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| Abstract                    | In this paper, we have studied an additively manufactured metallic component, intended for ultra-high vacuum application, the exit-snout of the MACHINA transportable proton accelerator beam-line. Metal additive manufacturing components can exhibit heterogeneous and anisotropic microstructures. Two non-destructive imaging techniques, X-ray computed tomography and Neutron Tomography, were employed to examine its microstructure. They unveiled the presence of porosity and channels, the size and composition of grains and intergranular precipitates, and the general behavior of the spatial distribution of the solidification lines. While X-ray computed tomography evidenced qualitative details about the surface roughness and internal defects, neutron tomography showed excellent ability in imaging the spatial density distribution within the component. The anisotropy of the density was attributed to the material building orientation during the 3D printing process. Density variations suggest the possibility of defect pathways, which could affect high vacuum performances. In addition, these results highlight the importance of considering building orientation in the design for additive manufacturing for UHV applications. |  |  |  |
| Keywords (separated by '-') | Selective laser melting (SI destructive characterization   | .M) - X-ray computed tomography (XCT) - Neutron tomography (NT) - Non-<br>n - Microstructural analysis |  |  |
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#### **RESEARCH PAPER**

1



### <sup>2</sup> A multi-technique tomography-based approach for non-invasive

<sup>3</sup> characterization of additive manufacturing components in view

<sup>4</sup> of vacuum/UHV applications: preliminary results

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Abstract
In this paper, we have studied an additively manufactured metallic component, intended for ultra-high vacuum application, the exit-snout of the MACHINA transportable proton accelerator beam-line. Metal additive manufacturing components can exhibit heterogeneous and anisotropic microstructures. Two non-destructive imaging techniques, X-ray computed tomography and Neutron Tomography, were employed to examine its microstructure. They unveiled the presence of porosity and channels, the size and composition of grains and intergranular precipitates, and the general behavior of the spatial distribution of the solidification lines. While X-ray computed tomography evidenced qualitative details about the surface roughness and internal defects neutron tomography showed excellent ability in imaging the spatial density distribution within the component. The

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<sup>22</sup> **Keywords** Selective laser melting (SLM)  $\cdot$  X-ray computed tomography (XCT)  $\cdot$  Neutron tomography (NT)  $\cdot$  Non-

<sup>23</sup> destructive characterization · Microstructural analysis

#### <sup>24</sup> 1 Introduction

25 Over the years, additive manufacturing (AM) (Ngo et al. 26 2018; Schmidt et al. 2017; Yap et al. 2015; Bourell et al. 27 2017), also known as 3D printing, and in particular metal 28 AM (Debroy et al. 2018; Herzog et al. 2016; Du et al. 2016), 29 has shown impressive growth, and 3D printing systems have 30 constantly improved their performances in terms of dimen-31 sions of produced parts, precision, accuracy, and set of avail-32 able materials.3D printing is constantly expanding its range 33 of applications, and applications in fields unexpected in the 34 past are becoming possible, ranging from cultural heritage 35

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(Taccetti et al. 2019) to radiation therapy (Woo 2016). One of the most used technologies in metal AM is the powder-based fusion (PBF) (Reevesinsight 2012). In the PBF process, the locally-released thermal energy melts the specific region of a powder bed, allowing the creation of complex solid objects. Generally, the PBF technologies used for metals are Selective Laser Melting (SLM), also known as direct metal laser sintering (DSLS), and electron beam melting (EBM) (Olsén et al. 2018). In SLM a laser source selectively bonds together powder particles layer-by-layer. In EBM technology, melting of metal powder is achieved with the use of a high-energy electron beam. The most extensively studied and used metal materials in AM techniques are steels, Al alloys, Ti alloys, and Ni superalloys (Wong and Hernandez 2012; Ferreri et al. 2020; Raj et al. 2019). Among steels, maraging steels are widely used in SLM, due to their good weldability linked to the lack of carbon (Turk et al. 2019). As detailed in the next paragraph, SLM technology applied to maraging steel has been used to produce the part studied in this paper.

