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Wire and arc additive manufacturing of a Ni-rich NiTi shape memory alloy: Microstructure and mechanical properties.

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30 aerospace, robotic, and biomedical), as a result of their shape memory and superelastic
31 properties [1]. Both properties occur due to a thermodynamic and crystallographic
32 reversible martensitic transformation [2]. Although NiTi SMA research has taken place
33 for nearly six decades now, and has been implemented in several applications, SMAs
34 applications are still limited to simple geometries processed by laser [3-5], Tungsten
35 Inert Gas (TIG) [6], electrical resistance [7] or ultrasounds [8].

36 With the advent of additive manufacturing, complex shaped parts which could not
37 be obtained by conventional manufacturing routes are now possible [9]. The majority
38 of SMAs research work conducted to date has focused on powder-bed systems using a
39 laser [10,11] or an electron beam [12-14] as the heat source. The application of multiple
40 additive manufacturing techniques to create NiTi parts have been extensively described
41 by Elahinia et al. [15, 16].

42 NiTi parts created by selective laser melting (SLM) can exhibit superelastic
43 properties in the as-built condition [17] or after appropriate post-process heat treatments
44 [18,19] which incorporate compression techniques. A multi-scale shape memory effect
45 in SLM NiTi parts was also observed by Hamilton et al. [20] and this can be attributed
46 to a gradient of microstructures along the as-built part due to the thermal cycle imposed
47 during production [21]. Additionally, owing to the typically fast thermal cycles during
48 SLM, nanoscale precipitates such as Ni_4Ti_3 can be formed [22].

49 Some of the shortfalls of laser and electron beam powder-based additive
50 manufacturing techniques include the high costs of equipment and powder feedstock,
51 as well as slow production rates. Despite these limitations, these processes are still
52 extremely common due to no other fusion-based additive manufacturing technique
53 being capable of replicating the precision and accuracy of these processes at this time.
54 Another critical issue often found during SLM of NiTi parts is the lack of evaluation of
55 the part's mechanical properties under tensile conditions. Such can be attributed to the
56 high probability of defects, such as lack of fusion or porosity, that may occur in powder-
57 bed systems.

58 Wire and arc additive manufacturing (WAAM), which is an alternative additive
59 manufacturing technique, is capable of achieving high production rates at the expense

60 of geometrical tolerance. Here, a wire acts as the feedstock material while an arc-based
61 heat source promotes its deposition onto a substrate. As a result, three dimensional parts
62 can be created by the deposition of multiple layers similar to SLM. The use of WAAM
63 for the creation of metallic parts is often associated with a low number of defects,
64 provided that the process parameters are optimized [23]. As a result, parts created by
65 WAAM can be evaluated under compression [24] but also under tension conditions [25,
66 26], which further expands the potential application of this technique for more
67 demanding applications. The potential of WAAM to create large complex-shaped parts
68 with short delivery times has attracted the attention of the aerospace industry in this
69 technology. In fact, WAAM has been already successfully applied to the fabrication of
70 different metallic components, such as aluminum [27-30], titanium [31, 32] and steel
71 [33].

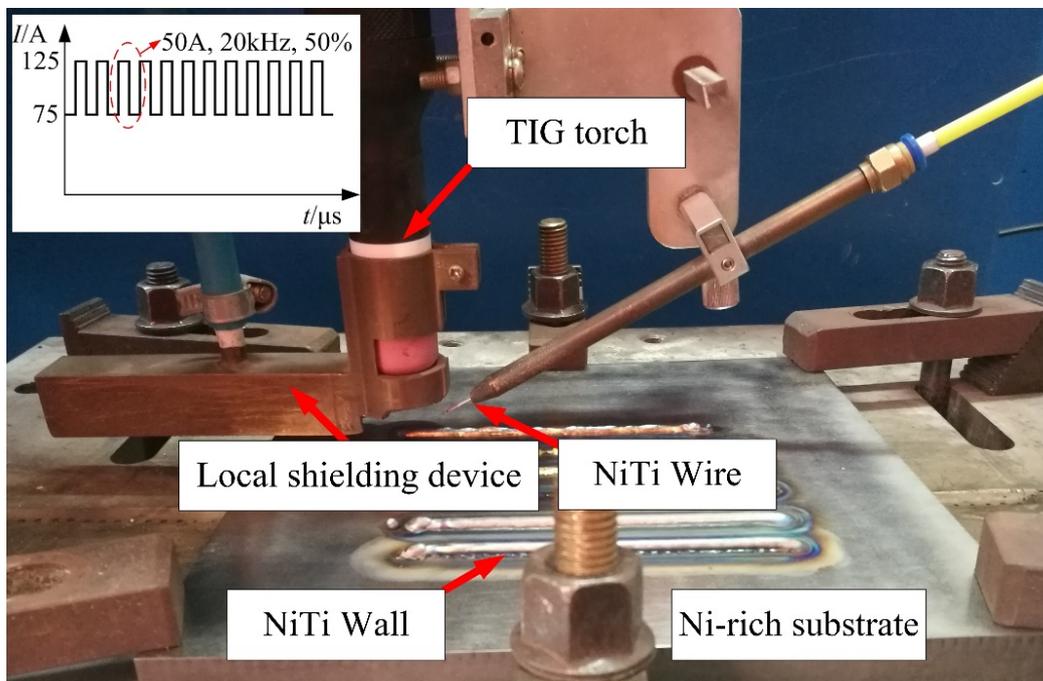
72 A preliminary investigation into the use of WAAM to create NiTi parts was recently
73 presented by Wang et al. [34]. The authors were able to create walls using Ni and Ti
74 wires, fed separately? into the weld pool. The as-built parts were mechanically
75 characterized, and the fracture strain ranged between 4.1 and 5.5%. No evaluation of
76 the superelastic response was performed, which is fundamental to understand the
77 feasibility of the WAAM technique to preserve this important functional property. It is
78 also noted the NiTi walls were created with a tandem-like system using two feedstock
79 wires. This option is technically more challenging than using only one feedstock wire
80 and may pose potential problems to control the composition of the as-built material,
81 which for NiTi shape memory alloys must be very precise [35].

