



ADDITIVE MANUFACTURING OF ADVANCED MATERIALS

Sanapala Jyothsna¹, Sarepalli Damadara Rao², Tarlada Bhuvaneshwara Rao³

¹Mechanical GMR Institute of Technology jyothsnasanapala5@gmail.com

²Mechanical GMR Institute of Technology saripalldamodararao2003@gmail.com

³Mechanical GMR Institute of Technology Tarladabhuvanesh@gmail.com

ABSTRACT :

Additive Manufacturing makes it possible to create intricate geometries in a single piece. When compared to traditional manufacturing techniques, it provides greater flexibility and efficiency. Demand for personalized products, quicker product development cycles, sustainability, lower production costs, and innovative business models are the main factors driving AM's growth. AM has surpassed conventional manufacturing techniques because it embodies the ideas of being universal, useful, and efficient. With notable growth in the wearables and medical device markets, AM is quickly spreading into a number of industrial areas, including biomedicine, automotive, and aviation. Due to problems including low productivity and precision, many industrial enterprises do not currently view additive manufacturing (AM) as a viable alternative to conventional manufacturing; nonetheless, the technology is evolving quickly and has substantial development potential if these obstacles are removed. In contrast to subtractive and formative manufacturing techniques, additive manufacturing (AM) is described by the ISO/ASTM 52900 standard as the process of combining materials to create items from 3D model data, often layer upon layer. AM has numerous benefits, such as Parts are combined, and the entire set is produced. Thin walls can be produced using additive manufacturing. The cooling channels are made up of tiny holes that are infinitely long. The machines operate on their own. The more complicated the part, the more money can be saved. electronic pre-processing.

Keywords- Additive Manufacturing, Automotive, Sustainability, Conventional, Aeronautics, Consolidation.

INTRODUCTION :

Introduction to Additive Manufacturing

The process of creating a three-dimensional object from a digital 3D or CAD model by layering on material is known as additive manufacturing. 3D printing is another name for additive manufacturing. There are several methods for adding material, including power deposition, resin curing, and filament fusing. To produce a three-dimensional object, a computer controls the deposition and solidification processes. Through increasing design freedom, cutting time to market, bringing production closer to demand, and enhancing industrial sustainability, it has the potential to revolutionize next-generation manufacturing. It can manufacture objects layer by layer.

3D printing, also referred to as additive manufacturing (AM), is the technique of building things from digital designs layer by layer. In contrast to conventional manufacturing techniques, which may entail AM constructs objects by gradually adding material while eliminating material through cutting, drilling, or machining. Numerous materials, including metals, ceramics, polymers, and even biological materials, are used in this technology, enabling a variety of applications. Many industries employ additive manufacturing (AM) processes to produce both physical s44 prototypes and final items. For almost ten years, these techniques have been used to produce architectural models in the construction industry. The primary advantages of additive manufacturing include rapid prototyping, mass customisation, automation of the production process, design freedom, and the capacity to create complicated structures.

AM's uses in consumer goods, electronics, buildings, automotive, biomedical, aerospace, a Among the many benefits of additive manufacturing are decreased waste, opportunity for customization, and the capacity to can produce intricate geometries that would be difficult or impossible to accomplish with traditional techniques. Innovations like lightweight parts, complex medical implants, and on-demand production are made possible by its widespread use in a variety of industries, including consumer products, healthcare, automotive, and aerospace and Protective Constructions.

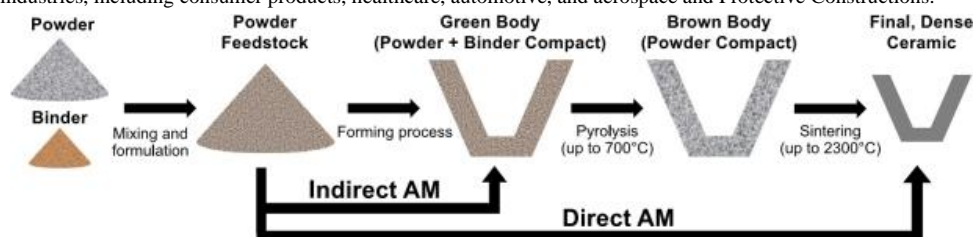


Fig.1: Process of Additive Manufacturing

A. Importance of Additive Manufacturing

Complex geometries that are frequently difficult or too expensive to accomplish with traditional manufacturing can be achieved with additive manufacturing. For industries like aerospace, healthcare, and automotive that need unique shapes, designers may manufacture complex, customized parts without the need for additional machines. AM speeds up the prototype process, enabling businesses to test and improve products more rapidly. AM produces items straight from digital files, in contrast to conventional techniques that can call for molds or dies. As a result, low-volume production becomes financially feasible and initial setup expenses are decreased. It's particularly useful for creating highly customized or small-batch products.

Problem Definition

Additive Manufacturing (AM), sometimes known as 3D printing, is the method of making things by layering materials according to computer plans. In comparison to more conventional manufacturing techniques like injection molding or machining, this cutting-edge technology is revolutionizing industries by facilitating the quick manufacture of intricate parts, customisation, and less waste.

Significance of the Research

Additive manufacturing (AM) research is essential for fostering innovation, increasing productivity, and opening up new opportunities in a variety of sectors. Addressing the difficulties and optimizing the advantages of 3D printing depend on the development of knowledge and technology in this area as AM continues to change.