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54 In general, attractive features of AM are: the possibility of manufacturing small and complex components of lower 55 mass than what achievable with conventional machining, 56 57 lower material waste, a large variety of materials available, quick production implementation, reduced time for assem-58 bly/integration, easy prototyping to validate the solution, and 59 good control over the chemical composition of the processed 60 material. Despite the excellent capability in producing metal 61 components with complex geometries, there are still some 62 challenges in the dimensional accuracy of the produced parts 63 as compared to the design. This can impose the need for 64 post-processing operations in order to obtain components 65 that are fully compliant with the design features. It is then 66 important to rely on total-volume techniques to characterize 67 metal AM parts, such as Neutron and X-ray diffraction and 68 imaging techniques (Raj et al., 2019; Chae et al. 2019; Bao 69 et al. 2020). In addition, non-destructive techniques allow 70 the measured prototype to be used in the application for 71 72 which it was designed.

Metal AM technology for ultra-high vacuum UHV appli-73 cations is attracting growing interest both in companies and 74 75 in the particle accelerator community. Studies dedicated to the in-vacuum characterisation of samples printed using 76 metal AM technology have been presented, showing that 77 these parts can be vacuum-compatible, and components built 78 using metal AM qualify for their use in accelerators (Jenzer 79 et al. 2019; Jenzer and Delerue 2019; Povilus et al. 2014). 80

However, the structure and morphology of metal AM 81 parts depend strongly on process parameters (such as, but 82 not limited to, temperature, scanning speed, material, pow-83 84 der size...). AM parts can present heterogeneous and anisotropic microstructures, very different from those shown 85 in components produced with traditional technology, which 86 can hinder the effectiveness for UHV applications, as they 87 can result in unwanted internal features favoring outgassing, 88 desorption, and permeation. 89

The accelerator beam-line of the MACHINA (Movable 90 Accelerator for Cultural Heritage In-situ Non-destructive 91 Analysis) project (Mathot et al. 2019) required the manu-92 facturing of a special part to allow for beam extraction into 93 atmosphere. The geometry of such components is too com-94 plex to be produced by standard machining, as multi-axial 95 96 working systems are required. For this reason, it was produced using metal AM. 97

In order to acquire fabrication process-related microstruc-98 99 tural information in connection with UHV performances, a non-invasive morphological and microstructural study of the 100 MACHINA metal AM beam exit snout was performed using 101 a combination of X-ray and Neutron Tomography (Maire 102 and Withers 2014; Vontobel et al. 2006). Over the years, 103 these techniques have been used on metal AM components 104 (see for example (Thompson et al. 2017, 2016; Sacco and Moon 2019; Leung et al. 2018; du Plessis 2020) for X-ray 106

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CT and (Watkins et al. 2013; Cakmak et al. 2018; Brooks 107 et al. 2018; Rahman et al. 2019; Hönnige et al. 2018) for 108 Neutron Tomography) and less frequently together (see for 109 example (Watkins et al. 2013)), since they can provide cru-110 cial information, as indicated e.g. in Perry et al. (2020). 111

This paper shows the potential of the combined NT and X-ray CT characterization of metal AM maraging-steel vacuum component produced using SLM. The obtained results will help to understand the relationships between production parameters and internal structures.

#### 2 Materials and methods

#### 2.1 The sample

The sample was produced using EOS Maraging Steel 119 MS1 (Opatová et al. 2020). It is composed of two hollow 120 cones with axes tilted 45° and intersecting at the tip, where 121 the extraction window will be positioned. Details of the 122 MACHINA exit snout and a rendering of the nozzle are 123 reported in Fig. 1 (Giuntini et al. 2007). 124

Maraging steels possess superior strength and toughness 125 without losing ductility, compared to common steel, and 126 is preferred in special applications where UHV compliant 127 materials are needed (LIGO Vacuum Compatible Materials 128 List, LIGO-E960050-B-E, released by DCN E030570-01, 129 5 April 2004). Such materials mainly exhibit high strength 130 and toughness. They show very little dimensional change 131 when heat-treated, so they are often machined to the final 132 dimensions and are quite suitable for the use in AM appli-133 cations (Kempen et al. 2011; Hadadzadeh et al. 2020; Tan 134 et al. 2017; Xu et al. 2018; Bodziak et al. 2019; Tewari et al. 135 2000). 136

