

## Net Shape Manufacturing of Aeroengine Components

Xinhua Wu

IRC in Materials, the University of Birmingham, Edgbaston, B15 2TT

e-mail: X.Wu.1@bham.ac.uk

### ABSTRACT

*Direct laser fabrication (DLF) and Net shape HIPping are two net shape manufacturing technologies which are being studied in the IRC. The direct laser fabrication technique can produce 3-D components from their CAD files from metal powder and using a laser, the movement of which follows the paths defined by the CAD file whilst powder is being injected into its focal point. The correlation between the thermal history and microstructure will be illustrated. Some demonstration pieces will be shown.*

*Net Shape HIPping (Hot Isostatic Pressing) is a technology to manufacture large components from powder to final shape component in one step. This technology uses cheap mild steel as tooling/mould material, which is filled with metal powder, followed by HIPping to consolidate the powder. A net shape component is subsequently obtained after removing of the tooling through machining/pickling. The geometry of the tooling/mould is designed through sophisticated computer modelling, taking into account the shrinkage during powder consolidation, mild steel deformation etc. so that the final geometry of the component is exactly that required after removing of the tooling. The mechanical properties obtained using this technique are similar to those in wrought components. Examples of the application of this net shape HIPping technology in manufacturing demonstrator components will be described.*

## 1. DIRECT LASER FABRICATION

### 1.1 Introduction

Direct Laser Fabrication(DLF) is one of the acronyms for laser additive manufacturing, where a laser is used as a heat source and metal powder is injected into the laser focal point and the movement of the laser is defined by the CAD file of a component. A 3D component is thus built layer by layer from the CAD file directly without using any mould.

Previous research shows that many variables in this process affect the material properties and the microstructure of the resulting part, such as laser scanning speed, laser power and powder feed rate. A number of previous efforts have been undertaken to establish the relationship between process parameters and the microstructure of deposits and it was found that the effects of each parameter could not be isolated because they are not independent [1, 2]. In order to achieve a better understanding of the effects of processing parameters on microstructures of DLFed samples, it is paramount to understand the temperature behavior/history of samples during fabrication. In this study, a 3D transient finite element model for direct laser fabrication has been developed by using a commercial Finite Element tool ABAQUS. Ti-6Al-4V is used as an experimental material since it is an important aerospace

## Net Shape Manufacturing of Aeroengine Components

material and some previous research on DLF has been carried out on this material and also because of the availability of the material's physical and metallurgical properties [1, 2]. This paper presents the modelling results on the effects of the location and laser scanning speed on temperature profile/history of the deposited Ti-6Al-4V thin-wall sample. The simulation results have been correlated with the microstructure and the size of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  laths of this  $\alpha+\beta$  alloy.

### 1.2 Finite Element Model

In the process of producing the thin-wall shaped sample by DLF, the sample absorbs energy from laser heating and loses energy via conduction, convection, radiation. For Ti-6Al-4V the sample also absorbs energy during material melting or during  $\alpha$  to  $\beta$  transformation and releases energy during material solidification or  $\beta$  to  $\alpha$  transformation. The general purpose, finite element package ABAQUS standard (version 6.4) was used for the calculation of the thermal mathematical model. The sample configuration is shown in figure 1. The thin-wall sample has a width of 20mm (X axis), a thickness of 2mm (Y axis), a layer increment of 0.3mm and a final height of 20.1mm (Z axis). The size of the substrate is 48×8×24mm.

In the ABAQUS model, the heat source was simplified as a moving surface heat flux assigned on the top surface of elements according to time and laser scanning speed. Heat is transferred to the bottom substrate via conduction. The rest of the surface loses heat to the surrounding area via radiation and convection. Considering that the laser beam is always centred on the thin-wall sample along the X axis as shown in figure 1, the sample has a symmetrical temperature distribution about the centre in the Y direction. The symmetrical boundary can be realized by setting the boundary condition as insulated since there would be no heat flow across the boundary. The thin-wall geometry has 67 layers and 1340 3-dimensional 8 node elements (DC3D8) [4]. The element size of the model is 1×1×0.3mm. The thin-wall part is of finer mesh than the substrate region for better accuracy of the temperature results in the thin-wall. All the models in this study have identical dimensions. The temperature-dependent thermal material properties, thermal conductivity and heat capacity used in this study have been taken from the literature [5].

