



27-737 Data Analytics for Materials Science Powder Classification

Srujana Yarasi, Andrew Kitahara, Ryan Cohn, Elizabeth Holm, <u>Anthony Rollett</u>

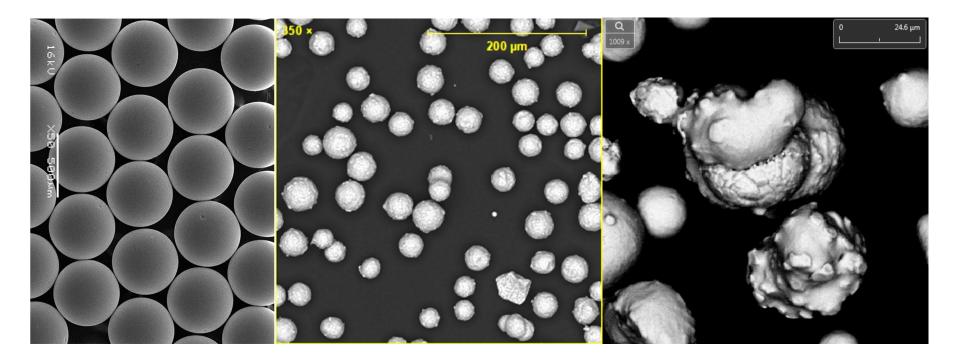
Materials Sci. & Eng., Carnegie Mellon University, Pittsburgh, PA.

Revised: Apr. 28th, 2021

Carnegie Mellon University

2

Introduction



There are different kinds of powders, ranging from perfectly spherical (made with highly expensive processes such as PREP) to highly crunchy (with irregular surface morphology) and then those in between. And these differences in powder characteristics matter a lot! Why?

Carnegie Mellon University

Part I : Powder Flow in Metal Powder Bed AM

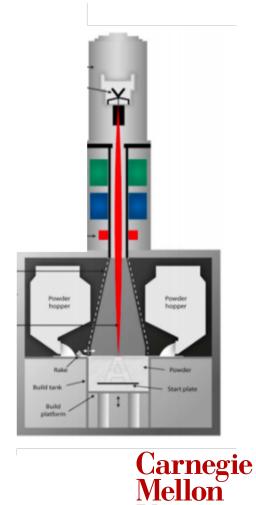
Why measure powder flow?

Two modes of powder flow occur in electron beam powder bed AM machines

- Flow from hopper (vertical)
- Build plate spreading (horizontal)

Powder flow is important because it affects layer generation capabilities which include powder layer density, thickness, laser absorption, and thermal conductivity.

Understanding powder flow is important for process parameter tuning. And to understand powder flow, we must understand the particle characteristics that affect it.



University

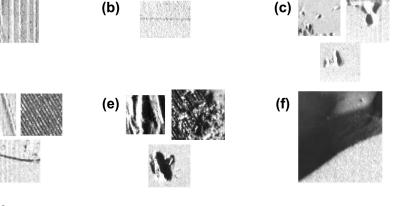
Powder Flow in Metal Powder Bed AM

Assuming spherical particles is unrealistic leading to (a) incorrect flow characterization.

Particle size distribution (PSD) is the standard way to measure powders but excludes surface texture, (d) morphology, and defects.

This results in porosity and other types of build defects that can lead to mechanical failure.

To avoid incorrect flow characterization and these types of defects, we need to better understand the physical characteristics of powder like surface morphology, shape, agglomerates.



50 mm

Representative examples of the six different powder bed anomaly classes (a) Recoater hopping, (b) Recoater streaking, (c) Debris, (d), Super-elevation, (e) Part failure, and (f) Incomplete spreading. Scime, Luke *et al Additive Manufacturing* 19 (2018): 114-126

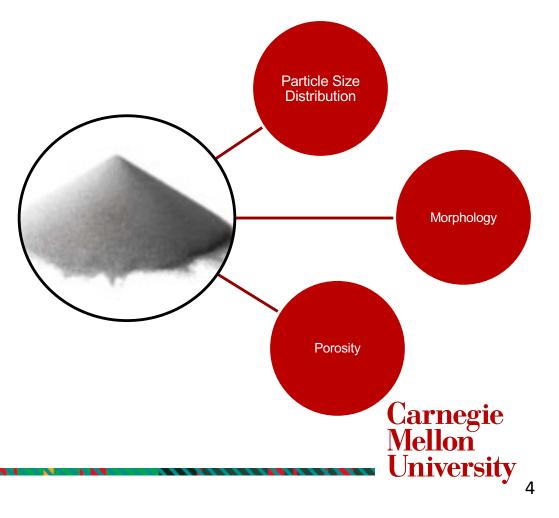
Carnegie Mellon

University

Flowability

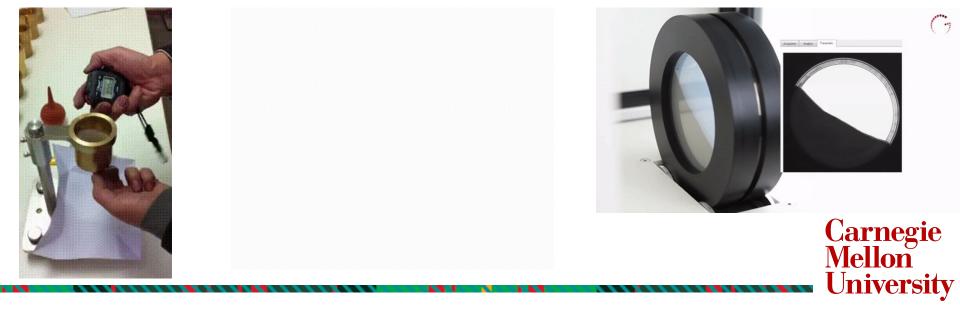
Characteristics of the powder feedstock such as particle size distribution, sphericity, powder porosity, surface texture, and internal defects affect powder flow and performance.

