

1 Article

2 Mechanical properties and in-situ deformation 3 imaging of micro-lattices manufactured by laser 4 based powder bed fusion

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10

11 **Abstract:** This paper reports on the production and mechanical properties of Ti6Al4V micro-lattice
12 structures, with strut thickness nearing the single-track width of the laser-based powder bed fusion
13 (LPBF) system used. Besides providing new information on the mechanical properties and
14 manufacturability of such thin-strut lattices, this paper also reports on the in-situ deformation
15 imaging of micro-lattice structures with 6 unit cells in every direction. LPBF lattices are of interest
16 for medical implants, due to the possibility of creating structures with an elastic modulus close to
17 that of the bones and small pore sizes which allow effective osseointegration. In this work four
18 different cubes were produced by laser powder bed fusion and subsequently analyzed using
19 microCT, compression testing and one selected lattice was subjected to in-situ microCT imaging
20 during compression. The in-situ imaging was performed at 4 steps during yielding. The results
21 indicate that mechanical performance (elastic modulus and strength) correlate well with actual
22 density and that this performance is remarkably good, despite the high roughness and irregularity
23 of the struts at this scale. In-situ yielding is visually illustrated.

24 **Keywords:** laser powder bed fusion; additive manufacturing; X-ray tomography; in-situ imaging;
25 Ti6Al4V; lattice structures

26

27 1. Introduction

28 Additive manufacturing (AM) is an emerging production technique whereby a part with complex
29 geometry can be produced directly from a design file in a layer-by-layer method [1], [2]. In the case
30 of laser based powder bed fusion (LPBF), a single layer of the part is selectively fused using a laser
31 beam which is scanned across a powder bed surface in a series of tracks, new powder is delivered
32 and the next layer is scanned and fused. Predictably the part integrity requires that single tracks are
33 stable [3] and well overlapped with one another as well as layers to prevent unwanted porosity in
34 solid parts. This has been discussed in some detail in a recent review of the use of X-ray
35 microtomography in additive manufacturing [4]. Despite the possibility of irregularities in parts, it
36 is possible to produce parts with excellent mechanical properties when process parameters are
37 optimized, see for example [5] for biomedical Ti6Al4V produced by LPBF.

38

39 One of the major benefits brought about by additive manufacturing is the ability to produce
40 complex parts, and this is especially true for lattice structures which are regularly spaced and
41 repeating combinations of struts with spaces between them. Lattice structures produced by AM
42 have been the topic of many studies in recent years due to the potential to use these in bone
43 replacement implants [6]–[8]. In implants, the porous nature of the lattice structure is beneficial to

44 lower the elastic modulus of biocompatible materials to match that of the bone at the implant
45 interface, minimizing the possibility for stress shielding causing loss in bone density in the vicinity.
46 Additionally, the open porous nature allows for bone ingrowth into the lattice, effectively ensuring
47 a good bond with the existing bone.

48

49 The investigation of the mechanical properties of lattices produced by AM and in particular LPBF is
50 therefore crucial for the adoption of this type of design in implants, along with tailoring its
51 properties for the application of custom shapes which meet local bone density requirements. In
52 general the mechanical properties of these structures can be predicted by the Ashby-Gibson model
53 for open-cell foams [9], [10], with a general relationship for elastic modulus of the lattice (E) as a
54 function of the lattice density (q) and elastic modulus of the solid material used (Es), given as
55 follows:

56
$$E = \alpha_2 E_s \left(\frac{\rho}{\rho_s} \right)^2$$

57 Where α_2 is a value between 0.1 and 4 depending on the lattice geometry [9].

58

59 In early work by Parthasarathy et al [11], simple cubic lattices of Ti6Al4V produced by electron
60 beam melting were analyzed by microCT and mechanical testing and it was found that the
61 mechanical properties are weaker than predicted and this was especially so for a model with
62 thinner struts. This might be attributed to manufacturing irregularities such as the rough as-built
63 surface and unexpected porosity inside struts. Geometric accuracy is often a limitation in additive
64 manufacturing of cellular structures, as is the entrapment of powder in the small pores spaces of
65 these structures [1]. Various LPBF cellular structures in Ti6Al4V have been produced in different
66 unit cell designs and their mechanical properties investigated, for example cubic [12], diamond [13],
67 combinations of designs including body-centred cubic [14] and minimal surfaces [15]. Besides
68 variations in mechanical performance induced by geometric inaccuracy and manufacturing errors,
69 slight variations also exist in the properties of various lattice designs themselves. This was
70 demonstrated recently by the numerical analysis of various lattice designs, ignoring manufacturing
71 imperfections [16].

