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Effect of temperature and substrate geometry on single aluminium weld bead geometry deposited by Wire Arc Additive Manufacturing: proposition of an experimental procedure.

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Abstract

The study of the Wire Arc Additive Manufacturing (WAAM) technology is in expansion mainly thanks to its high deposition rate, its large range of available materials and its inexpensive and wide distribution of its equipment. Being able to control and predict the deposition geometry is a first step toward the technology mastering. To achieve this, numerous studies have focused on the investigation of welding parameters (such as current, tension and energy modulation) and deposition strategies (such as wire feed speed, travel speed, trajectory and dwell time) for a given material. This work proposes to consider two additional parameters, not yet studied, which are the temperature, at which the deposition is made, and the geometry of the substrate receiving the deposition. These two new parameters allow to consider experimental conditions closer to a real fabrication. This study investigates thus their effects on aluminium deposition thanks to an experimental procedure using a heating device and cylindrical substrates of different diameters. Simple simulations are performed to evaluate the thermal conditions of the experiment. From these simulations, a unique indicator is used to represent the whole process conditions. Welded beads are scanned and a circular model is used to model their cross-sections. The implemented experiment shows that the evolution of the dimension of this circle is linked to the evolution of the process conditions. Indeed, hotter conditions, induced either by a higher initial temperature or by different substrate geometries, generate a more spread weld bead. Knowing this trend allows to extract a model and opens the possibility to predict the weld bead dimensions.

Keywords

Wire Arc Additive Manufacturing; Thermal effects; Bead geometry; Experimentation

1. Introduction

For the last few years, the additive manufacturing (AM) technologies have known a huge success and their development has been the topic of numerous research. Not only are they implemented in various sectors (transportation, space, medicine, energy...), they also can have a positive impact on circular economy, remanufacturing or repurposing [1].

Among AM metallic machines, Direct Energy Deposition has the benefit of producing large structures at a high deposition rate, especially Wire and Arc Additive Manufacturing that offers one of the fastest deposition rates and allows theoretically to shape any type of metal [2], [3], [4], [5], [6], [7]–[9]. Based

on the electric arc welding principle, it is a rather affordable technology that benefits of a machine park well established across all industrial sectors and all over the planet [10]. However, welding stations have been developed precisely for welding assembly but they still lack adjustments for applications in the additive manufacturing field. One of these limitations concerns the production of parts at the intended geometry and many studies strive to understand and reduce geometrical defects in WAAM [11], [12]. The management of the deposited geometry is crucial as even a deviation of a tenth in the expected dimensions leads to a mismatch of 1 mm subsequently to ten layers. To be able to achieve large component or near net shape manufacturing, the deposited geometry has to be mastered. This study proposes to enhance our knowledge on this topic by considering the effect of the thermal and geometrical environment of the deposition.

In order to set right the expected deposited geometry, various studies have been committed to link and understand the relationship between various process parameters and the output geometry, the latter usually being defined through the bead height, width and the area of its cross-section [13], [14]. Early studies have focused on the role of the input energy (arc voltage U and arc intensity I) and the amount of deposited matter, determined by the Wire Feed Speed (WFS) and the Torch Speed (TS).

Many studies link the evolutions of the weld bead geometry to the variation of the input energy and the amount of deposited matter such as [15], [16], [17], [18], [19]. In majority, these process parameters are grouped in a meta-parameter often called "heat input" which actually translates the distribution of the delivered energy per quantity or volume of deposited matter. For part production, other studies have investigated the influence of the chosen torch path strategy either for bead stacking [19], [20], [21] or for planar overlapping [22], [23]. They bring other parameters or criteria such as the interpass temperature or the dwell time, which introduces in a way the concept of the amount of thermal energy present before the new deposition. These parameters are thus linked to a notion of thermal conditions that highlights the importance of the temperature. However, this aspect remains highly complex as it depends on a large number of parameters such as: the material, input energy, amount of deposited matter, size and geometry of substrate and parts, as well as toolpath strategy. Conditions that define the thermal environment are multifactorial and could present internal interactions.

Different methods are implemented in order to improve the WAAM process or to avoid a drastic thermal evolution such as heat accumulation. One can enumerate cooling systems [24], [25], temperature measurements [26] or simulations [27]-[28], in order to optimize the manufacturing strategy and especially dwell times. However, in these cases, the temperature is not directly controlled and is only known or predicted at the beginning of the weld *i.e.* defined as a starting temperature. If it is accepted that hotter conditions tend to produce different geometries [29], the understanding of the temperature evolution during a fabrication and its impacts on parts geometry is still under-documented. Different approaches exist, some studies try to compile multi-physics model, such as thermal, fluidic, mechanic, metallurgical, electromagnetic [30], [31], [32] and [33]. Such complete models still required assumptions to be implemented [34]-[33], and they demand an important amount of calculation time to be achieved, especially when it comes to large parts. Their efficiency is proven but a more encompassing approach is favoured in this study with a phenomenological approach.

Another factor that is almost not considered in the literature is the substrate evolution and especially its geometry. Conditions have been investigated considering an incline start plate [33] but shape variations of the substrate need to be explored. During a usual additive manufacturing, the considered layer is built on the layer previously deposited. It becomes the new substrate and changes the part

geometry as it takes a new shape. Thus, during a fabrication beads are first deposited on flat plates in single track and then in lateral overlap configuration [35], or on wall summit [36] and inside block [37]. For cases with previous depositions, the substrate geometry is almost unknown and its influence on both temperature and bead dimensions on the next deposition is barely considered. In the configuration of a part being manufactured, after the first layer (a), the new bead is deposited either on top of a single bead in case of thin structures (b), or alongside another one in case of overlapping features (b), or on top of such features (d) with possibly another already existing bead on the same layer (e). Those configurations are gathered in **FIGURE 1** where substrate geometries are highlighted. Even if the second case (b) has been implemented several times, the influence of the substrate geometry on the geometry of the next deposition has been investigated yet in none of these cases.

