

Investigation of the effect of light scattering on transmitted laser intensity at the weld interface during laser transmission welding of 3D printed thermoplastic parts

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Abstract	printed parts need to be v Transmission Welding (I scattering effect on the in printed laser-transparent complex heterogeneous r Such structure induces th parts. This phenomenon is which directly influences in this paper is to propose 3D printed laser-transpar interface directly linked v Experimental measureme image processing technic show good accordance w tracing model. Finally, 3D	ost-effective, lightweight, and complex parts. To extend their applications, 3D velded in order to form the larger functional assemblies. For this purpose, Laser LTW) is a promising joining technology. This paper aims to investigate the light tensity profile of the laser heat source during the transmission through the 3D part. Indeed, the inherent design of the 3D printing technology results in a nicrostructure with a significant amount of porosity inside the printed parts. e optical diffusion (i.e. light scattering) of the laser beam within the 3D printed leads to the reduction of the transmitted energy arriving at the weld interface, a the quality of the joint and its mechanical performance. The approach adopted e a ray-tracing model to simulate the optical paths of the laser beam through the ent part, which is able to evaluate changes in the laser heat source at the weld with the light scattering effect within the microstructure of the parts. Instance are performed to assess the transmitted intensity flux distribution using an use, instrumented with a digital camera and macro lens. The numerical results ith the experimental one, which proves the confidence of the proposed ray-D transient thermal model of the LTW process is performed using the FEM iphysic® to confirm the influence of the scattering effect on the temperature lity of the weld.
Keywords (separated by '-')		ng - 3D printing - Light scattering - Ray-tracing simulation - Thermoplastic e - Transmitted laser intensity
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ORIGINAL RESEARCH



Investigation of the effect of light scattering on transmitted laser intensity at the weld interface during laser transmission welding of 3D printed thermoplastic parts

Le Anh-Duc¹ · Benoît Cosson¹ · André Chateau Akué Asséko¹

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Abstract

- 3D printing has offered cost-effective, lightweight, and complex parts. To extend their applications, 3D printed parts need to be
- welded in order to form the larger functional assemblies. For this purpose, Laser Transmission Welding (LTW) is a promising joining technology. This paper aims to investigate the light scattering effect on the intensity profile of the laser heat source during the transmission through the 3D printed laser-transparent part. Indeed, the inherent design of the 3D printing technology results in a complex heterogeneous microstructure with a significant amount of porosity inside the printed parts. Such structure induces the optical diffusion (i.e. light scattering) of the laser beam within the 3D printed parts. This phenomenon leads to the reduction of the transmitted energy arriving at the weld interface, which directly influences the quality of the joint and its mechanical performance. The approach adopted in this paper is to propose a ray-tracing model to simulate the optical paths of the laser beam through the 3D printed laser-transparent part, which is able to evaluate changes in the laser heat source at the weld interface directly linked with the light scattering effect within the microstructure of the parts. Experimental measurements are performed to assess the transmitted intensity flux distribution using an image processing technique, instrumented with
- ¹² are performed to assess the transmitted intensity flux distribution using an image processing technique, instrumented with ¹³ a digital camera and macro lens. The numerical results show good accordance with the experimental one, which proves the
- ¹³ a digital camera and macro lens. The numerical results show good accordance with the experimental one, which proves the ¹⁴ confidence of the proposed ray-tracing model. Finally, 3D transient thermal model of the LTW process is performed using
- ¹⁵ the FEM software COMSOL Multiphysic® to confirm the influence of the scattering effect on the temperature field and thus
- ¹⁶ on the quality of the weld.

17 Keywords Laser transmission welding \cdot 3D printing \cdot Light scattering \cdot Ray-tracing simulation \cdot Thermoplastic polymers \cdot

18 Weld interface · Transmitted laser intensity

19 Introduction

- 20 Fused Filament Fabrication (FFF) based 3D printing of
- 21 continuous carbon fiber reinforced composites (CCFRCs)
- 22 has demonstrated impressive capabilities in reproducing

Benoît Cosson and André Chateau Akué Asséko contributed equaally to this work.

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complex shapes, delivering superior mechanical properties, 23 and creating lightweight structures [1–3]. Despite its poten-24 tial benefits, due to the inherent design of layer-by-layer 25 production, the mechanical performances of the 3D printed of 26 CCFRCs remain limited by the orientation of the fibers in the 27 printing plane, and the relatively low strength of inter-layer 28 bonding [4–6]. This drawback becomes particularly prob-29 lematic when dealing with complex mechanical loads in a 30 three-dimensional context. One way to address this techno-31 logical challenge is to utilize a hybrid approach that combines 32 two different processes: 3D printing and Laser Transmis-33 sion Welding (LTW). This method involves 3D printing of 34 anisotropic CCFRCs components in different printing direc-35 tions, then using LTW to join the parts together. This hybrid 36 method allows for the production of objects in which the con-37 tinuous reinforcing fibers are arranged to provide support for 38 multi-directional mechanical loads. 39

As carbon fibers absorb most of the energy from the laser, 40 CCFRCs components are absorbent to the incident laser 41 radiation. Transparent filler material was used for LTW of 42 CCFRC components in [7]. The two joining components 43 are held together by a clamping device, while the transpar-44 ent filler material and the joining partners are kept together 45 only by the elastic force of the polymeric monofilament. The 46 radiation passes through the transparent filler material and 47 is absorbed by the two joining components. The produced 48 heat is transferred to the filler material via heat conduction. 49 All three components melt, and once the materials cool down, 50 they fuse permanently together through the diffusion of poly-51 mer molecules. 52