72

73 It is therefore clear that the only way to fully understand the complex behavior of lattice structures
74 (with many variations in designs and varying amounts of manufacturing errors, which to some
75 extent also depend on the design), is to use high resolution imaging. In prior work, using relatively
76 large lattices with struts more than 1 mm in diameter, compression tests combined with microCT
77 imaging was used to visualize the first yielding crack locations as shown in [17], with loads up to
78 140 kN. This was done ex-situ by stopping the mechanical test at first yielding and correlating
79 "before" and "after" microCT scans to find cracks / yielding locations. Some work has also
80 previously been done using in-situ synchrotron tomography during loading of small unit cells
81 produced by LPBF [18]. This work showed local strut-scale deformations during yielding and
82 compared experimental results to those predicted by simulation, but was limited to unit cells which
83 are not necessarily representative of tessellated lattices.

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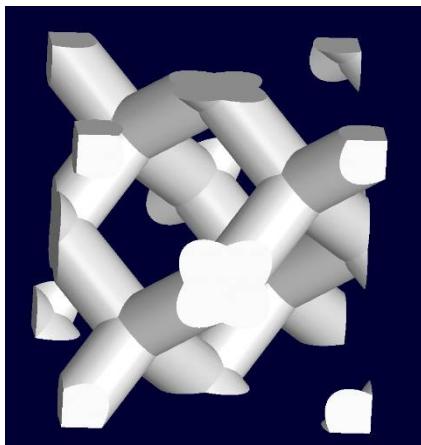
85 In this work the aim was to investigate the smallest possible lattices that can be produced with a
86 typical LPBF system with track width of roughly 0.1 mm. In addition to investigating the

87 mechanical properties of such small lattices, the accuracy of these produced micro-lattices may be
88 useful as a reference for future work. Four different sizes of lattice cube samples were produced,
89 each containing 6 unit cells in each direction with a diamond unit cell design with porosity of 80%
90 and unit cell sizes 0.6, 0.8, 1.0 and 1.2 mm. Since the geometry and the density is kept constant, the
91 theoretical elastic modulus and yield stress should be identical in all four cases, therefore the aim
92 was to investigate the properties as the struts become thinner with decreasing unit cell size. The
93 mechanical properties of these small lattices is reported and in-situ imaging of the lattice
94 deformation using high resolution X-ray tomography is demonstrated.

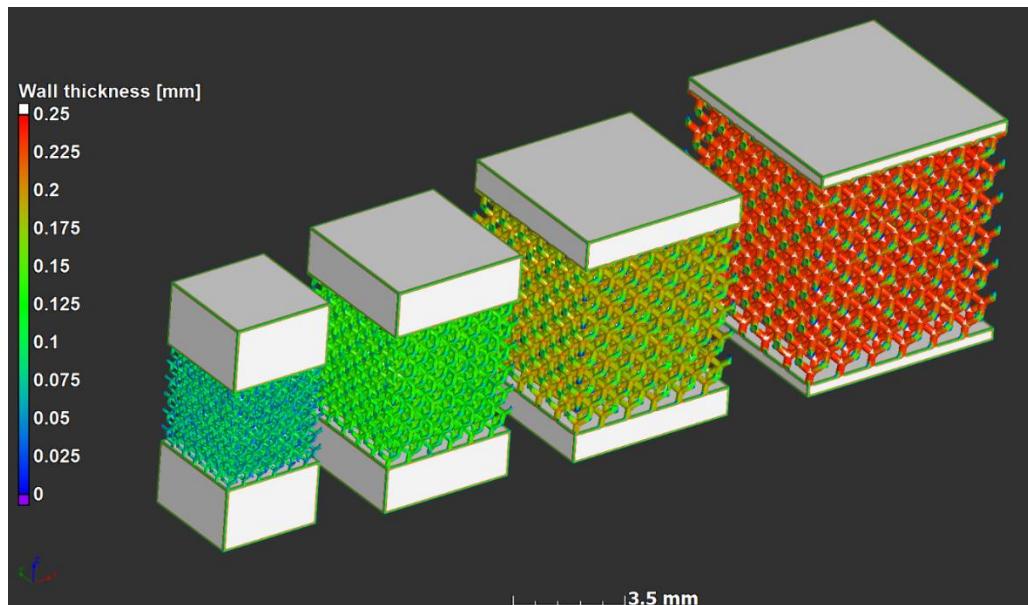
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96 **2. Materials and Methods**