Additive Manufacturing of ceramic

A. Overview of relevant literature

This overview discusses the historical roots and development of each related technology while concentrating on the most recent developments in ceramic 3D printing. The primary technical elements, such as feedstock characteristics, post-treatments, process control, and interactions between energy sources and materials. The problems in processing structural ceramic materials, such as high processing temperatures, mechanical qualities that are susceptible to defects, and poor machining characteristics, are the root cause of the obstacles in ceramic additive manufacturing.

Through a methodical assessment of each AM technology's capabilities, this study offers a thorough overview of the state-of-the-art in advanced ceramic AM, with a focus on reported outcomes in terms of mechanical properties, surface polish, and ultimate density. A thorough examination of the potential, problems, benefits, and drawbacks associated with processing advanced ceramics with each AM method is also provided.

In order to make the three-dimensional geometries, a number of printable ceramic inks were made, and then the foaming agent was applied to create gaseous bubbles in the ink. This was followed by direct ink writing and drying at room temperature and ambient pressure. The best process parameters for printing the foamed ceramic ink with fine surface quality and high resolution were found in the results. This essay addresses a number of density-related topics, such as measurement techniques, obtained values, and terminology. It then goes over two types of methods to make the part denser: postprocessing methods (sintering, chemical reaction, infiltration) and material preparation methods (mixing powders of various sizes, employing slurry feedstock).

AM has effectively created ceramic components with mechanical qualities similar to those of traditionally produced ceramics, free of fractures and big pores. AM of ceramics places a strong emphasis on striking a balance between the intricacy of the process and the end product's quality. AM has effectively created ceramic components with mechanical qualities similar to those of traditionally produced ceramics, free of fractures and big pores. AM of ceramics places a strong emphasis on striking a balance between the intricacy of the process and the end product's quality.

The article describes several 3DP technologies for advanced ceramics, emphasizing both their benefits and drawbacks for producing parts for varied uses. It is capable of producing components for biomedical, piezoelectric, and structural uses. The article compares and introduces the several AM technologies utilized to produce CCSs. A thorough overview of structure–function integrated AM-CCSs is given in the review. It predicts the difficulties and possibilities in creating structure-function integrated AM-CCSs. This review focuses on glass ceramics, which are perfect for dental replacements like crowns due to their mechanical properties, optical requirements, and precision. The precision of the completed pieces is evaluated using digitizing techniques; micro computed tomography (CT) Scanning Produces the best results.

B. Key theories or concepts

Different ceramic 3D printing techniques shape or cure the material using different energy sources (such as lasers or UV radiation). Layer cohesion, cure speed, and material bonding are all impacted by the interaction between the energy source and ceramic particles. To prevent flaws and produce excellent results, these interactions must be well managed. In order to determine print quality, surface polish, and structural integrity, the ceramic powders, pastes, or suspensions are essential. In ceramic 3D printing, process control encompasses variables including temperature control, layer height, and print speed. Usually, post-processing procedures like debinding, drying, and sintering are needed for ceramic 3D-printed items. These procedures densify the structure and improve its mechanical qualities.

Every AM process, such as material extrusion, binder jetting, and stereolithography, has special properties for working with ceramic materials. The end product's mechanical qualities, surface finish, and attainable density are all impacted by the technology selection. While surface finish affects both functioning and aesthetic quality, achieving a high final density is essential for minimizing porosity and optimizing strength. Challenges with ceramic

AM include brittleness, which restricts post-processing possibilities, shrinkage during sintering, and trouble obtaining uniform density. Additionally, each AM technique has unique restrictions with regard to process stability, material compatibility, and resolution.

Foamed ceramic inks can be precisely extruded to create intricate geometries using Direct Ink Writing (DIW). Because DIW can handle viscous inks and preserve the internal pore structure and foamed structure of the ink when printing, it is a good choice for printing foamed ceramics. In order to create gaseous bubbles and lower material density while maintaining structural integrity, foamed ceramic inks are specially made with a foaming agent. This invention makes it possible to create lightweight ceramic structures, which makes them appropriate for uses like biomedical scaffolds or thermal insulation that call for low-density, high-strength materials.