An alternative approach for the assembly process is to 53 produce small thermoplastic windows (100% pure), which 54 are either transparent or semi-transparent to the laser radia-55 tion, while 3D printing one of the components to be joined. 56 These windows enable the laser radiation to pass through 57 the transparent component and be absorbed by the absorbent 58 composite component at the interface. As a result, this local-59 ized heating causes the thermoplastic to melt, creating a 60 strong bond at the weld interface. 61

Achieving a high-quality weld requires careful control of 62 the interface weld temperature. This temperature is affected 63 by multiple factors, including the optical and thermal prop-64 erties of the components being welded, as well as the specific 65 parameters used during the LTW process [8-10]. As the laser 66 beam propagates through a heterogeneous medium, like a 67 3D printed component that contains a substantial amount of 68 voids, it gets reflected and refracted every time it encoun-69 ters an air-matrix interface. This occurrence results in laser 70 beam scattering, which decreases the amount of transmitted 71 energy reaching the weld interface [11]. As a consequence, 72 the joint's quality and mechanical performance are directly 73 impacted [12–15]. Kuklik et al. [16] used 3D printing and 74 LTW process parameters to predict the weld seam strength 75 by using a neural network-based expert system with an accu-76 racy of 88.1%. 77

It has been demonstrated that the transmissivity and scat-78 tering behavior of thermoplastic 3D printed components are 79 a function of 3D printing process parameters [17]. In this 80 study, we aim to comprehensively investigate the impact of 81 light scattering on the intensity profile of the laser heat source 82 during its transmission through a 3D printed laser-transparent 83 part. We propose a ray-tracing model to simulate the optical 84 paths of a laser beam through a 3D printed laser-transparent 85 part. By using the proposed model, it is possible to predict the 86 changes in the laser heat source distribution at the weld inter-87 face, which are directly linked to the light scattering effect 88 within the microstructure of the parts. 89

The methodology employed in this study builds upon our previous work [12, 18–20]. However, the novelty of this paper lies in the specific case study: the application to 3D printed thermoplastic parts. This investigation comprises 93 the following key aspects: First, we conduct microstructural 94 characterization of the 3D printed thermoplastic parts by 95 varying the printing parameters; The second step involves 96 generating numerical microstructures that represent the void 97 shapes and porosity of the materials; In the third step, we 98 evaluate the influence of microstructural differences and 99 sample thickness on the resulting intensity profiles of the 100 laser at the interface. This evaluation is achieved through a 101 quantitative numerical/experimental comparison; Finally, we 102 examine the effect of light scattering on the interface temper-103 ature, and consequently, on the weld quality. By addressing 104 these aspects, we present a comprehensive analysis of laser 105 transmission through 3D printed parts. This analysis pro-106 vides crucial insights for optimizing the welding process, 107 enhancing weld quality, and improving the final product's 108 mechanical properties. 109

As a first step, the microstructures of the samples printed 110 under different printing parameters will be examined by 111 means of optical microscopy. According to the microstruc-112 ture analysis, the numerical RVEs of the samples will be 113 generated. Subsequently, ray-tracing simulations will be 114 performed to model the diffusion patterns of the light trans-115 mitting through the samples. Then, the transmitted intensity 116 flux distributions of the laser beam will be generated at the 117 weld interface and compared for different samples. In order 118 to validate the numerical model, an image processing tech-119 nique equipped with a digital camera and macro lens will 120 be used to perform experimental measurements that assess 121 the transmitted intensity flux distribution at the weld inter-122 face. Finally, 3D transient thermal model of the LTW process 123 will be conducted using the FEM software COMSOL Mul-124 tiphysic[®]. The thermal model will allow for confirming the 125 influence of the scattering effect on the temperature field dur-126 ing the LTW process. Accordingly, the quality of the weld 127 can be predicted. 128

Experimental section

Materials and processing

The transparent Poly-Ethylene Terephthalate Glycol-modified 131 (PETG) filament, with a diameter of 1.75 mm, supplied by 132 PolymakerTM was used as the feedstock in this study. As 133 indicated in the datasheet, the material has a density of 134 1.25 g.cm⁻³ and a glass transition temperature of $81^{\circ}C$. 135 The nozzle temperature is recommended in the range of 136 $(230 - 260^{\circ}C)$. A Composer Desktop 3D - printer from 137 AnisoprintTM was used to print all the samples. AuraTM soft-138 ware was used to slice 3D CAD models and assign the FDM 139 processing parameters, as summarized in Table 1. The CAD 140 models used to manufacture the samples have a rectangular 141

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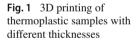
Table 1	FDM	processing	parameters	used in	this study
Tuble I	1 D 101	processing	purumeters	abea m	uno braay

Processing parameter	Value
Nozzle temperature (° C)	240
Nozzle diameter (mm)	0.4
Bed temperature (° C)	75
Print speed (mm/s)	30
Layer thickness (mm)	0.2, 0.3
Infill pattern	line
Infill percentage (%)	100
Extrusion multiplier	1

¹⁴² bar shape, with rectangular plan dimensions of $L = 60 \text{mm} \times W = 40 \text{mm}$, with different thicknesses as depicted in Fig. 1. ¹⁴³ The nozzle temperature was set to $T_n = 240^{\circ}C$. Apart from ¹⁴⁵ the parameters in Table 1, all other printing parameters were ¹⁴⁶ fixed, but the layer thickness was varied between 0.2mm and ¹⁴⁷ 0.3mm.