97 Models were designed in Materialize Magics and produced from Ti6Al4V using an EOSINT M280
98 system with standard process parameters for this material. A stress-relief cycle for 3 hours at 650 C
99 [5] was conducted in argon atmosphere after producing the parts, after which the parts were cut
100 from the build plate using electrical discharge machining. The unit cell design used in this work
101 was the diamond design - the unit cell is shown in Figure 1(a). Three samples of each of 4 designs
102 were produced – the computer aided design (CAD) designs are shown in Figure 1(b), with a strut
103 thickness analysis showing that the larger the unit cell, the thicker is the strut as expected. The
104 designs were selected to produce cubes with 6 unit cells in each direction, with unit cell sizes for the
105 4 designs being 0.6, 0.8, 1.0 and 1.2 mm. This ensures that the density is kept constant and was
106 selected to be 20% dense (80% porosity). The physical sample sizes varied from 3.6 mm to 7.2 mm
107 for the lattice region, and additional solid material was added to the top and bottom to make the
108 total height 8 mm in all cases, for simpler loading in the compression cell.



109 (a)



110 (b)

111 **Figure 1:** The four CAD designs used – unit cell sizes 0.6, 0.8, 1.0 and 1.2 mm, with strut thickness analysis.

112

113 MicroCT scanning was done using laboratory nanoCT as described in [19] using a Deben in-situ
114 loading stage (CT500) in a General Electric Nanotom scanner. The sample sizes in this work were
115 selected according to the maximum sample size of 10 mm and maximum loading force of 500 N of
116 this loading stage. One sample design which did not fail up to 500 N was additionally subjected to
117 compression tests on a different loading stage to obtain the yield strength.

118

119 MicroCT voxel size was selected as 4 μm , with 140 kV and 130 μA for X-ray generation, using 0.5
120 mm copper beam filtration and using continuous scanning mode, a total of 3600 images were
121 recorded during a full rotation of the sample. Images were further analyzed in Volume Graphics
122 VGStudioMax 3.2. Wall thickness analysis used in this work was done with the sphere-method.
123 Due to file sizes and limited computing power, the combined images were resampled in
124 VGStudioMax to 10 μm voxel size and 8 bit data depth to reduce file sizes and memory usage and
125 ease the image analysis.

