



# A Review on Distortion and Residual Stress in Additive Manufacturing

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## ABSTRACT

Additive manufacturing (AM) has gained extensive attention and tremendous research due to its advantages of fabricating complex-shaped parts without the need of casting mold. However, distortion is a known issue for many AM technologies, which decreases the precision of as-built parts. Like fusion welding, the local high-energy input generates residual stresses, which can adversely affect the fatigue performance of AM parts. To the best of the authors' knowledge, a comprehensive review does not exist regarding the distortion and residual stresses dedicated for AM, despite some work has explored the interrelationship between the two. The present review is aimed to fill in the identified knowledge gap, by first describing the evolution of distortion and residual stresses for a range of AM processes, and second assessing their influencing factors. This allows us to elucidate their formation mechanisms from both the micro- and macro-scales. Moreover, approaches which have been successfully adopted to mitigate both the distortion and residual stresses are reviewed. It is anticipated that this review paper opens many opportunities to increase the success rate of AM parts by improving the dimension precision and fatigue life.

## 1. Introduction

Additive manufacturing (AM), which is also known as 3D printing, is recognized as an emerging technology for the fields of aerospace, medical, and automobile [1–5]. It is an advanced processing technology, characterized by joining feedstock materials to make objects from three-dimensional model data, in a layer-by-layer fashion [6]. AM has already been adopted by the high-end automotive and aerospace industries due to its competitive advantages in terms of the fabrication of complex-shaped parts, high utilization rate of raw materials, short production cycle when compared with the casting [7–11]. In addition, AM broadens the freedom of design, which drives a design evolution in aerospace and art.

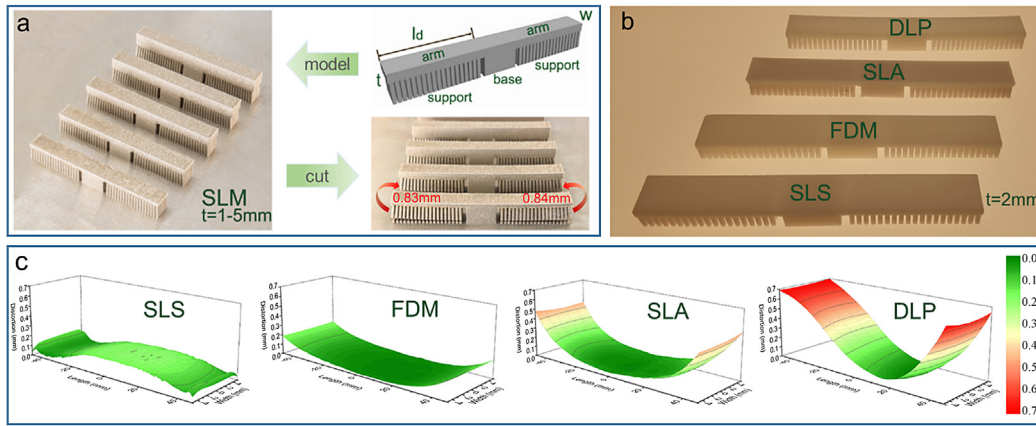
AM technologies are classified into seven groups including powder bed fusion, direct energy deposition, material extrusion, vat photopolymerization, sheet lamination, binder jetting and material jetting [11]. The former four processes have attracted much attention, based on the number of published work and AM applications in the market [12,13]. Powder bed fusion means that the powder bed is selectively melted or sintered by high-energy beam such as the laser and electron beam. It includes selective laser melting (SLM) [14–16], electron beam selective melting (EBSM) [17,18], and selective laser sintering (SLS) [19–21]. On

the other hand, direct energy deposition is an AM process where the raw material (powder or wire) is directly melted and then deposited by laser, electron beam, and arc. It involves laser melting deposition (LMD) [22–25], electron beam free form fabrication (EBFFF) [26] or electron beam additive melting (EBAM) [27], and wire and arc AM (WAAM) [28–31]. Material extrusion means that rheologic raw material is extruded to create the part. Fused deposition modeling (FDM) [32,33] is a material extrusion process that uses heat source to drive the solid material into rheologic status. Vat photopolymerization is based on the mechanism of light curing, which includes stereo lithography appearance (SLA) [34,35] and digital light processing (DLP) [36–39].

Among the main AM technologies, the distortion and residual stresses are two frequently encountered and major obstacles that lower the dimension precision and performance of the built part. The deviation of the AM built part from its designed shape or dimension is termed as distortion [40]. It can occur when the built part is separated from the substrate or during the additive process [41], resulting in the decreased part's precision which is not easy to recover. If distortion occurs during the powder-bed-fusion AM, the distorted part can hinder the movement of roller, causing the building process broken down. Tensile residual stress is regarded as a threat to the part's mechanical properties, especially the fatigue performance. In the worst scenario, major cracks

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**Fig. 1.** Distortion of cantilever structures in AM: (a) Distortion of a cantilever structure built by SLM; (b) Cantilever structures (arm thickness  $t = 2\text{ mm}$ ) built by SLS, FDM, SLA, and DLP; (c) Distortion pattern of the cantilever structures (arm thickness  $t = 2\text{ mm}$ ) as shown in (b), measured by CMM [56].

can be developed during the AM process due to the large tensile stress [42].

The long history of thermal-cycle, multiple processing parameters, and complex structures lead to complex variations of distortion and residual stress. There have been several review articles concerning the residual stress related to AM [43–45]. However, the AM part distortion phenomenon has not been reviewed, to the best of the authors' knowledge. In fact, the distortion and residual stress are closely related. Therefore, the present paper provides a review of the distortion and residual stress together, with the aim to clarify the mechanism of these two major issues in AM. The pattern, evolution, and influencing factors of distortion and residual stress are investigated, which is followed by elaborating their mechanisms. In the end, approaches for mitigating the risk of distortion of the AM built part and managing residual stresses are discussed.