¹⁴⁸ Sample microstructures investigation

Optical microscopy of the sample cross-sections was con-149 ducted to investigate void content and void morphology. To 150 prepare for microscopy, the samples were cut with a saw in 151 the middle, in a way that filaments were perpendicular to the 152 cut plane. The samples were then ground with SiC sandpaper 153 up to a maximum grit size of 1200 (Struers Inc., Cleveland, 154 OH, USA). Finally, the sample surfaces were polished using 155 diamond colloidal suspension to a final grit size of $1\mu m$. 156



Optical microscopy was carried out by means of a ZEISS 157 Axio Zoom.V16 digital microscope and DeltaPix InSightTM 158 V6.7.4 software. Figure 2 shows the void morphology of two 159 sample types I and II, which were printed under two levels 160 of the layer thickness (e = 0.2mm and e = 0.3mm) respec-161 tively. The shape of voids changes from a predominantly fully 162 astroid-shaped for sample type I (e = 0.2mm) (Fig. 2a) to 163 half astroid-shaped for sample type II (e = 0.3mm) (Fig. 2c). 164 These voids were formed by the gaps between the filaments 165 deposited during printing and were actually grooves aligned 166 in the direction of the filaments. Although the nozzle used 167 to extrude the molten material is circular (i.e. D = 0.4mm), 168 during deposition, the filament was pressed down to a smaller 169 layer thickness (i.e. e = 0.2mm and e = 0.3mm) and became 170 elliptical. As can be seen in Fig. 2, in both cases, the bot-171 tom surfaces of the filaments cooled down quickly to form 172 round edges. On the contrary, the top surfaces of the fil-173 aments were relatively flat due to the interaction between 174 the nozzle and the molten polymer, and the extrusion pres-175 sure during the printing process [2]. For the layer thickness 176 of 0.3mm, because of a large amount of extruded material, 177 the extrusion pressure is more important, which pushes the 178 material to the side. Moreover, a higher amount of molten 179 polymer carries more thermal energy, resulting in better rhe-180 ological properties. Therefore, the top surfaces flatten. For 181 the layer thickness of 0.2mm, the top surfaces of the fil-182 aments are slightly deformed due to these circumstances 183 but still maintain relatively round edges. These deformed 184 edges, then, together with the bottom surfaces of the sub-185 sequently deposited filaments, form mostly astroid-shaped 186 voids. 187

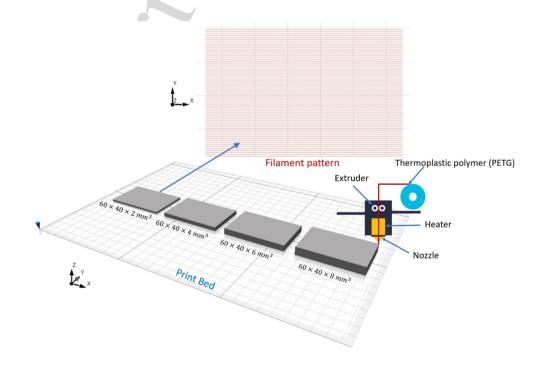
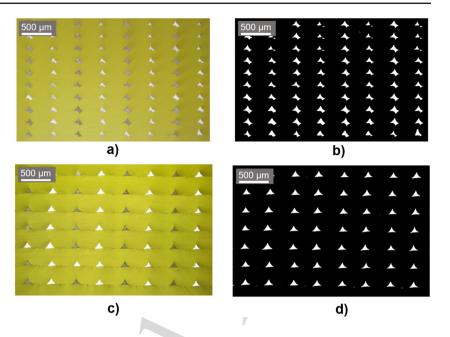


Fig. 2 Void morphology of the 3D printed parts and image analysis procedure to find the void fraction. (a) Unprocessed optical image (Sample type I); (b) post-processed image (Sample type I); (c) Unprocessed optical image (Sample type II); (d) post-processed image (Sample type II)



The printing parameters shown in Table 1 were chosen in order to obtain these two typical void morphology of the 3D printed parts. Numerous studies have reported the internal structure of the FDM parts to be similar to the structure depicted Fig. 2 [1, 21–23]. Different printing parameters than those used in this study might be needed for other machines/materials to achieve the same microstructures.

The void area fraction was measured by post-processing 105 cross-section optical images of the samples in ImageJ soft-196 ware. For each treatment condition, five images were ana-197 lyzed from different cross-section images to find the average 198 value of the porosity. The voids can be distinguished from 199 the matrix by performing an image segmentation based on 200 pixel classification. As shown in Fig. 2a and c, the green part 201 signifies the matrix. The porosity of the sample can be cal-202 culated based on the void area fraction over the area of the 203 whole image as shown in Fig. 2b and d. These results will 204 then be used to generate the numerical micro-structures of 205 the samples in the flowing section. 206

207 Laser intensity profile measurement

The aim of the experimental measurements is first, to obtain 208 the initial intensity flux distribution of the laser beam without 209 considering the light scattering effect and second, to char-210 acterize the intensity flux distribution at the weld interface 211 considering the light scattering effect during the transmission 212 through the 3D printed laser-transparent part. The measure-213 ment method used in this study was reported in our previous 214 work [18]. To prepare for the experiments, sample surfaces 215 were ground using SiC sandpaper up to a maximum grit size 216 of 1200 (Struers Inc., Cleveland, OH, USA) and then pol-217 ished using a diamond colloidal suspension up to a final grit 218

size of $1\mu m$. The experimental set-up can be shown in Fig. 3, 219 which is maintained in a darkroom to eliminate any external 220 light that may be parasitic and affect the captured images. The 221 idea is to capture the spot of the laser beam on the back side 222 of the sample using a digital camera (i.e. Canon EOS 5D) 223 equipped with a macro lens (i.e. Canon EF 100mm f/2.8224 USM Macro). Three images with different exposure levels 225 (i.e. under exposure, normal exposure, and over exposure) 226 are needed to build a master curve for the calibration of the 227 grayscale according to the levels of light energy (as depicted 228 in Fig. 4). To do so, the camera is set to manual mode in order 229 to impose the same settings, except the exposure time for all 230 samples (i.e. Bracketing exposure setting mode as can be 231 shown in Fig. 5). Further explanations about the calibration 232 procedure can be found in Ref. [18]. One master curve can be 233 built for each sample, however, these curves are expected to 234 be identical for all samples. To minimize the impact of noise 235 and errors, an average master curve is used for the calibration 236 of all images, which is shown in Fig. 6. 237