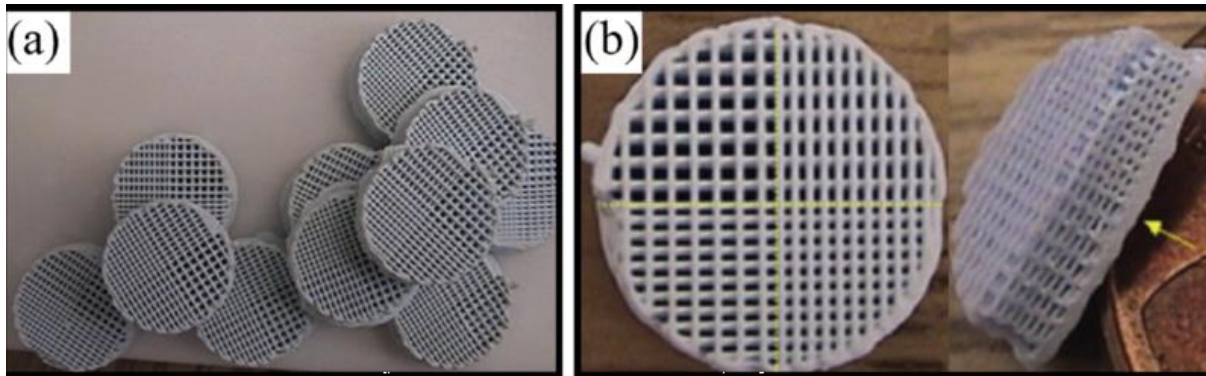


Fig.2: Optical micrographs of hydroxyapatite (HA) scaffolds prepared by DIW

In ceramic additive manufacturing (AM), density is a crucial characteristic that directly affects the material's performance, durability, and mechanical strength. Because smaller particles reduce porosity by filling the spaces between bigger ones, mixing powders of different sizes improves packing efficiency. Higher starting densities can be attained by using slurry feedstocks, which also allow for homogeneous dispersion and compaction. Internal spaces can also be filled by chemical processes or secondary material infiltration, which improves mechanical qualities and density. For structural applications that demand strength and endurance, high density is frequently preferred. However, regulated porosity could be advantageous for particular applications, like filters or biomedical implants.

Ceramic components made using additive manufacturing (AM) processes can have low porosity and few cracks, which is comparable to the quality of ceramics made traditionally. This is accomplished by minimizing faults that frequently occur in ceramic manufacturing by optimizing process parameters such layer deposition, energy input, and material handling. The balance between process complexity (such as setup needs and exact parameter control) and end product quality is a major area of focus in ceramic AM.

Sophisticated control over variables including printing speed, layer thickness, and postprocessing methods is necessary to produce high-quality ceramics. Finding this equilibrium is essential to creating high-quality, reasonably priced ceramics that satisfy industry requirements. AM is especially beneficial for complex and customized designs because of its reduced material waste and geometric flexibility.

It has been shown that additive manufacturing (AM) can create ceramic components with lots of pores and few cracks, producing dense, flawless structures. The viability of AM ceramics in performance-driven applications is increased by this quality, which is necessary to preserve mechanical qualities that are comparable to those attained by traditional ceramic production procedures. To guarantee constant quality, advanced AM methods frequently call for exact control over parameters (such as temperature and feed rate). By balancing these variables, production time and expense can be reduced without sacrificing the quality and functionality of the final product. Applications in a variety of precision-demanding industries, including electronics, biomedical, and energy, are supported by AM ceramics' design flexibility and customization potential.

C.Gaps or contreveries in the literature

The intricacy of ceramic 3D printing methods against their scalability is a major point of contention. Although great precision is provided by sophisticated techniques (such as laser sintering and stereolithography), scaling up for mass production is difficult due to their complex requirements. While some contend that these techniques work best for niche, low-volume applications, others support advancements that would enable them to be used in larger-scale production. The choice and effects on the environment of ceramic feedstock materials, including binders, slurries, and powders, are still up for debate. Because ceramics are sensitive to process variables (such as temperature and humidity), achieving consistency in ceramic parts is a major source of disagreement.

Bending Radius and Printing Temperature Variations

The bending radius before fracture of the YSZ filaments varies significantly, according to the study. It doesn't, however, go into great detail about the precise causes of these variations. Although Fabru YSZ's slightly higher printing temperature is observed, no comprehensive investigation has been done to link this attribute to the material's bending radius or fracture behavior. This gap might be filled by a more thorough mechanical and thermal analysis.

Presence of Aluminum Impurity in SiCeram Filament

Questions concerning its origin are raised by the discovery of aluminum (Al) in the SiCeram filament. The Al impurity in commercial zirconia dental implants is mentioned in passing as a potential reason in the paper, but it is not investigated as to whether this impurity is present in the raw material or was added during processing. The capacity to extrapolate results about the presence of Al to other filaments is restricted by this ambiguity.

Role of Agglomerates in Flow Behaviour

For the SiCeram and Fabru YSZ filaments, pressure peaks suggesting agglomerates were observed; however, the investigation does not conclusively determine whether these agglomerates originate from the sources of ceramic powder or from the processing conditions during filament manufacturing. The PT+A filament's lack of agglomerates introduces complexity by pointing to variations in raw material quality or processing methods. This problem might be clarified by other characterisation techniques (like SEM or XRD).

Higher Extrusion Pressure for Fabru Filament

A thorough chemical and rheological investigation of the binder does not support the study's conclusion that variations in binder recipes are the cause of the increased extrusion pressure for the Fabru YSZ filament. Particle size distribution or powder-binder interactions may also play a role, thus more research is required to determine the binder composition as the only influence.

Unexplained Continuous Pressure Drop for Fabru Filament

It is believed that feedstock adhering to the capillary rheometer's metal wall causes the constant pressure decrease that occurs throughout the extrusion of the Fabru filament. Nevertheless, there is no experimental support for this premise. If wall interaction is the culprit, it might be verified by testing different rheometer configurations or coatings.

Insufficient Exploration of Hafnium Content

While the hafnium content in the filaments is mentioned as a by-product of zirconium refining, the potential impact of this impurity on the mechanical, thermal, or flow properties of the filaments is not discussed. This represents a missed opportunity to explore how minor elemental differences influence filament performance.

Limited Discussion of Filament Homogeneity

One characteristic that distinguishes the PT+A filament is that it does not exhibit agglomerates during the homogeneity examination. The study, however, doesn't go into detail about the material composition or processing techniques that produced this homogeneity. To better understand this benefit, specific processing parameters for every filament would be helpful.