82 Since there is commercially available NiTi wire, it is possible to use it as the
83 feedstock material. This solution has the advantage of using the exact composition
84 desired for the as-built parts, since most of NiTi wires available can be selected in
85 advance. Therefore, if desired, is it possible to select Ti-rich NiTi wire for parts to be
86 martensitic at room temperature, or Ni-rich NiTi to be austenitic at room temperature.
87 In this work, a commercially available Ni-rich NiTi wire was used to create walls with
88 WAAM technology. The microstructural evolution along the as-built part was studied
89 by means of microscopy techniques, differential scanning calorimetry and X-ray

90 diffraction. Additionally, the mechanical properties were evaluated using tensile testing
91 until fracture, and superelastic cycling. This is the first work on WAAM of NiTi SMAs
92 reporting the existence of superelastic behavior in the as-built parts under tensile testing
93 conditions. These results open the door for WAAM to provide a new means of
94 producing complex shaped NiTi shape memory alloys.

96 2. Materials and experiments

97 In this investigation, 0.7 mm diameter Ni-rich (50.5 at.%) NiTi wire was deposited onto
98 a NiTi baseplate using a conventional TIG torch as the WAAM heat source. The setup
99 is depicted in Fig.1. A direct current (75A) combined with an ultra-high frequency
100 pulse (current: 50A, frequency: 20kHz, duty cycle: 50%) was selected as the current
101 mode of the arc. A local Ar (99.99% pure) shielding device was used to minimize
102 oxidization. To create thin walls, the travel speed of the torch, wire feed speed, and the
103 Ar flow rate were set at 0.2 m/min, 0.9m/min, and 15L/min respectively.



105
106 Figure 1 Experimental setup of the WAAM process

107 Metallographic specimens were cut vertically to the deposited height. For
108 microstructural observation, these specimens were prepared using conventional

109 metallographic techniques. Then, the WAAM specimens were etched using a
110 H₂O:HNO₃:HF solution for 5 to 10 seconds. The as-built microstructure was examined
111 using an Olympus optical microscope, a JSM-6490LV scanning electron microscope
112 (SEM) equipped with an energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) system, and X-ray
113 diffraction (XRD). Vickers micro-hardness measurements along the sample height was
114 performed with a series of 100 g indents, held for 15 seconds.

115 The transformation temperatures were characterized by Differential Scanning
116 Calorimetry (DSC) following the ASTM F2004-05 standard. The heating/cooling rate
117 was set at 5°C/min. The transformation temperatures were determined as described in
118 the literature (DOI: 10.1088/0964-1726/25/8/085001).

119 Parts for tensile testing were obtained by wire cutting from the deposited layers along
120 the horizontal direction (X-Y in Fig.2a) with 40mm length and 1mm thickness, shown
121 in Fig.2b. An Instron 5548 micro-tensile tester was used to assess the as-built
122 mechanical properties of three samples at a strain rate of 0.4%/s. Digital image
123 correlation (DIC) was used during the tensile tests with a resolution of 4000 x 3000
124 pixels and a focal length of 50 mm, to evaluate local changes in the mechanical
125 properties of the parts. The fracture surfaces after tensile testing were analyzed by SEM.
126 The superelastic behavior under tensile conditions was evaluated by loading up to 6%
127 strain and then unloading to a zero-stress condition. 10 load/unload cycles were
128 imposed to the as-built WAAM NiTi parts. The accumulated irrecoverable strain after
129 each cycle was determined [36].