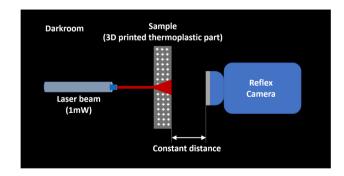


Fig. 3 Experimental set-up

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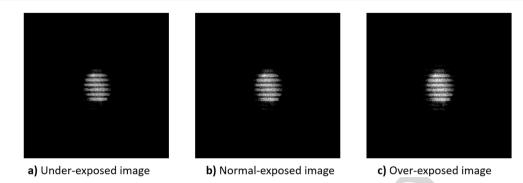


Fig. 4 Three images with different exposure levels

To characterize the initial normalized intensity flux distri-238 bution of the laser beam, the measurement is carried out on a 239 white paper sheet (i.e. $80g.m^{-2}$ of weight paper) instead of 240 3D printed samples, which serves as the output screen. This 241 result will then be used as input for the numerical ray-tracing 242 model. In the case of the measurement with the 3D printed 243 samples, the laser is pointed on the top surface of the samples 244 (according to the printing axis). 245

Through the use of the master curves illustrated in Fig. 6, 246 it is possible to link the normalized energy received at a par-247 ticular location in an image and the gravscale value of the 248 pixel located at that position. For each sample, by dividing 249 the normalized area energy (E in $J.m^{-2}$) by the exposure 250 time (using one of the three images) we obtain an intensity 251 (I in $W.m^{-2}$) flux distribution map at the weld interface (as 252 illustrated in Fig. 5). 253

Numerical section 25

Generation of the microstructure 255

To describe the microstructure of the 3D printed part, a 256 regular array of void grooves aligned in the direction of the filament is assumed in the numerical model. Idealized astroid-shaped and half astroid-shaped are considered to repwith e = 0.2mm and e = 0.3mm respectively. For each void 261 configuration, a rectangular representative unit cell (RUC) 262 containing a void at the center is created (see Fig. 7). The 263 RUC is in the XZ plane following the coordinate system 264 defined in the printing process, with the vertical Z-direction 265 being the direction of laser beam projection. It is worth not-266 ing that, in the proposed numerical model, the laser is pointed 267 from bottom to top. Therefore, in the case of sample type II, 268 the peak of the half astroid-shaped is pointing downwards. 269 The size of the voids is computed based on the measured 270 porosity of the voids from experimental images (Fig. 2). The 271 data used in this study are listed in Table 2. 272

Figure 8 shows the multi-scale mesh used to discretize the 273 3D printed parts for ray-tracing simulations. As can be seen 274 from the figure, the first scale, the so-called macroscopic 275 mesh, is a regular hexahedral mesh. Then, each macros-276 element is discretized by a periodic microscopic mesh. The 277 3D microscopic mesh is generated by extrusion of the 2D 278 RUCs in the direction Y by a unit distance. 279

Ray-tracing simulation

280

257 258 259 resent the void shapes for two typical sample types I and II 260

In order to describe the interaction between the laser beam 281 and the 3D printed thermoplastic part, the ray-tracing method 282 is chosen. This method has the advantage of following the 283 laser beam propagation into a complex structure. In previ-284 ous studies, the ray-tracing method has been successfully 285

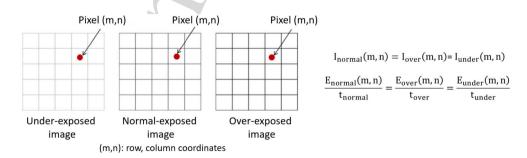


Fig. 5 Bracketing exposure representation. I_k and E_k stand respectively for intensity and area energy received in each pixel location (m,n), and t_k stands for exposure time; $k = \{normal, over, under\}$

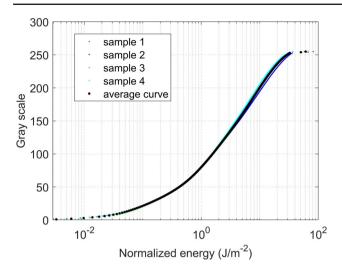


Fig. 6 Master curves for gray levels versus normalized light energy

employed to simulate the transmission of the laser beam through the continuous glass fiber reinforced thermoplas-287 tic composites [19, 20]. In this method, the laser beam is 288 discretized into a set of rays, then the path of each ray is followed in the model geometry. This method is very close to the 290 physics of light propagation since a ray can represent the path 291 of a photon. Therefore, the ray-tracing method allows for tak-292 ing into account the different optical effects (i.e. absorption, 293 refraction) of light through the material. In the case of trans-294 parent 3D printed parts, the laser beam diffuses through the 295 complex heterogeneous microstructure due to the numerous 296 refractions occurring at the matrix/void interfaces. 297

The laser beam is represented by thousands of rays ran-298 domly distributed on a predefined incident surface. This 299 predefined surface is chosen regarding the laser spot shape. 300 In this application, it is an ellipse of major axis 4.0mm and 301 minor axis 3.0mm. The major axis is perpendicular to the 302 direction of the filament. The incident ray directions are 303 defined from the bottom up and are perpendicular to the sam-30 ple surface. The incident surface is assumed to be perfectly 305

flat. Thanks to this assumption, the diffraction of light due to surface roughness is negligible.