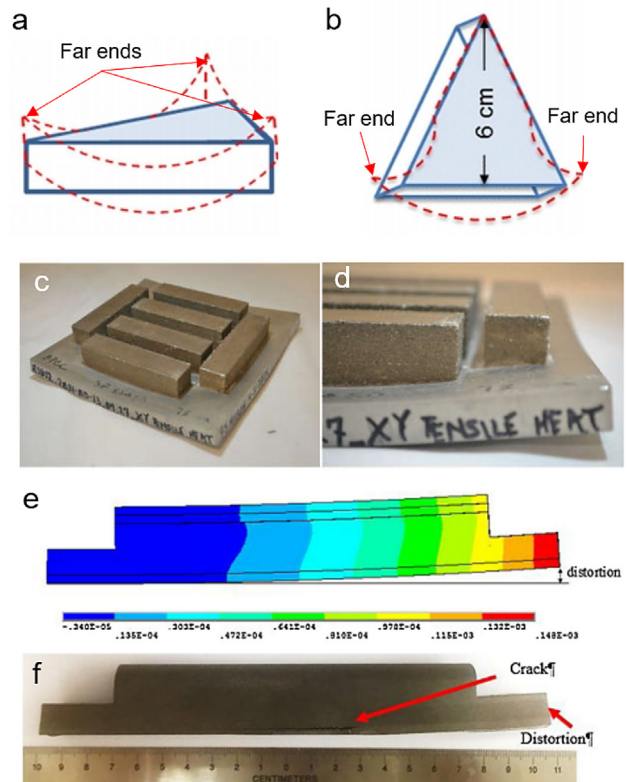
## 2. Distortion in AM

### 2.1. The pattern of distortion

The techniques available for part distortion measurements include coordinate measuring machine (CMM) [46,47], laser displacement sensor (LDS) [48–52], and digital image correlation (DIC) [53,54]. Based on the measurement results, most AM built parts exhibited the same distortion pattern, i.e., far ends of the part bent along the build direction [54–59]. As illustrated in Fig. 1, the cantilever structures built by various AM techniques, including SLM, FDM, SLA, and DLP, were all characterized by the same distortion pattern, whereas the SLM built part exhibited a limited buckling distortion. Figs. 2(a) and 2(b) show that both the “horizontally” and “vertically” prism specimens built by SLM experienced a similar distortion pattern characterized by the far ends “peeling up” along the build direction. Figs. 2(c) and 2(d) demonstrate that the corners of substrate were wrapped the most, when six blocks were deposited by EBSM. Figs. 2(e) and 2(f) show that crack and distortion can be generated simultaneously in the process of LMD due to thermal stress.

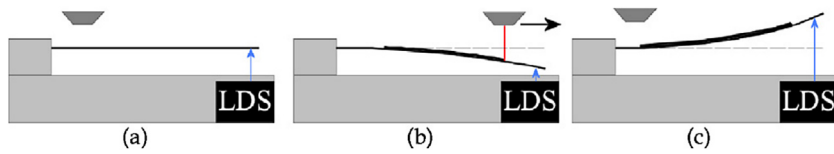
### 2.2. The evolution of distortion

Studies have shown that the part may experience complex variations of distortion during the AM process [50,52]. Fig. 3 illustrates the distortion evolution during a typical cycle of the laser deposition process, i.e., the free end of substrate distorted downward during the deposition step (Fig. 3(b)), while it bent upward during the cooling step (Fig. 3(c)). Wen et al. [59] monitored the distortion behavior of the SLM process by using the strain gage. When the laser scanning started on the powder surface

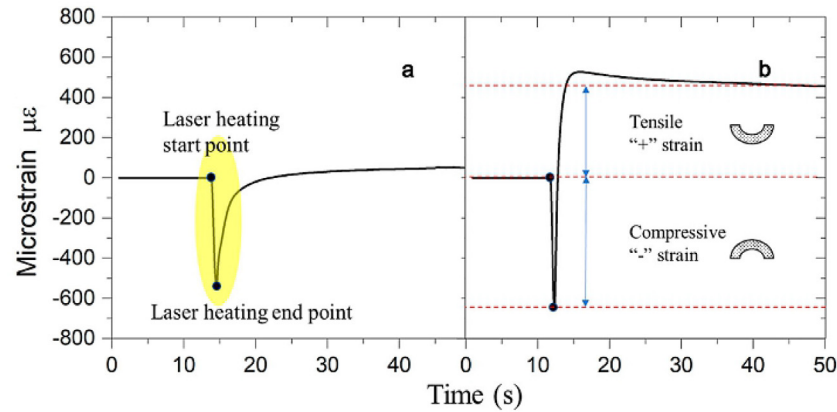


**Fig. 2.** Distortions of various specimens built by AM techniques: (a) “Horizontally” direction prism specimens built by SLM; (b) “Vertically” direction prism specimens built by SLM [54]; (c, d) Block specimens built by EBSM [57]; (e) Finite element simulation of a block specimen built by LMD [58]; (f) Experimental validation of a block specimen built by LMD [58].

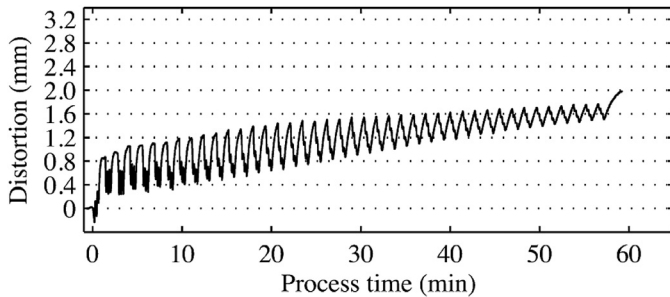
(Fig. 4(a)), the specimen bent upward significantly and instantaneously. After the laser scanning stopped, the specimen gradually recovered to its original position. Thereafter, the specimen continuously deformed after recovery and eventually showed a downward bent shape. When the laser scanning started on the specimen surface without the powder layer (shown in Fig. 4(b)), the initial compressive strain at the bottom was more significant than the condition of with the powder on top. After the laser scanning stopped, a much higher tensile residual strain was developed, followed by a relatively slower recovery during cooling. In the AM process, the free end of substrate exhibited a gradually increased



**Fig. 3.** Illustration showing distortion of the substrate during the laser deposition process: (a) Prior to deposition; (b) During laser deposition; and (c) During cooling (LDS means laser displacement sensor) [51].



**Fig. 4.** (a) Distortion curve in single scanning with the powder layer; (b) Distortion curve in single scanning without the powder layer [59].



**Fig. 5.** A distortion history for wall builds by LMD [51].

upward distortion with a cycle of downward-upward displacement during the laser melting and cooling process, as shown in Fig. 5.