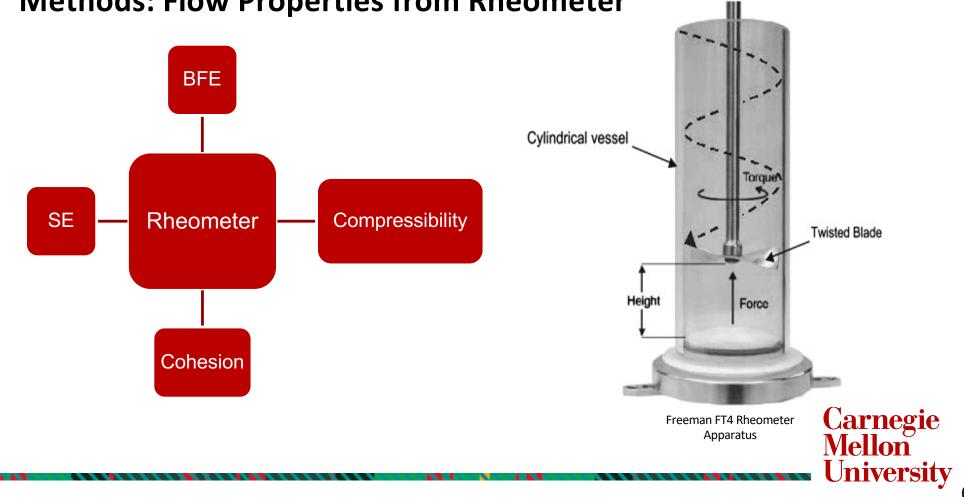
To improve powder bed processes, it is important to characterize and categorize these aspects of powder feedstock efficiently.



Measuring Flowability

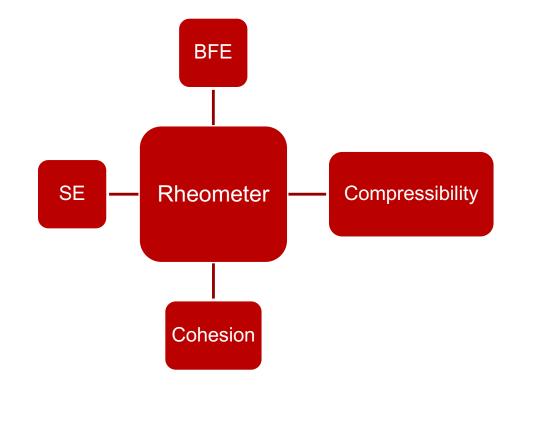
- Hall Flowmeter- This is a fairly simple instrument but is ineffective in accurately representing powder flow in an AM machine.
- FT4 Rheometer- It better represents powder flow through parameters, like BFE and SE, that mimic powder flow across the build plate and through the hopper.
- Granudrum- The dynamic measurement of the angle of repose is linked to cohesion, which is an important factor that determined spreadability.





Methods: Flow Properties from Rheometer

6

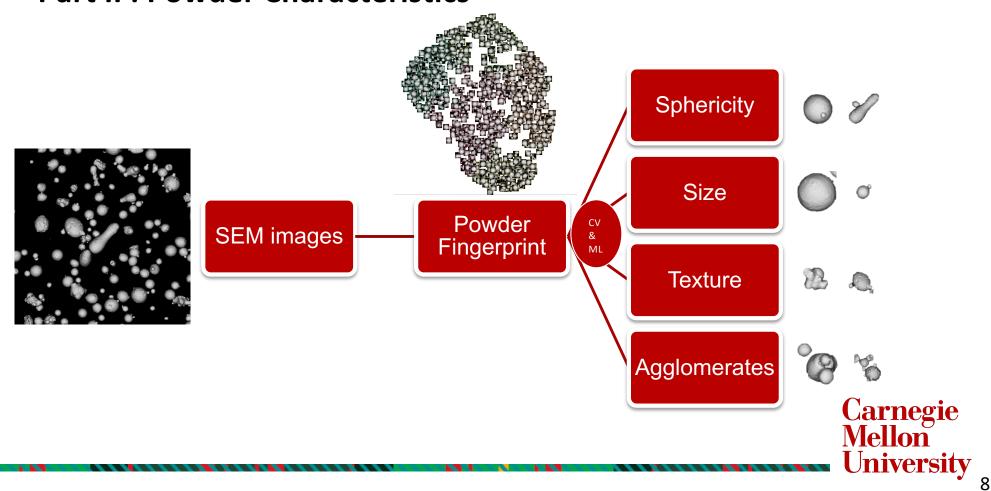


Methods: Flow Properties from Rheometer

- BFE: Basic Flowability Energy is the measure of the powder's flowability in forced flow conditions.
- SE: Specific Energy is the measure of the powder's flowability in unconfined flow conditions.
- Compressibility is an indirect measure of flowability relating to process environments, such as storage in hoppers or behavior during roller compaction.
- Cohesion is measured from shear tests.

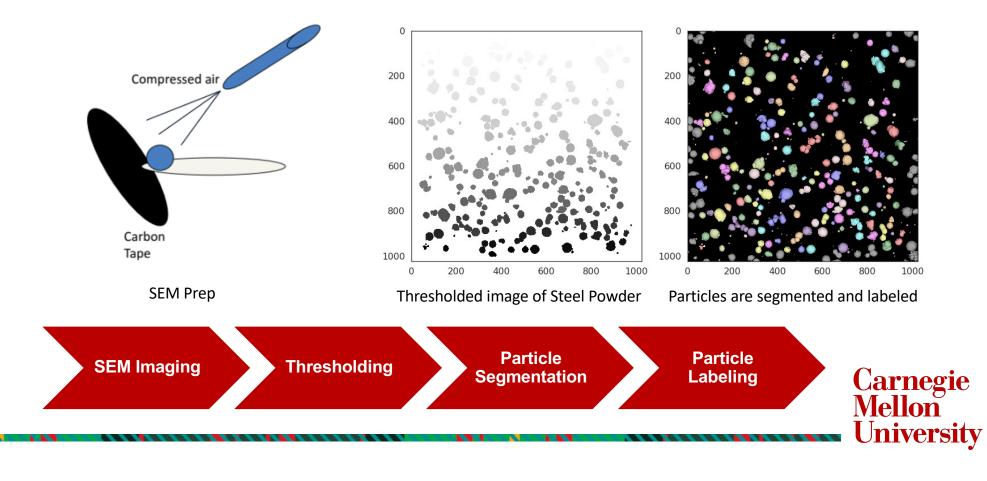
Carnegie Mellon

University



Part II : Powder Characteristics

Image Pre-Processing and Particle Labeling



A Previous Project on Computer Vision for Powder Classification

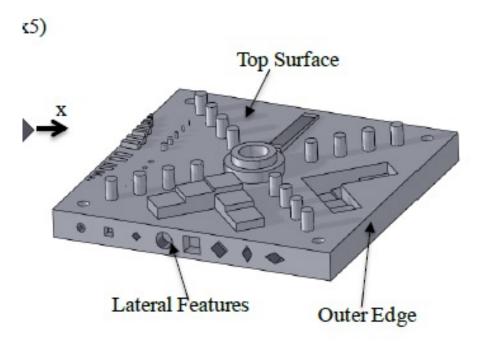
The following series of slides describes a project from the 2014-2016 period to use computer vision methods to classify powders. This was a successful effort but note that a fixed set of image filters was used such as Harris corners. This was largely the work of Brian DeCost in Prof. Holm's group. This approach has been supplanted (for the most part) by Convolutional Neural Nets which automate the process of determining which filters are most effective for a given task.