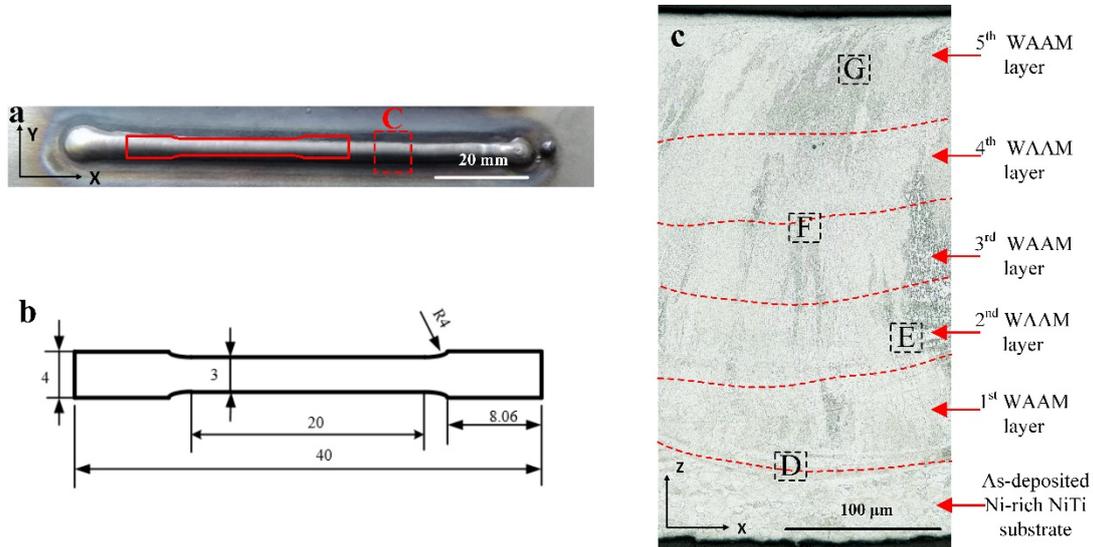
130 **3. Results and Discussion**

131 **3.1 Microstructure, hardness and chemical composition**

132 Fig.2a depicts the top bead appearance of the as-deposited NiTi parts. It can be seen
133 that the deposited beads are uniform throughout the deposition without evidence of
134 discontinuities. Additionally, the as-built wall is characterized by a bright silver color,
135 which indicates that no evidence of surface oxidation is present. This is of special
136 importance for NiTi, due to high susceptibility to oxidation at elevated temperatures,
137 which is known to degrade the mechanical and functional properties of the material

138 [37].

139 Fig.2c depicts the X-Z cross-section view of 5 deposited layers. Each layer was
140 marked using dashed red lines. Equiaxed grains are visible on the Ni-rich substrate and
141 these will support the formation of columnar crystals in the first deposited layer.



142

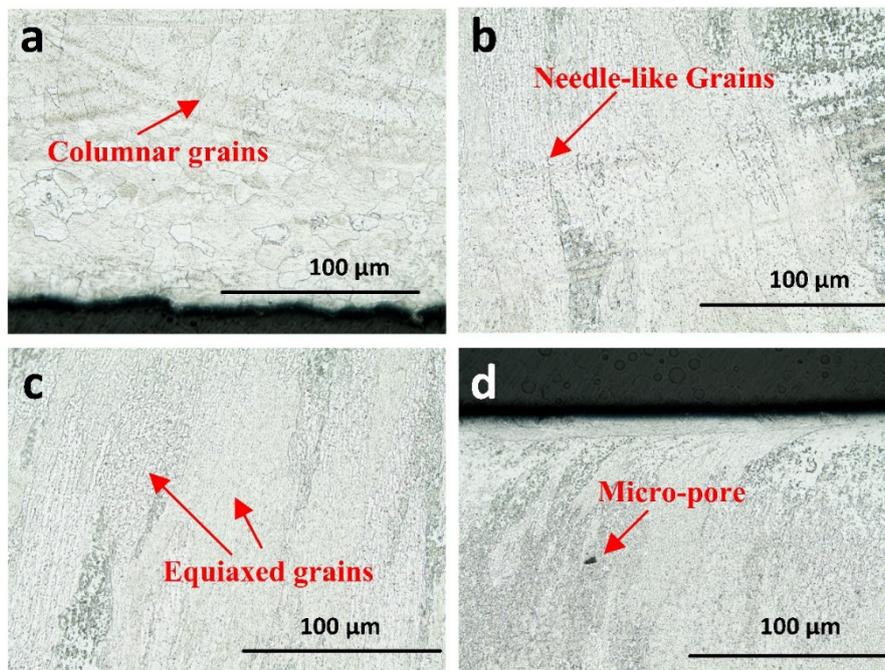
143 Figure 2 a) Macroscopic appearance of the WAAM NiTi specimens; b) Mechanical
144 testing samples dimensions (mm) c) Microstructure of the as-built part

145

146 The high cooling rate of the first deposited layer is enhanced by the cold and large
147 substrate which rapidly dissipates heat, further influencing a columnar-like
148 microstructure to form in this region, highlighted in Fig.3a. It can be observed that the
149 columnar grains in the first deposited layer present an inclination in the growth direction
150 towards the center of the fusion zone. These elongated grains occur as a result of the
151 heat source movement and of the large local heat flux from the center of the fusion zone
152 pool to the end of the weld pool tail (DOI:10.1063/1.5098371). With subsequent
153 depositions, the thermal gradient is reduced due to the intrinsically low thermal
154 conductivity of this class of alloys and lower cooling rates of the deposited material due
155 previous depositions, which creates a pre-heating effect. As a result, the columnar grain
156 inclination is limited as additional WAAM deposits are made. Partial remelting of the
157 already solidified grain occurs on the following deposition. Then, the existing equiaxed
158 grains at the top of the fusion zone grow by epitaxy, contrary to the direction of heat

159 extraction. As a result, needle-like grains are formed, and these are observed at the
160 interface of subsequent deposited layers shown in Fig.3b.

161 For the following depositions, the cooling rate decreases since the already
162 deposited layers promote a pre-heating effect. As a consequence, the as-solidified
163 microstructures change to an equiaxed morphology (see Fig.3c). Additionally,
164 compared with the microstructure in the first deposited layers, a noteworthy decrease
165 in the grain size occurs in the last deposited layer. The microstructural differences in
166 terms of grain morphology occur due to the different thermal cycle conditions
167 experienced, namely the decrease of the cooling rate with consecutive depositions of
168 material.