### 2.3. The influencing factors of distortion

Researchers have attempted to explore the influencing factors on the distortion of the AM parts. These factors can be broadly categorized into the following three aspects: Material property, processing, and structure geometry.

The relationship between the distortion and material property has been identified. Mukherjee et al. [60] stated that alloys with lower heat capacity and higher thermal diffusivity often showed higher thermal strain. Yakout et al. [61] reported that materials with lower thermal expansion coefficients, such as Invar 36, exhibited less distortion than those with higher thermal expansion coefficients. Dunbar et al. [49] observed that Inconel 718 parts distorted 80.9% more than Ti6Al4V for the AM parts with the same geometry built by the same machine. Denlinger et al. found that distortion of Inconel 625 part was at least twice than the Ti6Al4V part under the same heat input. This phenomenon might be due to the different phase transformation of deposited materials [51]. The importance of solid-state phase transformation in the numerical prediction of distortion in SLM was also pointed out in Refs. [62,63]. For the FDM process, thermal contractions were found to determine the level of deformation for the amorphous polymers [64]. The distortion of a DLP printed object was caused by the volume shrinkage [65], which depended on the DoC (degree of conversion) of material and stiffness of structure [66]. It can be concluded that the distortion

is related to the material property that affects the shrinkage of material, including thermal expansion coefficient, phase transformation, and degree of conversion.

From the perspective of processing, Wu et al. [54] observed that the distortion of prism structure decreased with the increasing energy density. The distortion of cantilever structure can be increased with the part density, scan speed, and laser power [67]. A decrease in layer height combined with the laser power can also result in lower thermal strain and distortion [60]. Yakout et al. [68] found that the cantilever distortion increased with the laser energy density. Liu et al. [69] observed that with the decreasing layer thickness in FDM, the distortion of PLA thin-plate part increased significantly. In addition, the low nozzle temperature helped to reduce the level of distortion. Overall, the part distortion decreased with the energy density in SLM and nozzle temperature in FDM.

Preheating the substrate has been proven as an effective way to decrease the distortion of AM parts [70–72]. Kruth et al. [73] stated that preheating the base plate helped to reduce the temperature gradient of molten pool, leading to a reduced distortion of the AM part. Dunbar et al. [49] found a reduction in the magnitude of distortion in early deposited layers when subjected to heating from subsequent layers. Buchbinder et al. [74] and Denlinger et al. [52] found that the higher preheating temperature resulted in less distortion of the SLM built part. Cao et al. [75] illustrated that the higher the number of preheating passes, the lower the distortion. Besides, the cooling time after each preheat scan had no influence on the final distortion. Increasing the preheat temperature of the bed in FDM was also effective in terms of decreasing the distortion [76].

Scan strategy was also found to play a significant role in altering the distortion of the AM part [77–85]. Huang and Jiang [86] reported that the shorter raster scanning produced less distortion than longer raster scanning in SLA. The distortion can be reduced by almost 50% by reducing the length of the scan vectors from 20 mm to 2.5 mm in SLM. If the parallel scan vectors became layer-wise alternated, the distortion reduction can reach 45% [73]. Dunbar et al. [48] used a parallel scan pattern, leading to 37.6% increase of distortion as compared with that using a rotation scan pattern. Li et al. [87] observed that the horizontal scan pattern produced the biggest deflection along cross-wise direction, while the vertical pattern resulted in the smallest deflection. The same phenomenon was also revealed in light curing resin process [88]. Yang et al. [84] stated that for the thin-walled structure, transverse scan was

beneficial for decreasing the distortion, because transverse constraining force acted on the structure with large stiffness.

Geometry also has a significant impact on the distortion of the AM built part. Zhu et al. [89] found that long section length and thin existing part were detrimental to dimensional accuracy as evidenced by the high level of distortion. Kruth et al. [77] observed that the addition of powder can increase the distortion of substrate compared with that without powder. This was attributed to the increased cross-section of the molten pool. For the cantilever structure, the distortion decreased significantly with the increasing arm thickness [74,90]. The stress relaxation for the disk of 5 mm height was more significant than that of 10 mm counterpart, leading to a higher distortion level for the former [91]. The distortion can be increased after the bridge arch was built, indicating that the distortion can be significantly altered by structure optimization [92]. Cheng et al. [93] attempted to decrease the distortion by optimization the support structure.

### 3. Residual Stress in AM

Residual stress is that which remains in a body that is stationary and at equilibrium with its surroundings [94]. It should be noted that residual stress (long-range stresses, Type I, varying continuously over a length-scale which is comparable to the macroscopic dimension of a component [94,95]) is often measured at ambient temperature. On the contrary, thermal stress reflects the status of stress at elevated temperatures, which creates difficulty for the measurement techniques. Residual stress, which is usually measured at ambient temperature, results from thermal stress accumulated during the AM processes. Crack occurs when the thermal stress is larger than the tensile strength of the material [42], which could appear during AM process and during the separation from the substrate.

It is worth noting that when the residual stress is concerned, one should bear in mind its distribution, direction, magnitude as well as the constrain conditions of the body's surroundings. Residual stress is developed and altered in nearly every stage of manufacturing processes [43]. The distribution of residual stress will be reconstructed if the constrain condition of the part was removed or changed [90,96].

#### 3.1. The distribution of residual stress

The measurement techniques for residual stresses include hole-drilling method [97,98], contour method [99,100], X-ray diffraction (XRD) [101,102], and neutron diffraction (ND) [103,104]. Based on the measured results, it can be concluded that the residual stress distributions in AM parts can be highly anisotropic and its magnitudes can vary significantly. Previous work showed that residual stress parallel to the laser scan direction, i.e., longitudinal direction was larger than that in transversal and normal directions [90,91,105–107]. Parry et al. [108] and Chen et al. [109] found that the longitudinal stress (X-component of stress) was the highest stress direction due to the presence of the larger thermal gradient parallel to the scan vector (Fig. 6(a)), whereas the Z-component of stress was the lowest (Fig. 6(c)). Transversal residual stresses were highly dependent on geometry owing to the different thermal histories [110]. Sun et al. [111] observed that the magnitude of transversal residual stress in the WAAM components was much smaller than that in the substrate due to the low transverse restraint degree of the beam. Residual stress magnitudes in the longitudinal direction were found to be 1.5–2.5 times the magnitude of transversal stress [112–114]. It was mentioned in Ref. [115] that the in-plane residual stresses were usually larger than the normal stresses. Khouzani et al. [91] reported that the normal residual stresses were negligible for as-built parts. To summarize, the longitudinal residual stress appears to be the major stress component.