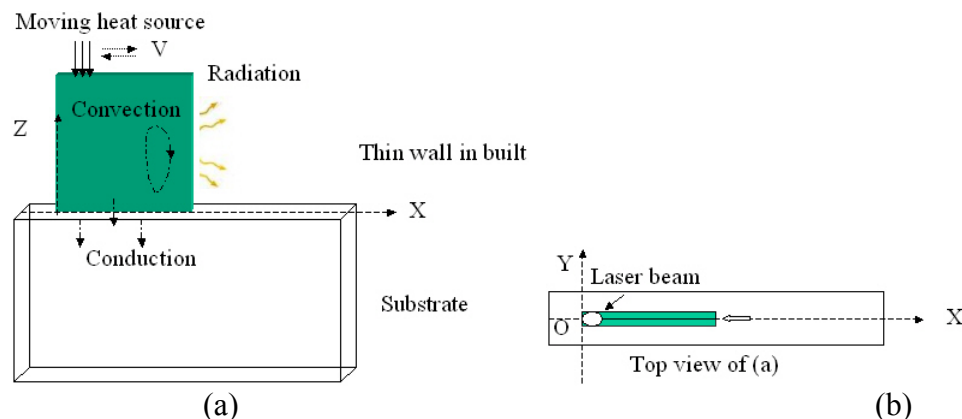


Figure 1: (a) A schematic illustration of a DLFed thin-wall sample build; (b) a top view showing the molten pool position is symmetric along the X-axis as shown by the arrow.

### 1.3 Experimental

A series of thin-wall shaped samples with 20×2×20.1mm dimensions were produced using DLF with a single pass laser in an argon atmosphere with O<sub>2</sub> < 20ppm. Ti-6Al-4V powder with particle size between 100-250µm was used in this study. A 1750W CO<sub>2</sub> laser unit was used in the experiment. The laser processing parameters used are laser powers of 432W and 516W, laser scanning speed of 300, 400, 600 and 900mm/min and powder feed rates of 9 and 18g/min. The front surface of the samples was examined using both optical microscopy and scanning electron microscopy (SEM). Four K-type thermocouples were welded on the Ti-6Al-4V substrate prior to the deposition process. Temperature measurements were synchronized with sample fabrication by inserting three W-type thermocouples into the samples during the build. These were inserted manually into pre-selected positions and the actual position could be defined when the build was completed. A data logging system from National Instruments was used to collect information of temperature against time for four K-type and three W-type thermocouples simultaneously. SEM examinations were conducted using a Jeol 6060.

### 1.4 Results and discussion

#### 1.4.1 Comparison of temperatures between the measurements and predictions

Figure 2a shows temperature measurements and predictions for two locations on the DLFed thin-wall sample (W1, W2) and one location on the substrate (K1). The letters W and K indicate the type of the thermocouple used. Figure 2b shows the positions of W1, W2 and K1. The data from W1, W2 show the characteristic temperature history of a DLFed thin-wall sample. The sample from which the data shown in figure 2a was obtained was fabricated with a 516W laser power, 400mm/min laser scanning speed and 9g/min powder feed rate. Each temperature peak represents the thermocouple