169
170 Figure 3 Microstructure of the NiTi WAAM parts cross section: a) magnified
171 microstructure of zone D; b) magnified microstructure of zone E; c) magnified
172 microstructure of zone F; d) magnified microstructure of zone G). Zones D to G are all
173 marked in marked in Fig. 2.

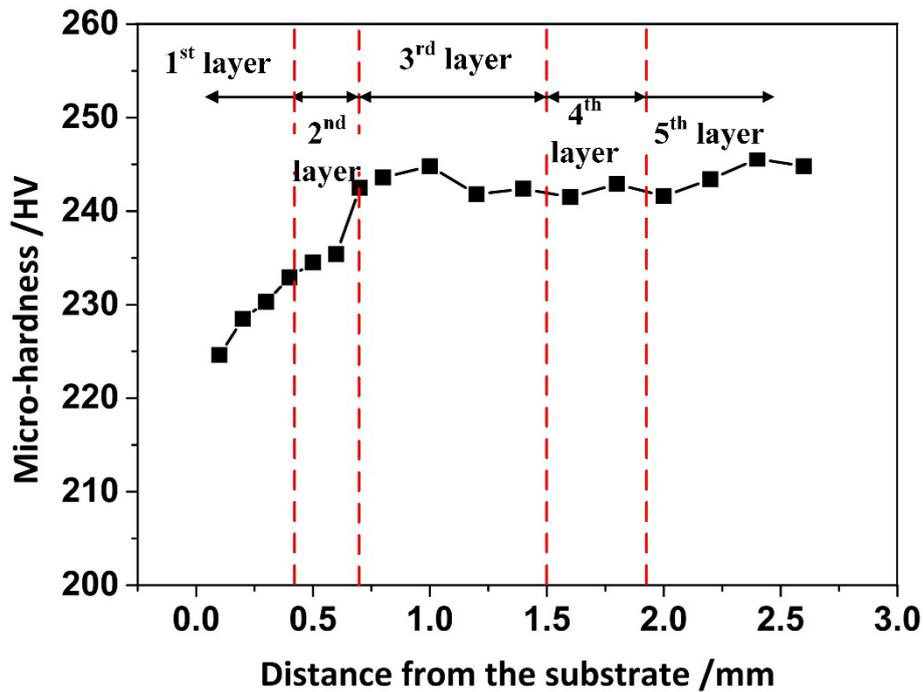
174
175 According to EDS analysis, the Ni chemical composition in zone E of Fig. 2c is
176 51.1 at%. Following the Ni-Ti the equilibrium phase diagram, for a Ni content of 53.5
177 at%, the expected stable phases below 400 °C are NiTi and Ni₃Ti [38]. Other metastable

178 phases, such as Ni_4Ti_3 and Ni_3Ti_2 , can precipitate and decompose to Ni_3Ti after long
179 periods at critical temperatures [34, 37-39]. The non-equilibrium conditions that occur
180 during WAAM prevented the formation of Ni_3Ti precipitates [40, 41].

181 For WAAM, the pre and post-heating caused by subsequent depositions, can
182 drastically impact the as-solidified microstructure and solid-state transformations of the
183 as-built parts. In opposition to welding, where columnar grains are typically prevalent
184 due to the fast cooling, which often lead to a deterioration of mechanical properties in
185 the fusion zone, in the NiTi WAAM parts, these columnar grains only formed in the
186 first deposited layer. It must be noticed that some micro-pores were observed in the last
187 deposited layer. These are probably formed as a result of entrapped gas during the
188 solidification process or due to some instability in the shielding gas flow [42].

189 The microhardness measurements performed in the centreline along the as-built
190 wall (Z direction in Fig.2c) are depicted in Fig.4. The first and second layers exhibited
191 lower hardness, from 228 to 236 HV, while the third and subsequent layers kept a
192 relatively constant hardness at 245 HV. The lower hardness in the first deposited layers
193 can be attributed to the different grain morphologies obtained: while for the first layers
194 the existence of columnar grains decreases the hardness, in the top layers the equiaxed
195 morphology is responsible for an increase in hardness [43,44]. It must be noticed that
196 unlike other materials that exhibit a martensitic transformation, such as steels, the
197 cooling rates does not highly impact the resulting hardness.

198



199

200

Figure 4 Microhardness along the NiTi WAAM specimen

2013.2 Phase transformation characteristics

202 The phase transformation characteristics of the as-received NiTi wire and as-built
 203 WAAM part were analyzed by DSC and the results are depicted in Figure 5. A summary
 204 of the transformation temperatures are summarized in Table 1.

205 Table.1 Transformation temperatures ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) of the WAAM specimen and as-received NiTi wires.