Table 1

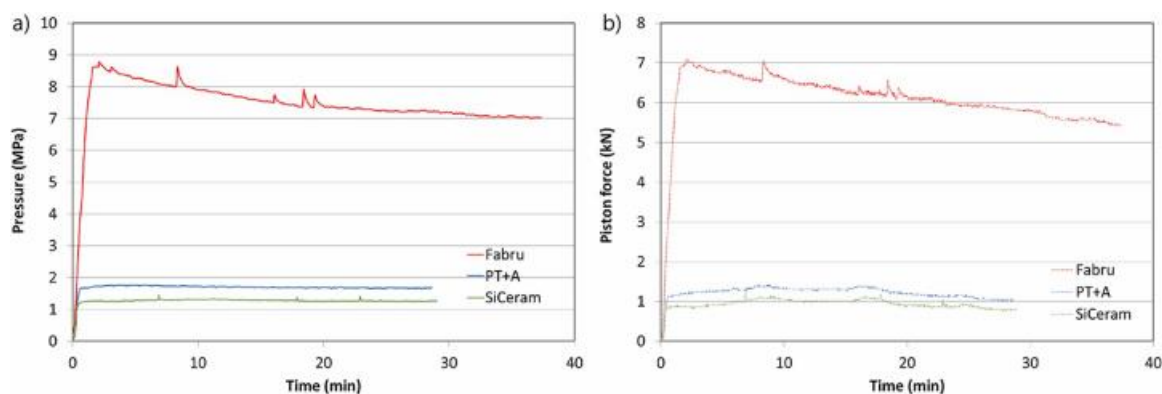
Characterization of the three as-received YSZ filaments.

| | SiCeram GmbH | PT+A GmbH | Fabru GmbH |
|--|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Density Filament [g/ccm] | 3.52 ± 0.01 | 3.52 ± 0.01 | 3.20 ± 0.01 |
| Filament diameter [mm] | 1.75 ± 0.05 | 1.75 ± 0.05 | 1.75 ± 0.05 |
| Bending radius [mm] | 60 ± 5 | 60 ± 5 | < 16 |
| [g/ccm] ^a Density of YSZ | 6.05 | 6.05 | 6.05 |
| ^a Printing temperature [°C] | 130 | 130 – 160 | 180–200 |
| ^a Printing speed [mm/s] | 155 – 170 | 30 – 80 | 10–30 |
| | 5 – 30 | | |

Generation of Findings

The study focuses on three commercial YSZ filaments, but the findings are not contextualized in the broader landscape of ceramic filaments. Without comparing to non-YSZ filaments or other ceramic formulations, the generalizability of the observations remains limited.

Fig.3:a) shows the pressure at the die entrance vs.time b) shows the piston force vs. time.



Material Development

Limited availability of ceramic materials tailored for specific 3D printing techniques. Insufficient exploration of composite ceramic systems to enhance properties like strength and toughness.

Process Challenges

Powder-based methods face unresolved issues such as thermal stresses, poor surface quality, and structural defects. Lack of a comprehensive understanding of interactions (e.g., laser-ceramic, binder-powder) during fabrication limits performance improvements.

Large-Scale Production

Difficulty in scaling up the production of large ceramic parts due to brittleness and challenges in maintaining dimensional accuracy and surface quality. Industrial mass production remains costly and inefficient compared to conventional manufacturing methods.

Post-Processing Complexity

Integration of post-treatments like isostatic pressing or infiltration is time-consuming and costly. Research on reducing post-processing steps while maintaining quality is needed.

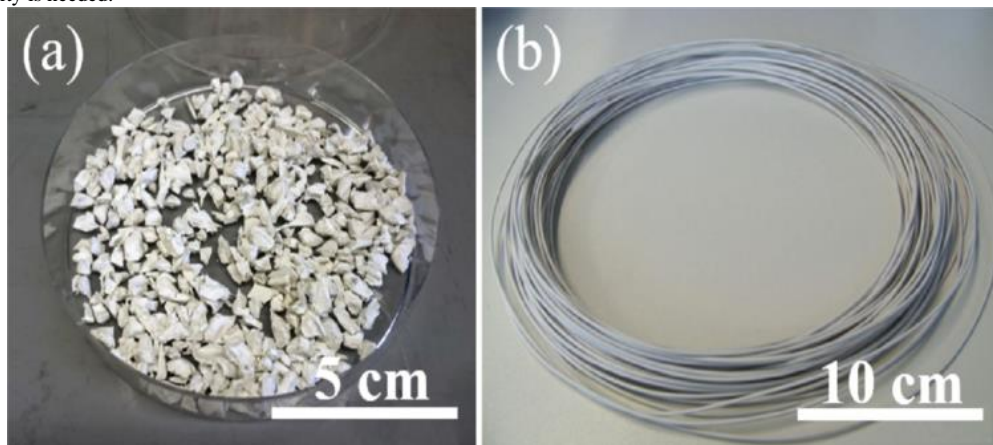


Fig.4:(a)kneaded ABS-BT feedstock

(b) ABS-BT composite filament sample

Certification and Compliance

Lengthy certification processes, especially in the aerospace and medical industries, hinder the broader adoption of ceramic 3D printing. Studies on standardization and compliance for ceramic 3D-printed components are lacking.