306

307

The power assigned to individual rays is determined by 308 referring to the experimental data obtained from the measure-309 ment of the initial laser intensity profile in "Laser intensity 310 profile measurement". Thereby, an initial normalized power 311 flux distribution map of the laser beam is established (see 312 Fig. 11). Given that the power of the laser used is $P_{laser} =$ 313 1mW, the initial power assigned to each ray is calculated by 314 Eq. 1: 315

$$p_0(x, y) = \frac{P_{laser} \times p_{normalized}(x, y)}{\sum p_{normalized}(x, y)}$$
(1) 310

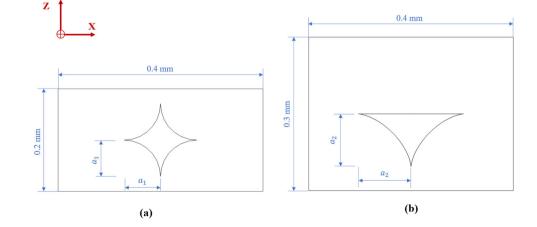
The path of each ray is first followed in the macroscopic 317 mesh. In each macro element, the ray enters the microscopic 318 mesh and then it is followed in the microelements. It is impor-319 tant to note that the computation of the intersection between 320 a considered ray and all the micro mesh at the same time 321 is obviously very time-consuming. The macroscopic mesh 322 serves as a first filter before considering the interaction of 323 the ray with the microscopic mesh. By this means, only one 324 microscopic mesh is considered each time. As a result, this 325 two-scale calculation allows for a significant reduction of 326 computational cost. 327

The main phenomenon linked to the light scattering effect at the macroscopic scale is the multiple refractions in the structure at the microscopic scale. Refraction causes a change in the direction of light at the air-matrix interface. In the ray-tracing method, each time a ray encounters a change of medium, refraction is taken into account using the Snell-Descartes law: 328

$$n_1 \sin\theta_1 = n_2 \sin\theta_2 \tag{2}$$

where n_1 , n_2 are the refractive indices, θ_1 is the angle of the incident ray at the dioptre, and θ_2 is the angle of the refracted ray. Refractive indices of the polymer and the void

Fig. 7 Representative unit cell (RUC) for different void configurations. (a) fully astroid-shaped void for sample type I; (b) half astroid-shaped void for sample type II



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Table 2 Size of the voids

Sample	Layer thickness	Porosity	Void size
Туре І	0.2 mm	$7.45\pm0.2\%$	$a_1 = 0.071$
Type II	0.3 mm	$5.23\pm0.2\%$	$a_2 = 0.103$

are respectively $n_m = 1.49$ and $n_v = 1.00$. The reflection of 339 light at the dioptre is considered to be negligible in front of refraction [20]. Hence, partially reflected light is not taken 341 into account in the calculation to lower the computation cost. 342 The attenuation of the ray power due to absorption within 343 the media throughout the ray path is taken into account in the 344 ray-tracing model by using the Beer-Lambert law. Following 345 the real ray path, the final power assigned to each ray reaching 346 the weld interface is calculated by Eq. 3: 347

$$p(l) = (1 - \rho) P_0 e^{-K_h l}$$
 (3)

where l represents the ray path length, $\rho = 0.07$ [24] 349 stands for the reflectivity at the incident surface. K_h is the 350 homogenized absorption coefficient of the 3D printed ther-351 moplastic part. It was demonstrated in Ref. [19] that the ratio 35 between the average length of the path of rays in the air by 353 the total average length path is equal to the void fraction. As 354 a consequence, the homogenized absorption coefficient K_h 355 can be computed using the rule of mixture. In this work, K_h 356 is set equal to $100m^{-1}$. 357

³⁵⁸ Convergence of the model is performed during the calculations to find out the required number of rays. New rays ³⁶⁰ are generated until the resulting total transmitted energy at the welding interface does not vary or when the error level ³⁶² becomes acceptable. As shown in Fig. 9, 2×10^5 rays are sufficient for acquiring a good convergence for all simulations ³⁶⁴ in this study.

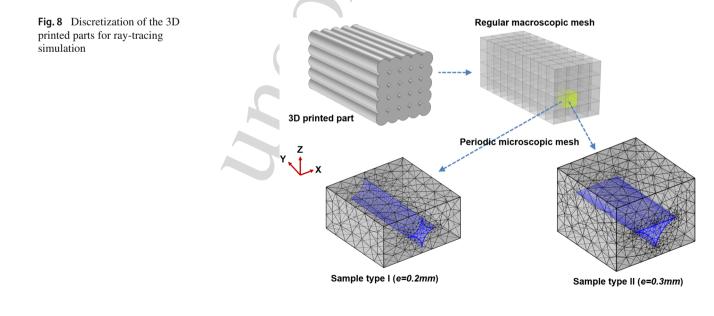
Thermal simulation

In order to show the influence of the scattering effect on the 366 weld quality (i.e. heat affected zone), thermal simulations 367 are performed using commercial FEM software COMSOL 368 Multiphysic® . The numerical model is composed of two 369 domains: a 3D printed transparent component made of PETG 370 material, and an absorbent substrate of the same material. 371 filled with black carbon. For the sake of simplicity, as a first 372 step, the thermal properties of pure material are used (i.e. 373 without homogenization) for both components, which are 374 listed in Table 3. A perfect thermal contact is assumed at 375 the interface between the two components. All the exposed 376 surfaces are prescribed a convective heat flux boundary con-377 dition, with a heat transfer coefficient of $h = 10[W/(m^2.K)]$ 378 [24]. To quantify the effect of scattering on the temperature 379 field, a first model (model 1), where scattering is neglected, is 380 proposed. With model 1, the attenuation of the laser intensity 381 due to absorption within the transparent part is modeled by 382 using Eq. 4: 383

$$I(z) = (1 - \rho) \times \tau \times I_0 \times e^{-zD}$$
(4) 38

where I_0 is the initial laser intensity coming from the laser, 385 τ is the transmissivity of the transparent part at the laser wave-386 length (i.e. the ratio of rays that reach the weld interface to 387 the total number of rays), ρ is the reflectivity at the incident 388 surface, and z is the sample thickness. D stands for the macro-380 scopic extinction coefficient. It is noted that τ and D can be 390 obtained either by ray-tracing simulations or by experimen-39 tal measurements using an IR spectrometer. In this work, τ 392 and D were obtained as results from ray-tracing simulations. 393