Materials	A_s	A_f	M_s	M_f
As-received NiTi wire	3.6	16.2	12.5	-2.8
WAAM specimen	-39.2	17.6	-5.4	-43.1

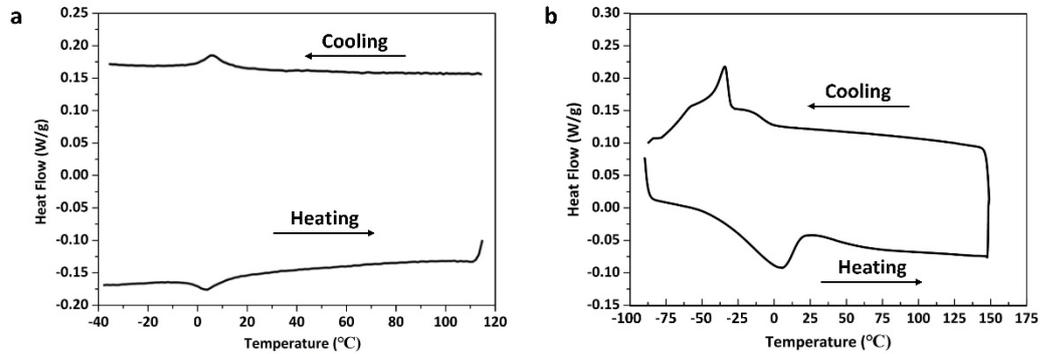
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207 At room temperature, the as-received NiTi wire and WAAM specimen are fully
 208 austenitic. The onset temperatures of the as-built part for both M_s and A_f were in the
 209 range of $-5.4 \pm 1.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ and $17.6 \pm 3.2^{\circ}\text{C}$, respectively, with a wider transformational range
 210 and hysteresis comparing to the as-received NiTi wire, which was measured to be
 211 $12.5 \pm 2.1^{\circ}\text{C}$ and $16.2 \pm 1.8^{\circ}\text{C}$. This change in the transformation temperatures can be
 212 related to the differences in grain size and development of residual stresses which are

213 known to influence the martensitic transformation in NiTi SMAs [45]. Similar results
214 were presented in *ref.* [34], where the transformation temperatures were all below room
215 temperature. The Nickel content increased from 50.5% on as-received wire to 51.1%
216 on deposited layers by EDS. For Ni-rich NiTi, an increase of the Ni matrix content by
217 1 at. % can drastically reduce the Ms temperature by more than 100 °C [41]. There are
218 multiple factors that can justify the differences in the transformation behavior of the
219 WAAM part compared to the feedstock material. First, the feedstock material, from a
220 microstructural point of view, i.e. grain size, composition and residual stresses, is
221 expected to be homogenous along its length. The same does not occur in the WAAM
222 specimen. As observed before, the grain size changes from the first to the last deposited
223 layer of the as-built part. Differences in grain size have been seen to influence the
224 martensitic transformation for NiTi alloys [46, 47]. For the WAAM part, there is the
225 development of residual stresses which will not be uniform throughout the part height
226 owing to the different thermal cycle conditions. As exemplified in [48], significant
227 differences in the transformation behavior may occur in NiTi processed with localized
228 heat sources, as in WAAM or SLM, as a result of the development of thermally induced
229 residual stresses. In addition, nanoscale precipitation, in this case Ni₄Ti₃, may also
230 change the matrix chemical composition which will modify the transformation
231 temperatures. Previous work on SLM of NiTi in *ref.* [22] reported the formation of
232 nanoscale Ni₄Ti₃. In SLM, the thermal cycle available for Ni₄Ti₃ precipitation is rather
233 small, compared to WAAM. Additionally, during WAAM, as a result of the heat
234 accumulation, it is expected that more favorable conditions for Ni₄Ti₃ precipitation
235 occur as the part is being built. Nonetheless, in WAAM, the time available for
236 precipitation of this phase is within the order of a few seconds, though the volume
237 fraction is expected to be significantly low [49]. Finally, there is the possibility of
238 nano/micro oxidation of Ti during building of the wall. Such oxidation will reduce the
239 available Ti in the matrix also promoting a change in the transformation temperatures
240 [37].

241 As described above, there are multiple possibilities to explain the differences in the
242 transformation characteristic of the WAAM NiTi parts compared to the as-received

243 feedstock material. Further research work is in progress to isolate how each one of the
244 aforementioned microstructural features contributed to the change in the transformation
245 temperatures.



246

247 Figure 5 Phase transformation of as-received materials and as-built NiTi WAAM part (a. as-
248 received materials b. as-built NiTi WAAM part)

249 X-ray diffraction was performed at room temperature to identify the stable phases
250 in the as-built material. The diffractogram depicted in Fig. 7 confirmed that the as-built
251 wall was fully austenitic at room temperature, thus in excellent agreement with the DSC
252 results. From the diffractogram it can be observed the existence of a strong $\langle 110 \rangle$
253 preferred orientation. The existence of a preferred $\langle 110 \rangle$ crystallographic orientation
254 in these WAAM NiTi samples can be justified by an abnormal grain growth
255 phenomenon which is caused by a decrease of the surface energy in this specific
256 direction (DOI:10.1115/MSEC2010-34250).