Support for Powder-Based Fusion

Advocates argue that selective laser sintering (SLS) and selective laser melting (SLM) have significant potential due to their extensive use in plastics and metals, suggesting that the challenges for ceramics can be overcome with further research.

Criticism of Powder-Based Fusion

Detractors highlight that the inherent limitations, such as residual stresses, thermal cracks, and poor surface quality, may fundamentally limit its feasibility for ceramics compared to photopolymerization methods like digital light processing (DLP), which offer superior surface finish and resolution.

METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

Enhance the mechanical qualities, density, and surface quality of ceramic components made using PBF. Try different preheating methods to lessen thermal gradients and the cracking they cause. To maximize thermal characteristics, look into using coated ceramic powders with different polymer layers. To forecast and maximize laser power, scanning speed, and layer thickness, model thermal diffusion in PBF operations. Analyze how powder flowability and packing density are affected by particle size and agglomeration techniques (such as spray drying).

Examine how the choice of binder (such as thermoplastics versus thermosets) affects the final density and green body strength. To enhance densification, incorporate warm isostatic pressing (WIP) and isostatic pressing as post-processing procedures. Examine sintering techniques and binder burnout to reduce

flaws and preserve dimensional stability. To increase toughness, introduce metals or polymers into porous pores to create composite ceramics. Create DED methods for creating dense parts and applying ceramic coatings. Examine how lasers interact with ceramic powders and adjust settings for melting or direct sintering. Examine methods for lowering thermal stresses and porosity in ceramic components and coatings. Examine the wear and mechanical characteristics of items made with DED for uses like biomedical implants and turbine blades. Create AM procedures that can create parts with spatially tailored properties.

To create heterogeneous ceramic components with composition gradients, investigate multi-material additive manufacturing techniques. Examine the mechanical properties that emerge from the interface bonding between various materials. To create ceramic composites with certain thermal, electrical, or optical qualities, use computational modeling. Improve ceramic AM processes' repeatability and dependability. Use in situ monitoring methods to find printing flaws, such as acoustic emission and infrared thermography. To forecast failure modes and optimize process parameters, create machine learning algorithms. Develop post-processing techniques to homogenize material properties and assess the anisotropy of mechanical properties. Increase the variety of ceramic materials available and enhance their suitability for AM techniques. Examine novel ceramic feedstocks, such as preceramic polymers, to produce parts with a high density and low porosity. Create and evaluate lightweight, highly impact-resistant ceramic armor components.

Create intricately shaped, biocompatible ceramic implants that are ideal for load-bearing applications. For improved performance in hot conditions, fabricate turbine blades and other parts with built-in cooling channels. Assess advancements and pinpoint research gaps in ceramic AM. To find key works and new trends, do a bibliometric analysis of ceramic AM articles. To identify areas of technological lag and potential, compare the development of ceramic AM with those of plastic and metal AM. Examine how past innovations have influenced modern AM techniques and material development.

B. Data Collection Methods

SEM and laser diffraction are used to examine the powder's shape and particle size distribution. Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) and differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) are used to determine the thermal characteristics of binders and feedstock. During PBF, the laser's power, speed, and layer height are continuously monitored. Measurements of rheology for binder jetting and vat photopolymerization inks. Archimedes' principle density measurements. Testing of mechanical properties (such as hardness and flexural strength). microstructural examination (e.g., grain structure, porosity). Finite Element Analysis (FEA) simulations of stress distributions and temperature gradients. In photopolymerization processes, model the curing depth and the laser-material interaction. An examination of additive manufacturing methods throughout history. compilation of ceramic AM's developments and difficulties.

C. Sample Selection

Ceramic powders like alumina, zirconia, silicon carbide, and silicon nitride are examples of material-based selection. several types of binder (preceramic polymers, thermosets, and thermoplastics). Cover both direct ceramic AM techniques (like PBF) and indirect ones (like binder jetting and vat photopolymerization). samples designed for use in defense, aerospace, or medical implants. Incorporate both basic shapes (bars, discs) and intricate ones (lattice scaffolds, dental restorations).

D. Methods of Data Analysis

Regression analysis and ANOVA are two statistical methods used to evaluate mechanical properties across samples. Porosity and relative density calculations. Visual evaluation of dimensions accuracy and surface finish. Microstructural characteristics, such as the distribution of grain sizes, are compared. Agreement between FEA predictions for mechanical and thermal properties and experiment data.

Additive manufacturing of metals (Titanium)

Because of their exceptional strength-to-weight ratio, resistance to corrosion, and biocompatibility, titanium alloys are essential in demanding applications. Casting, forging, and machining are examples of traditional titanium manufacturing techniques that can be difficult and expensive, especially when creating complex geometries. Often known as 3D printing, additive manufacturing (AM) has become a game-changing technology that offers previously unheard-of design flexibility, less material waste, and the capacity to produce objects with intricate interior structures. For sectors that require efficiency and performance, the use of titanium alloys in AM creates new options.

For titanium alloys, the two most popular AM methods are:

Selective Laser Melting (SLM) : Selective Laser Melting (SLM) is a powder bed fusion method that melts and fuses a layer of titanium powder using a laser.