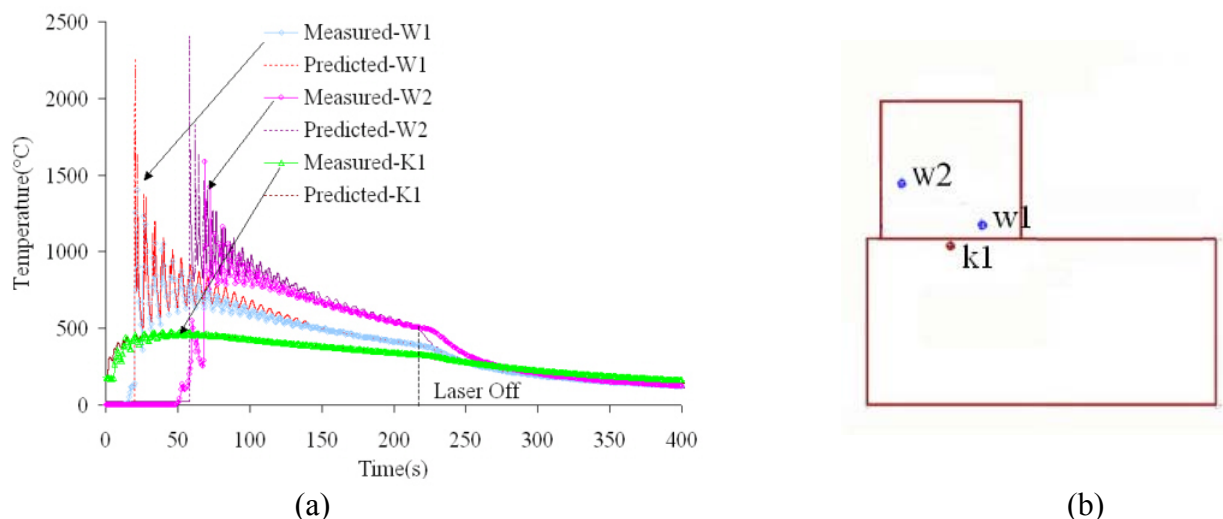


Figure 2: (a) Comparison of temperatures between predictions and measurements on the DLFed thin-wall sample (W1, W2) and substrate (K1). The measured and the predicted thermal profiles overlap with each other and are very difficult to separate; (b) a schematic illustration showing the locations of K and W-type thermocouples on the substrate and the DLFed thin-wall sample.

## Net Shape Manufacturing of Aeroengine Components

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response as the laser passes over the thermocouple. The rapid decrease of temperature from the peaks to the troughs reflects the movement of the heat source moving away from the thermocouple along the X-axis. The thermal excursion decays when either the energy source moves away from thermocouple during fabrication of an individual layer or when subsequent layers are deposited. From comparison of predicted and measured temperature history on the sample and the substrate, we can see the main trends match fairly well. In fact, the measured and the predicted thermal profiles overlap with each other and are very difficult to separate.

### 1.4.2 Phase transformation of Ti-6Al-4V during cooling

It has been reported previously that the cooling rate from the  $\beta$  phase region to a temperature below the  $\beta/(\alpha+\beta)$  transus, 980°C [6, 7], defines the nature of the  $\beta$  phase, whether it will be martensite ( $\alpha'$ ) (if cooling rate > about 410°C/s [8]) or diffusion-controlled Widmanstätten structure (if the cooling rate is < 20°C/s).

The cooling rate and the time spent at temperatures below, but close to, the  $\beta/(\alpha+\beta)$  transus temperature, (e.g. between 600-980°C, especially between 800-980°C when  $\alpha$  laths can grow rapidly) would be expected to affect the size of  $\alpha$  laths in a basketweave microstructure. The temperatures reached during cooling will define the fraction of martensite formed (the martensite finish temperature is below room temperature) and the fraction of  $\alpha$  and transformed  $\beta$ . During subsequent excursions above 980°C the martensite and any transformed  $\beta$  will be unstable and may partially transform back to  $\beta$ . This could re-transform to martensite if subsequently cooled to a low enough temperature rapidly enough, or re-precipitate as  $\alpha$ . On that basis the precise microstructures expected are difficult to predict, but an attempt to do this for DLFed samples is made below.

### 1.4.3 The influence of location in a sample on microstructure and thermal history

Typical microstructures obtained in DLF are shown in figure 3 where some very long, laths have been identified using X-ray and TEM as martensite. It is noted that the amount of martensite which protrude from the surface gradually reduces with the sample height and almost completely disappears 14mm away from the bottom, figure 3c. It is also noted that there is a larger amount of martensite at the bottom and at the very top, comparing figures 3a, e with figures 3b to d.