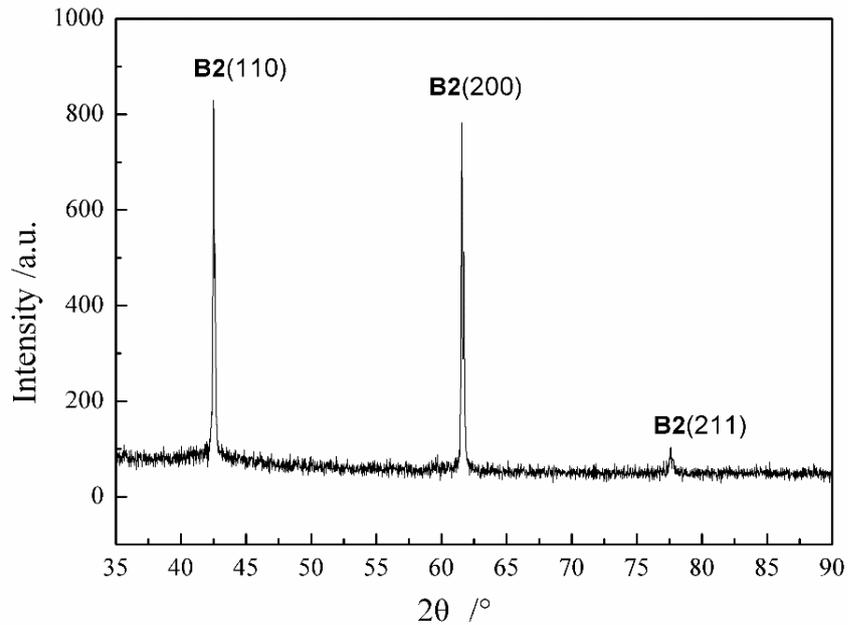


Figure 6 X-ray diffraction pattern of the as-built NiTi WAAM part

3.3 Mechanical properties

To evaluate the mechanical properties of the NiTi WAAM parts conventional tensile testing until fracture was performed. Three samples were analyzed and the typical stress-strain curve of the as-built wall is depicted in Fig. 7. The stress induced transformation from austenite to martensite was seen to occur at 352.8 ± 16.2 MPa and the tensile strength of the parts was of 571.4 ± 18.6 MPa with a corresponding fracture strain of $16.8 \pm 2.4\%$.

The analysis of Fig. 7 reveals the typical mechanical behaviour of an austenitic NiTi SMA: first, elastic deformation of austenite occurs; then, at around 350 MPa the stress-induced transformation to martensite takes places and proceeds at a near-constant applied stress. At the same time, detwinning of martensite is occurring. The next inflection point, at $\approx 10\%$ strain, denotes the onset for elastic deformation of detwinned martensite, which eventually started to deform plastically and then fracture occurs at $\approx 17\%$. The excellent tensile properties are evidenced by these mechanical tests and the existence of small pores in the last deposited layers does not greatly affect the overall performance of the as-built walls.

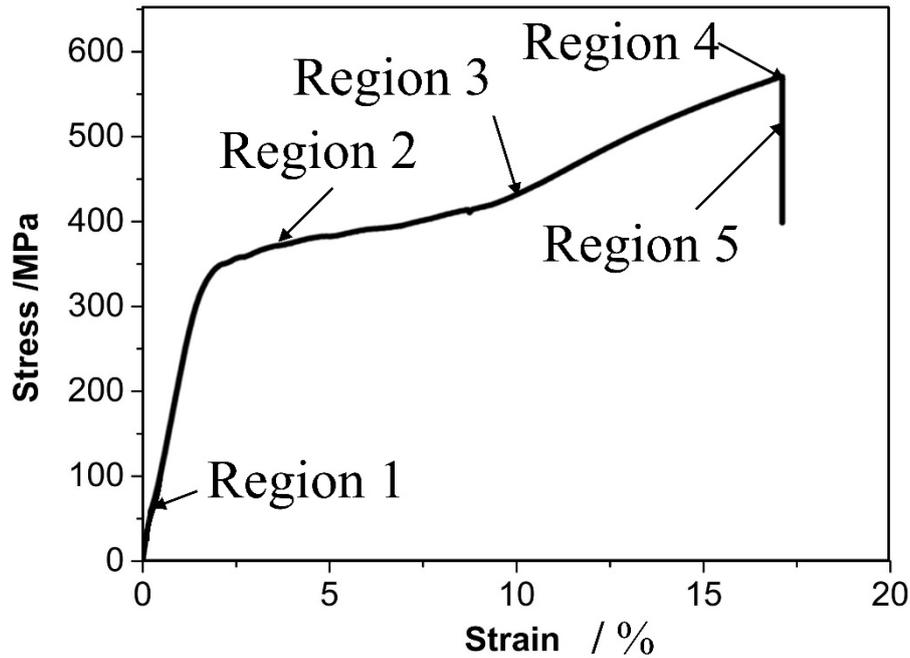
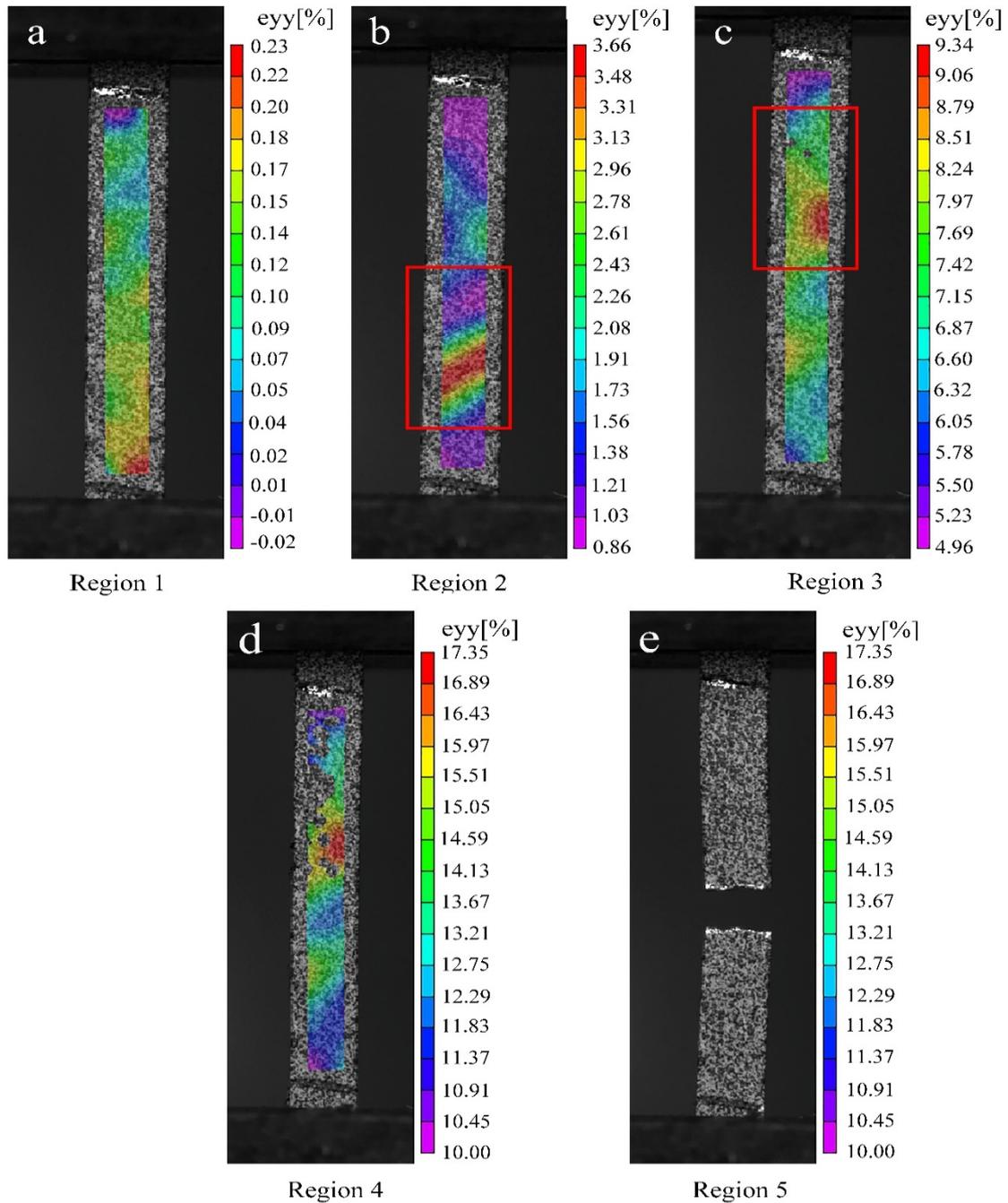


