coating's microhardness. Significant 238 details about the coatings' structural integrity and wear resistance are provided by this analysis, which is essential for 239 their application in high-stress environments.

- 240 3.4 Friction and wear properties
- 241 3.4.1 Dry condition

242 The main objective as well as prospective implementation of Fe-based amorphous composite coating, is to improve 243 the wear resistance of metal substrates as a surface modification material. Both coated and uncoated systems were 244 evaluated under identical conditions using an HFRR wear device with a fixed-ball configuration [26]. Dry sliding tests 245 were conducted to assess the wear performance of the coatings in the absence of lubrication. This method is essential 246 for evaluating how coatings behave under extreme wear conditions, as highlighted in previous studies. Khan H et al. 247 (2024) emphasized that such tests can reveal important wear mechanisms, particularly in high-temperature and 248 abrasive environments [34]. Additionally, Raushan et al. (2023) pointed out that these tests are useful in understanding 249 how coatings resist friction and maintain adhesion under severe wear scenario [35]. Based on this, dry sliding tests 250 were selected to simulate challenging real-world conditions for the FeCrMoCB coating. Figure 10 shows the schematic 251 diagram experimental setup on dry condition. Figure 11 depicts the findings pertaining to dry sliding friction as well

252 as wear tests conducted on polished steel, as well as the coated samples S1 and S2. Figure 11(a) demonstrates that the 253 composite coatings S1 as well as S2 have average friction coefficients between 0.14 and 0.16. This suggests that the 254 coatings samples wear uniformly during the friction process in dry conditions and have good consistency in their 255 macrostructure. Combining Figures 11(b) as well as 11(c), it is evident that S1 exhibits the least volume loss 256 (0.0000128 mm³) and consistently lower COF compared to S2, indicating superior wear resistance and stability under 257 dry sliding conditions. As observed in Figure 11(c), at the running-in stage, every curve quickly rose to a specific 258 value. Then, when the sliding distance rose (from 0-576 m), the friction changed into a rather steady wear stage 259 because of increased surface roughness as well as the tribo-layer's lubricating action. An elevated COF implies greater 260 difficulty for the wear ball to move around, hence raising the probability of adhesive wear [36]. The surface roughness 261 measurements for both samples, S1 and S2, were conducted before and after the wear tests under dry conditions using 262 the **3D** Alicona InfiniteFocus equipment. The initial surface roughness of S1 was found to be lower than that of S2 263 refer table 4, which had a significant impact on their tribological behavior. After wear testing in dry condition, both 264 samples exhibited increased roughness, with S2 experiencing a more substantial increase, further worsening its wear 265 performance. The COF, nevertheless, does not accurately represent wear resistance.





Figure 11: Tribological results for the polished steel, S6 and S7 samples under dry sliding conditions: (a) Average
COF; (b) wear volume loss; (c) the change of COF with sliding distance for the coatings.

271 Table 4: Surface roughness measurement before and after tribological testing in dry conditions 272 Roughness measurement, Ra (µm) Samples 273 Before After 274 Polished steel 0.137 0.353 275 **S1** 0.112 0.217 276 **S2** 0.124 0.237 277



278 279

tracks by dry conditions with three different magnificat



280 Measuring the actual wear volume is necessary for a complete assessment. Generally, by lessening extreme plastic281 deformation as well as preventing the spread of cracks, raising the hardness of steel can improve wear resistance[37].

282 Nonetheless, there is a complicated relationship between wear resistance as well as hardness. SEM images of wear 283 tracks under dry conditions shown in Figure 12 reveal that Sample S1 has the least surface damage, with minimal 284 grooves and smoother abrasive wear tracks, compared to S2 and polished steel, which display deeper grooves and 285 more severe wear features. The underlying layer of the hardness specimens had several tiny microcracks, as seen in 286 Figures 12(b) as well as 12(c). Since spherical carbides are a hard secondary phase, they tend to produce local stress 287 concentrations as well as facilitate crack initiation, as seen by the tendency of microcracks to form around them [37]. 288 As discussed above, Figure 13 illustrates the failure wear mechanisms on dry sliding friction of all specimens. Polished 289 steel shows the greatest wear scar depth, indicating less wear resistance than samples S1 and S2, which exhibit better 290 wear resistance despite microcracks, particularly in S2, due to pre-existing flaws. The AISI 52100 steel's surface layer 291 nanocrystal production reinforces the martensite matrix and prevents the spread of microcracks [38]. However, the 292 current wear test results show that the amorphous content as well as the crystalline phase composition, impact wear 293 resistance, and mechanisms during dry sliding under given loads. Thus, the S1 specimen demonstrated the best wear 294 performance.



Figure 13: Schematics of wear mechanism during sliding dry condition: (a) polished steel; (b) S1 and (c) S2

297 3.4.2 Lubricated condition

298 Grease is used in HFRR testing to simulate actual operating conditions where grease is used as a lubricant. 299 Approximately 0.2 g of grease was evenly spread on the samples to ensure consistent coverage and reliable results. 300 Figure 14 shows the schematic diagram experimental setup on grease-lubricated condition. When the conditions are 301 properly lubricated, Figure 15 shows how the wear volume and average COF during the stable stage vary with 302 amorphous content. Figures 15(a) and 15(b) show that S1 and S2 exhibit lower average COF values (0.09955 and 303 0.08971, respectively) compared to polished steel (0.1125). This reduction indicates that S1 and S2 have superior 304 frictional properties, leading to less resistance during sliding. In the friction pair, a higher COF means the wear ball 305 has more difficulty sliding, making adhesive wear more likely to occur [39]. Meanwhile, Figure 15(c) illustrates that 306 over the sliding distance, S1 and S2 maintain lower COF values compared to polished steel. Combining these 307 observations, Sample S1 stands out as the most effective in reducing friction and resisting wear under grease-lubricated 308 conditions, followed by Sample S2, which also surpasses polished steel in performance. In the grease-lubricated 309 condition, the lubrication layer reduced direct contact between asperities, which made the impact of surface roughness 310 less significant as result shown in table 5. Despite this, S1 still demonstrated better wear resistance due to its initially 311 smoother surface, while S2 continued to exhibit higher COF and wear volume, though to a lesser extent than in the 312 lubricated condition.