Electron Beam Melting (EBM): This technique is comparable to SLM but employs an electron beam to melt titanium powder, usually in a vacuum, which lessens oxidation.

Geometrically complex titanium parts may be made using both techniques, which is essential for use in military, automotive, biomedical implant, and aerospace technology. The nature of the AM method and the properties of the alloys utilized, however, make it difficult to produce titanium parts with the required qualities, such as high strength, ductility, and toughness.

2. Additive Manufacturing Process for Titanium Alloys outstanding strength, resistance to corrosion, and formability

2.1. Titanium Alloys Used in AM

With 6% aluminum and 4% vanadium, Ti-6Al-4V (Grade 5) is the most used titanium alloy. It has outstanding strength, resistance to corrosion, and formability. Extra Low Interstitial Ti-6Al-4V (ELI): This type of Ti-6Al-4V has fewer interstitial components, such as nitrogen and oxygen, which improves its biocompatibility and makes it perfect for use in biomedical applications.

8V-6Cr-4Zr-4Mo Ti-3Al: Because of its exceptional strength and resistance to fatigue, this high-strength titanium alloy is frequently utilized in aircraft applications.

Beta Titanium Alloys: Compared to alpha-beta alloys like Ti-6Al-4V, alloys like Ti-15Mo and Ti-3Al-8V-6Cr-4Zr have greater strength and improved weldability.

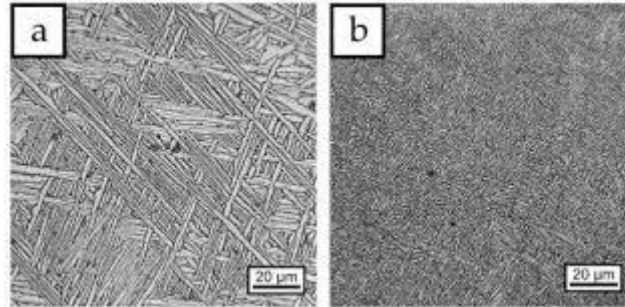


Fig No:2 Microstructures of titanium alloys produced by additive manufacturing:

(a) columnar grain structure typical of rapid solidification, and (b) equiaxed grain structure after post-processing[2].

2.2 Methods of process

Selective Laser Melting (SLM): Using the computer-aided design (CAD) model as a guide, a powerful laser melts the titanium powder layer by layer. Precise layer thickness is made possible by the tiny powder, resulting in intricate geometries with little material waste.

Electron Beam Melting (EBM): EBM melts titanium powder using an electron beam, same as SLM, but it works in a vacuum, which makes it perfect for high-purity titanium alloys. Although the EBM process is slower than SLM, it offers greater control over material characteristics and thermal stresses.

3. Challenges in Additive Manufacturing of Titanium Alloys

3.1. Control of Microstructure

Rapid cooling rates and thermal gradients during solidification cause titanium alloys in AM to frequently display a columnar grain structure. Anisotropic mechanical qualities may result from columnar grains aligned with the build direction. In order to guarantee isotropic qualities in every direction, the microstructure must be manipulated to provide an equiaxed grain structure. Techniques to accomplish this include:

Allocating: By regulating phase transitions and fine-tuning grain size, the inclusion of components such as iron, oxygen, and aluminum can encourage an equiaxed microstructure.

Heat Treatment: To further improve the microstructure and encourage more consistent grain formation, post-processing heat treatments like as solution heat treatment, annealing, or beta annealing can be used.

3.2. Warping and Residual Stresses

Because AM is layer-by-layer, residual stresses may accumulate in titanium components, causing the finished product to deform, break, or distort. Rapid temperature cycles that result in differential expansion and contraction are the source of these strains. Among the methods for reducing residual stresses are:

Controlled Cooling:

To lessen thermal gradients, cool the component in a controlled way.