Figure 7 Representative tensile stress-strain curve of a NiTi WAAM specimen

During tensile testing, DIC was used for the analysis of the local mechanical behavior of the specimen at given representative applied stresses. These DIC contours are shown in Fig. 8a to Fig.8e. In region 1 which corresponds to low (≈ 50 MPa) applied external stress no significant strain localization occurs. When the stress onset for the martensitic transformation (≈ 350 MPa for these NiTi WAAM parts) is reached, the martensite bands start to nucleate as shown in the red box of Fig. 8b, which corresponds to region 2 of Fig. 7. These Lüders/transformation bands are highly mobile and occur at an angle of approximately 55° relative to the load direction in order to fulfill the requirements for macroscopic strain compatibility (least additional elastic deformation) between the undeformed and deformed regions [50, 51].

In region 3, corresponding to the onset for elastic deformation of detwinned martensite, there is remnescent evidence of Lüders bands on the top of the tested specimens (marked with a red rectangle in Fig. 8 c). At this point there is significant strain localization at one region of the sample surpassing 9 % strain. This strain concentration may arise from a local microstructural heterogeneity, such as a pore, that can act as a stress concentrator. This strain localization is even more noticeable prior to failure (region 4 in Fig.7 and Fig. 8 d) reaching a strain of 17%. At this moment no

294 evidence of transformation bands exist in the tested sample. The region where strain
 295 locallocation has occurred is where fracture occurs, which takes places for an external
 296 applied stress of ≈ 570 MPa and a corresponding fracture strain of $\approx 17\%$.



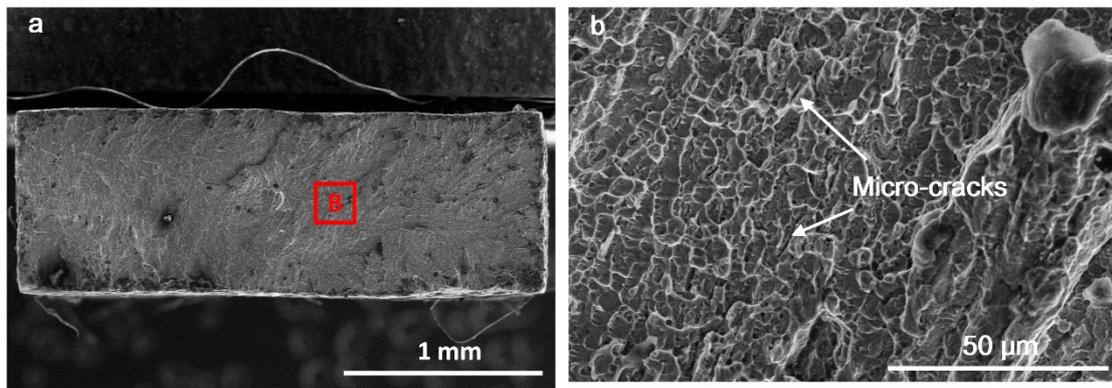
297
 298 Figure 8 Local mechanical properties of WAAM specimens measured using digital image
 299 correlation (a. strain distribution at 50 MPa; b. strain distribution at 350 MPa; c. strain
 300 distribution at 420 MPa; d. strain distribution at 550 MPa; e fracture)