> Carnegie Mellon

University

Use of non-Standard Powders in LPBF

- "A Database Relating Powder Properties to Process Outcomes for Direct Metal AM"
- America Makes supported project 2014-2016
- Geometries: NIST part with 8 Cylinders Surrounding it
- Goal: Increase the range of powders useable in Arcam and EOS machines



Carnegie Mellon University

7 Powder Systems

- 7 powder systems (PS) + 1 Arcam Ti64 + 1 EOS Ti64 powders as control.
- 3 PS used for Arcam EBM and 4 PS for EOS DMLS.
- 3 different powder production processes: Gas Atomization, PREP, HDH+PS
- A wide range of particle size distributions for 7 PS.

Powder System	Material	Machine used in	Mesh size	Powder size (µm)	Powder production			
#0 Arcam Control		Arcam EBM	-140/+325	44-105	Gas atomization			
#1		Arcam EBM	-120/+325	44-125	HDH+PS			
#2		Arcam EBM	-60/+120	125-250	PREP			
#3	Ti64	EOS DMLS	-170	<88	PREP			
#4		EOS DMLS	-200/+325	44-74	HDH+PS			
#5		EOS DMLS	-140/+325	44-105 "ArcamEOS Build"	HDH+PS			
#6		Arcam EBM	-100/+325	44-149	PREP			
#7	IN718	EOS DMLS	-170/+800	15-88	Gas atomization			
#8 EOS Control	Ti64	EOS DMLS	-230/+800	15-63	Gas atomization			
University								

Standard NIST Part, Eight Different Powders



PS 0-70



PS 1-70



PS 2-100



PS 3-60



PS 4-60



PS 5-60



PS 7-60



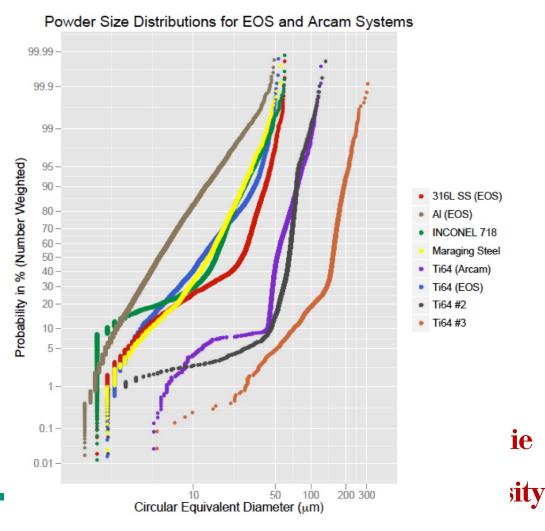
PS 8-60



Powder Characteristics versus Flow Behavior

- Gas-atomized powders generally display a log-normal size distribution¹
- Log-normal distribution will appear linear on adjusted cumulative probability plot
- Deviation from log-normal suggests sudden change in distribution (sieving)
- AlSi10Mg powder does not deviate from log normal
- EOS Ti-6Al-4V does not follow this trend

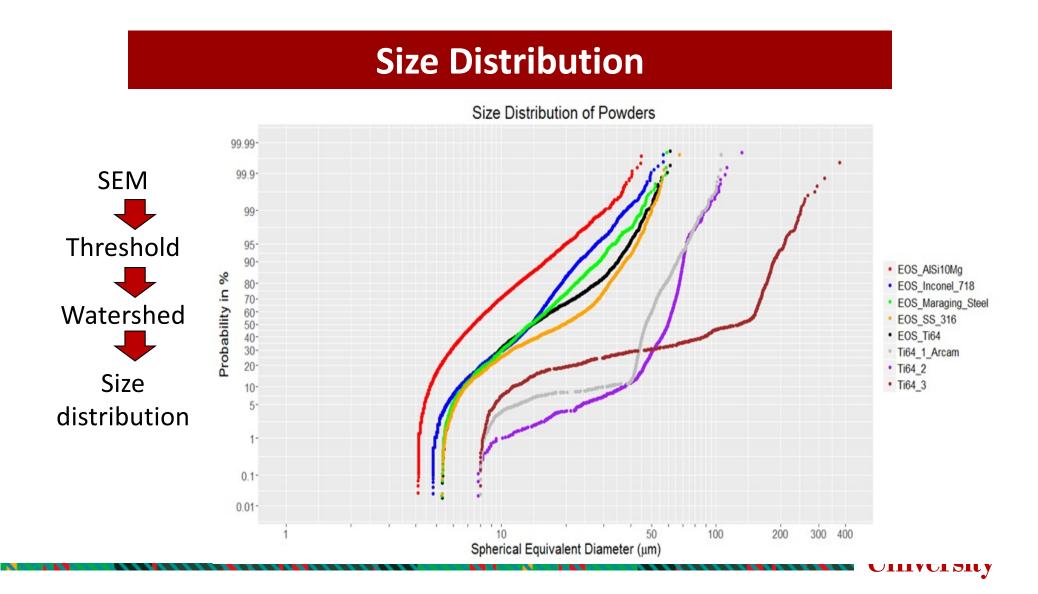
¹ O.D. Neikov, Chapter 5 - Atomization and Granulation, In Handbook of Non-Ferrous Metal Powders, edited by Neikov et al., Elsevier, Oxford, 2009, Pages 102-142