Figure 15: Tribological results for the polished steel, S1 and S2 samples under lubricated sliding conditions: (a) Average COF; (b) wear volume loss; (c) the change of COF with sliding distance for the coatings.





327 328

Figure 16: SEM images of the wear tracks by lubricated conditions three different magnifications: (a) polished steel; (b) S1 and (c) S2

The wear tests were conducted with adequate lubrication, but a higher frictional load than usual was applied to observe the worn morphology, as shown in Figure 16. In summary, the comparative analysis of these three figures reveals that S1 and S2 both exhibit superior wear resistance and lower friction under lubricated conditions compared to polished 332 steel. For every sample, straight wear signs denote abrasion wear, and rough marks represent adhesion wear. The 333 brittle-ductile-brittle mode is how wear debris is removed, commonly observed in metallic glasses (MGs) [40]. Where, 334 sample S1 stands out with the lowest average COF, minimal wear volume loss, and the most stable COF during sliding. 335 Figure 17 illustrates the failure wear mechanisms on grease-lubricated sliding friction of all specimens. The S2 336 samples exhibit the least wear scar depth, indicating superior wear resistance compared to S1 and polished steel. To 337 minimize wear volume and enhance wear resistance, it is beneficial to avoid excessive hardness as well as enhance 338 the spherical carbides' contents. Pertaining to AISI 52100 bearing steel, the main failure wear modes observed are 339 abrasive wear and fatigue wear [38]. The outcomes of the wear test demonstrate the improved wear resistance of the 340 FeCrMoCB metallic glass (MG) composite in both dry as well as grease-lubricated conditions.



341

Figure 17: Schematics of wear mechanism during sliding lubricated condition: (a) polished steel; (b) S1 and (c) S2
In this study shows that the FeCrMoCB coating significantly improves microhardness and wear resistance, with
Sample S1 reducing wear volume by 95% under dry conditions. This is attributed to its higher amorphous content,
which enhances crack resistance, while Sample S2's higher crystalline content improves toughness. Similar studies

347 confirm that coatings with higher amorphous content exhibit superior wear performance, as seen in Pan et al. [41], who

achieved 1280 HV0.1 hardness, and Si et al. [42], who reported 90.23% amorphous content leading to improved wear

- 349 resistance. These findings reinforce the importance of phase balance in optimizing hardness and durability, making
- 350 these coatings ideal for industrial applications requiring long-term mechanical stability.

351 4 Conclusion

352 In this particular work, LC effectively developed a new Fe-based amorphous composite coating on an AISI 52100 353 steel substrate. Through the formation of hardening phases such as Mo and Cr compounds and the reduction of 354 crystalline phase size, the research discovered sample S1 that boosting the laser power to 280 W and scanning speed 355 to 50 mm/s improves the amorphous content in the Fe-based cladding layer, hence boosting its hardness as well as wear resistance. Under a load of 10 kgf and 1000 HV, the FeCrMoCB amorphous composite coatings demonstrated 356 357 good wear resistance as well as exceptional microhardness. The coating's amorphous nature gives it a high hardness 358 as well as elastic modulus, which can drastically change the wear process and improve wear resistance. The amorphous 359 content had no discernible effect on the wear volume or the average COF values at the stable stage in either lubricated 360 or dry conditions. The combined impacts of the amorphous content, phase composition, as well as the size and 361 distribution of the crystalline phase led to the different morphologies on the wear tracks and the change in the wear 362 mechanism. These findings have promising industrial applications, particularly in sectors requiring enhanced wear 363 performance, such as automotive and aerospace. Future research should focus on optimizing the coating composition 364 for specific working conditions, such as extreme temperatures or high-load applications, to further improve its 365 durability. Investigating additional modifications to the coating, such as nanostructuring or adding reinforcement 366 phases, could offer further improvements in performance, making this technology even more attractive for practical 367 industrial applications.

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5 Credit authorship contribution statement

Mohamad Firdaus Saharudin: Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing
- original draft. N.W.M. Zulkifli & Mahmoud Z. Ibrahim: Validation, Writing – review & editing, Supervision,
Data curation and formal analysis. Y. Goh, A. Morina & R. Mehtab: Writing – review & editing, Formal analysis
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- 376 7 Declaration of Competing Interest
- 377 The authors state that none of their known financial conflicts or interpersonal connections could have influenced the
- 378 work that was published in this paper.

379 8 Declaration of Generative AI and AI-assisted technologies in the writing process

- 380 In order to paraphrase as well as modify sentence structures while keeping the original meaning, the authors employed
- 381 Quillbolt AI during the development of this work. Following their use of this tool/service, the authors took full
- 382 responsibility for the publication's content and reviewed and amended it as necessary.

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