301

302 SEM imaging of the fracture surfaces was performed after tensile testing (Fig. 9).

303 A ductile-like fracture surface is clearly observed, as evidenced by the existence of
304 dimples, which is in excellent agreement with the large elongation to fracture of the
305 WAAM NiTi parts. There are no signs of cleavage on the fracture surface. It is noted
306 that nucleation of voids, growth and coalescence are known to start on microcracks or
307 precipitates. Some micro-cracks along the equiaxed grains boundaries can be observed
308 in the high magnification image of Fig. 9b. These cracks can serve as preferential sites
309 for fracture initiation and propagation. The propagation of secondary microcracks
310 occurs as a result of the continuous changes in the local stress state during deformation
311 [52].

312

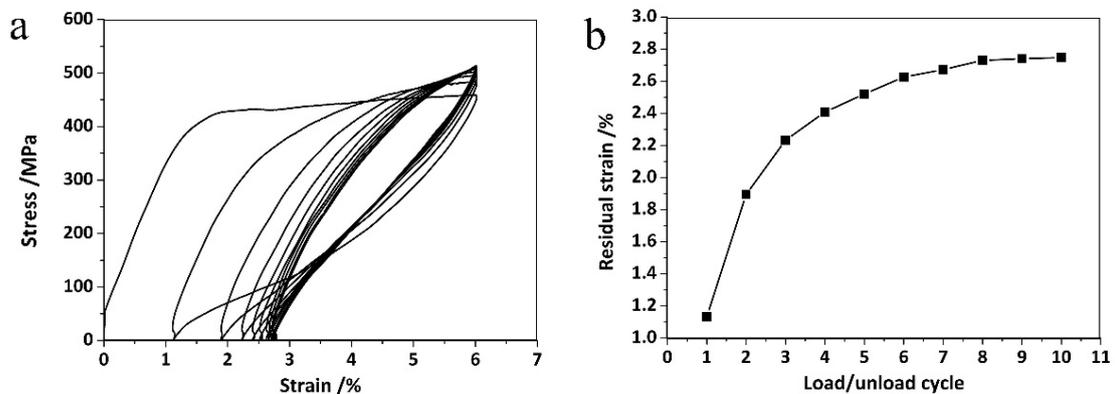


313

314 Figure 9 Fracture surface after tensile test (a. macro-structure b. magnified microstructures of zone
315 B in Fig.9a)

316 Aside from the tensile properties to failure, the cycling behavior of the as-built NiTi
317 parts was also evaluated. The graph in Fig. 10a depicts a total 10 load/unload cycles to
318 a maximum of 6% tensile strain, followed by unloading to a zero-stress condition. It
319 can be seen that the WAAM specimens exhibit good superelastic properties, evidenced
320 by a low irrecoverable strain of 1.13% upon unloading in the first cycle. The plastic
321 strain increased during the first 7 cycles, and reached near a constant value of 2.73%
322 (Fig.8b). For NiTi SMAs, the strain recovery due to the superelastic effect can be as
323 high as 10% [53]. However, there are several aspects that may impair a complete
324 superelastic recovery of the material. These include the testing temperature, the applied
325 strain and strain rate, any thermal and/or mechanical treatment, as well as the grain size
326 of the tested sample [36]. In this investigation, the incomplete recovery of the initial

327 imposed deformation can arise from the microstructural modifications, i.e. significant
328 differences in grain size induced by the WAAM process [54]. In fact, the existence of a
329 non-homogeneous microstructure, as evidenced by the simultaneous presence of
330 columnar and equiaxed grains, can promote distinct local mechanical behavior. That
331 is, regions with coarse grain size are expected to be easily deformed when compared to
332 smaller grain sizes and therefore martensite stabilization and subsequent loss of
333 superelasticity can occur [55]. Therefore, the different microstructures, i.e. columnar at
334 the bottom and equiaxed at the top, along the height of the WAAM part can explain the
335 irrecoverable strain of the as-built part.



336
337 Figure 10 load/unload functional fatigue curve of NiTi WAAM specimen (a. load/unload
338 fatigue stress-strain curve, b. accumulated residual strain)

339
340

341 4. Conclusions

342 Wire and Arc Additive Manufacturing was used to create NiTi shape memory alloy
343 walls, using commercially available Ni-rich NiTi wires as the feedstock material. The
344 following main conclusions can be drawn:

- 345 1) A columnar grain structure was present in the first deposited layers, while towards
346 the top of the wall fine equiaxed grains were formed. This is related to the thermal
347 cycle conditions in both regions.
- 348 2) The as-built walls are fully austenitic as confirmed by DSC, XRD and superelastic
349 cycling.

- 350 3) The as-built parts exhibit superelasticity under tensile conditions and a stable
351 mechanical response is obtained after 7 load/unload cycles.
- 352 4) The creation of NiTi parts by WAAM opens new doors for this additive
353 manufacturing technique to be applied for the production of large parts based on
354 these advanced functional materials.

355

356

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366

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