Types of powders to classify

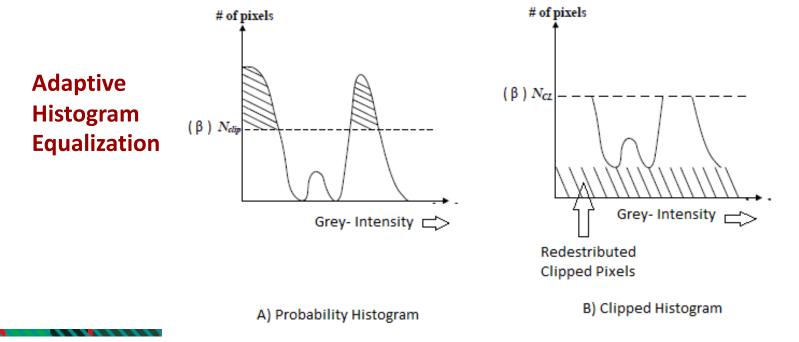
Material	Manf. Method	
ARCAM Ti-6Al-4V	Plasma Atomized	
Ti-6AI-4V #2	HDH + PS*	
TI-6AI-4V #3 (Large)	PREP	
EOS Ti-6AI-4V	Gas Atomized	
EOS AISi10Mg	Gas Atomized	
EOS 316L SS	Gas Atomized	
EOS MS1 Maraging Steel	Gas Atomized	
EOS Inconel 718	Gas Atomized	
	ARCAM Ti-6Al-4V Ti-6Al-4V #2 TI-6Al-4V #3 (Large) EOS Ti-6Al-4V EOS AlSi10Mg EOS 316L SS EOS MS1 Maraging Steel	

*Hydride/Dehydride + Plasma Spheroidization



Methodology: Step 1: pre-Processing of Images

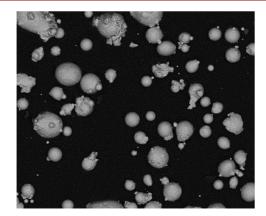
- 24 images per powder system for training the system from 2 to 4 samples.
- Take SEM micrographs and perform image processing

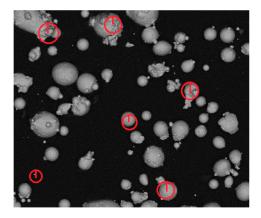




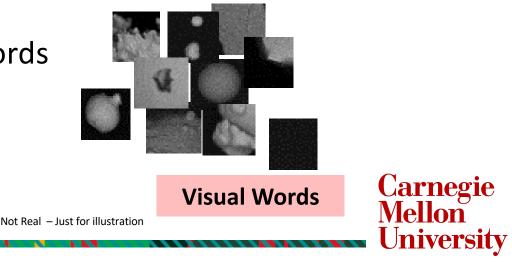
Methodology : Step 2 : Computer Vision Pipeline

- Extract Features
- SIFT to find feature descriptor





- Clustering to find Visual Words
- Most common features
- Representative of dataset



Scale-Invariant Feature Transform (SIFT)

Difference of Gaussians:

Lowe, D. G. (1999), 'Object recognition from local scale-invariant features', *ICCV*, 1150-1157.

Carnegie Mellon

University

Harris-LaPlace methods Mikolajczyk, K. & Schmid, C. (2001), 'Indexing based on scale invariant interest points', *ICCV*, 525-531.

Difference of Gaussians

The 1999 paper by Lowe is remarkably simple with only one equation to indicate the numerical calculation of derivatives. The image gradient magnitude M_{ij} and orientation R_{ij} at each point A_{ij} are given by:

$$M_{ij} = \sqrt{(A_{ij} - A_{i+1,j})^2 + (A_{ij} - A_{i,j+1})^2}$$

 $R_{ij} = \operatorname{atan2} \left(A_{ij} - A_{i+1,j}, A_{i,j+1} - A_{ij} \right)$

The resulting derivative field is examined for maxima and minima where at least one level of nearest neighbor points are checked. Generally, one expects to obtain ≈1,000 points from a 512x512 image.

Example given of the ability of the algorithm to find a similar set of points under rotation and scaling.

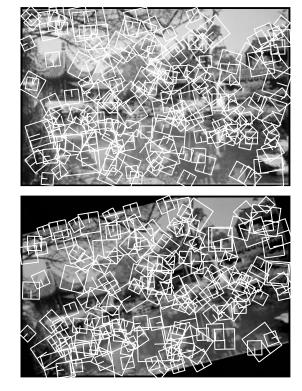


Figure 1: The second image was generated from the first by rotation, scaling, stretching, change of brightness and contrast, and addition of pixel noise. In spite of these changes, 78% of the keys from the first image have a closely matching key in the second image. These examples show only a subset of the keys to reduce clutter.

Harris-LaPlace method

The 2001 paper by Mikolajczyk & Schmid presents an algorithm for *interest point detection* that is invariant to scale changes over a significant range.

Derivatives are computed from the image (intensity) over a range of scales (in a given image). The Harris function is used to identify interest points at each scale but the Laplacian is used to find commonality between points at different scales.

One example from their paper is shown with photos at very different angles of the same apartment block.

A significant advantage of the method is the ability to find features at different magnifications (and orientations) of the same object.





Figure 7: Example of images taken from different view points. There are 14 inliers to a robustly estimated fundamental matrix, all of them are correct. The estimated scale factor is 2.7.

negie llon

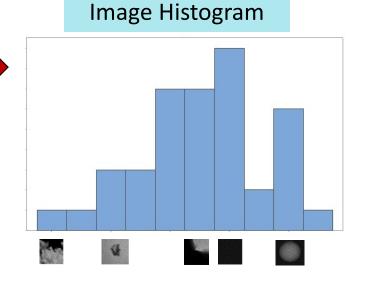
Methodology: Step 2: Computer Vision Pipeline

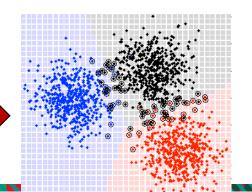
- Image Representation
- 100 features (Words)
- Feed this to SVM
- Use χ2 ("chi-square") distance to compare histograms

$$d(\mathbf{x}_u, \mathbf{x}_v) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{[x_u(n) - x_v(n)]^2}{x_u(n) + x_v(n)}.$$

 Support Vector Machine (SVM) to classify powders according to powder system

Not Real - Just for illustration





Carnegie Mellon University

Support Vector Machine (SVM)

An SVM is a system for classification.

Originally developed by Vladimir N. Vapnik and Alexey Ya. Chervonenkis in 1963 (1968? See below).

The idea is to find a way to arrange the data such that there is a hyperplane w that separates it into two sets with a gap ("margin") in between. The equation for the hyperplane is $w \cdot x - b = 0$.

Each datapoint is a vector x (of arbitrary dimension). Associated with each vector is a y value which (for 2 classes) is assigned -1 or +1 to indicate to which class it belongs.