In figure 4, the temperature-time (T-t) curves show the temperature history prediction at the bottom, 3mm away from the bottom, centre, near the top and very top of a DLFed sample. In these five temperature history curves, the temperature drops down smoothly from the peak temperatures and the cooling rate across the  $\beta$  transus has been found to be  $\sim 7 \times 10^{40}$  C/S through modelling. It can be seen from figure 4 that with increase of sample height the duration of time spent in the  $\alpha+\beta$  region and the temperatures experienced both increase below 9mm, as indicated by the first two curves on the left. Hence larger  $\alpha$  laths are expected with increase of height, which is evident, comparing figure 3b with 3a. At a height of 6mm away from top the temperature decreases slowly across the  $\beta$  transus which means there should be no martensite at this location, which is consistent with the microstructure shown in figure 3c. At the top of the sample the cooling rate is again about  $10^{40}$  C/s as shown by the right curve on figure 4 and significant martensite is thus expected as is confirmed by figure 3e.

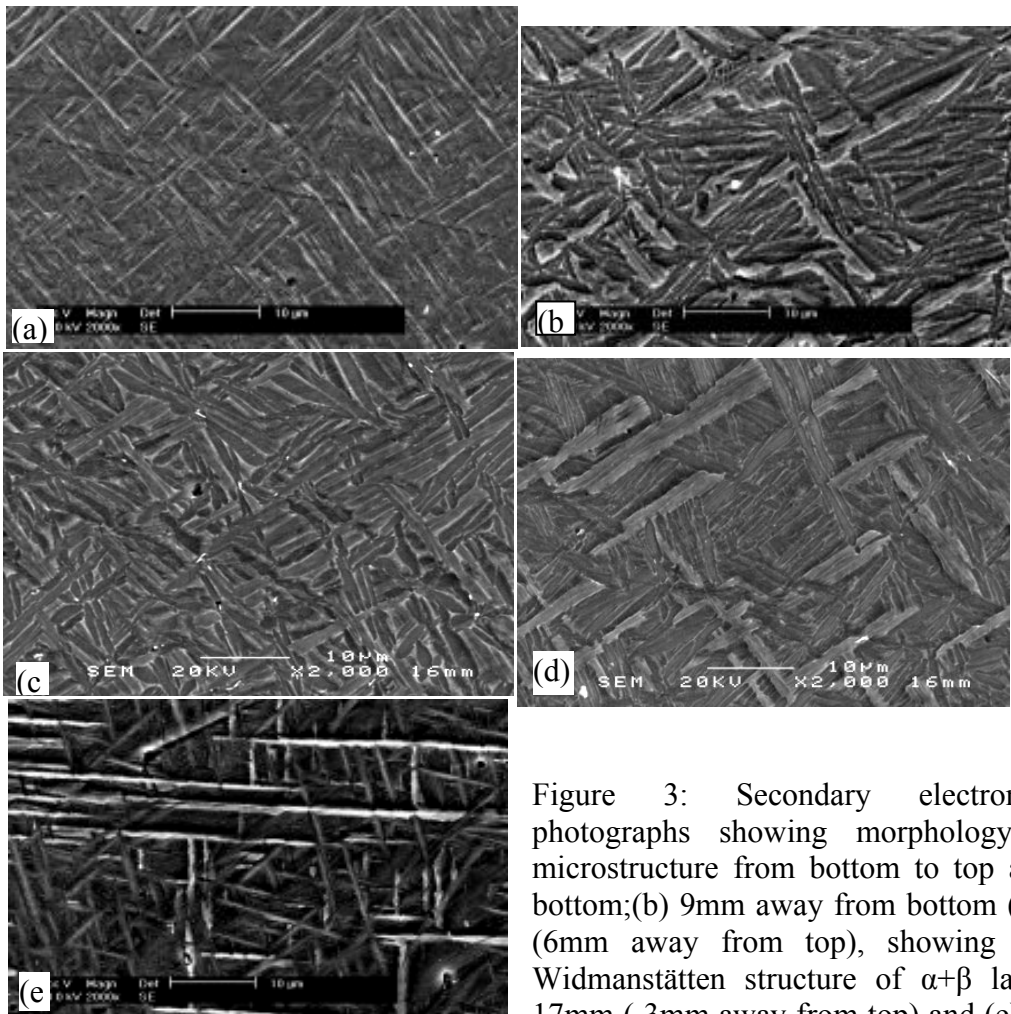


Figure 3: Secondary electron SEM photographs showing morphology of the microstructure from bottom to top at (a) the bottom;(b) 9mm away from bottom (c) 14mm (6mm away from top), showing complete Widmanstätten structure of  $\alpha+\beta$  laths ; (d) 17mm ( 3mm away from top) and (e) the very top, The protruding long laths/plates are martensite. Laser process condition: powder feed rate 18g/min, laser power 432 W and laser scanning speed 600mm/min.

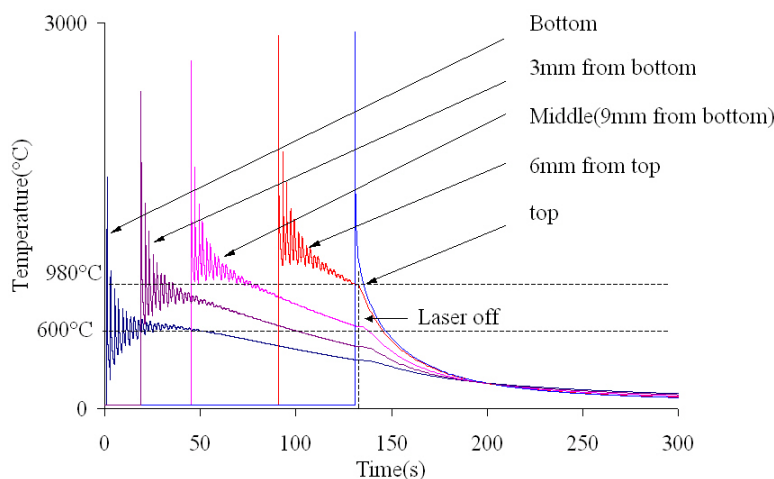


Figure 4: Temperature histories at a series of locations along the height of the sample. The curves from left to right in turn represent location: (1) bottom; (2) 3mm away from the bottom; (3) 9mm away from the bottom; (4) 14mm away from bottom (6mm away from top) and (5) the very top of the DLFed build at laser scan speed 600 mm/min, laser power 432W and powder feed rate 18g/min.