The sample was made using the PBF-SLM technique 137 with the EOS M280 AM printer. The machine uses a 138 400 W Ytterbium fibre laser, with beam diameter in the 139 100-500 µm range, and a scan speed up to 7 m/s. A 20 µm 140 layer of EOS Maraging Steel MS1 powder was laid over a 141 building plate using a coating blade, then a laser selectively 142 melted the powder layer. A laser-contouring track is passed 143 to solidify the borders of the part and a hatching track is used 144 to solidify the interior. Between the layers, the direction of 145 the laser passing in the hatching track keeps alternating. In 146 order to optimize the layer deposition during the printing of 147 the snout, the snout was oriented with the main axis tilted 148 at 45° with respect to the horizontal plane and the vertical 149 direction as shown in Fig. 2. In this way, the amount of 150 removable support grid necessary for the correct growth of 151 the snout is minimised, as well as the expected discontinu-152 ity effects between the main body and the 45° smaller tilted 153 cone. 154

Journal : Large 12210 Article No : 994 Pages : 14 MS Code : 994 Dispatch : 4-5-2021



Fig. 1 The exit snout of the MACHINA beamline. Top: the exit snout (left) and its cross-section (right). The base of the nozzle is a standard DN16CF vacuum flange. Bottom: dimensional drawing (left) in mm and picture of the nozzle installed on the MACHINA beamline

(right), with four X-ray detectors, three for element detection (with green conical caps) and one (below the nozzle) for counting the X-rays produced by the beam in the extraction window



Fig. 2 (left) Model of the snout and of the support elements, showing the printing orientation. This configuration allowed us to grow the layers smoothly to complete the whole artefact. (right) The 3D printed sample as-built on the printing platform

The morphology of the as-received powder is shown in 155 the SEM image of Fig. 3a. The ImageJ software (Schneider 156 et al. 2012) was used to perform image analysis and obtain 157 the size distribution of the powder. Results of the analysis of 158 the particle size distribution are shown in Fig. 3b. Particle 159

diameters range between 4 and 64  $\mu$ m with a mean particle size of 21 µm and a standard deviation of 11 µm.

For vacuum applications, it is important to perform preliminary characterisation of the powder particle size and distribution, to correlate these features and the UHV 164

**Fig. 3** SEM image of the Maraging-Steel powder used in the fabrication process of the nozzle





performances. The homogeneity of the resulting metal struc-ture can indeed depend on the particle size.

 Table 1
 Scanning parameters in the two experimental configurations

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#### 167 **2.2 Tomography analysis**

The two tomographic methods, using X-ray and neutrons 168 as probes, provide complementary results. In both cases, 169 170 hundreds of transmission images (projections) are acquired at different angles by rotating the sample with respect to a 171 fixed axis and are then converted into a 3D data set, com-172 173 posed of virtual slices describing the sample volume (Kak and Slaney 2001). The slices are generally represented in 174 greyscale levels, where highly attenuating parts appear as 175 bright areas and more transparent materials as dark ones. 176

#### 177 2.2.1 X-ray tomography

X-ray computed tomography (XCT) is based on beam 178 attenuation due to the interaction of X-ray with the atomic 179 electrons of the sample investigated. Spatial resolution 180 limitations in XCT are due to the detector pixel size, but 181 when using X-ray tubes, the resolution also depends on the 182 magnification and on the X-ray focal spot size (Martz et al. 183 2017; Bettuzzi et al. 2007). The XCT system used to scan the 184 sample is the one at the INFN-CHNET X-ray Imaging Lab 185 of the Department of Physics and Astronomy of Bologna 186 University. The set-up is composed of a Varian PaxScan 187 2520D flat-panel X-ray detector  $(25 \times 20 \text{ cm}^2, 1536 \times 1920)$ 188 pixels, 127 µm pixel size, 1-10 fps, 14 bits ADC) and a 189 Kevex PXS-10 micro-focus X-ray tube (130 kVp, 0.5 mA 190 maximum current, 5 µm minimum focal spot size). The sys-191 tem is equipped with a precision two-axis horizontal-vertical 192 translation stage for the detector, a vertical translation stage 193 for the X-ray tube, and a micrometric rotation stage for the 194 195 sample (Brancaccio et al. 2015, 2011; Morigi and Casali 2018). 196