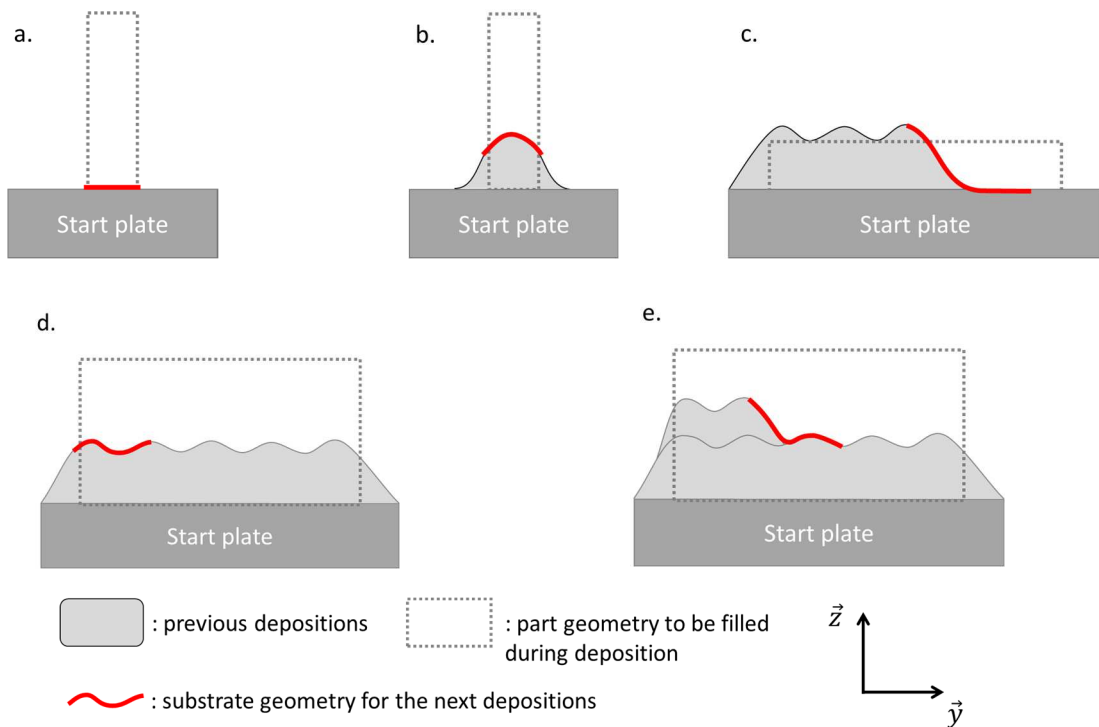


Figure 1. Different substrate geometries encountered during part manufacturing in WAAM.

Thus, in order to achieve the intended part shape after WAAM processing, it is required to control the process parameters. The method proposed in this study is to pilot the initial temperature in order to drive the temperature during the deposition and to establish its relation with the geometrical evolution of the deposited weld bead. The deposition temperature is an aggregate of various influencing factors such as input energy, materials characteristics and many others. It can be obtained thanks to a numerical simulation and can be defined for any part production.

Thus, the aim of this study is to propose a procedure to deposit weld bead under stable and known thermal conditions, faithful to manufacturing conditions, and to link the evolution of the weld bead shape to these conditions.

In order to implement a stable thermal environment, a heating device is used to set up the substrate temperature. Likewise, numerical simulations are used to know precisely the implemented temperature considering welding parameters, substrate geometries *etc.*

In the following sections, this experimental procedure is detailed and applied to aluminium Cold Metal Transfer (CMT) deposition as it has revealed to be a more efficient energy control technology to produce WAAM parts with higher quality [3]. The results are presented and discussed in the last section.

2. Experimental procedure

This procedure includes three main steps: beads deposition, thermal numerical simulations and beads geometry measurements.

First of all, single tracks are welded using identical welding parameters. They are deposited on substrates with different curvatures in order to reproduce conditions as close as possible to the reality. To do so, cylinders of different diameters have been used, as their form is closer to a typical weld bead shape as illustrated in **FIGURE 2**. Tests on flat substrates have also been carried out. A heating device has been used in order to establish stable and controlled thermal conditions, with the implementation of a numerical simulation that gives access to the temperature occurring during the process. After their deposition, the constructions have been scanned, bead cross-sections have been modelled through a geometrical model and characteristic dimensions have been extracted from it.

The following sections detail each step of this method.

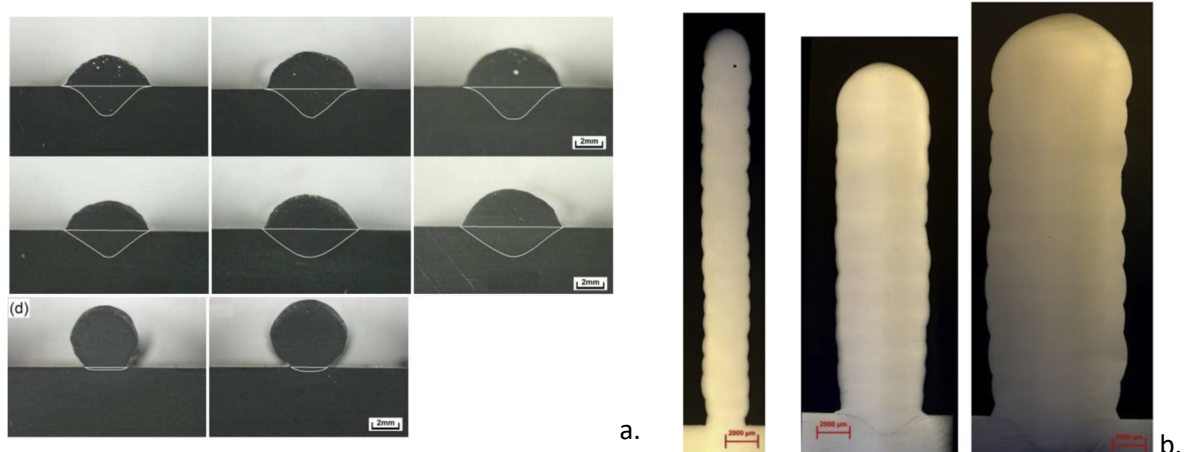


Figure 2. Examples of WAAM production recalling a circular shape for the cross-sections: a. [38], b. [39].