Mercelis and Kruth [116] reported that the region characterized by tensile residual stresses appeared near the top surface, followed by a zone of compressive stresses, and then changing back to tensile stresses

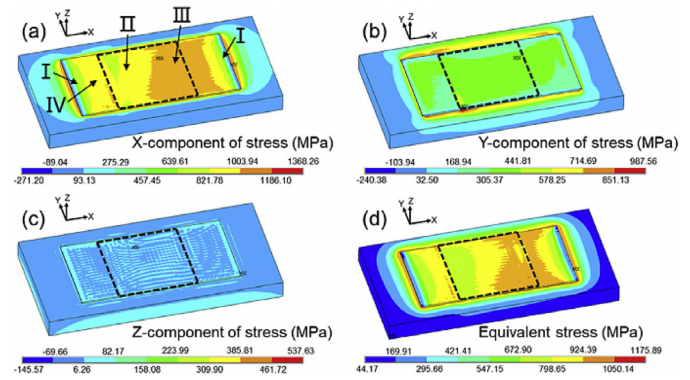


Fig. 6. Residual stress distribution of SLM part at room temperature: (a) X-component of stress; (b) Y-component of stress; (c) Z-component of stress; (d) EQUIVALENT stress [109].

at the bottom. Brown et al. [117] and Liu et al. [118] contoured the residual stress distribution of SLM part by ND technique and numerical simulation, respectively. As shown in Figs. 7 and 8, the longitudinal residual stresses of the SLM part after removal from the substrate showed a characteristic profile of “tensile-compressive-tensile” from the top to bottom of the part. The similar residual stress distribution of “tensile-compressive-tensile” as revealed in AM part was found in many studies involving the AM techniques of SLM, LMD and WAAM [62,119–124]. Such a residual stress profile in AM part is as expected due to the self-equilibrating nature of Type I residual stress over the length-scale of a component. This is consistent with what has been measured in the fusion welding component by using ND technique [104].

#### 3.2. The evolution of residual stress

Similar to the evolution of distortion in AM, the stress sign of newly added layer was found to change from compressive to tensile during the laser heating and cooling steps [43,73]. As shown in Fig. 9(a), when a new layer is added and heated, this new layer of material will expand initially. However, this expansion is restricted by the underlying part with lower temperature, resulting in the presence of compressive stresses in the new layer while tensile stresses in the underlying part. When the heat source is removed, the new layer will cool down quickly, contracting at a greater rate than the part beneath can accommodate. This is responsible for the presence of tensile stresses in the new layer while compressive stresses in the underlying part, as shown in Fig. 9(b). To satisfy the moment equilibrium, a tensile stress zone is created at the bottom of part [73], forming a stress distribution of “tensile-compressive-tensile” from the top to bottom.

With the layer-by-layer deposition, the longitudinal stress distribution of “tensile-compressive-tensile” from top to bottom of the AM part is well defined. Zhao et al. [125] found that residual stress generated by adding the last layer of LMD always created the tensile sign. The largest tensile stress in the top layer of AM part was confirmed by other researchers as well [44,60,126,127]. In addition, the maximum value of the longitudinal stress was equal to or slightly larger [118,128] than the yield strength of deposited material. It is interesting to note that with deposition of new layers, the tensile stress in the previously deposited layers converted into compressive sign [106]. Mukherjee et al. [129] performed numerical simulation and results showed the tensile stress formed at the top of the AM part after deposited 2 layers. However, the tensile stress at the second layer (Fig. 10(a)) was changed into compressive after depositing 10 layers (Fig. 10(b)). In addition, the wall corners exhibited remarkable stress concentration.

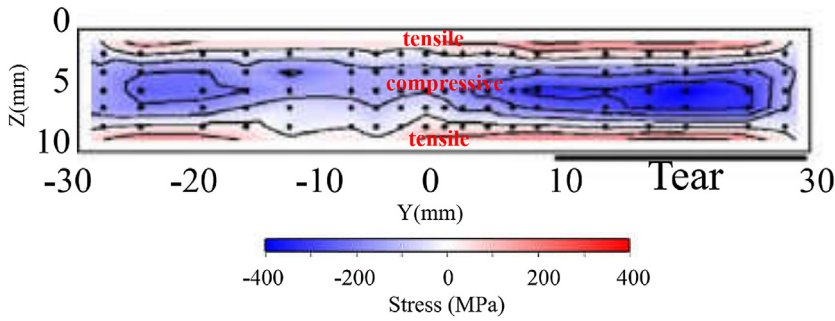


Fig. 7. Neutron diffraction measured distribution of longitudinal residual stress through thickness of a SLM part [117].

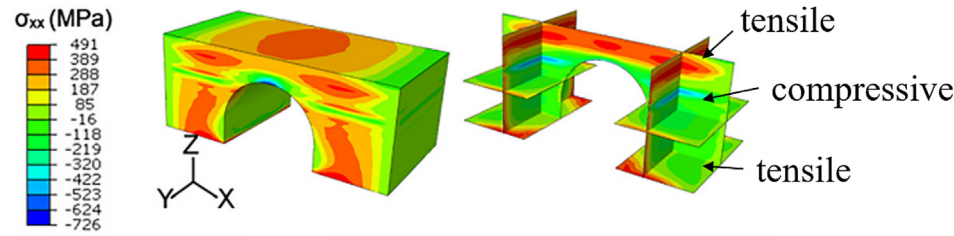


Fig. 8. Numerical simulation predicted longitudinal stress distribution in a SLM part [118].