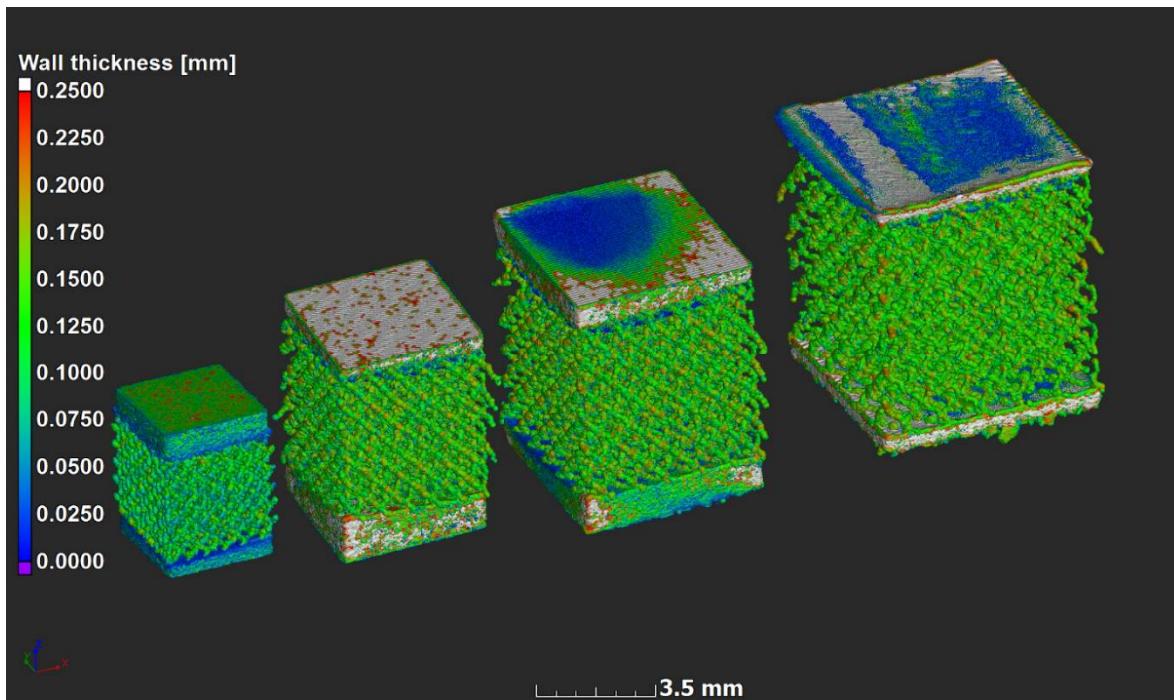
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127 **3. Results and discussion**

128 Samples were manufactured successfully, but microCT analyses show that the strut thickness
129 across the models did not vary as expected – this is shown in Figure 2 using a strut thickness
130 analysis, analogous to Figure 1. Irregularities are expected at this scale due to various practical
131 limitations which exist when producing small intricate parts during LPBF. The cause of such
132 irregularities can be explained when looking at the minimum size of the designed features with
133 regard to the combined effects of laser spot size, building direction, layer thickness and the
134 implemented scanning strategy for core, overhangs and top surfaces; all having an effect on the
135 amount of detail that can be obtained. Small features are also governed by the single track's width
136 and attached powder particles which in turn are limited by powder particle size distribution.
137 Accuracy of small overhangs is not only dependent on the layer thickness but also on the loose

138 powder and the inability of the molten pool to penetrate into solid material of the lattice. Therefore
139 irregular surfaces below the struts are expected [20].

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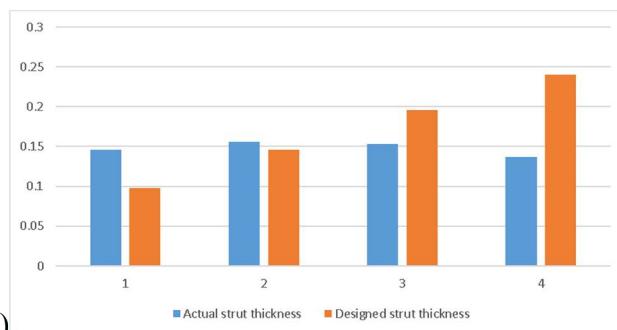
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142 **Figure 2:** MicroCT scan data 3D rendering with strut thickness colour coding on the micro-lattices. Models
143 with a 0.6, 0.8, 1.0 and 1.2 mm unit cell size from left to right respectively – here the top and bottom of the
144 samples were slightly cropped as the lattice area was scanned only.

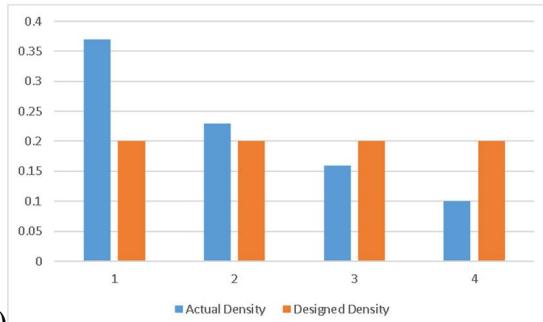
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146 The small size of the designed struts, which are close to the single-track width of the laser melting
147 track width, combined with the scanning strategy of the LPBF system used apparently did not
148 allow for variations and these lattices were seemingly all produced with similar strut thickness
149 deviating from the design thickness as shown in Figure 3 (a). The result is that the larger lattice has
150 larger pore spaces making its actual density lower than designed as shown in Figure 3(b).