2.1. Beads deposition

A production of single beads in different conditions has been run out using a YASKAWA MA1440 Robot and a FRONUIS TPS CMT 4000 Advanced welding station. Beads were deposited in a 5356 aluminium alloy from a 1.2 mm diameter wire. Substrates, regardless of their form and dimensions, are made of a 5083 aluminium alloy. Other parameters that have been kept constant during experiment, such as the energy source regulation, *i.e.* the synergic law, are gathered in **TABLE 1**.

Table 1. Unchanged parameters

Synergic law	875	[-]
Wire Feed Speed	5	[m.min ⁻¹]
Travel Speed	0.60	[m.min ⁻¹]
Gas Flow Rate	13	[L.min ⁻¹]
Distance torch/Substrate	15	[mm]
Travel Angle	90	[°]
Cross Angle	90	[°]

In order to change and control conditions in which the deposition is proceeded, two actions have been carried out.

First, the temperature of the substrate before the weld, later called the initial temperature T_{init} , is set up thanks to a heating device positioned as illustrated in **FIGURE 4**. A specific attention is given to these conditions: before any deposition, the necessary waiting time is respected in order to ensure that the whole surface, that will receive the new bead, is at the right temperature. It is controlled through temperature measurement thanks to a k-type thermocouple on several positions along the torch path as illustrated **FIGURE 3**. Five different T_{init} have thus been implemented: 25, 100, 200, 300 and 400°C. These temperatures are chosen to represent different potential manufacturing conditions.

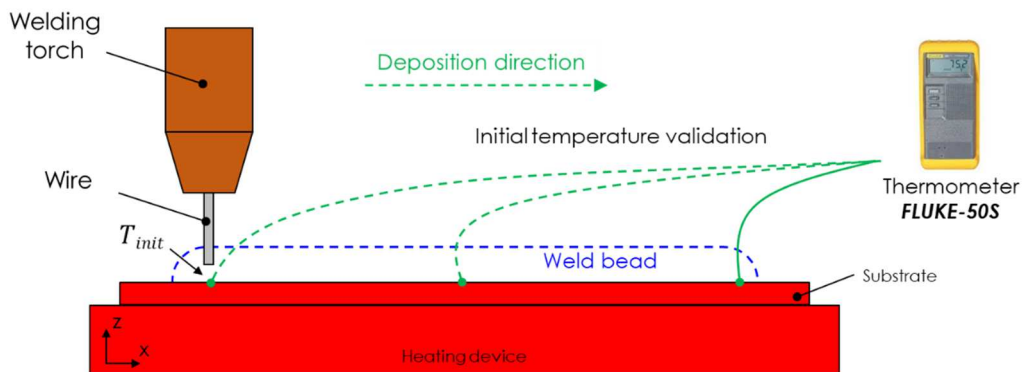


Figure 3. Ante-deposition temperature control.

Secondly, modifications of the geometrical environment have been pursued by changing the substrate curvature. Beads were thus welded on different substrates: on flat plates, 250x250x5 mm³, and on cylinders of different diameters (8, 9, 10, 12, 16, 20, 25, 30 and 35 mm). The cylinders are held in place on the flat plates by conducting spot welds at their ends. As previously presented, these different curvatures have been implemented in order to report if a flat substrate produces different bead geometry compared to a curved surface more often encountered during part production. They will also report if these surfaces have an influence on the deposition shape through their degree of curvature. The idea is to observe if beads of different curvatures, as exposed in the **FIGURE 2.B** and relative to different thicknesses, will generate a different geometry for the next deposition.

The use of cylinders will bring another consequence. It has been shown that the location of the deposition in its geometrical environment has an influence on ongoing conditions. In effect, it is well known that, at equivalent welding parameters, the first beads in a wall are deposited in different

conditions compared to those in the middle themselves different from those at the wall summit [26]. These differences, linked to the geometrical environment, witness the amount of matter available for thermal energy dissipation and storage in the immediate surrounding of the deposition. In consequence, changing the curvature of the cylinders leads to different size of these substrates and thus, leads to implement different capabilities of the deposition environment to extract and store the thermal energy. After deposition, it appears that for the two smallest diameters (8 and 9 mm), the thermal energy brought to the substrate is enough to partially melt it, gradually deteriorating its originally shape.

Across every set of parameters, the useful length of weld beads is equal to 60 mm.