In the second model (model 2), the scattering effect is considered. For this model, the beam intensity profile, reaching the weld interface, calculated by ray-tracing simulations



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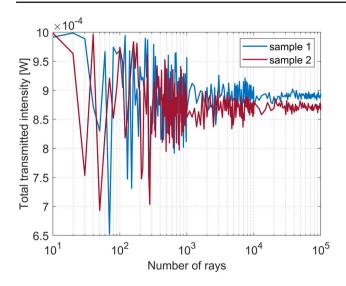


Fig. 9 Convergence of number of rays

is applied as the boundary condition. Assuming that the 397 absorbent substrate has an infinite absorption coefficient, the 398 laser intensity is imposed on the weld interface as an inward 399 heat flux to the absorbent part. The model geometry and mesh 400 for the thermal simulation in COMSOL Multiphysic® can be 401 seen in Fig. 10. The assembly dimensions are 40mm along 402 the direction Y and 20mm along the direction X. In the direc-403 tion Z, the assembly is sized of 4mm, so 2mm in thickness for 404 each component. For moving laser source in the LTW pro-405 cess, scanning speed is also included in the model, therefore 40 $v_{laser} = 2 \ mm.s^{-1}$ along the direction Y. 407

408 Results and discussion

409 Confrontation between simulation and experiment

In this section, we use the intensity distribution maps at the
weld interface obtained from the experimental procedure to
validate the ray-tracing simulations.

Figure 11 shows the intensity distribution of the laser beam before and after passing through the sample. Obviously, the scattering of light within the sample causes a redistribution of the laser intensity, leading to the formation of small slits where the laser intensity is significantly reduced. These slits are formed at locations where there are void grooves in the

Table 3 Thermal properties of PETG

Properties	Value
Density (ρ)	1250 [kg/m^3]
Specific heat capacity (C_p)	1800 [J/(kg.K)]
Thermal conductivity (k)	0.2 [W/(m.K)]

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sample and are the result of the multiple refractions of the 419 laser light at the air-matrix interfaces. In contrast, areas of 420 the sample with no void grooves allow the laser light to 421 travel along straight paths with no scattering. In addition, 422 these areas also receive intensities from the scattered zones, 423 resulting in concentrated areas of laser light. Overall, the laser 424 beam behavior is influenced by the sample's microstructure 425 and can result in complex intensity patterns that depend on 426 the presence or absence of the void grooves. It can be also 427 seen in Fig. 11e that the ray-tracing model effectively sim-428 ulates this feature, resulting in an intensity map that closely 429 matches the experimental one. 430

To achieve a more quantitative comparison, the laser beam 431 profiles at the central lines of the weld interface in the 432 directions perpendicular and parallel to the filament are plot-433 ted in Fig. 12. It is apparent from the figure that there is 434 a good agreement between simulations and measurements. 435 The redistribution of the laser intensity after passing through 436 the sample is well reproduced by the numerical model. It 437 can be observed in the linear scale (Fig. 12a) that the con-438 centrated and attenuated areas of the laser intensity that were 439 mentioned earlier are accurately predicted. In the logarithmic 440 scale (Fig. 12b), the spread of the laser beam can be seen. One 441 can readily observe that there is no spreading taking place in 442 the direction parallel to the filament (Fig. 12d). This reflects 443 that the scattering phenomenon is absent in this direction. 444 This phenomenon has also been observed in the case of a 445 unidirectional (UD) composite in previous work [20, 25]. 446

The confrontations between simulation and experiment 447 for other samples are presented in Fig. 13. It is shown that, in 448 all cases, the intensity distributions in the central zone of the 449 beam are well predicted since the profiles are very similar. In 450 the logarithmic scale, the results show that the spread of the 451 laser beam is fairly better predicted for the cases of sample 452 type II compared with one of sample type I. For both cases 453 of sample type I, there is a visible discrepancy in the region 454 far from the beam center. This discrepancy can be attributed 455 to the following. The voids are not perfectly astroid-shaped 456 and have regular alignment, hence different than those used 457 in the ray-tracing models. Similarly, the void shape in some 458 regions of the sample type I might be quite small compared 459 to the average void fraction used in the models (see Fig. 2). 460

Influence of sample thickness

In this section, the influence of the sample thickness on the transmitted laser intensity is investigated. For the sake of clarity, the plots of simulated and experimental results are separated to achieve more accurate comparisons. The simulated results of the three samples with different thicknesses are shown together in Fig. 14a, and the experimental ones are shown in Fig. 14b. From the figure, the attenuation of laser

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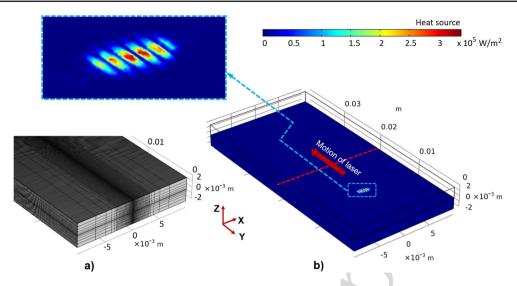