151



152 (a)

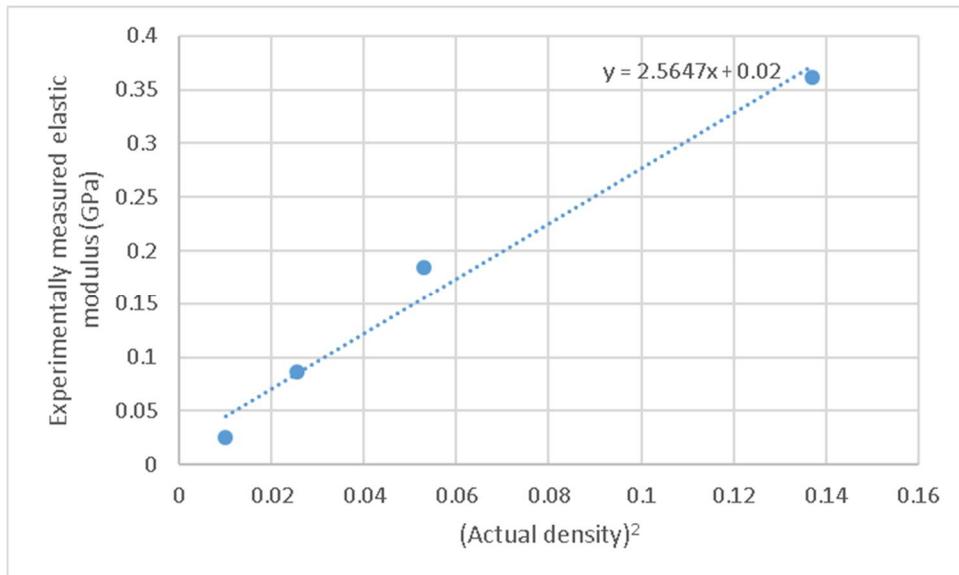


153 (b)

154 **Figure 3:** MicroCT results of actual strut thickness and total density (in blue) compared to the designed values
 155 (orange). Strut thickness in mm and density 0-1 on y-axis (fully dense = 1).

156

157 As explained in the previous section, the simplified model of Ashby-Gibson for open cell foams
 158 indicates a linear correlation between the elastic modulus and the square of the density. This is
 159 found experimentally in this case with a slope of approximately 2.5 as shown in Figure 4.



160

161 **Figure 4:** Measured elastic modulus correlates with actual density²

162

163 The value of 2.5 for the slope is within the expected range of 0.1 – 4. Previous work with larger
 164 lattices built using the same material process parameters showed that the experimental elastic
 165 modulus values were 10 and 20 GPa for 50% density lattice structures of two designs: diagonal and
 166 rhombic [17]. This relates to values for alpha (the slope) of 0.35 to 0.7. We can therefore speculate
 167 that as the strut thickness reduces, the effect of the rough and irregular surface plays an
 168 increasingly important role increasing the slope and making the structure's mechanical properties
 169 more sensitive to changes in density. What is interesting to note here is that since the lattice
 170 properties follow the density, the smallest lattice of 3.6 mm (unit cell of 0.6 mm) was the strongest –
 171 the yield strength is shown in Table 1 together with the actual porosity as measured by microCT.
 172 This is due to the similar strut thickness of the 4 models but shorter strut lengths and hence higher
 173 density, for the smallest model. This also shows that at this scale the strength and elastic modulus is
 174 strongly correlated with the actual porosity (or density).