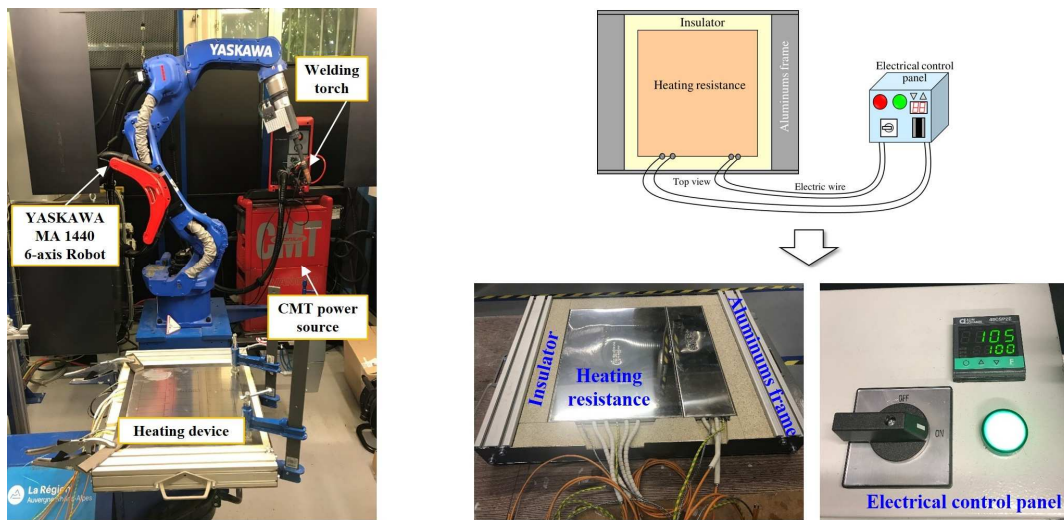


Figure 4. Experimental configuration

2.2. Numerical simulation

As the use of different substrate geometries leads to establish different deposition conditions, a numerical simulation is implemented to clarify these differences, especially in a thermal point of view. To do so, a common criterion is requested to gather all these different conditions under a unique indicator. In order to consider influence of welding parameters, initial temperature and of geometrical environment under a unique data, the indicator T_{dep} is introduced. This indicator is obtained using a numerical simulation, whose parameters are exposed and verified according to [40] and [41]. It is built from the substrate temperature criteria proposed by Chergui and al. [42]. It could be associated to a pyrometer measurement under the Tool Center Point (TCP). Indeed, it corresponds to the temperature of the substrate portion under the TCP at each time step. It refers to the average temperature of nodes along the bead width and along 1 mm in the deposition direction as illustrated in **FIGURE 5**.

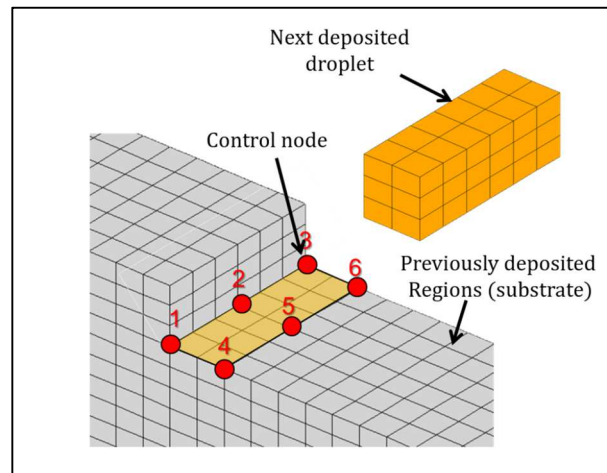


Figure 5. Substrate temperature criterion according to Chergui [42].

The numerical model has been built considering the geometrical variation of substrates. An example of the evolution of the substrate temperature criterion from Chergui across the deposition is given **FIGURE 6**. For single tracks, a stabilized zone can be identified where the temperature of the substrate is rather constant along the deposition. T_{dep_Stable} is thus defined as the average value of the substrate temperature along this stable zone. The length of this bead portion considered as stable is identical for each configuration and is equal to 60 mm. In this zone, the temperature is stable as far as its variation remains under $\pm 3.5\%$ around the average value. For the rest of this study, the criteria T_{dep_Stable} is used to account for the process conditions.

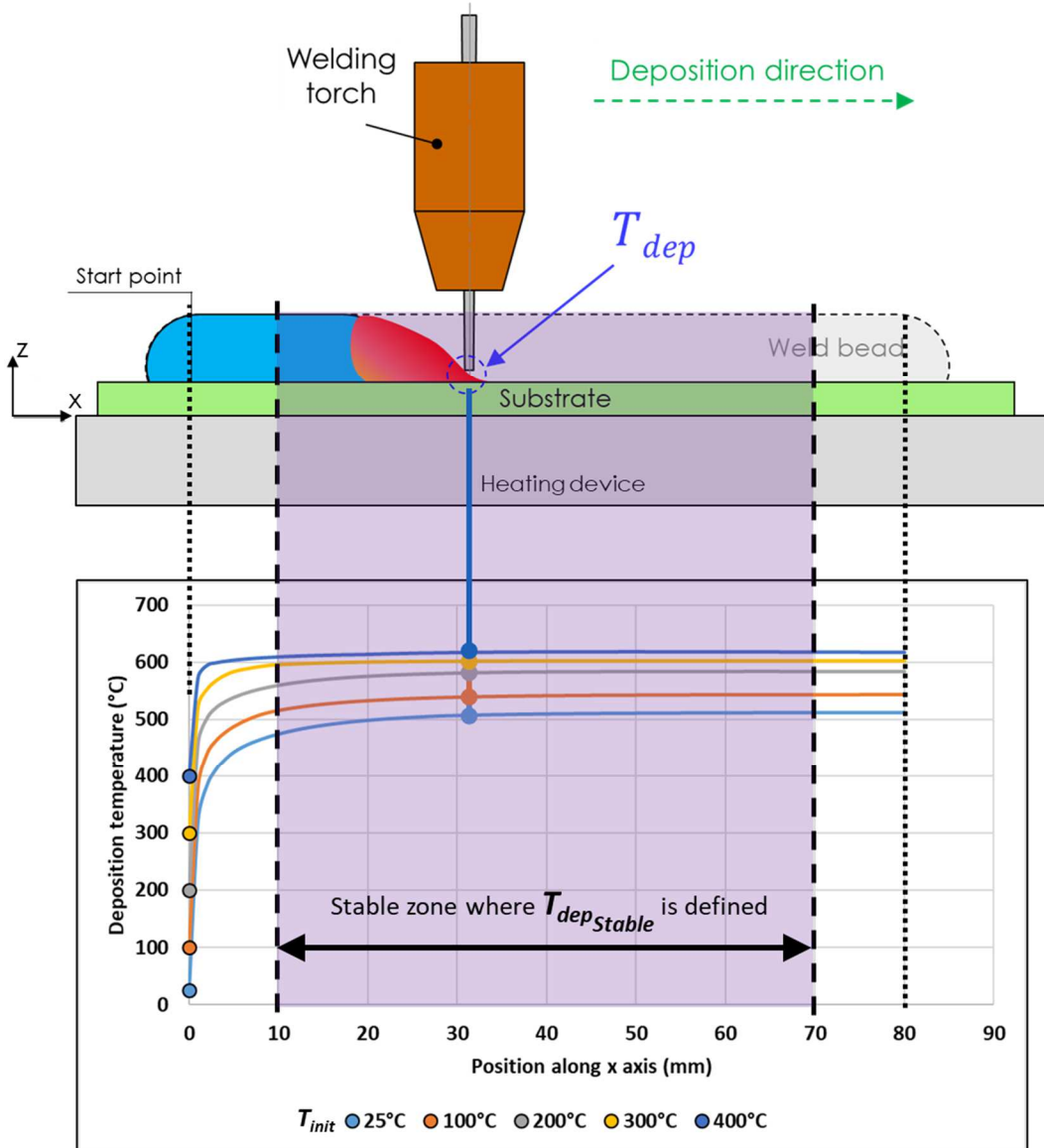


Figure 6. Surface deposition temperature of single tracks deposited on flat substrates under different initial temperature.