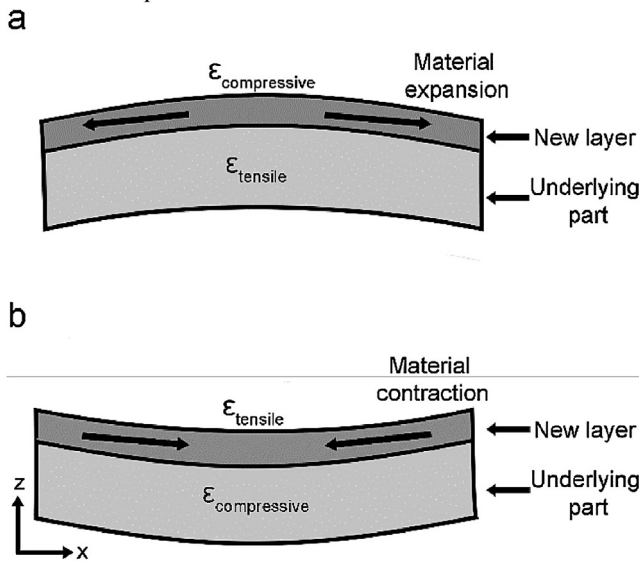


Fig. 9. Basic mechanisms of stress and plastic deformation development during AM: (a) During heating and thermal expansion of the new layer; (b) During cooling and thermal contraction of the new layer [43].

### 3.3. The influencing factors of residual stress

The mechanism of residual stress formation in additive processes is driven by the non-uniform material expansion/contraction. Therefore, the thermal and mechanical properties of the material being processed would naturally influence the magnitude of residual stress. The magnitude of residual stress was found to decrease with the increase of thermal diffusivity and thermal conductivity, and the increase of the yield strength [43]. Invar 36 has a much lower coefficient of thermal expansion than 316 L stainless steel and Ti6Al4V, which resulted in the lowest thermal stresses and thus residual stresses [61]. The strain associated with a certain solid-state phase transformation was reported to counteract the thermal stresses and thus greatly reduced final residual stress magnitude [62]. Bailey et al. [130] found that the compressive stresses near the surface in LMD were primarily caused by phase transformation related strains of the H13 tool steel. The residual stress generated in the

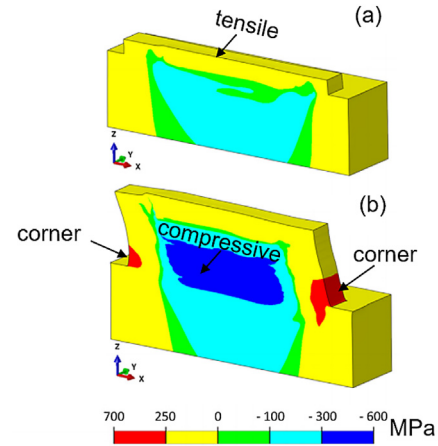


Fig. 10. Numerical simulation predicted residual stress development during the additive process: (a) After the finish of the 2nd layer; (b) After the finish of the 10th layer [129].

FDM printed part was significantly influenced by the semi-crystalline physics and the temperature dependent thermo-mechanical properties of the polymer [131]. In this sense, residual stress is related to thermal properties and phase transformation of material.

Studies have attempted to explore the relationship between residual stress and processing parameters. Liu et al. [106] found that the lower energy input and shorter length of scan line can induce smaller residual stress in SLM parts. Simson et al. [132] reported significantly higher residual stress in 316 L stainless steel produced by SLM, when the volumetric energy input was increased. The residual stress decreased with the increase of layer thickness in SLM, because of the decreased temperature gradient [133,134]. Likewise, a considerable reduction in distortion was observed with the increasing layer thickness [135]. Levkulich et al. [136] found that the longitudinal stress on the top surface of the SLM deposit was decreased by increasing laser power, decreasing scan speed, reducing substrate overhang, and decreasing build area. Parry et al. [110] stated that overheating may cause the increased residual stresses. Overall, it can be concluded that the magnitude of residual stress decreases with the decrease of heat input and the increase of layer thickness.

In addition, Shiomi et al. [126] revealed that preheating the base plate to 160 °C helped reducing the residual stress by 40%. A residual stress reduction of 90% was realized in 316L stainless steel bridge structures by in-situ diode annealing [137]. The thermal stress induced cracks can be avoided by preheating the specimen [138]. Aggarangsi et al. [139] applied a uniform preheat to the deposition surface, which led to a significant change in temperature distribution and residual stress profile.

Scan strategy was reported to have a significant impact on the tensile stress in SLM [108,132,140–143]. Reducing scan vectors and rotating scan vectors were claimed to be beneficial in reducing the residual stress [144, 145]. Parry et al. [110] and Chen et al. [109] stated that longitudinal stress increased with the length of scan lines. Ali et al. [146] investigated the chessboard scanning and results showed that an increasing trend in residual stress with the increased chessboard block size (i.e. scan vector length). A decrease in tensile residual stresses was observed for specimens built using the  $3 \times 3 \text{ mm}^2$  island strategy, when compared to the  $5 \times 5 \text{ mm}^2$  island counterpart [54]. The tensile stress can be decreased with overlap ratio when it is less than 50% [109]. Upon the reduction of hatch distance from 100  $\mu\text{m}$  to 40  $\mu\text{m}$ , the sub-surface residual stress was found to decrease from 600 MPa to 150 MPa [147]. The maximum tensile residual stresses arose in the remelting region [148], but the tensile stresses can be decreased with multiple remelting [149,150].

Colombo et al. [151] demonstrated that the residual stresses of AlSi10Mg samples can be completely relieved by applying the post-processing heat treatments. The residual stress of pure iron sample built by SLM can be eliminated by vacuum heat treatment [152]. Shiomi et al. [126] found that the heat treatment at 600 and 700 °C for one hour was effective to reduce the residual stress by about 70%. Vrancken [145] reported that the stress relief treatment had a noticeable effect on the residual stress and can impact the fatigue crack growth rate.

Studies have been performed to explore the influence of geometry on the residual stress. For rectangular samples, the longitudinal stress distribution of “tensile-compressive-tensile” from top to bottom of the part can be maintained during the layer-by-layer deposition [129,134,153]. The maximum longitudinal residual stress in tension increased from 266 to 609 MPa with the increase of the build height from 2 to 12 mm [154]. However, severe stress concentration can occur at the corners of thin-walled structure [129,155]. For cantilever structure, the tensile stress at the top and the compressive stress at the center of part were also revealed [90,156,157].