Fig. 10 (a) 3D mesh of the two sample's parts in COMSOL Multiphysic®(b) Numerical model geometry with a surface heat source for thermal simulations

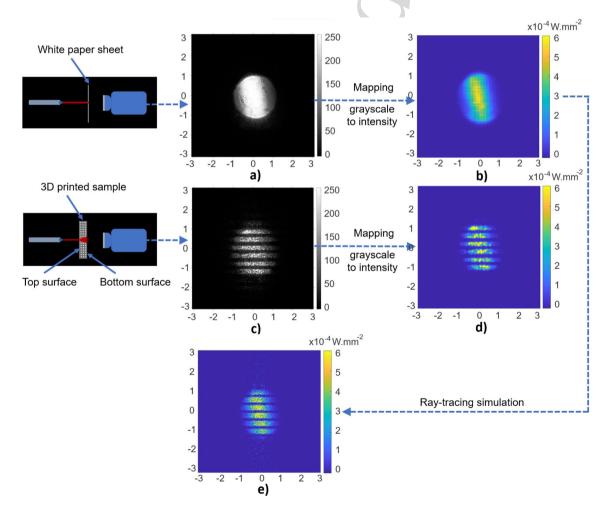


Fig. 11 Initial laser beam profile and intensity distribution map at the weld interface of the samples. (a) Experimental grayscale image of the laser beam; (b) Initial intensity distribution map of the laser beam;

(c) Experimental grayscale image of the sample type I - 2mm;
(d) Experimental intensity distribution map of the sample type I - 2mm;
(e) Numerical intensity distribution map of the sample type I - 2mm

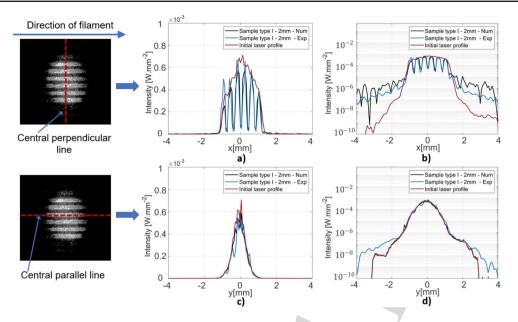


Fig. 12 Laser beam profile at the central lines of the weld interface in the direction perpendicular to the filament: a) linear scale, b) logarithmic scale; and in the direction of the filament: c) linear scale, d) logarithmic scale

beam intensity with the increase in sample thickness can beclearly observed, particularly in the central area of the laser.

471 Influence of void shape

The influence of the void shape on the intensity distribution map of the laser beam at the weld interface is shown in Fig. 15. It is observed that the size of the slits, where the laser intensity is reduced, is a function of the void size. As a result, the ones observed in sample type II are slightly larger than in sample type I. Accordingly, for sample type II, the light intensity in concentrated areas reaches higher peaks. (see Fig. 15b).

In order to compare the light scattering level inside the two 479 sample types, the empirical cumulative distribution functions 480 of the ray path length are depicted in Fig. 16a. It is impor-481 tant to note that, rays whose path lengths are lower than the 482 thickness of the samples, are exited the numerical geometry 483 through other faces than the weld interface (i.e. sides, and 484 top faces). Thus, the quantity of these rays might represent 485 the light scattering level within the samples. Accordingly, the 486 probabilities of these rays are 0.07 and 0.11 for sample type I 487 (2mm) and sample type II (2.1mm) respectively. For thicker 488 samples, these probabilities also increase, namely 0.09 and 489 0.17 for sample type I (4mm) and sample type II (3.9mm) 490 respectively. From this analysis, it can be concluded that the 401 light scattering level inside sample type II is slightly higher 492 compared to sample type I. Also, the light scattering level 493 increases with the thickness of the sample. Figure 16b shows the total transmitted power (i.e. the integral on the surface) 495 received at the weld interface as a function of the sample 496 thickness for two sample types. As a result, samples type 497

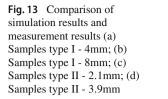
I allow more light to pass through than type II. It can also be seen that the greater the sample thickness, the lower the energy reaching the welding interface. From this result, the macroscopic extinction coefficient of the laser intensity Dcan be calculated according to the Beer-Lambert law (Eq. 5): 502

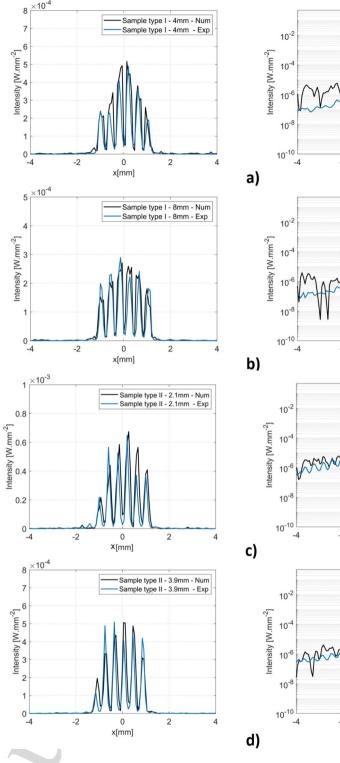
$$I(z) = I_0 \times e^{-zD} \tag{5}$$

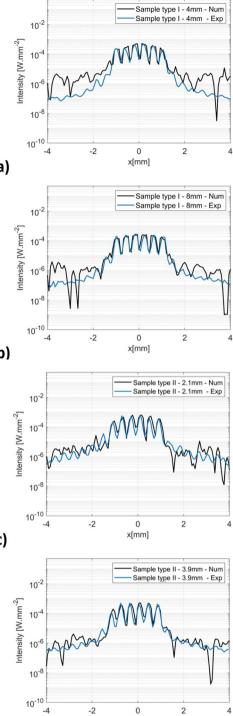
where I_0 is the initial laser intensity coming from the laser device, before entering the sample, and z is the sample thickness. The macroscopic extinction coefficient D is given by the calculation of the slope of the line $\ln(I(z))$ vs. z as can be shown in Fig. 16c. Accordingly, the computed results are respectively $D = 113.7m^{-1}$ and $D = 123.3m^{-1}$ for sample type I and sample type II.