1st config 2nd config Tube voltage 130 kV 130 kV 170 µA Tube current 90 µA Beam filtration 0.2 mm Fe 0.5 mm Pb Detector frame rate 2 fps 2 fps Frame average 4 4 900 Number of projections 900 Angular range 360 deg 360 deg Detector pixel size 127 µm 127 µm Source-detector distance 729 mm 729 mm Source-object distance 223.5 mm 223.5 mm Object-detector distance 505.5 mm 505.5 mm Magnification 3.26 3.26 Voxel size 39 µm 39 µm

Table 1 reports the parameters of the two experimental 197 configurations for the sample scan. The first scan was opti-198 mized for the thinner part of the sample while the second for 199 the thicker one. Moreover, in the latter, the specimen's main 200 axis was tilted of almost 45° with respect to the support base 201 in order to minimize the reconstruction artefacts. In the sec-202 ond configuration, the beam was also filtered with 0.5 mm 203 lead sheet, to remove the low-energy X-rays to minimize 204 beam-hardening artefacts. 205

#### 2.2.2 Neutron tomography

Neutron Tomography (NT), on the contrary, is based on beam207attenuation due to a combination of scattering and absorption208by the target nuclei (the relative weight of the two phenom-209ena depends on the atomic species and the crystal structure)210(Sears 1992). The combination between the lower incoming211beam collimation and the sample scattering effect reduces the212

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| Journal : Large 12210 | Article No : 994 | Pages : 14 | MS Code : 994 | Dispatch : 4-5-2021 |
|-----------------------|------------------|------------|---------------|---------------------|
|                       |                  |            |               |                     |

transmitted beam collimation and the neutron radiographies 213 are then more blurred than those obtained using X-rays (Bilheux et al. 2009). For this reason samples for NT are generally placed as close as possible to the detector, thus achieving no image magnification. In general, for most dense materials, the penetration power of neutrons used in NT is much higher than that of X-rays used in XCT, so that microstructural features related to the crystalline structure inside the sample volume can be highlighted.

NT has a spatial resolution generally varying between 20 and 250 µm, depending on the experimental configuration, and allows for evidencing possible variations of density in the bulk (even bubbles and cracks), thanks to the different attenuation coefficients of volumes of different density (Bilheux et al. 2009). Moreover, since neutron beam attenuation is related to absorption and coherent and incoherent scattering, it is possible to exploit the coherent scattering attenuation effect (Lovesey 1986), to observe microstructural features of the crystalline grains. In fact, the attenuation power of coherent scattering is related to the size of crystallographic domains, to the presence 232 of preferential orientations, and to the compositional discrep-233 ancies (52 Santisteban et al. 2001). 234

Neutron imaging performed using cold neutrons (wavelength from 3 Å on) represents the best option to maximize material contrast from coherent scattering. The typical cold neutron beam has high flux in the wavelength range between 3 and 5 Å, which corresponds to the region where diffraction effects on the transmitted beam exhibit the maximum contrast (Santisteban et al. 2001: Kaestner et al. 2011). 241

The NT measurements shown in this work were taken at the 242 RADEN beam-line (Shinohara et al. 2016, 2020) at the MLF 243 J-PARC (JPARC 2021) spallation neutron source in Japan, 244 an imaging beam-line with a wide thermal and cold neutron 245 wavelength range (1.8–6.8 Å). The experimental parameters 246 are reported in Table 2. 247

The sample was wrapped in aluminum foil and fixed into a 248 thin aluminum tube, mounted on a rotating stage, to allow for 249 an easy sample positioning on the beam-line. 250

Data processing was performed using both ImageJ 42 251 (Schneider et al. 2012) and Octopus 57 (Vlassenbroeck et al. 252 2006) software. Since accelerator-based neutron source can 253 show some intensity fluctuations (these sources are known to 254 be slightly less stable than reactors 58 (Windsor 1981)), flux 255 variations were accounted for using an area of the projections 256 where no sample was present at all angles. The tomography 257 slices were then rotated to align the main geometrical axes of 258