Carnegie Mellon

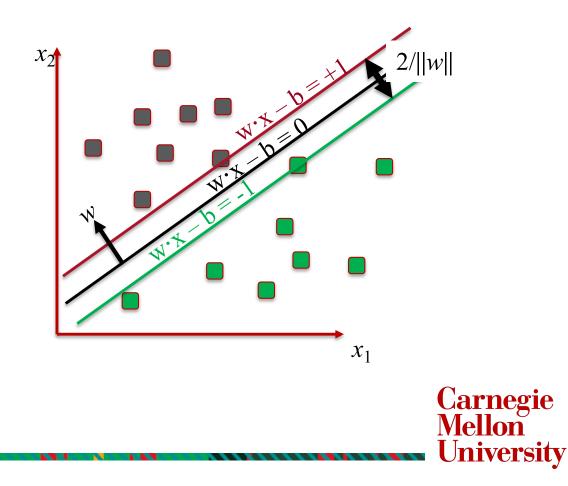
University

V. N. Vapnik and A. Ya. Chervonenkis, "On the uniform convergence of relative frequencies of events to their probabilities," *Proceedings of the USSR Academy of Sciences*, Vol. 181, No. 4 (1968), pp. 781–783. Translated by the American Mathematical Society as *Soviet Mathematics*, Vol. 9 (1968), pp. 915–918.

Support Vector Machine (SVM): 2

The diagram illustrates the maximum-margin hyperplane and margins for an SVM that classifies data into two classes. The *support vectors* are the points (samples) that are situated on the edges (margins).

The normal (vector) to the hyperplane is *not*, in general, a unit vector and its magnitude, ||w||, is related to the size of the margin.



Support Vector Machine (SVM): 3

The objective is to separate all the points by finding the hyperplane. Based on the indicator function implied by the values {-1,+1} of the y_i , the desired result is $y_i (w \cdot x_i) - b \ge 1$

For the fully separable case, it turns out that the margin is determined by the points that lie along the edges of the margin, which is why those points are known as the support vectors.

Of course, few datasets are linearly separable in their entirety so there is a soft margin version with a parameter λ that allows the depth of the margin to be optimized.

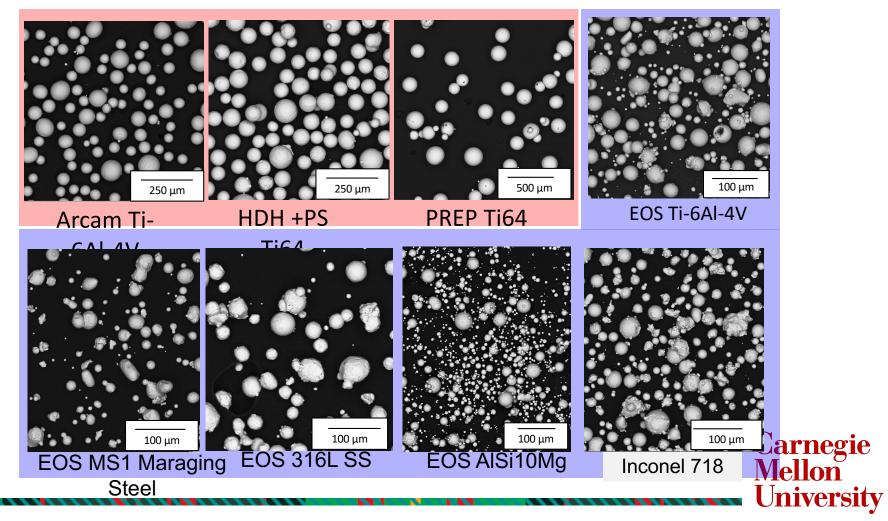
$$\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\max(0,1-y_i(w\cdot x_i-b))\right] + \lambda||w||^2$$

University

Beyond this basic analysis, modern SVM packages use a variety of procedures to optimize the classification such as gradient descent, sub-gradient descent, and coordinate descent (to name but a few)).

ARCAM-size

EOS-size



Computer Vision: SIFT-VLAD

DeCost et al. (2017) JOM 69 456

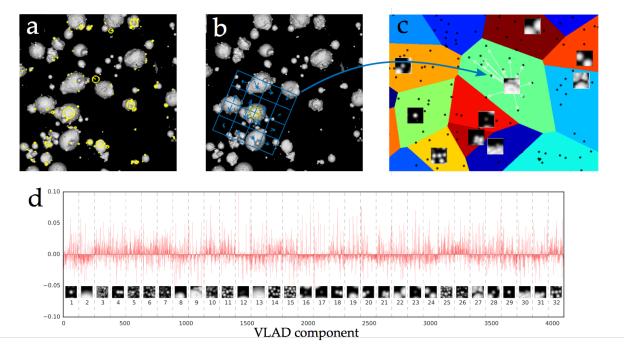


Figure 4. A schematic diagram illustrating the construction of SIFT-VLAD microstructure representations. (a) Select oriented interest points (yellow markers) from a powder micrograph (100 randomly selected interest points shown). (b) Compute a SIFT descriptor (blue grid) for each interest point. (c) Cluster SIFT descriptors (colored regions) such that SIFT descriptors (black dots) are associated with their most similar visual word (image patches); compute a residual vector for each visual word (white arrows). (d) Concatenate the normalized residual vectors (red bars) of each visual word (image patches) to construct the VLAD representation, which serves as a microstructure fingerprint.

SIFT, k-means, VLAD

Scale-invariant feature transform (SIFT) was used to quantify features of interest in the images.

k-means clustering was used to partition 15 % of the SIFT descriptors extracted from the training images into 32 visual words

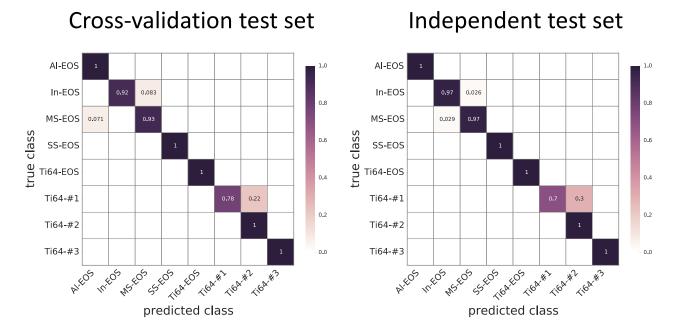
A vector of locally aggregated descriptors (VLAD) encoding was used to compute the difference between the description of the current image and the center of the corresponding word.

> Carnegie Mellon

University

The net result then has a dimension that is the product of the word length and the number of words.

Computer Vision: Confusion Matrices



Bottom line: a computer can be trained to recognize and classify different types of powder far more reliably than any human, based on micrographs containing many particles.