#### 4. Mechanism of Distortion and Residual Stress

The shrinkage of material is a common phenomenon in various AM processes. As for the metal AM process, the metal shrinks from liquid to solid. Likewise, the resin contracts during the light curing process. The polymer shrinks from nozzle temperature to bed or room temperature. As an example of the opposite, the part built by selective laser sintering (SLS) process distorted slightly, because the pre-heating temperature was quite close to the glass-transition temperature of the sintered material [56]. The material used in SLS undergoes little contraction, resulting in limited distortion of the built part. It can be concluded that the shrinkage of material is a key cause of distortion and residual stress in various AM processes. This section discusses the formation mechanisms of the distortion and residual stress from both the micro- and macro-scopic perspectives.

##### 4.1. Temperature gradient mechanism

Kruth et al. [73,77,116] proposed the classic temperature gradient mechanism (TGM) to interpret the phenomenon of distortion and residual stresses in SLM; since then, many AM researchers have adopted the idea. The TGM model describes that when the laser beam heats up the added material, it tends to expand as shown in Fig. 11(a). After the laser

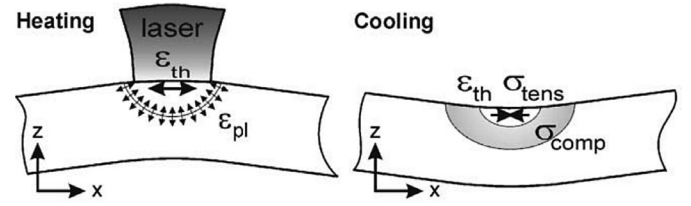


Fig. 11. Schematics of temperature gradient mechanism [75].

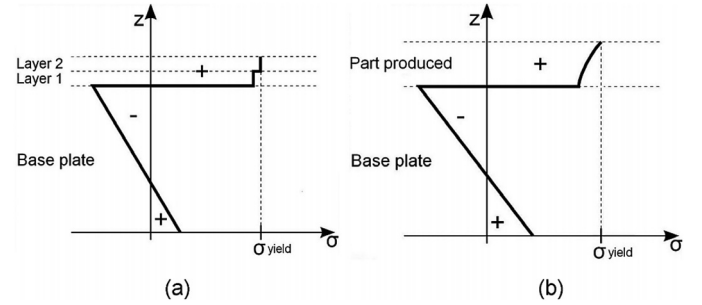


Fig. 12. Schematics of residual stresses formed in SLM part: (a) After adding two layers of melted powders on a base plate; (b) After melting more layers towards the final completion of the built [73].

removes, the temperature of the irradiated zone cools down rapidly, accompanied with the material shrinkage, as shown in Fig. 11(b). However, the shrinkage is partially restricted by the surrounding material, generating a tensile residual stress at the irradiated zone. This explains the presence of high tensile stresses in the initial stage of the SLM process, compressive stresses in the upper part of the base plate, and lower tensile stresses in the lower part of the base plate, as shown in Fig. 12(a). A further powder layer deposition would not change the residual stress profile dramatically, as shown in Fig. 12(b).

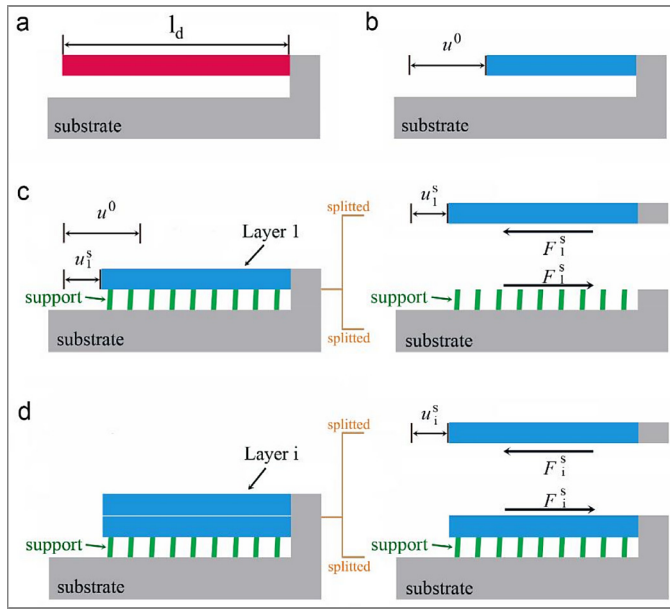
The cycle of downward-upward displacement during the laser melting and cooling steps, as well as the “tensile-compressive-tensile” stress distribution from top to bottom of the AM part can be perfectly interpreted by the TGM model. However, some phenomena that cannot be easily explained by the TGM mechanism are worth noting. Some examples are given below: (i) why scan strategy can have a significant effect on the distortion and residual stress; (ii) how does the structural factor influence the distortion, as mentioned in Section 2.3; and (iii) what determines the residual stress concentration as shown in Fig. 10? This opens many opportunities to develop new models so that the level of distortion and residual stresses in AM parts can be better predicted.

##### 4.2. Assumption of constraint force

Xie et al. [56,158] proposed a macro-scopic model that accounted for the material, processing, and structural factors. At the beginning, a cantilever arm was at high temperature, as shown in Fig. 13(a). When it was cooled to ambient temperature, the arm shrunk by  $u^0$  if there was no constraint, as shown in Fig. 13(b). However, the support structure put constraint to the shrinkage of the deposited arm. This resulted in the shrinkage of arm to  $u_1^s$  rather than  $u^0$ , as shown in Fig. 13(c). A couple of constraining forces  $F_1^s$  can be assumed at the interface between the deposited first layer and the support, see the right schematic diagram of Fig. 13(c). Similarly, a couple of constraining forces  $F_i^s$  can be assumed at the interface between the deposited layer  $i$  and layer  $i-1$ .

Xie et al. [56,158] deduced an expression of constraint force at layer  $N$  as follows:

$$F_N = k_{ds} \cdot (\alpha_d \cdot \Delta T + \beta_{pt}) \cdot E_d \cdot A_d$$



**Fig. 13.** (a) Assumption of constraint force for deposited arm at high temperature without the support; (b) While at low temperature without the support; (c) Assumption of constraint force between the support and the first layer; (d) Assumption of constraint force between layers of  $i-1$  and  $i$  [56].