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#### **3 Results**

#### 3.1 X-rays results

For both X-ray tomographic configurations (see Table 1 264 for details), the achieved voxel size is around 40 µm. Fig-265 ure 4 shows a 3D rendering of the upper part of the object 266 with (a) a frontal plane cutting the reconstructed volume 267 and (b) the corresponding virtual section. It is clear from 268 the figure that the internal surface of the component is 269 quite rough. By looking at the cross-section of the cone, it 270 is also possible to observe the presence of inhomogeneous 271 porosity inside the volume of the walls. A close-up of the 272 cone wall, highlighted by the red rectangle, allows observ-273 ing the shape, size, and distribution of the pores. 274

Figure 5 shows a sagittal section of the sample and the 275 corresponding tomography slice. The bottom-right cor-276 ner shows a detail of the section, highlighting the rough-277 ness of the internal surface. Considering that the sample 278 was grown by printing it along a tilted axis (see Fig. 2), 279 the observed channel-like structure, on the inner surface, 280 suggests that the growth of a layer is influenced by the 281 spatial arrangement of the previous ones. The roughness 282 of the internal surface also originates from loose powder 283 just partially adhering. The connection between the cones 284 appears free from flaws and defects, even though it is pos-285 sible to spot the presence of a few pores. 286

Figure 6 shows two axial sections taken at different heights of the cone. In both of them, the irregular and rough internal surface is visible. The wall shows strong beam hardening effects.

The second X-ray scan was performed minimizing 291 reconstruction artefacts (generated by strong attenuation 292 and beam hardening effects). The scan allowed us to obtain 293 limited information on the coarse structure of the material 294 and the surface alterations of this part of the sample. It has 295 been possible to visualise the irregular internal surface of 296 all the screw holes of the base, as shown in Fig. 7. The 297 apparent density fluctuations and the weak diagonal bands 298 in the bulk of the base are reconstruction artefacts due to 299 beam hardening. 300

| L/D | Field of view | Resolution                                  | #projections   | Acquisition time per projection  | #Number of<br>tomogra-<br>phies   |
|-----|---------------|---|--|--|---|
| 400 | 52×52 mm      | 70 µm                                       | 720  | 30 s   | 2   |
|     | L/D<br>400    | $\frac{L/D}{400} = 52 \times 52 \text{ mm}$ | $L/D$ Field of viewResolution400 $52 \times 52 \text{ mm}$ 70 $\mu \text{m}$ | $L/D$ Field of viewResolution#projections $400$ $52 \times 52 \text{ mm}$ $70  \mu \text{m}$ $720$ | $L/D$ Field of viewResolution#projectionsAcquisition time<br>per projection $400$ $52 \times 52 \text{ mm}$ $70 \ \mu \text{m}$ $720$ $30 \ \text{s}$ |

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**Fig. 4 a** Virtual cut with a frontal plane of the 3D rendering of the conical element of the sample. **b** Frontal section of the upper part of the sample showing the internal rough surface of the conical element and the elliptical intersection between the two cones. Magnification of the red highlighted area showing the presence of pores is reported in the top left corner





**Fig. 5** Left-hand side, sagittal section of the reconstructed volume of the sample; right-hand side, sagittal slice, and detail of the sliced volume at the joint between the two cones. The joint, which can be a critical point, appears flawless. As in the previous figure, the internal surface appears rough

#### 3.2 Neutron tomography results

The neutron investigation allowed identifying several inter-302 esting microstructural features. Since there is no macro-303 scopic compositional variation across the sample, variation 304 in attenuation coefficients are solely due to the different den-305 sity or coherent scattering power from the grains. In gen-306 eral, solid metal microstructural features and cavities, with 307 dimensions down to a few hundred microns, can be easily 308 visualized with NT over depths of several centimeters. It was 309 possible to visualize the porosity distribution in the sample. 310 The anisotropic distribution of the pores in the nozzle base 311 (a DN16CF flange, about 33 mm outer diameter, see Fig. 1 312 for all the details) is clearly visible in tomography slices. 313 In Fig. 8, the porosity distribution on a frontal section is 314 evidenced. The thick cylindrical base is highly porous, with 315 large parts of the volume showing a lower attenuation coef-316 ficient indicating higher porosity. This effect is particularly 317 visible in the volume around the hollow central part. 318