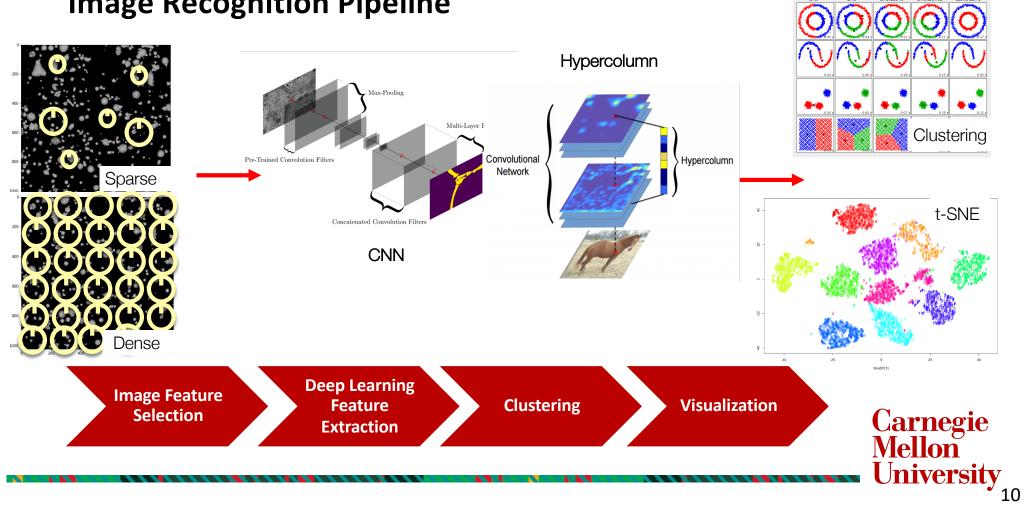
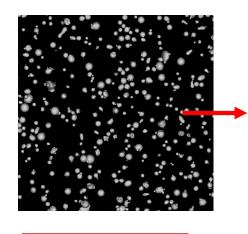