The defined constraint coefficient  $k_{ds}$  reflects the degree of constraint of molten pool. The product of  $\alpha_d$  and  $\Delta T$  depicts the level of thermal shrinkage.  $\beta_{pt}$  is the shrinkage/expansion caused by phase transformation. The  $\alpha_d$  is the mean thermal expansion coefficient, while  $\Delta T$  represents the temperature difference between the solidus temperature and the ambient temperature.  $E_d$  and  $A_d$  mean the Young's modulus and the cross-section area of the deposited track, respectively.

By assuming a couple of constraint forces between the new deposit and previously deposited layers, the model provided a macroscopic view to recognize the distortion and residual stress in AM [56,158]. The shrinkage tendency of additive deposition is the intrinsic reason of distortion and residual stress of built parts [52,54,56]. As shown in Fig. 14, each layer has different temporary shrinkage because of the difference of the shear stiffness between the previously deposited structure and the support structure. The inconsistent shrinkage of all layers drives the disengaged part to distort.

The above-mentioned model can be used to help understand the distortion and residual stresses in AM [56]. For example, the preheating can effectively decrease the distortion and residual stresses, because of the decreased temperature difference and the constraint force and shrinkage tendency. In addition, the different scan strategy generates different directions of constraint forces, which cause the different shrinkage and distortion of part. Besides, the structural stiffness and phase transformation of material are important in the discussion of distortion and residual stress in AM, as shown in Fig. 14. This model also reveals the stress distribution of “tensile-compressive-tensile” stress distribution from top to bottom [158]. To summarize, the model of constraint force can be an effective supplement to the TGM model for understanding the distortion and residual stress in AM.

#### 4.3. Developments of distortion and residual stress

Residual stress by definition is regarded as purely elastic [43,54]. When the stress surpasses the yield strength, it will cause plastic deformation until the stress is relieved to or below the yield strength. This explains why the maximum longitudinal stress had the magnitude similar to the yield strength of deposited material [118,128]. As a result, the maximum elastic strain and some plastic strain can be assumed at

the top of built part (arm), as depicted in Fig. 15(a). After the support is removed, part distortion will occur [41], as shown in Fig. 15(b). The distortion lead to a new distribution of elastic strain (or called residual stress) and plastic strain in the built part. Li et al. [90] found that the residual stress decreased 70% after the support removal. Ding et al. [159] and Khouzani et al. [91] observed significant reduction in the longitudinal stresses after unclamping of the part built by WAAM and SLM, respectively.

The elastic strain can be effectively decreased or eliminated by stress relieving heat treatment [126,145], as shown in Fig. 15(c). The deformation energy of stress relieved part is much less than that of as-built part, leading to a much less distortion of the part after support removal, as shown in Fig. 15(d). Thöne et al. [160] found that after stress relieving treatment (about 800°C for Ti6Al4V), the distortion of cantilevers can be decreased from 0.35 mm to about 0.05 mm. The residual stress (elastic strain) shown in Fig. 15(d) is supposed to be less than that in the part without stress relieving after support removal (shown in Fig. 15(b)).

### 5. Approaches to Decrease Distortion and Residual Stress

The literature review and analysis lead us to draw the conclusion that the major influencing factors of distortion and residual stress can be classified into three aspects including structure, material, and processing, as shown in Fig. 16. Hence, the approaches to decrease the distortion and residual stress can be illustrated as follows.

#### 5.1. Pre-processing

The stiffness of the deposited structure plays an important role in the distortion. The morphology and dimension of deposited structure should be optimized. The part laying angle in the additive process enables variation in the stiffness of the deposited structure, because it can change the slice of the model and the relevant structural stiffness layer-by-layer. In addition, the stiffness of support structure can create significant variations of distortion. The higher stiffness of the support, the less distortion of built part [56].

Geometry compensation may be an effective means to decrease the distortion in AM. Afazov et al. [161] and Seidel and Zaeh [162] simulated the distortion of a blade, and proposed approaches to decrease the distortion by pre-compensation the geometry of the blade. Based on a mass of data about the measured distortion and materials properties, processing, structural stiffness, a data-driven model can be established to make an accurate prediction on the distortion. Following this, the sizes of structure can be modified for compensation before AM process.

To obtain the low distortion and residual stress, the material used is suggested to have low coefficient of thermal expansion. Also, the phase transformation that can generate volume expansion during the cooling process would be useful as it can counteract the thermal shrinkage from high temperature to ambient temperature.

Preheating the substrate is an effective method to reduce the temperature difference between the top and bottom [56], and in turn decreases the distortion and residual stresses of the AM part. It is important to pre-heat when depositing the first few layers because of their weak structural stiffness. It should also be noted that preheating the platform will result in reduced cooling rates and an increase in grain size, which can reduce mechanical strength of the built part.

#### 5.2. In-situ processing

In terms of heat source, laser is deemed to make a smaller heat-affected zone than arc, leading to less distortion than that built by arc. The influence of energy density on distortion seems contradictory, so the primary aim of parameters optimization is to achieve fully densified AM part.

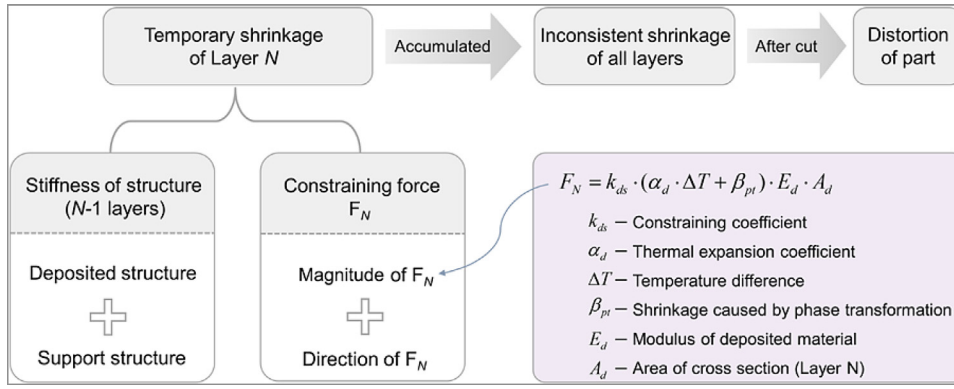


Fig. 14. Mechanism of constraining force induced distortion [56].