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In addition, the component shows a strong asymmetry 319 in porosity distribution between the left- and the right-hand 320 side. At the base, porosity is distributed along a diagonal 321 ellipsoidal volume and this distribution is possibly corre-322 lated with the diagonally arranged printing direction of the 323 sample, as shown in Fig. 2. Along the conical nose, pores are 324 more densely distributed on the right-hand side. A light grey 325 layer is present along most of its surface. This is an effect 326

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| Journal : Large 12210 | Article No : 994 | Pages : 14 | MS Code : 994 | Dispatch : 4-5-2021 |
|-----------------------|------------------|------------|---------------|---------------------|
|                       |                  |            |               |                     |

**Fig. 6** Axial slices at two different heights of the sample. **a** Close to the base; **b** at about half-length of the cone. Both axial sections show the internal irregular surface and the beam hardening effect





**Fig.7** Frontal section of the base on the reconstructed 3D volume showing the irregular inner surface of the holes

induced by the increased scattering phenomenon due to the<br/>application of shot peening surface finishing, which reduces327<br/>328the average grain size (connected with the size of the crystal-<br/>lographic domains) and slightly increases the density, thus<br/>increasing the general attenuation power of the area. It is<br/>size (by the different grayscale attenuation) and the penetration<br/>depth of shot peening treatment.331<br/>333

In Fig. 9, a sagittal section of the base is shown, a few mm away from of the hole side, eccentric with respect to the central axis, 90° rotated with respect to Fig. 8. The anisotropic distribution of the porosity shows abrupt density variations where the most porous area surrounds the

**Fig. 8** Frontal section of the MACHINA exit snout. The anisotropic distribution of the porous areas in the different parts is clearly visible



| Journal : Large 12210         Article No : 994         Pages : 14         MS Code : 994         Dispatch : 4-5-2 | )21 |
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**Fig. 9** Sagittal view of the base, eccentric with respect to the central hole. Red lines on the left are a guide to show some preferred orientations of the directional solidification. On the bottom left side, randomly distributed, light grey reticulated lines are also visible. They show the presence of inter-granular precipitation and appear light due to the presence of cobalt

central hole. With such high porosity, which appears to 340 form a network, the pores may create a (partial) pathway 341 connecting the inner (i.e. in vacuum) and the outer (i.e. 342 in atmosphere) side of the snout. Red lines in Fig. 9 are a 343 guide to the eye to evidence structures related to coherent-344 scattering neutron attenuation. These structures indicate 345 the presence of preferred orientations of the grains, cor-346 347 related to directional solidification, which appears to be non-parallel, ascribable to the sample orientation during 348 the print. 349

Light grey randomly reticulated lines show the presence of inter-granular precipitation. They are particularly evident at the left-hand side, just below the red lines. The precipitates must be rich in cobalt since it is present in the alloy. Cobalt is an element that strongly attenuates neutrons and Co-rich areas appear bright in the slice.

Figure 10 shows another frontal view, parallel to Fig. 8. 356 The anisotropic distribution of porosity is evident, both radi-357 ally (with respect to the central hole) and diagonally (with 358 respect to the base). Solidification lines are also visible in 359 the cylindrical part of the nose and appear diagonally tilted, 360 as evidenced by the red line. Other inhomogeneities are vis-361 ible in the base, indicating different relative concentrations 362 of the alloying elements of the steel and the presence of a 363 network of precipitates with different concentration and size. 364 365 This means that the heating induced by the SLM procedure has local and areal effects, related to the sample geometry, 366 machine speed, and other factors, which might affect the 367 368 mechanical characteristics of the sample. The abrupt change of density and microstructure between the thick base and the 369 thin walls of the nose is also evident. 370

Figure 11 shows another frontal cross-section and offers a different view of both the porosity distribution and solidification directions. The different effects induced by shot peening are very clear when looking at the top arch, where bright and dark grains are visible. Geometric deformations within the screwing holes in the base are also visible (left-hand side tilted with respect to the external side face, right-hand side



**Fig. 10** Frontal view. It is evident the anisotropic distribution of porosity (as highlighted by the red oval) and the presence, in the nose, of highly tilted solidification lines, as highlighted by the red line on the left



**Fig. 11** Frontal cross-section, parallel to Fig. 10, showing the porosity distribution and the complex network of the solidification lines. Geometric deformation within the screwing holes in the base are also visible (left-hand side tilting with respect to the external side face, right-hand side bent banana shape effect)

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| Journal : Large 12210 | Article No : 994 | Pages : 14 | MS Code : 994 | Dispatch : 4-5-2021 |
|-----------------------|------------------|------------|---------------|---------------------|
|                       |                  |            |               |                     |

bent with banana-shape effect), a macroscopic effect in themillimeter scale.