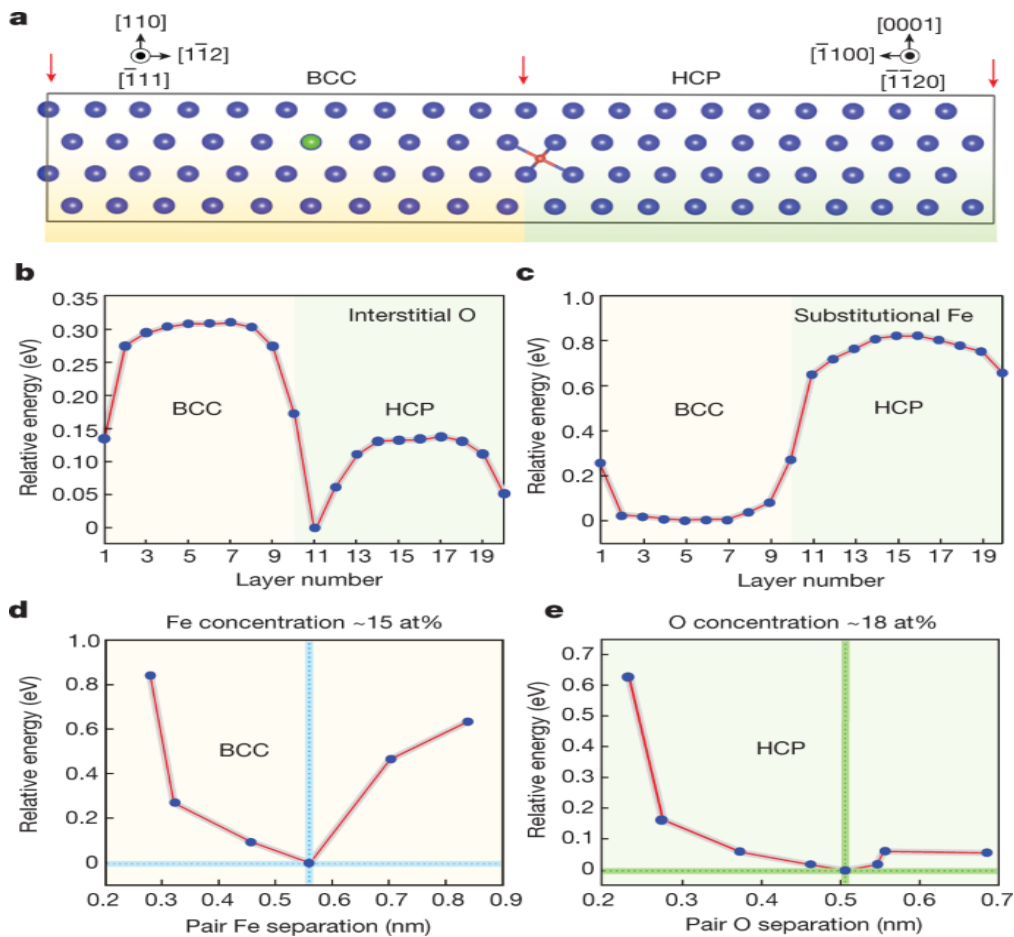


Fig no:3 Residual stress distribution in titanium parts manufactured by additive processes. Thermal gradients during AM lead to significant stress variations, particularly near build interfaces[3].

Reduction of Stress Heat Treatment: By encouraging uniform grain development and phase change, post-build heat treatments such as stress relief annealing can lower internal stresses.

3.3. Quality of Surface

The surface finish of AM-produced titanium alloys is frequently rough, necessitating further post-processing procedures like machining, grinding, or electropolishing to attain the required surface quality. In biomedical applications, surface roughness can impact biocompatibility and fatigue resistance.

4. Heat Treatment and Post-Processing for Titanium AM Parts

4.1. Solution Heat Treatment

Solution heat treatment involves heating the titanium part to a temperature where the alloying elements dissolve into the matrix, followed by rapid cooling (quenching) to preserve the high-temperature phase. This process is particularly beneficial for titanium alloys like Ti-6Al-4V, where it promotes a homogeneous microstructure and enhances strength and toughness.

4.2. Stress Relief and Annealing

After additive manufacturing, parts often undergo stress relief or annealing treatments to reduce residual stresses and improve ductility. Annealing can also refine the microstructure, making the titanium alloys more workable for subsequent machining.

4.3. Beta Titanium Alloys and Beta Annealing

For titanium alloys that are mostly beta phase-stabilized, beta annealing is a heat treatment procedure. In this procedure, the part is heated to the beta phase region, which is between 900°C and 1000°C, and then allowed to cool gradually. This heat treatment refines the alloy's general mechanical properties, increases fatigue resistance, and encourages a more equiaxed grain structure.

5. Titanium Alloy Applications in Additive Manufacturing

5.1. Industry of Aerospace

Because of its excellent strength-to-weight ratio and resistance to corrosion, titanium alloys are frequently employed in aeronautical applications. AM makes it possible to create intricate geometries like lattice structures, which are utilized in lightweight parts like engine parts, turbine blades, and structural elements of airplanes. AM is very beneficial in the aerospace industry since it can minimize material waste and provide parts that are optimized.

5.2. Automobile Sector

Titanium AM is being used by the automobile sector to create lightweight, very durable components. Titanium is utilized in high-performance automobiles where performance and fuel economy depend on weight reduction. Complex elements including engine parts, brake systems, and exhaust systems can be produced thanks to additive manufacturing.

5.3. Applications in Biomedicine

Because of their mechanical qualities and biocompatibility with human bone, titanium alloys—particularly Ti-6Al-4V and Ti-6Al-4V ELI—are widely utilized in biomedical implants. AM techniques make it possible to create dental implants, joint replacements, and bone scaffolds that are specifically suited to each patient, as shown in the below picture [4]. The capacity to create extremely porous structures aids in osseointegration, or the process by which bone adheres to an implant.

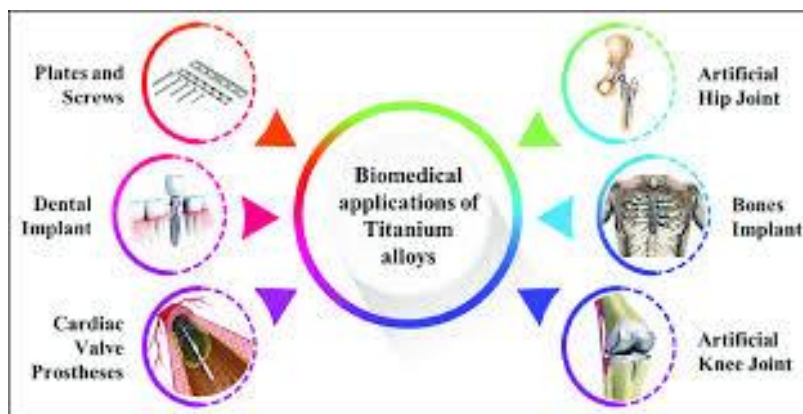


Fig no:4 Biomedical Applications of Titanium alloy[4]

Additive Manufacturing of polymers

High-performance thermoplastics, thermosets, and composites made to meet extra specifications like strength, flexibility, heat resistance, or electrical conductivity are a few examples of the advanced material polymers used in additive manufacturing. The purpose of these materials is to endure situations that conventional production might not be able to handle. PEEK (Polyether Ether Ketone), ULTEM, and carbon fiber-reinforced polymers are a few examples that exhibit exceptional strength and heat resistance, particularly through applications in the construction of medical devices and aircraft.