The evolution of $T_{depStable}$ is thus obtained, its influences from the initial temperature and from the geometrical environment are illustrated **FIGURE 7**. Most importantly, it shows that $T_{depStable}$ is dependent on the value of T_{init} as expected. It implies that we are able to select a range of value for $T_{depStable}$ according to the initial temperature provided by the thermal device presented in this work.

Secondly, it confirms that the geometrical environment provides an important contribution to deposition conditions during the process. Indeed, for a defined combination of welding parameters and initial temperature, there is a gap of at least 100°C in the value of $T_{depStable}$ between the smallest and the biggest implemented cylinder. Its contribution to the geometry of the deposited bead is still to be highlighted but it is already possible to say that the influence of the geometrical environment on the process conditions has to be taken into account and characterized.

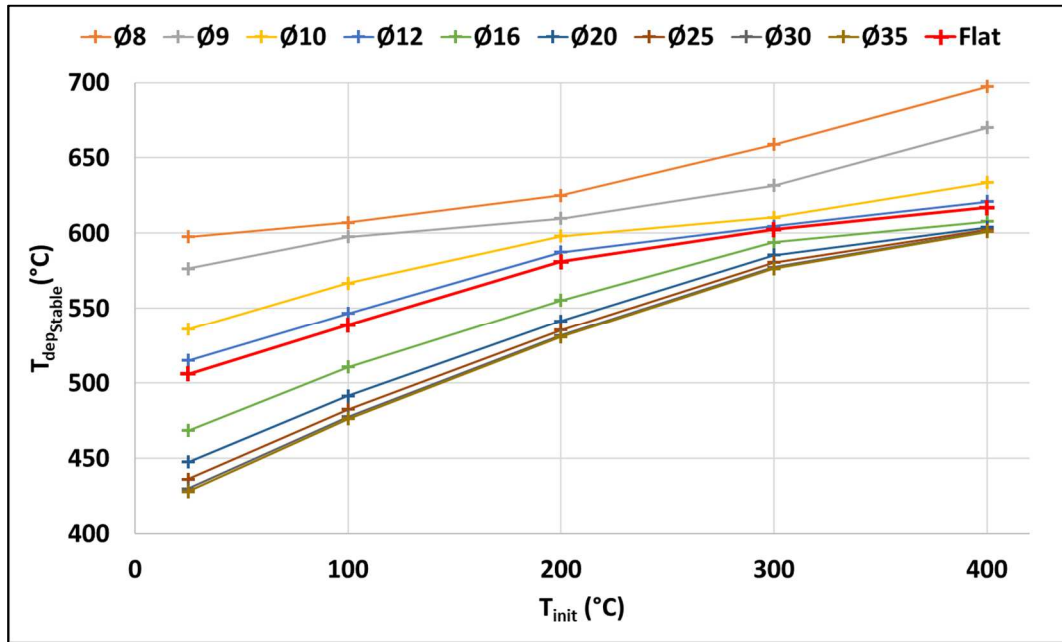


Figure 7. Evolution of T_{dep_stable} according to the evolution of the initial temperature and of the geometrical environment.

2.3. Scan and geometrical bead representation

As there is no *consensus* on any standardized method for weld bead measurements, and considering that these measurements bring uncertainty, a procedure is proposed and detailed in this study. After fabrication and T_{dep_stable} evaluation, beads deposited in these different conditions have been scanned with a 3D scanner HandySCAN 700. Numerical representations of the welds are obtained with a resolution of 0.05 mm. From those scans, bead cross-sections are extracted every 1 mm in the stable zone of welds identified in the previous section. Sixty clouds of points are thus obtained for every conditions as illustrated **FIGURE 8**.

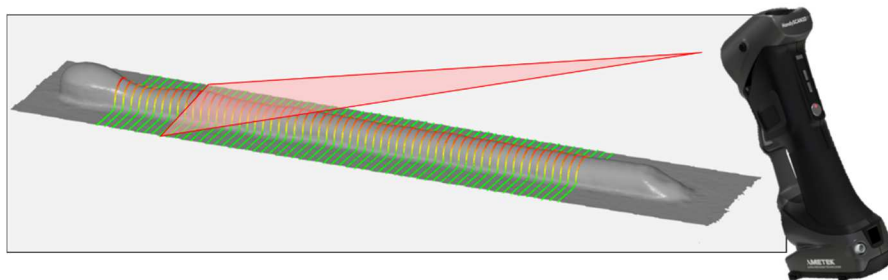


Figure 8. Illustration of the scanning process and extraction of the cross-section profiles.

Although these profiles are a collection of clouds of point, they do not provide characteristic bead dimensions. They must be assigned a geometric model in order to extract representative dimensions. For this purpose, several models exist in the literature for cross-section modelling such as circular arc, parabola, cosine, Gaussian, sine or logistic [43], [44]. In this work, the circular model has been chosen

since it is the lightest and cylinders represent faithfully the circular shape of beads cross-sections (**FIGURE 2**).

As detailed in **FIGURE 9**, rough profiles, recorded after scan analysis, are first straightened using profile feet, previously manually selected, in order to ensure that the highest point is correctly identified. Points belonging to the upper surface of beads are then identified from this highest point until a certain distance defined as a ratio β of the maximal bead highness. Only these points are used to fit the circular model. A relevant choice of β allows reducing results deviations. In effect, too few points induce an irrelevant modelling as a small deviation leads to drastic change in the data model. As illustrated at **FIGURE 10**, form incidents, induced either by the manufacturing or scanning process, may lead to an important error of modelling in case of a too small β ratio. These incidents can be limited or avoided with a higher ratio value.