## Net Shape Manufacturing of Aeroengine Components

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### 1.5 Summary

A 3-D Finite Element Model has been used to model the thermal profiles of a Ti64 sample during its fabrication using DLF process and a good match has been obtained between the predicted and measured thermal histories. The thermal profiles at various locations are also consistent with the microstructures obtained.

## 2. NET SHAPE HIPPING

### 2.1 Introduction

Net shape HIPping is an advanced manufacturing technology which uses a cheap mild steel mould, filled with Ti or Ni alloy powder, which is sealed then outgassed and finally, Hot-Isostatically-Pressed (HIPped). The mould is designed using sophisticated computer modelling, taking into account material deformation, powder densification at high temperature and high pressure during HIPping. If the computer modelling is correct the component should have defined dimension after the mild steel mould is removed mechanically or through pickling. This technique is very useful for making large or medium sized complex components.

### 2.2 Experimental

The Ti6Al4V (Ti64) powder used is commercial PREP(plasma rotating electrode process) powder supplied by Advanced P Metal, USA. The powder particle size ranges from 50 to 350 $\mu$ m. The oxygen content in the ingot feedstock for atomisation is about 1600ppm. The powder was filled into mild steel cans, then outgassed for a range of times. The HIPping was carried out at 930°C/4h at 150MPa. A small cylindrical casing was designed using modelling software provided by LNT, Russia and mild steel was used as tooling material, which was removed through pickling after the HIPping. The geometries of the manufactured small component were measured by a Co-ordinate Measurement Machine (CMM) and compared with the predictions. In addition a tensile sample with as-HIPped surface has also been manufactured. Tensile tests were carried out using a Zwick machine at a strain rate of  $\sim 10^{-4}$ s<sup>-1</sup>. Some materials were cut out for oxygen analysis