Image Recognition Pipeline

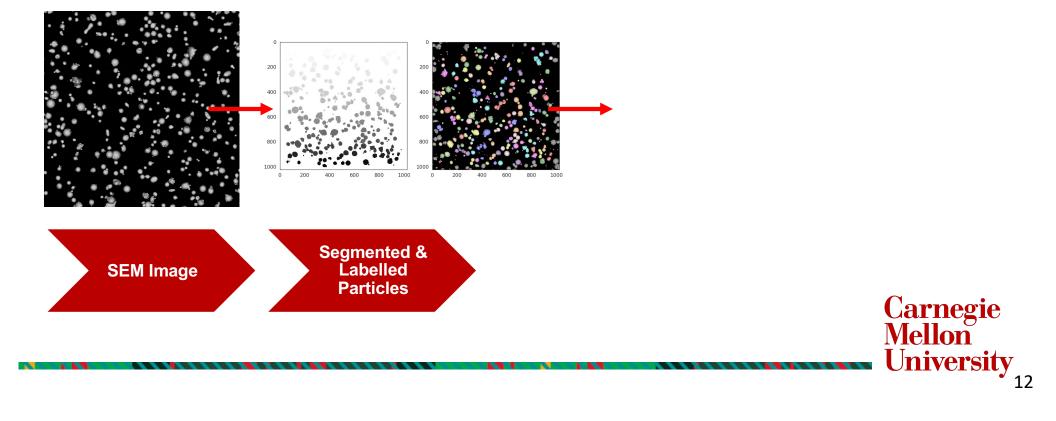
Steel Powder Feedstock

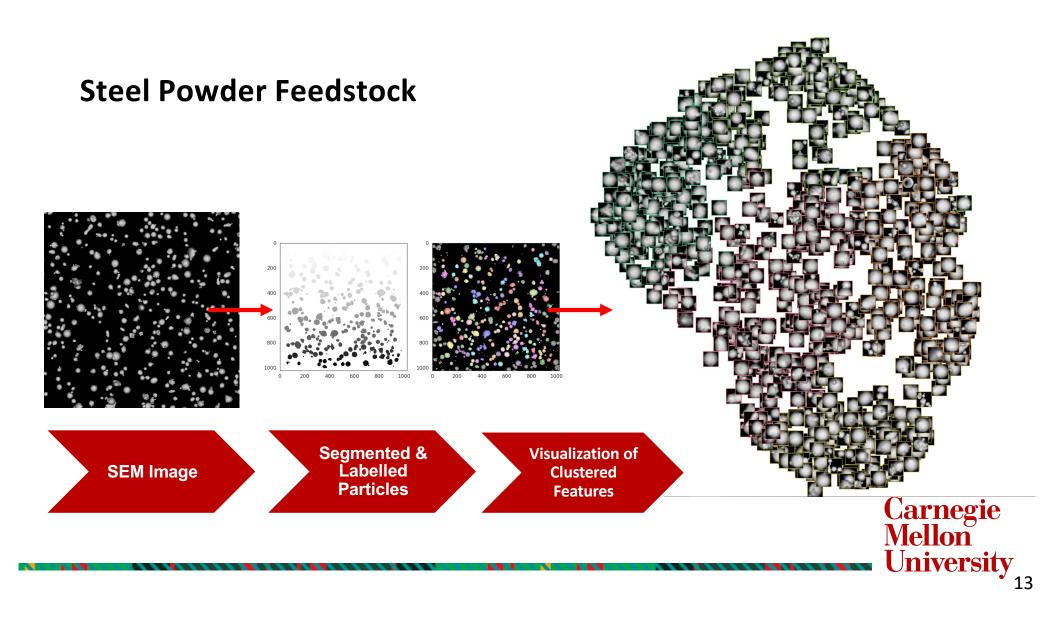


SEM Image

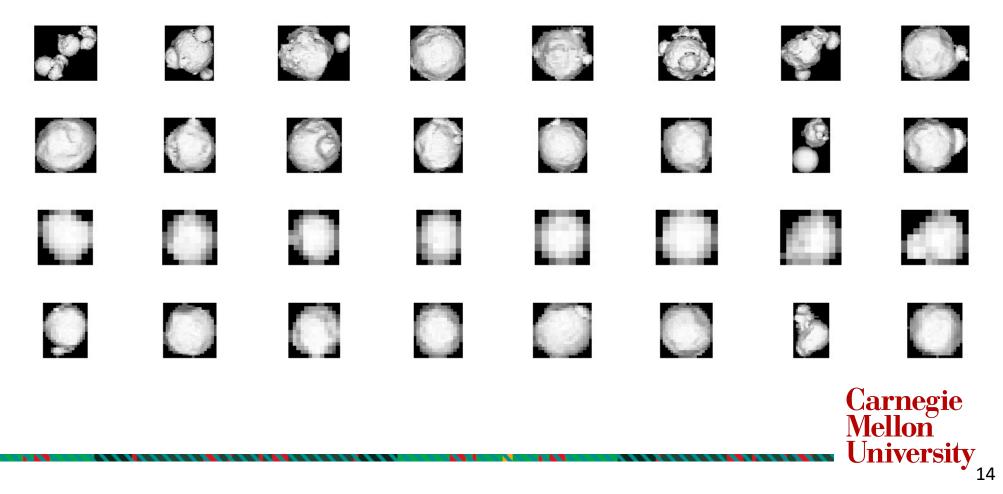
Carnegie Mellon University₁₁

Steel Powder Feedstock

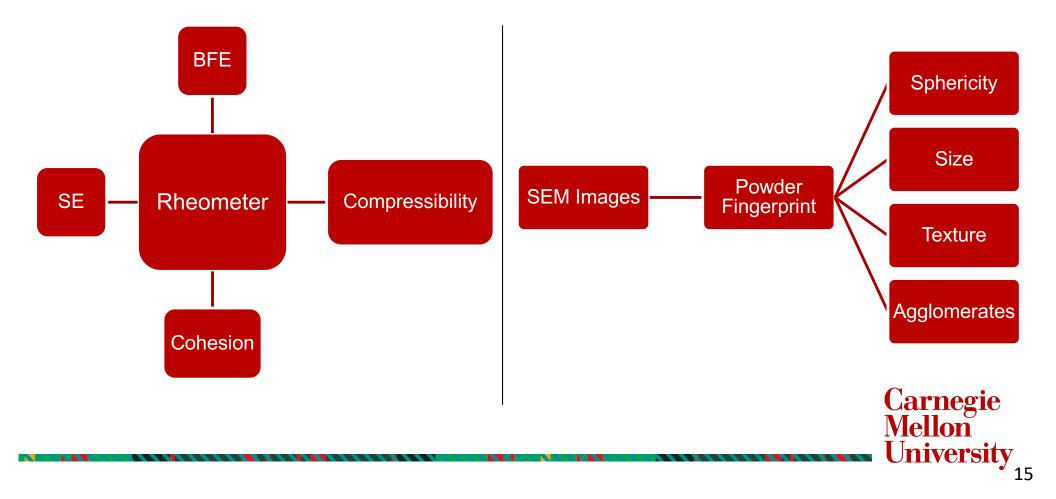


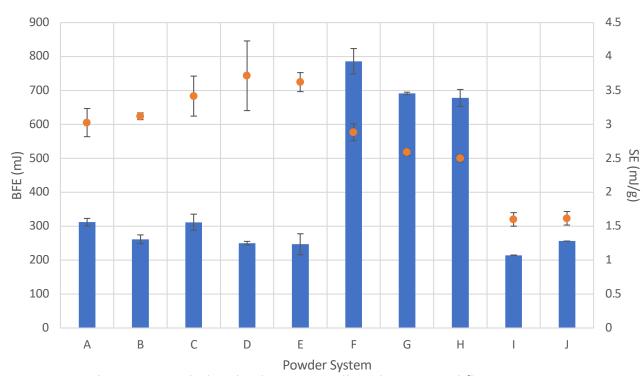


Steel Powder Feedstock: Classes of Powder Particles









BFE SE

Results: Flowability

Definitions:

The Specific Energy, SE, is a measure of how powder will flow in an unconfined or low stress environment.

The Basic Flowability Energy, BFE, is the energy required to establish a particular flow pattern in a conditioned, precise volume of powder.

> Carnegie Mellon University

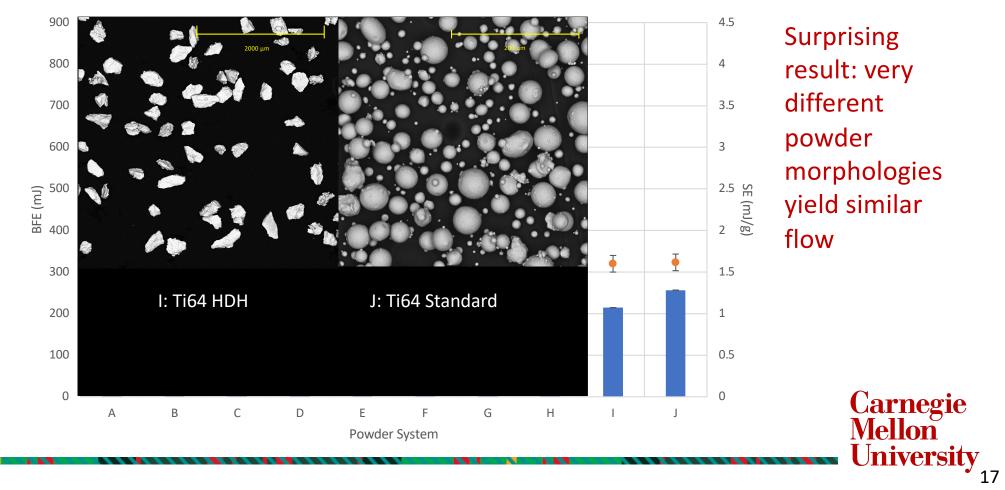
16

A: Proprietary Al Alloy B: Proprietary Al Alloy C: Proprietary Al Alloy D: Proprietary Al Alloy E: Proprietary Al Alloy F: IN 718 GA G: IN 718 Spheroidized H: G after sieving I: Ti64 HDH J: Ti64 Standard GA

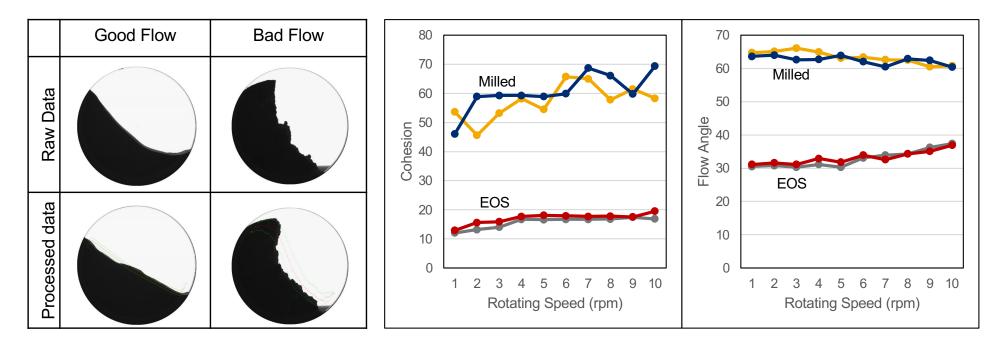
Having a low BFE coupled with a low SE usually indicates good flow properties. Exceptions occur if the BFE value is low but the SE value is high, that indicates that it may be either highly cohesive or have a large number of fines.