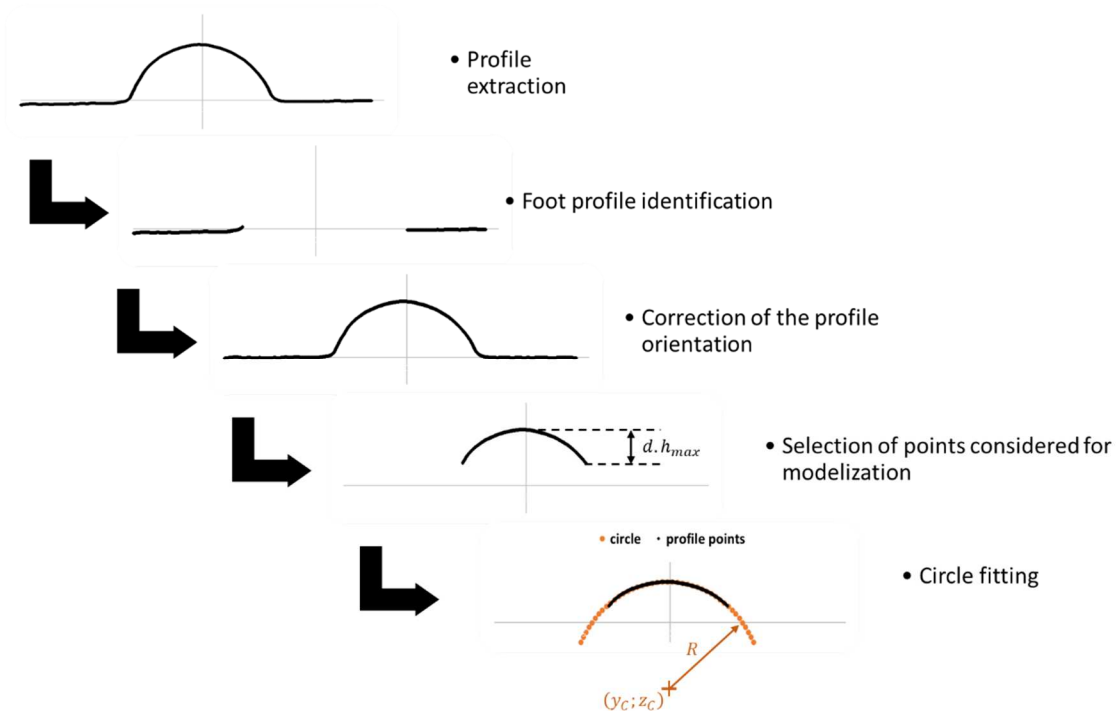


Figure 9. Algorithm of the cloud of point modelling into a circular model.

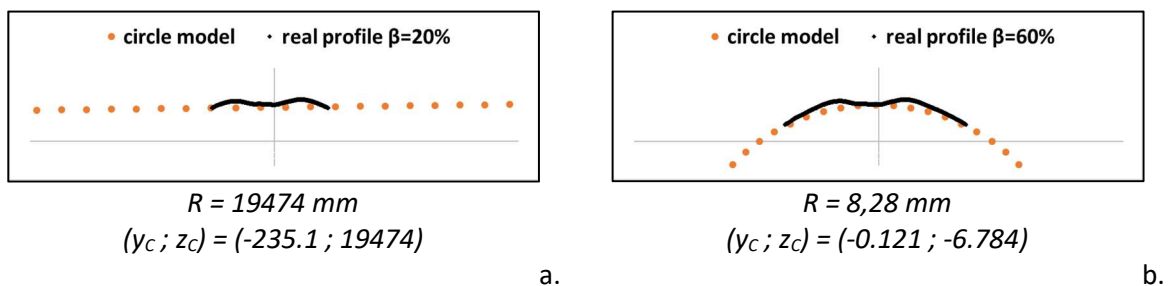


Figure 10. Illustration of an irrelevant (a) and relevant (b) choice of the β parameter with a profile of the experiment at 400°C on a flat plate.

On the other hand, a too high value of β may include points belonging to the bead foot that can be subject to errors during the scanning process due to access issue.

The circle model is fitted thanks to the least square method on these selected points. The main outputs of the algorithm are the radius of the circle, the coordinates of its center and the residue obtained according to **EQ. 1**.

$$residue = \frac{\sum (distance_{point\ to\ circle\ center} - radius)^2}{number\ of\ considered\ points} \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

In order to insure that this geometrical model and its implementation are able to represent correctly the bead cross-section, several dimensional criteria have to be verified. They include the area of the cross-section, as it witnesses the real amount of deposited matter, and both the maximal profile highness h_{max} and the width at mid-height $w_{h_{max}/2}$ which are dimensions used in the trajectory definition such layer increment or lateral bead overlap. All of these criteria are both extracted from profiles, as defined in **FIGURE 11**, and calculated from the circular model for the flat plates experiment. The comparison of the control dimensions k_i values (the maximal highness, the width at mid-height and the area under the curve) will be also used to determine the most efficient value of the β parameter among 20, 40, 60 and 80% as specified in **EQ. 2**.

$$\Delta k_i = k_i^{profile} - k_i^{circle} \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

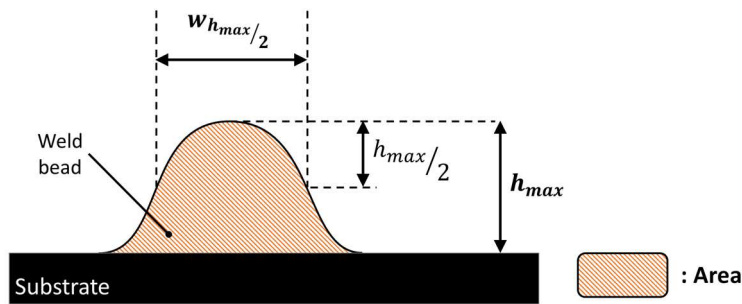


Figure 11. Definition of control dimensions.