### 2.3 Results and discussion

The tensile properties and oxygen content for samples which have been outgassed for a range of times, are shown in Table 1. It can be seen that the duration of outgassing for Ti64 has little effect on the tensile properties, where the yield stress is  $\sim 880$ MPa, UTS  $\sim 960$ MPa and ductility  $\sim 22\%$ , which means that a 4h outgassing is sufficient for such size of samples and excessively long outgassing appears not to further remove oxygen significantly. For the sample with an as-HIPped surface there is  $\sim 50$ MPa reduction in strength and  $\sim 3\%$  reduction in ductility. This is possibly introduced by the undulation on the as-HIPped surface when mild steel tooling is used, figure 6(a). Ti64 is stronger than mild steel at the HIPping temperature of 930°C, consequently Ti64 powder at the surface can penetrate into the mild steel capsule, leaving particle-shaped undulations on a pickled surface. Nevertheless the overall property of HIPped Ti64 with as-HIPped surface is still comparable to that of commercial ring-rolled Ti64 which has a

yield stress of between 830-960MPa, UTS 900-1040MPa and ductility of 8-12%[6]. Examinations of fracture surfaces have shown that HIPped Ti64 failed in a normal ductile manner with either machined or as-HIPped surface condition. Figure 6(b) shows the fracture surface of the sample with as-HIPped surface and no abnormal characteristic has been observed at the surface. It appears that despite the small reduction of property caused by the undulations at the sample surface the fracture behaviour remains similar to the as-machined.

Table 1: Showing tensile properties of HIPped Ti64 with a range of outgassing times

Outgassing time(h)	Oxygen (wt%)	0.2% proof stress (MPa)	UTS (MPa)	Elongation (%)
4.0	0.17	879	967	23
5.0	0.18	878	968	24
5.6	0.17	881	971	20
16.4	0.19	876	967	21
16.7	0.18	879	968	23
20.6	0.17	877	992	22
25.0	0.17	879	967	23
12 ( <i>as-HIPped surface</i> )	-	850	920	19

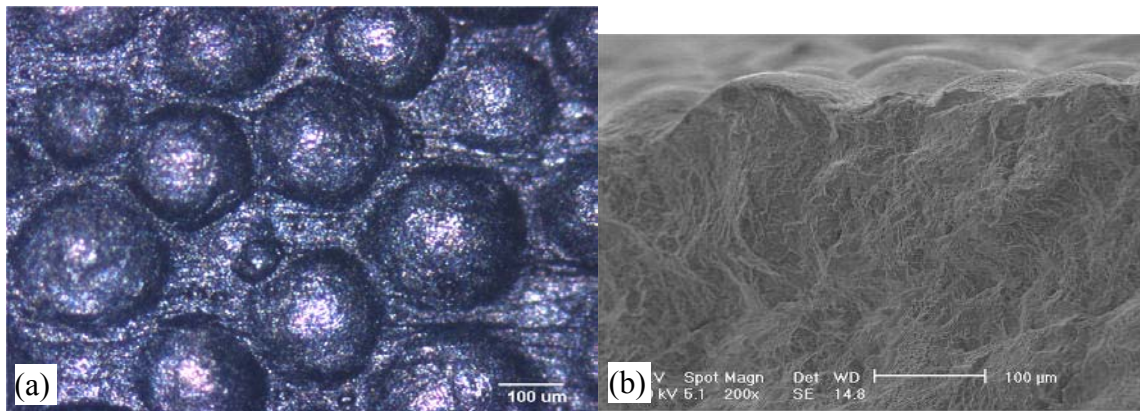


Figure 6: Showing (a) as-HIPped surface morphology of a net shaped tensile sample produced using mild steel tooling and (b) tensile fracture surface of HIPped Ti64 with as- HIPped surface

A demonstrator component of Ti64 has been modelled, designed and manufactured using net shape HIPping as shown in figure 7. The thinnest section in this component is about 0.4mm (note that the powder particle size used in this case is 50-150µm). The cross-section dimensions at various locations have been measured and compared with computer predicted (target) dimensions.