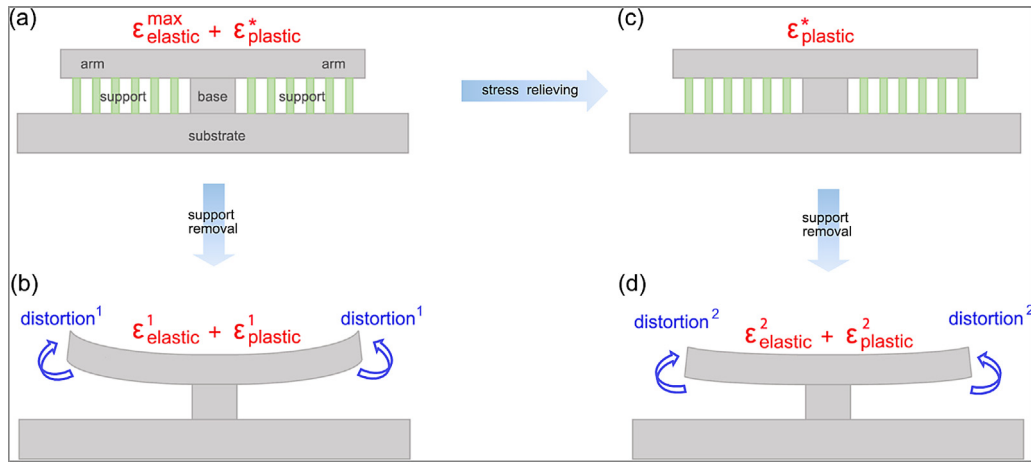


Fig. 15. Schematics of development of distortion and residual stresses: (a) As-built condition; (b) After stress relieving; (c) After support removal without stress relieving; (d) After support removal with stress relieving.

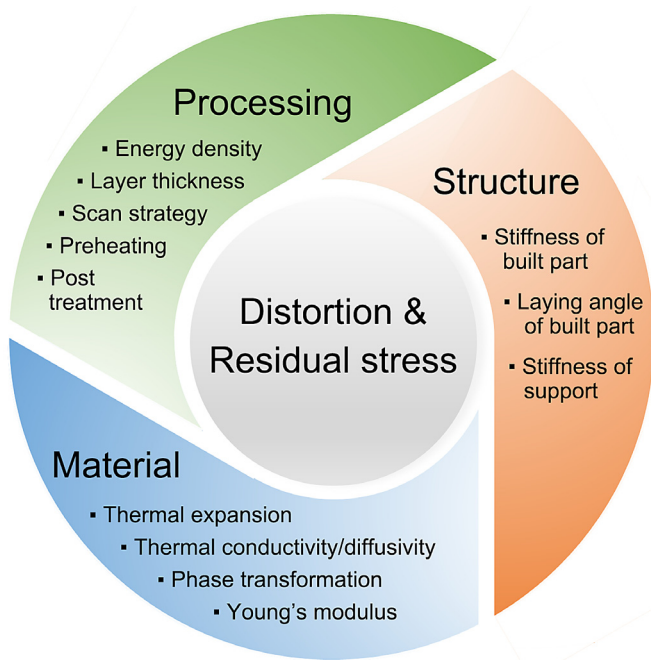


Fig. 16. Influencing factors of distortion and residual stress in AM.

Optimization the scan directions is an effective way to decrease distortion and residual stress. The distortion and residual stress can be viewed as a consequence of constraint forces acting on a structure. The structural stiffness is direction dependent. The laser scan direction can be adjusted in the direction that the structure has the largest shear stiffness. For example, using scan direction perpendicular to the arm of cantilever can cause less distortion than that using scan direction parallel to the arm. Therefore, the scan strategy needs to be optimized in accordance with the structural characterization. A smaller working area of constraint force, a less distortion and tensile stress of the AM built part. The island scan strategy is determined as an effective method to decrease the distortion and residual stress in AM.

### 5.3. Post processing

Post processing for decreasing the distortion and residual stress involves heat treatment and mechanical treatment. Heat treatment has been proven as an effective way to decrease the distortion and residual stresses in AM part. The part is advised to be stress relieved before the support removal, as shown in Fig. 15. It should be noted that the mechanical properties may be worse due to the unwanted grain growth during the heat treatment [163].

Since the tensile stresses are usually generated on the top of built part, it is possible to tailor them by mechanical methods. Laser shock peening (LSP), a surface treatment that can generate compressive stresses, was found to have beneficial effect on modifying the residual stress profile in the part built by SLM [164,165]. It is similar to the concept of shot peening (SP) and ultrasonic shot peening (USP) but uses laser instead. Rolling can decrease the distortion and residual stresses

of the part built by WAAM. The tensile stresses at the top of the AM part can be changed into compressive stresses [122]. The plastic deformation introduced can effectively compensate for the shrinkage of the additive material. Therefore, the LSP, SP, USP, and rolling can be applied for reduction of residual stress and distortion in AM.

## 6. Conclusions

Distortion and residual stress are two major problems in AM. This work provides an overview towards the mechanisms, evolution, and influencing factors of distortion and residual stresses. Several conclusions can be drawn as follows:

- (1) The shrinkage of added deposit that constraint by the previous deposited or surrounding material is the intrinsic cause of distortion and residual stress in AM.
- (2) Most of the maximum distortion lie at the far end (or ends) of built part. The longitudinal stresses are distributed as “tensile-compressive-tensile” from top to bottom of built part after cut from the substrate.
- (3) The classic temperature gradient mechanism provides a micro perspective towards the evolution of distortion and residual stress. The model of constraining force makes it possible to clarify the influence of structural, material, and processing factors on the distortion and residual stress from a macro perspective.

This work offers a comprehensive understanding of distortion and residual stress, as well as a guideline for decreasing the distortion and residual stress in AM. This work not only advances the discussion towards the distortion and residual stress, but also can improve the success rate of printing and performance of the AM built part.

## Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have influenced the work reported in this paper.

## CRediT authorship contribution statement

**Deqiao Xie:** Drafted the manuscript. **Fei Lv:** Contributed to the reference. **Yiwen Yang:** Optimized the structure and figures. **Lida Shen:** Optimized the structure and figures. **Zongjun Tian:** Provided the resources of study and investigation. **Cijun Shuai:** Provided the resources of study and investigation. **Bo Chen:** Carefully revised this manuscript. **Jianfeng Zhao:** Provided the resources of study and investigation.

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