The results of this comparison are gathered at **FIGURE 12**. They highlight that a value of 60% for the β parameter seems to be a good compromise and lead to a model very close to the scanned profiles: a deviation of few hundredths for h_{max} , a few tenths for $w_{h_{max}/2}$ and a few percentages of difference in the **area** of the cross-section. This value of 60% is chosen for compromise. Lower values are less precise to represent the amount of deposited matter (the **area**) or the width at mid-height. The last value of 80% was not chosen because it slightly loses accuracy to represent h_{max} while the bead cross-section **area** and $w_{h_{max}/2}$ are equivalent.

The β parameter is therefore fixed at a value of 60 % for the rest of this work. It also allows to validate the accuracy of the algorithm, which makes it possible to account for a sufficient precision for tracking potential evolutions due to changes of the process conditions.

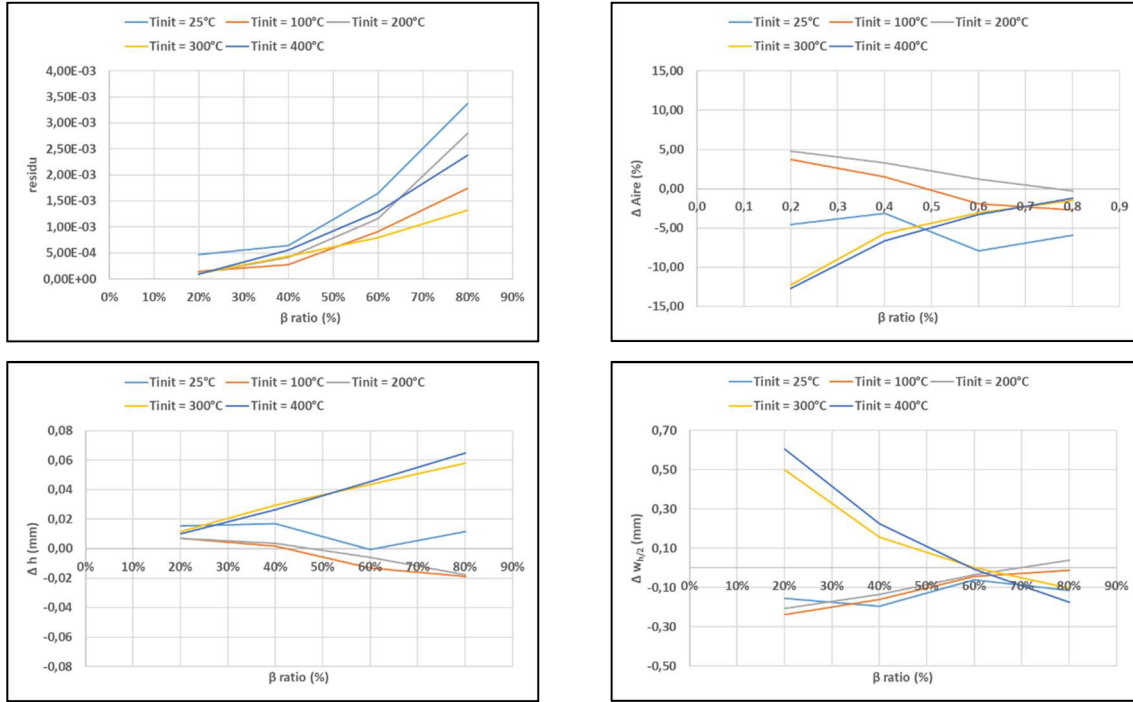


Figure 12. Deviation between direct scan reading and circular model extraction.

3. Results and Discussion

As the criterion T_{dep_Stable} is able to translate both thermal and geometrical condition at an appropriate level, it is used as unique indicator to transcribe the process conditions. This choice of representation seems relevant and is in accordance with the observation of the bead radius evolution according to T_{dep_Stable} . Highlighted in **FIGURE 13**, every conditions of different initial temperatures or of different substrates gather in a single trend where a hotter T_{dep_Stable} leads to larger value of the bead radius. Hotter thermal conditions induce a larger bead radius as both the viscosity and the surface tension of a hotter liquid metal are lowered, leading to an easier spread of the metal. Furthermore, this behaviour does not depend on the substrate geometry apart from its contribution on the thermal condition previously shown. As the total amount of deposited matter should not change, the width and height of the bead should evolve in consequence. It implies that knowing the thermal criterion is enough to predict these geometrical dimensions.

For such prediction, a model is proposed in **FIGURE 14**. It is built from the presented data set and by transposing T_{dep_Stable} into thermal energy per unit of matter, further called $E_{thermal}$ [kJ/kg]. Data for cylinders of 8 and 9 mm diameter are not considered as these conditions have induced a too important deterioration of substrates. Values for heat capacity and enthalpy of fusion are gathered from [41]. It is then possible to link the evolution of the radius of bead cross-sections to this thermal energy associated to T_{dep_Stable} using the formula expressed in **Eq. 3**. The correlation coefficient reaches about 0,858.