Table 2 and figure 8 show the results of inner dimensions at 10 locations. In general, the prediction of final consolidated shape of the main cylindrical body compares reasonably well with the HIPped component (by CMM measurements), as indicated in

## Net Shape Manufacturing of Aeroengine Components

table 2. A reasonably good match is especially shown in the lower part of the thin cylinder wall. However in the top part of the cylinder wall, the side where the filling tubes are welded, some changes in wall thickness and inclinations are apparent. The predictions and measurements for positions along the cylinder height are also in good agreement for each of the ring and boss features.



Figure 7: Showing the net-shape-HIPped mini Ti64 casing.

Table 2: Showing the comparison of dimensions between the computer predicted and measured

	Target (mm)	Actual (mm)	Discrepancy (mm)
i	45.59	-	-
ii	40.35	40.25	0.10
iii	41.16	40.94	0.22
iv	38.18	38.18	-
v	39.98	40.07	-0.09
vi	38.43	38.31	0.12
vii	40.97	40.88	0.09
viii	39.94	39.98	-0.04
ix	41.68	41.70	-0.02
x	43.40	43.41	-0.01

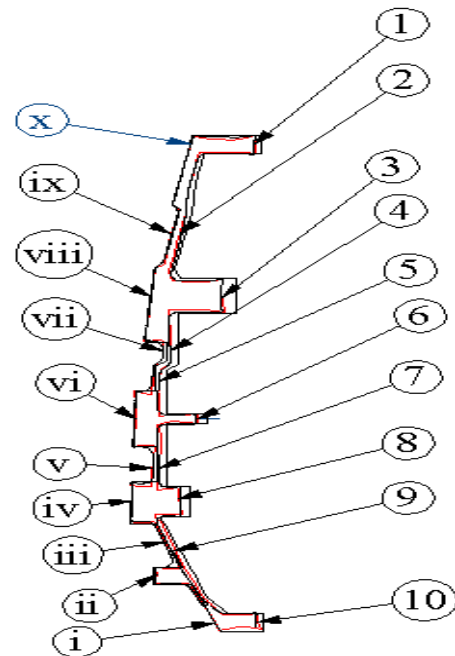


Figure 8: Showing the locations where measurements have been carried out. The inner dimensions at location i to x are shown in table 2.



## 2.4 Summary

The mechanical properties of the HIPped Ti64 either with machined or as-HIPped surface are better than those of the ring-rolled. As-HIPped surface introduces small reduction in tensile property.

A demonstrator mini-casing manufactured using net shape HIPping shows very good integrity and the discrepancy between the predicted and the measured dimension is within 0.1mm at most locations.

## 3. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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## 4. REFERENCES

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**MEETING DISCUSSION – PAPER NO: 5**

**Author: X. Wu**

**Discussor: D. Dicus**

Question: Given the critical impact of cooling rate that you showed for DLF of Ti-6-4, would you expect to require a process control system for cooling rate?

Response: Yes. The control system is expected to be incorporated into the new system which is to be purchased soon.

**Discussor: J. Savoie**

Question: How can the influence of deposition parameters on residual stresses be minimized? Using FE modeling?

Response: By changing the laser scan path. Can be modeled using FE.

**Discussor: C. Bampton**

Question: Why is the residual stress in HIP'd Ti with mild steel insert so low?

Response: There is sliding between Ti and steel tooling hence low residual stress.

**Discussor: M. Hicks**

Question: Why do we see equiaxed microstructures in some Ti alloys which have been laser deposited (e.g. burn resistant Ti) and columnar in others (e.g. Ti-6-4)?

Response: It is affected by the liquidus/solidus gap and slope. Some Ti alloys (e.g. burn resistant Ti) have very small gap, hence the under-cool required for nucleation is very small, which leads to easy nucleation, thus equiaxed grains.