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Porosity testing methods for the quality assessment of selective laser melted parts

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ABSTRACT

This study focuses on the comparison of porosity testing methods for the quality assessment of selective laser melted parts. Porosity is regarded as important quality indicator in metal additive manufacturing. Various destructive and non-destructive testing methods are compared, ranging from global to local observation techniques and from quick low-cost to expensive time-consuming analyses. Forty test specimens were produced using five varying control factors. The experimental results show that Archimedes and CT methods compare well, Archimedes can be deployed to inspect parts in small series and CT pre- and post-cut analysis show that post-cut porosity results are systematically higher.

1. Introduction

Additive Manufacturing (AM) is seen as the core technology for future high-value engineered products and is expected to change the landscape of industrial production in the coming years [1,2]. It has tremendous potential for producing complex, individually customized parts in small-scale series [3]; however, standardized guidelines and methods for quality assurance and verification need to be developed [4]. Qualification approaches based on validated models and probabilistic methods are sought, as part-by-part inspection is time consuming and costly [5].

This study focuses on Selective Laser Melting (SLM) as metal-based AM technology for its versatility and capability to produce near full-dense parts. SLM produces parts by melting powder particles in a layer selectively, layer by layer successively. Final part properties strongly depend on the in-layer scan strategy and the layer-to-layer properties [6,7]. Although SLM is capable of building high-density parts close to the nominal density, due to process instabilities gas bubbles, oxides and unmolten particles may be entrapped [8–10]. Pores cannot be avoided completely and may act as nuclei for cracks leading to possible reduced mechanical properties [11]. Moreover, the morphology of the pores is related to the type of defect [12]. Relatively spherical pores are an indication of entrapped gas typically due to local overheating. In contrast, irregular elongated pores are an indication of unmolten particles typically due to insufficient energy (e.g. hatch pattern defects). Finally, the distribution and location of pores are indicative for the process conditions, and are therefore also useful information for quality assessment.

For part manufacture in general, SLM is still relatively expensive; therefore, one-off (high-value) products are more economically feasible than large series production. Hence, non-destructive testing methods are more favourable. To assess part quality, measuring part density or part porosity is essential [13]. In this paper, several methods for porosity detection are tested and compared: non-destructive methods such as Archimedes method, gas pycnometry and X-ray Computed Tomography (CT), as well as destructive methods as microscopic cross-section analysis. Archimedes and gas pycnometry are not capable of analysing fundamental porosity characteristics, while microscopic micrographs only allow investigation on a limited number of 2D cross-sections. On the other hand, CT has the potential to quantitatively evaluate the entire part for total pore volume, pore morphology, and pore distribution and location.

2. Testing methods

To validate the mechanical part performances for static loading conditions tensile testing is performed. Three responses are recorded, namely, yield strength, ultimate tensile strength and the Young's modulus. Advantages of this method are that it is well established, relatively inexpensive and easy to perform, and it is a good way to compare part (and material) properties in an experimental design. It is however a destructive method.

2.1. Density-based testing methods

Two density-based testing methods are studied: Archimedes method and gas pycnometry.

The Archimedes method is based on the difference in buoyancy of an object's weight measured in air and submerged into a fluid. Advantages of the Archimedes method are that it is non-destructive, relatively inexpensive and quick. It can however only be used to determine a global density value relative to the reference fluid. In this study, ethanol is used as the reference fluid and a Sartorius R200D electronic semi-microbalance is used to measure the weight. To compute the part porosity, the measured

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density has to be compared to the material's nominal reference density. A lower density value results from increased part porosity. Localized porosities, due to e.g. process instabilities, can however not be assessed individually. Internal defects should be closed not allowing fluid to infiltrate the submerged part.

In gas pycnometry, a pycnometer computes part density in an absolute sense by measuring part volume and part mass separately. Part volume is determined by gas displacement. In this study, a Micromeritics AccuPyc II 1340 Helium Pycnometer is used. Advantages of gas pycnometry are similar to the Archimedes method, although the equipment is a bit more expensive. The downside is the limited detection volume, allowing only relatively small parts to be measured. Analogously, only a global part density is measured, part porosity is computed by correlating a nominal reference density, and localized defects cannot be detected individually.

2.2. Porosity-based testing methods

In addition to the described density-based testing methods, two porosity-based testing methods are studied as well: microscopic analysis of cross-sections and X-ray CT.

In the first method, the sample is cut, embedded in epoxy resin, grinded, sanded with abrasive paper and finally polished, using Struers ApS equipment. A Zeiss Axioplan 2 microscope is used in this work to capture micrographs that are analyzed by Axiovision image processing software capable of automatic image stitching. A pre-elaboration of the image is required to remove any residual scratch of the polishing procedure and to get a binarized image after the selection of an appropriate threshold value. The porosity percentage can be calculated as the ratio between black pixels count and white pixels count, while the pore's area can be evaluated by knowing the pixel size of the image. This testing method allows for the assessment of pore size and distribution, giving more information than the density-based methods, but confined to specific sections of the specimen. Thus, for non-homogeneous distributions of pores, the obtained results are not representative of the entire part. However, the most relevant disadvantage is the destructive nature of this method together with the high cost in terms of material and time usage.