$$R_{bead} = 0,8124 \cdot e^{0,0015 \cdot E_{thermal}} \quad \text{Eq. 3}$$

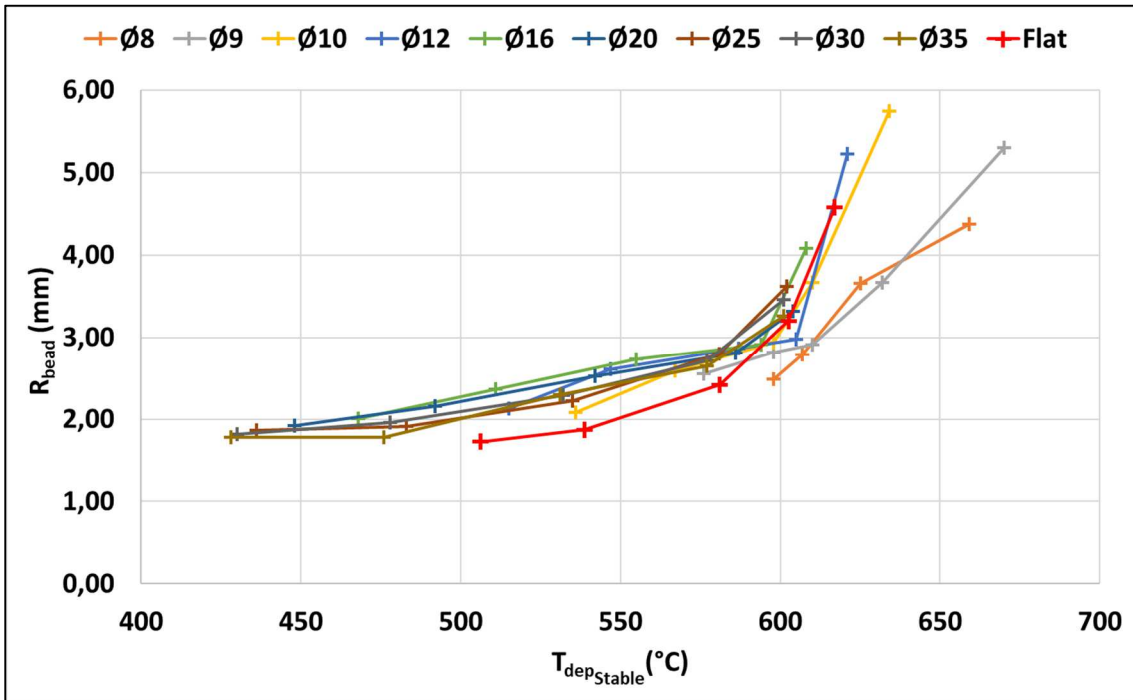


Figure 13. Evolution of the bead radius considering $T_{depStable}$.

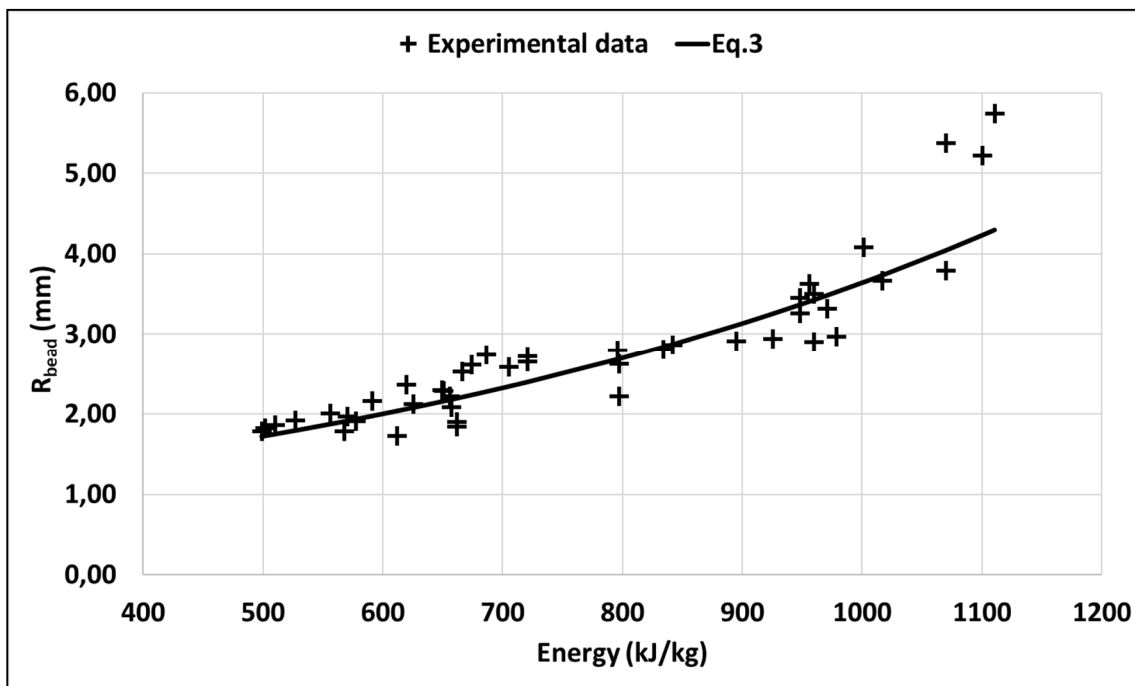


Figure 14. Evolution of the bead radius considering $E_{thermal}$.

4. Conclusion

The aim of this study is to propose a procedure to deposit weld bead under stable and known thermal conditions, and to link the evolution of the weld bead shape to these conditions. It has been shown

that the literature currently misses the consideration of both the thermal and geometrical environment in which the deposition is processed. This research work focused on implementing an experimental procedure to explore their influence on the bead geometry.

To do so, a heating device has been used to set up a desired initial temperature. Bead deposition has been then processed on a selection of different substrate curvatures thanks to cylinders of various diameters settled as substrates.

Numerical simulations have been computed to understand more deeply these conditions. They highlight a stable zone along the deposition where the temperature is considered as constant. From it, a unique indicator $T_{depStable}$ is extracted and used to represent these conditions.

Beads have been scanned after deposition. It has been shown that a portion of a circle can represent the cross-section of beads. Verifications have been pursued and a precision of few hundredths can be achieved to obtain the bead dimensions from this circular model.

Finally, the experiment highlights that the circle radius associated to the bead cross-section increases according to the rise of $T_{depStable}$. A model is proposed to link this dimension to the process conditions over the considered temperature range.

To conclude, the procedure exposed in this study allows to reproduce different thermal conditions which stability has been demonstrated through simulation and bead scanning. The variation of these conditions highlights the link between the weld bead geometry, the thermal conditions and the substrate geometry. The aggregation of the different factors influencing the temperature under a unique criterion $T_{depStable}$ is a key result of this study.

As perspectives, this work can be completed by considering various welding parameters such as tension, intensity, wire feed speed or travel speed, and by investigating different materials in order to enhance the predictive model. These equations describing the evolution of bead dimensions could also be used in realistic simulation to predict beads and part shapes produced by WAAM. They could ultimately be used to feed Computer Aided Manufacturing (CAM) software and help establishing toolpath trajectory or choosing optimised process parameters.

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