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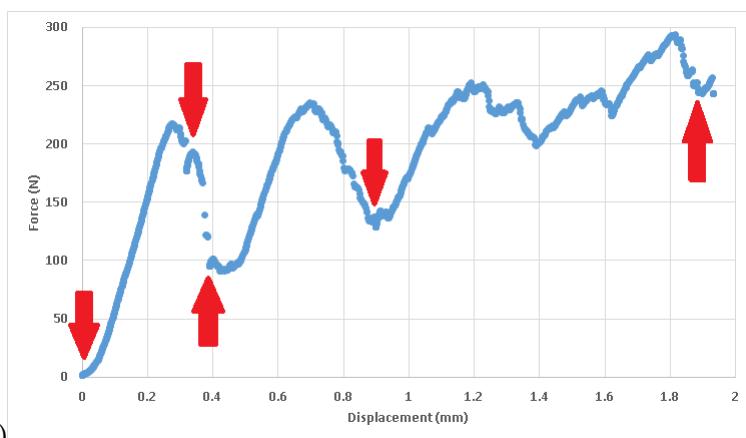
176 **Table 1: Experimental data**

Unit cell design (mm)	Actual porosity (%)	Compressive elastic modulus (MPa)	Compressive strength (MPa)	Maximum load (N)
0.6	63	361	53	688
0.8	77	185	9.5	220
1.0	84	87	7.6	110
1.2	90	25	1.0	50

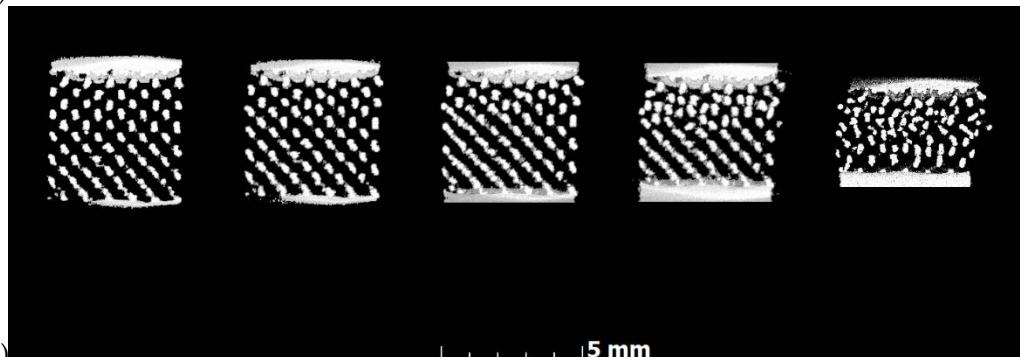
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178 In-situ compression allowed imaging of the same lattice prior to full densification – first before
 179 loading, then directly after initial yielding, and at a few more representative steps during yielding.
 180 This is shown in Figure 5, where red arrows indicate the positions where the loading was stopped
 181 and microCT scans were performed. The resulting microCT data is represented for the aligned
 182 volumes, with side-by-side slice images through the middle of the lattice, and with 3D views of the
 183 entire lattice. These images indicate that yielding occurs gradually and progressively as struts
 184 collapse in this type of lattice.

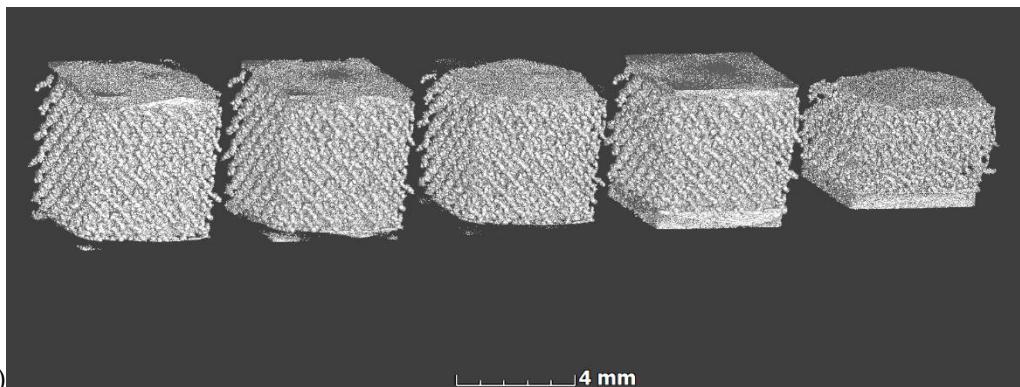
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186 (a)