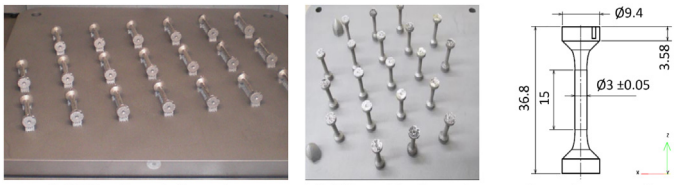
The second method, X-ray CT, has been recently utilized as innovative non-destructive measuring technique for internal porosity detection thanks to its capability of providing a complete analysis of size, shape, volume and distribution of pores/defects within the entire analyzed volume [14]. During a CT scan, a set of 2D X-ray projections is acquired at various angles as the sample, placed on a rotating stage and irradiated with an X-ray beam, rotates around the rotary axis. These projections are then used to reconstruct a 3D voxel (volumetric pixel) model of the sample, by means of a filtered back-projection algorithm [15]. Advanced segmentation algorithms can be applied after setting a grey value threshold to discriminate between air and the object material [16], and information about internal porosity can be extracted. Up to now, the most relevant drawbacks are the high cost and the high time usage. Moreover, the establishment of metrological traceability of CT porosity measurements is still a challenging task [17]. CT scanning was done using a metrological CT system (Nikon X-Tek MCT225) equipped with a 225 kV micro-focus X-ray source (min. focal spot size 3 μm), 2000 × 2000 flat panel detector (16 bit) and cabinet temperature controlled at 20 °C. CT volumes reconstructed in this work have a voxel size of $(9\ \mu m)^3$. The total CT porosity volume is measured using a threshold algorithm implemented in the software package VGStudio MAX 2.2.

3. SLM test part production

Following an experimental design, 40 tensile test specimens are produced and systematically analyzed using the aforementioned testing methods. Five process factors were varied in the SLM build process (see Table 1). For Factors 1–4, the centre point values are based on the standard process parameter settings. The step-size variation was chosen such to trigger distinguishable process responses and are therefore not always considered optimal process settings. Factor no. 5 determines the build orientation: one set of test specimens was oriented horizontally; the other set was oriented vertically with respect to the platform.Based on the five control factors a full factorial experimental plan of 32 parts was designed. Additionally 8 centre point parts were added to detect non-linearity and estimate error levels. All parts were produced using an SLM Solutions SLM280HL machine. Titanium alloy Ti6Al4V (grade 5) was selected as build material for its wide interest in aerospace, biomedical and industrial fields due to its fracture resistance, fatigue behaviour and corrosion resistance [18]. The build layer thickness was 50 μm. In Fig. 1(a) and (b) the printed specimens are shown for the horizontally and vertically produced test sets, respectively.

Table 1
Control factors variation for the SLM build process.

No.	Factor	Low	Centre	High
1	Laser power [W]	150	225	300
2	Energy Density [J/mm^3]	50	60	70
3	Focus offset [mm]	-3	2	7
4	Hatch distance [mm]	0.09	0.12	0.15
5	Build orientation	Horizontal	Vertical	



a) 20 horizontal parts b) 20 vertical parts c) part geometry

Fig. 1. SLM produced tensile test specimens.

After production, full annealing was performed at 735 °C for 2 h. Then, after fast cooling under a protective atmosphere, the parts were removed from the build plate. Thereafter the parts underwent a solution heat treatment (928 °C for 1 h) and ageing heat treatment (538 °C for 3 h) followed by fast cooling under a protective atmosphere. Finally a post processing operation by machining was performed. All centre sections were Ø3 ± 0.05 mm, the other geometries are specified in Fig. 1(c).

4. Comparison of porosity testing methods

Tensile testing, Archimedes and microscopic analyses were conducted on all test parts. Six selected specimens were further analyzed through gas pycnometry, CT, and additional sectioning and micrographing. Microscopic analyses were performed after tensile testing by cutting the much thicker section of the test part far away from the breakage point, thereby minimizing the influence of tensile testing. For CT, the relative porosity (complementary to relative density) was determined by the ratio of the total porosity volume to the total sample volume.

A new procedure aimed to compare microscopic analysis results with CT results was also developed. The specimen was CT scanned to identify the coordinates of a section of interest (e.g. a layer showing irregularities) before performing the cutting procedure. After the microscopic analysis of the obtained cross-section, a second CT scan was conducted on the cut part and a best fit alignment with the pre-cut scanned volume was addressed to identify the exact location of the cross-section in the pre-cut volume, where a 2D CT defect analysis was performed (same algorithm and thresholding parameters applied for the 3D defect analysis). Therefore, this paper distinguishes between CT results before and after the cutting and polishing operations; pre-cut and post-cut, respectively. Finally, specific pores lying on the cross-section of interest are measured using a high accuracy CMM equipped with image processing sensor (Werth Video-Check-IP 400; maximum permissible error equal to $(1.8 + L/250)$ μm, with L in mm) to get reliable reference values for pore areas.

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