Figure 12 shows an axial view of the top head of the con-380 nector. On the main circular element, the surface treatment 381 induced by shot peening is evident, which is more effective 382 on the top half. The red lines show a grid correlated to the 383 solidification directions, which follow different orientations 384 and density distributions, according to the different areas 385 along the circumference. The elliptical element is a section 386 of the tilted cone and shows an average lower density and 387 higher porosity in the bottom half. The volume of the con-388 necting part between the cones shows a strong variation of 389 attenuation coefficients and directional solidification lines, 390 but no pores. This is not a foregone result, due to the com-391 plex geometry of this part of the nozzle, and confirms that 392



**Fig. 12** Axial section view of the conical connectors, including their superimposition volume. The solidification line grid is visible, as evidenced by the crossed red lines

the metal AM technology can be a proper approach to the production of complex parts not only for mechanical components but also for accelerators.

Figure 13 shows a lower axial slice with respect to Fig. 12, closer to the base. The red lines show a grid correlated to the solidification directions, following different orientations and distributions according to their positions within the sample. The rim of the tilted conical element (bottom in the figure) exhibits a different attenuation coefficient on the very edge. Some pores are evident throughout the section. The typical tomography reconstruction ring artefacts are visible on the central area of the left side of the tilted cone, showing completely different behavior with respect to the solidification lines, thus demonstrating that solidification lines are real effects.

Figure 14 shows a frontal view of the connecting area408between the vertical and tilted cone. The distribution of the409solidification lines all along the section is evident. The inter-410section volume appears quite homogenous, confirming the411conclusions of Fig. 12, and shows little porosity or microstruc-412tural effects induced by the geometry. As expected, the inner413



Fig. 13 Lower section view of the conical connectors. Solidification line grid is visible

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**Fig. 14** Frontal view of the volume connecting the vertical and the tilted cones. Solidification lines are visible. Nevertheless, the connecting volume appears sound metal, even though it shows small microstructural variations

surface of the cones appears uneven, since no shot peeningsurface treatment was applied there.

Figure 15 shows a further effect revealed by neutron tomog-416 raphy. The sample was printed tilted at 45°, therefore it started 417 to be printed in two separate parts (see Fig. 2). When the part 418 coming from the thick base and the one from the thin wall 419 of the cylinder, having an independent thermal history and 420 grain orientation, come into contact, it is possible to expect 421 discontinuity effects. In fact, the gravscale tones of the two 422 parts appear different, lighter in the basement disk and darker 423 in the thin cylinder. Moreover, there is a clear horizontal dis-424 continuity in the attenuation coefficient of the cylinder. This 425 is possibly due to a forced reorientation of the grains induced 426 in the thin wall by the more massive disk element. The laser 427 heating during the deposition of the layers could cause a sort 428 of annealing phenomenon in the less massive part, changing 429 430 its microstructural orientation. This means that the heating effect could induce the re-arrangement, under specific condi-431 tions, even in the layers already printed before the connection 432 433 took place.

#### 434 **4 Discussion**

435 Data analysis provided quantitative results in terms of437 dimensional and microstructural features, shortly summa-437 rised hereafter.

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**Fig. 15** Frontal view tomography slice with the sample shown in asgrown orientation. It is evident the presence of a horizontal discontinuity in the grey tones of the thin hollow cylinder, in the red squared area, and in the magnified image on the bottom left. Since the printing started with two independent pieces, unified for the first time at this height, the different thermal history gives origin to a discrepancy in the microstructure and orientation

From XCT data, it has been possible to:

- Carry out the dimensional analysis of the several elements of the snout, such as wall thickness and curvature, which turned out to be compliant with the design specifications within 100 µm tolerance, mainly due to surface roughness.
- Determine the surface roughness, which resulted to be below 40 μm (limit of resolution, set by pixel size).
- Estimate the dimension of the porosity, observed in the walls of the snout, which resulted to be in the 100-300 μm scale.
   446
- Point out the excellent quality (almost flaw-less) of the material in the volume connecting of the two conical elements.
   449
- Observing the presence of non-negligible distortions (up to the 200–300 μm scale) in the screw-passing holes of the base.