187 (b)



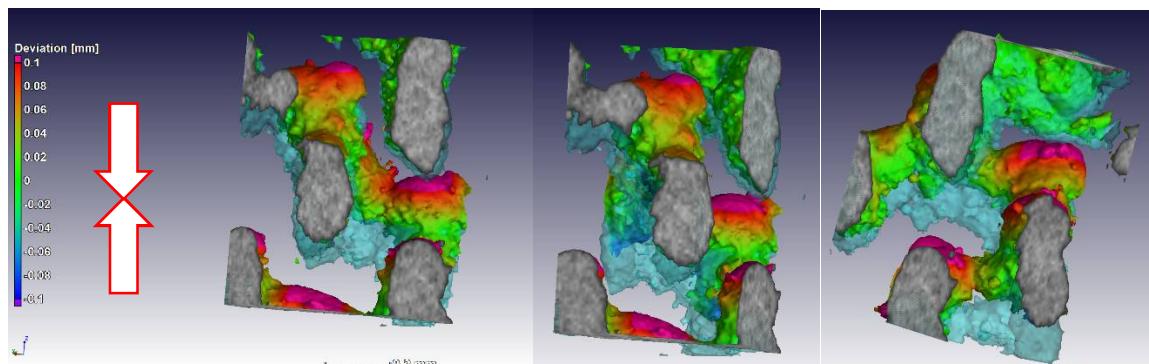
188 (c) 4 mm

189 **Figure 5:** In situ deformation imaging of a lattice (0.8 mm unit cell) at the selected points during yielding –
190 steps according to arrows in force-displacement curve.

191

192 The alignment of the scans is simplified by the fact that the sample stays in the same location in the
193 scan system, and as the load cell works by moving the bottom upwards, the deformation can be
194 imaged more closely on individual struts by making the unloaded scan transparent and visualizing
195 the loaded image. This is done in Figure 6 for a small section (approx. 0.5 mm) to visualize the
196 deformation and collapse of individual struts, in this case taken from the middle near the top of the
197 sample, where collapse first occurred. The light blue transparent struts shown in Figure 6 show
198 the unloaded sample while the third scan in the series is shown here in solid rendering (this is at the
199 first yield dip – the third arrow in Figure 5). The colour coding applied to the loaded sample image
200 is a nominal-actual comparison - this quantitatively shows the deformation value (in red is where
201 largest deformation is relative to the unloaded sample). Besides collapse, the largest deformations
202 occur at the strut junctions. The three images are the same region from different viewing angles.

203



204

205 **Figure 6:** Three different angular views of the same internal location showing yielding behavior of individual
206 struts and colour coding indicating largest deformation relative to unloaded state (deformation upwards in
207 image, unloaded state semi-transparent blue). Loading direction indicated by arrows.

208

209 **5. Conclusions**

210 This paper reported the mechanical properties of a series of micro-lattices with struts near the single
211 track width of the laser powder bed fusion system used to produce them. The results show that
212 such lattices can be produced successfully but the small strut thickness deviates from the designed

213 value. It was shown that the mechanical properties of micro lattices produced by LBPF are strongly
214 dependent on actual density irrespective of strut thickness and length; and can therefore be
215 predicted with some confidence using this measure alone. Compared to larger lattices, the
216 dependence of the mechanical properties is stronger with density (higher slope in the Ashby-
217 Gibson equation). In-situ microCT imaging demonstrated strut collapse and yielding occurring in
218 the middle of the tessellated lattice structure first. These images represent the first in-situ images of
219 a full micro-lattice structure's yielding behavior. The method will be useful to investigate and
220 compare the complex yielding behavior of different lattice designs and materials.

221

222 **Author Contributions:** Conceptualization, AdP; Methodology, AdP, IY1,IY2; Software, AdP; Validation,
223 AdP,DK; Formal Analysis, All; Investigation, AdP; Resources, All; Data Curation, All; Writing-Original Draft
224 Preparation, AdP; Writing-Review & Editing, All; Visualization, All.

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