Polymers frequently make it possible to produce prototypes quickly and affordably, which speeds up design cycles and product testing. Certain polymers may occasionally exhibit the required mechanical characteristics for final goods, making them appropriate for functional testing. Polymer-based components made especially for particular applications or uses, such vehicle or medical implants. Polymers are a cost-effective and time-efficient alternative to conventional manufacturing techniques for low-volume production.

Poly(lactic acid) (PLA), Acrylonitrile Butadiene Styrene (ABS), Polyethylene Terephthalate Glycol (PETG), Nylon, and Thermoplastic Polyurethane (TPU) are among the most frequently utilized polymers in AM. Some very specialized polymers, such ULTEM (polyetherimide) and PEEK (polyether ether ketone), have remarkable mechanical qualities and can tolerate very high temperatures. Polymers are typically less costly than metals and ceramics, which makes polymer-based additive manufacturing (AM) appealing for small-batch prototyping and even some final components.

1. AM polymer techniques:

1.1 fused deposition modeling (FDM)

One of the most popular AM technologies for polymers is probably FDM. Thermoplastic filaments are extruded from a heated nozzle and fall in layers to form the part. Common materials include nylon, ABS, PLA, PETG, and more complex polymers like PEEK or ULTEM. Prototyping, functional parts, and low-volume production all make use of FDM. Numerous industries, including as consumer products, automotive, and aerospace, employ FDM.

1.2 Stereolithography (SLA) Method

SLA cures liquid photopolymer resin layer by layer using a laser or projector. The resin hardens into a shape after being exposed to light on a selective basis. Standard resins, engineering resins, and biocompatible materials are examples of photopolymers, which are utilized as the main material. SLA excels at creating items with flawless surface finishes and high resolution. SLA is frequently used in the rapid prototyping, dentistry, jewelry, and medical sectors. Similar to SLM, electron beam melting (EBM) reduces oxidation by melting titanium powder using an electron beam, often in a vacuum. Both methods may be used to create geometrically complex titanium parts, which is crucial for applications in aircraft, automotive, biomedical implants, and the military. However, the characteristics of the alloys used and the AM process make it challenging to create titanium parts with the necessary toughness, ductility, and strength.

Electron Beam Melting (EBM): This technique is comparable to SLM but employs an electron beam to melt titanium powder, usually in a vacuum, which lessens oxidation.

Geometrically complex titanium parts may be made using both techniques, which is essential for use in military, automotive, biomedical implant, and aerospace technology. The nature of the AM method and the properties of the alloys utilized, however, make it difficult to produce titanium parts with the required qualities, such as high strength, ductility, and toughness.

2. Polymer Applications in Additive Manufacturing

Additive manufacturing, commonly referred to as 3D printing, creates complicated geometry and produces little waste, interest in technology has skyrocketed across a wide range of businesses. Among these materials, polymers have shown themselves to be highly adaptable, easily produced, and possessing advantageous mechanical properties. Polymers frequently make it possible to produce prototypes quickly and affordably, which speeds up design cycles and product testing. Certain polymers may occasionally exhibit the required mechanical characteristics for final goods, making them appropriate for functional testing. Polymer-based components made especially for particular applications or uses, such vehicle or medical implants. Several 3D printed polymer materials, including PLA and PCL, are biocompatible, making them suitable for use in tissue engineering, orthopedics, and dentistry. Custom surgical guides made of polymers increase surgical procedure precision.

2.2 Automotive and Aerospace

The polymers are used to create lightweight components that could lower automotive and aircraft fuel consumption. Better aerodynamics and performance are two benefits of creating complex geometries with additive manufacturing.

Conclusion:

AM makes it possible to create extremely intricate ceramic geometries that may find use in sectors like medicine and defense. Although there are issues with scalability and defect management, the effective application of processes such as vat photopolymerization and powder bed fusion for ceramics shows tremendous advancement. The indirect techniques that are frequently used in current technologies necessitate further post-processing for densification. Numerous sectors stand to gain greatly from the additive production of titanium alloys, which opens the door to creative designs, efficient use of materials, and customized mechanical qualities. Current issues with surface polish, residual stress, and microstructure control notwithstanding, further study into alloy creation, processing methods, and post-processing treatments will keep titanium AM's potential growing. With advancements in these fields, titanium alloys in AM have a bright future, especially in the automotive, medicinal, and aerospace industries. With ongoing research leading to advancements in material characteristics, speed, scalability, and cost-effectiveness, polymer-based additive manufacturing has great promise. But there are still issues with post-processing, part quality, and material selection. AM will probably be used more widely for polymer-based applications in a range of sectors if these fields continue to advance.

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