The lack of information about the bulk structure in 455 the metal and the possible presence of microstructural 456

distortions, excluding the effect of reconstruction artefacts, confirmed the need of a higher penetrating probe, whose interaction is not mainly based on absorption, as is the case XCT.

NT data analysis confirmed the excellent capability of
cold neutrons to identify microstructural and compositional features within solid metal. In this specific sample,
several important features were identified:

- 465 1. Porosity size (ranging from 150 μm diameter, the resolution limit, up to 300 μm).
- Porosity shape and spatial distribution (smaller holes in
  the snout walls, bigger in the base, where a noticeable
  and unexpected decrease of density is evident).
- 3. Microstructural effects of shot peening treatment. It was
  possible to measure its local effect resulting in a reduction of the grain size (decrease of neutron transmission
  induced by the increase of the scattering power due to
  the smaller size of the grains and the increase of the
  local density of defects).
- 476 4. The depth of the shot-peening treatment, which is about477 200 μm.
- 478 5. Qualitative determination of size and shape of the grains,
  479 pointed out by a non-homogeneous spatial distribution
  480 of inter-granular Co-rich precipitates (in the NT images,
  481 a paler reticulate caused by a higher Co presence at the
  482 grain boundaries. This higher Co presence is induced by
  483 the thermal effects of the additive manufacturing pro484 cess).
- 6. The general behavior of the spatial distribution of the 485 solidification lines. It was evidenced that they diagonally 486 intersect the external walls and that the general shape of 487 the grains along the nose walls follow the main growth 488 directions and sometimes exhibit arch-shaped features. 489 These arches are generated by the solidification direc-490 tions during the additive manufacturing process, follow-491 ing thermal gradients and adduction directions. 492
- 7. The presence of a discontinuity in the microstructure 493 caused by the unification of two parts (the thick base and 494 the thin wall of the cylinder). Because of the orientation, 495 they are initially printed as separate parts and thus expe-496 rience different thermal histories and grain orientations 497 before joining. These different thermal histories and 498 grain orientations caused, during the joining process, 499 the microstructural discontinuities evidenced by NT. 500

501 Considering that only non-invasive techniques have 502 been used, the level of characterization of the analyzed 503 sample is highly satisfactory in terms of microstructural 504 and dimensional analysis.

#### 5 Conclusions

For accelerator science and in general, for UHV applica-506 tions, there is a strong interest in exploiting metal AM pro-507 duction processes for prototyping and production of special 508 components. To point out possible relationships between 509 metal AM machine configurations and UHV performances, 510 it is necessary the availability of non-destructive techniques 511 (Fernandez et al. 2020) able to provide microstructural infor-512 mation about the parts of interest, possibly being able to 513 point out also the differences between parts produced with 514 metal AM and conventional machining. We performed such 515 a study on the exit snout of MACHINA, the first transport-516 able particle accelerator. We used two non-destructive imag-517 ing techniques, XCT and NT, to investigate the resulting 518 microstructure of the exit snout, additively manufactured 519 out of Maraging steel. 520

XCT evidenced qualitative details about the surface 521 roughness and internal defects, NT showed excellent ability 522 in imaging the spatial density distribution within the com-523 ponent. In addition, NT allowed us to correlate the internal 524 density distribution with the building orientation of the part. 525 Density variations suggest the possibility of defect pathways, 526 which could affect high vacuum performances. In addition, 527 these results highlight the importance of considering build-528 ing orientation in the design for additive manufacturing for 529 UHV applications. 530

Further investigations are needed to characterize precipi-<br/>tates, distortion, and other features, possibly with the addi-<br/>tion of neutron and X-ray diffraction (Merlino 2013; Allegra<br/>2013; Artioli 2013; Dabagov et al. 2020). Furthermore, a<br/>full UHV characterization on purposely-prepared metal AM<br/>vacuum parts is also necessary. This research program is<br/>already in progress.531

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#### 552 **Declarations**

**Conflicts of interest** The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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