Influence of the scattering effect on the weld quality

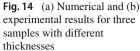
For the sake of comparison, thermal simulations are per-512 formed for two different types of samples with a thickness of 513 2mm. In this application, to achieve a welding temperature 514 at the interface (i.e. above the glass transition temperature 515 $T_g = 81^{\circ}C$), the intensity of the laser is magnified 500 516 times. The maximum temperature profiles achieved on a 517 line perpendicular to the weld seam (i.e. the red dotted 518 line in Fig. 10b) are shown in Fig.17. Compared with the 519 no-scattering simulation, the scattering effect results in the 520 formation of narrowed regions along the weld seam where 521 the temperature is significantly reduced. This confirms that 522 the thermal diffusion rate is insufficient to compensate for the 523 non-homogenization of the intensity distribution due to the 524







x[mm]



3

2

1

0

-1

-2

-3

-3

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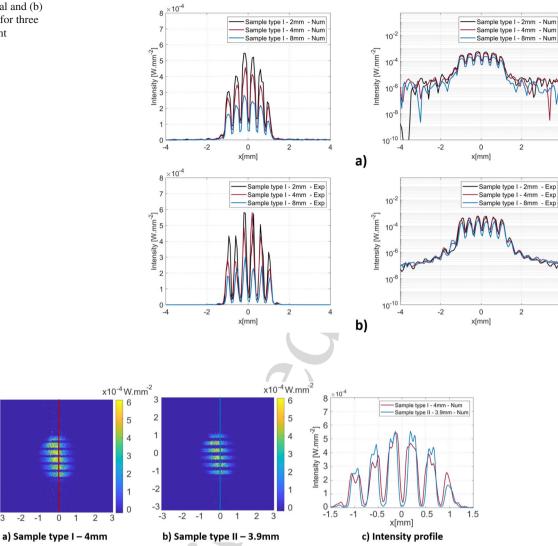


Fig. 15 Comparison of laser intensity map for two different sample types. Red line (a) and cyan line (b) represent central perpendicular lines, their intensity profiles are plotted in (c)

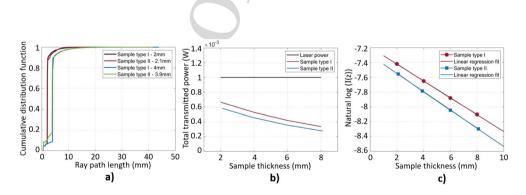


Fig. 16 Comparison results for two different sample types. (a) Cumulative distribution function of the ray length path; (b) Total transmitted power I(z) vs. sample thickness; (c) Computation of the macroscopic extinction coefficient D

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T_=81°C

-2

type II compared to sample type I.

Profile of T_{max} - Sample type I

Profile of T_{max} - Sample type II

0

x [mm]

Fig. 17 Comparison of simulated maximum temperature profiles

scattering effect. The above-mentioned regions either lack

the required temperature for welding or produce unsatisfac-

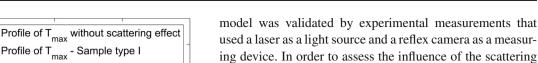
tory welds. Consequently, the weld quality along the seam

line width is seriously impacted. It can also be seen that this

adverse effect is more straightforward in the case of sample

2

4



557 used a laser as a light source and a reflex camera as a measur-558 ing device. In order to assess the influence of the scattering 559 effect on the quality of the weld, 3D thermal simulations 560

were conducted, which allowed for predicting the temper-561 ature field during the LTW process. The results showed a 562 marked reduction in the quality of the weld due to the scat-563 tering effect. 564

Future work will aim to further extend the applications 565 of the model to predict the influence of filling patterns on 566 the light scattering of the laser beam within the 3D printed 567 parts. Consequently, the ray-tracing model will be coupled 568 to a FEM model to simulate the temperature field during the 569 LTW process of 3D printed CCFRCs. 570

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Declarations

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Conflict of Interests The authors declare no conflict of interest.
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Conclusion 531

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Temperature [°C]

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The inherent layer-by-layer production of 3D printing tech-532 nology results in a complex heterogeneous microstructure 533 with a larger amount of porosity inside the printed parts. 534 Consequently, the laser intensity is subjected to the scatter-535 ing phenomenon when it propagates through the thickness 536 of the 3D printed component during the LTW process. Obvi-537 ously, comprehension of the light scattering effect allows 538 controlling the interface weld temperature for achieving a 539 high-quality assembly. 540

In this study, we have carried out the influence of 3D print-541 ing process parameters on the microstructure (i.e. void shape 542 and size) of the 3D printed thermoplastic parts. Subsequently, 543 two typical void morphology of the 3D printed parts were 544 investigated to examine the light scattering effect. 545

We have presented a ray-tracing model, which is able 546 to simulate both light absorption and light scattering phe-547 nomena during the transmission of laser intensity through a 548 semi-transparent and diffusive media. The proposed model 549 was able to predict effectively the intensity distribution map 550 of the laser beam reaching the weld interface. In addition, 551 it allowed for taking into account the differences in the 552 microstructure of different sample types. The influence of 553 the material thickness was also investigated, which demon-554 strated the growing impact of the light scattering effect as the 555 material thickness increases. The reliability of the numerical 556

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