Results: Flowability

BFE SE



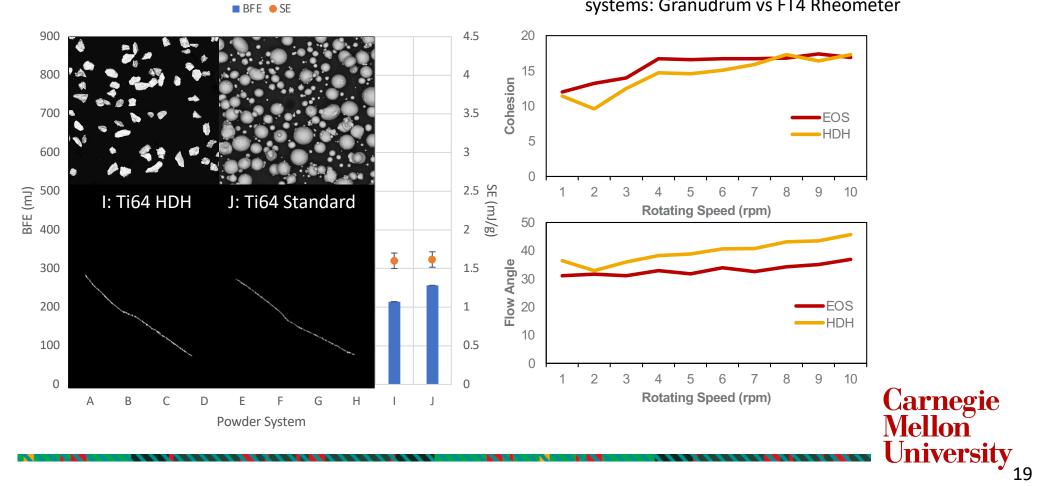
Results: Flowability



Carnegie Mellon University₁₈

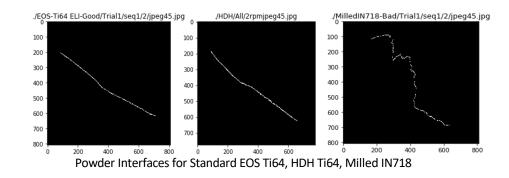
Two widely different performing powders were used to test the Granudrum with respect to its accuracy in characterizing flowability properties, with reasonable success.

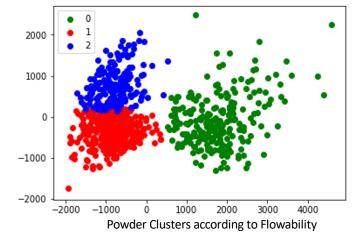
Results: Flowability



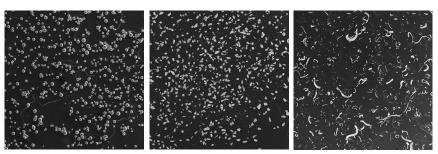
Consistency across flowability measurement systems: Granudrum vs FT4 Rheometer







	0	1	2		
0	0.96	0.02	0.008	-	Milled IN718
1	0	0.53	0.47	-	
2	0	0.24	0.76	-	EOS
_	Confu		HDH		



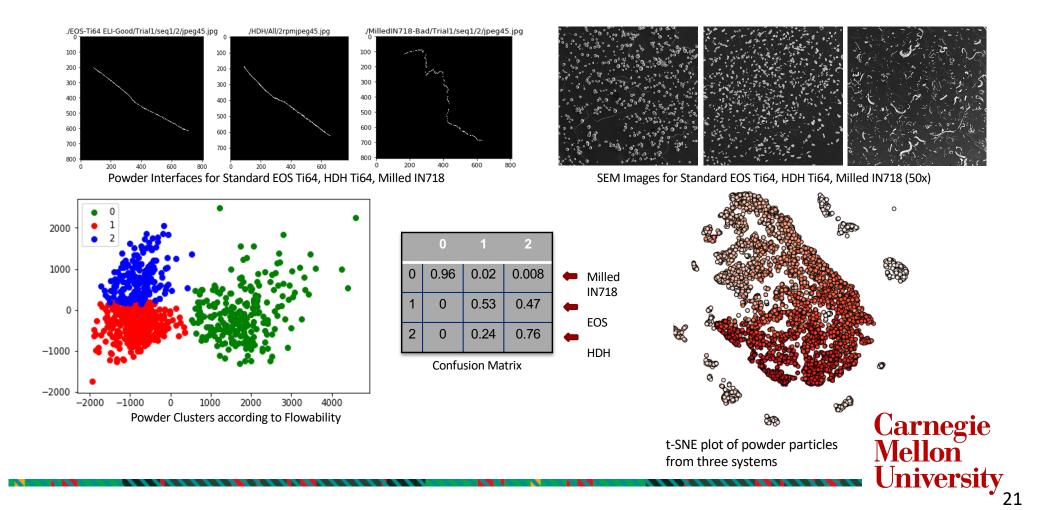
SEM Images for Standard EOS Ti64, HDH Ti64, Milled IN718 (50x)

Powder Interfaces were used to determine dynamic angle of repose that fit the interface with an R² of 0.98. This was used to cluster the powders according to their flowability. Each point represents one experiment run (with a particular speed). The misclassification between EOS and HDH can be explained by looking at their dynamic flow angles which are quite similar for a slower rpm (e.g., 2) and differ significantly for higher rpm (e.g., 12)



Carnegie Mellon University₂₀





ribution for 30 Classe steel-316 inconel-718 aluminium 0.14 0.12 Quantitatively ≩ 0.10 compare powders 2 Fused Splat Spheroidal Develop flow Temp.(K) 1608.150 1390.125 1172.100 954.075 736.050 518.025 coefficients for Satellites realistic powder Crunchy based simulations Cratered 0 Oblong • 👌 🚳 😵 • *** 9**4 Agglomerated Establish cutoff point for the usage of It is possible to identify classes of similar particle recycled powder lots morphology using CNNs and K-means clustering and t-SNE to visualize the data and then correlate to Carnegie Mellon flow properties University

Potential to Answer AM Questions with Data Science

J 22

Acknowledgments



The Digital Transformation of Manufacturing

CMU Manufacturing Futures Initiative, supported by the W. K. Mellon Foundation.

Thank You!

Carnegie Mellon University₂₃