

# 1 Design of porous architectures in laser powder bed fusion: 2 effect of hatch spacing and rotation angle on density and 3 pore morphology

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8 **Abstract:** Bone is a complex and hierarchical structure with the ability to provide extensive structural support to the  
9 body while also being lightweight for ease of motion. Bone can be damaged due to injury or illness, requiring the need  
10 for an orthopedic implant to enhance function, to provide structure and to encourage the growth of new bone. A challenge  
11 with current metal orthopedic implants is stress shielding, where there is a mismatch of mechanical moduli between the  
12 implant and human bone. When designing implants, it is important to tailor the mechanical response of the implant to  
13 natural bone to avoid stress shielding. This research explores a new method for implant design, incorporating pores  
14 stochastically using laser powder bed fusion (PBF-LB). This type of porosity is introduced into a solid metal part during  
15 printing by altering process parameters in PBF-LB. The density and pore morphology are dictated by the hatch spacing  
16 (100 – 500  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and rotation angle (60° and 67°). These structures were printed in Ti-6Al-4V. The effects of the hatch  
17 spacing and rotation angle on melt pool morphology and porosity were investigated, resulting in densities of 50.20 -  
18 99.98% and columnar and stochastic pore morphologies.

19 **Keywords:** PBF-LB, Porous materials, Hatch spacing, Rotation angle, Low density

20

## 21 1. Introduction

22 Orthopedic implants are devices fabricated to replace bones and joints in the human body. They are required when the  
23 bones and joints in the body are injured, damaged, or fail to perform as needed [1]. As the need for orthopedic implants  
24 is gradually increasing due to the aging population, the need for better and optimized implants increases as well [2]. The  
25 functional requirements of orthopedic implants are to provide enough strength and stiffness to bear the load of the human  
26 body, be biocompatible with the body and promote bone healing and bone growth. Orthopedic implants manufactured  
27 with subtractive methods can meet these requirements as they are currently being used for replacement procedures,  
28 however they still have issues that lead to implant loosening and failure or require the need of revision surgeries. Implant  
29 loosening can be caused by an effect called stress shielding which is when the implant is too strong and stiff, which  
30 prevents bone growth in that region [3]. Porous materials like lattices or meshes can aid in reducing stress shielding in  
31 metallic implants by reducing its relative density and tailoring the mechanical response, however they are difficult to  
32 manufacture using conventional subtractive manufacturing methods. Additive manufacturing (AM) provides another  
33 avenue for fabrication of porous materials by building them in a layer-by-layer fashion. Laser powder bed fusion (PBF-  
34 LB) is an AM technique, that uses a laser as a heat source to melt thin layers of metal powder in the shape of the desired  
35 CAD file. This has broadened the design space for orthopedic implants by allowing the fabrication of porous materials  
36 that can tailor the strength and stiffness of metal parts. Ti-6Al-4V (Ti64) is a common metal used in orthopedic implant  
37 due to its good biocompatibility and has an elastic modulus of 102 – 110.8 GPa [4,5]. Bone has a wide range of elastic  
38 moduli depending on the type of bone but it can range from 0.02 – 28.0 GPa [6,7], which is at least a magnitude smaller  
39 than Ti64. This mismatch in mechanical properties of Ti64 and bone is one of the main causes of stress shielding. Lattices,  
40 such as FCC or TPMS-Gyroid can be manufactured using AM and used to tailor the stiffness and reduce the elastic  
41 modulus, however these structures can be further improved by tailoring them to match the topology of bone as well [7].  
42 The present study explores an alternative method of creating porous structures. By tailoring PBF-LB process parameters,  
43 such as hatch spacing and rotation angle, the relative density can be reduced, and unique porous architectures can be  
44 formed.

## 45 2. Materials and methods

### 46 2.1. Laser powder bed fusion process

47 Gas atomized Ti-6Al-4V powder (AP&C, Canada) with a particle size range of 15 – 45  $\mu\text{m}$  was used. Figure 1 shows an  
48 SEM image of the powder. Cylindrical samples with a diameter of 5 mm and a height of 8.7 mm were printed for all sets

1 of process parameters. Samples were printed on a titanium reduced build volume (RBV) plate of a modulated laser  
2 powder bed fusion machine (Renishaw AM400, Renishaw, UK). The machine has a focused beam spot diameter of 70  
3  $\mu\text{m}$ . The layer thickness was kept constant at 30  $\mu\text{m}$  ( $l_t$ ).

## 4 2.2. Experimental design

5 Dimensionless process mapping was used to determine the set of process parameter combinations (also referred to as  
6 recipes) used for this study. Two dimensionless variables, namely  $E^*$  and  $v^*$ , were used in a design of experiment to  
7 map out process parameters.  $E^*$  represents the dimensionless heat input and includes a combination of process  
8 parameters (such as power (P)) and the material's thermophysical properties (such as laser absorptivity (A) and thermal  
9 conductivity ( $\lambda$ ), melting point ( $T_m$ ) and build plate temperature ( $T_o$ )).  $v^*$  represents the dimensionless beam velocity,  
10 which includes velocity (v), beam spot radius ( $r_b$ ) and thermal diffusivity ( $\alpha$ ) [8].

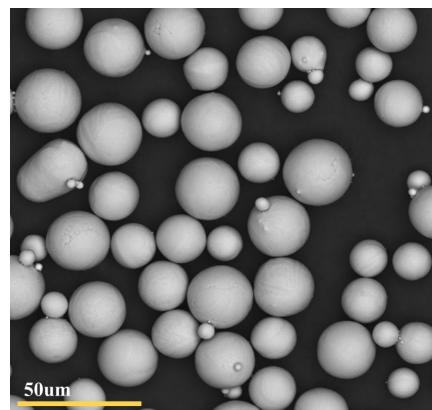
11 
$$E^* = \frac{AP}{2l_t\lambda(T_m-T_o)} \quad (\text{Equation 1})$$

12 
$$v^* = \frac{vr_b}{\alpha} \quad (\text{Equation 2})$$

13 An initial study was conducted with 5 levels of  $v^*$  and 4 levels of  $E^*$ , resulting in 20 recipes spanning the conduction,  
14 transition and keyhole melting modes in PBF-LB. The range of powers and velocities used were 40.3 – 199.8 W and  
15 0.18 – 1.47 m/s, respectively. One recipe in the conduction melting mode ( $E^* = 20.6$ ,  $v^* = 2.39$ ) was selected for this  
16 study to focus on studying the effect of varying hatch spacing and rotation angle, as it resulted in good density. The  
17 specifics of the process parameter development are out of scope for the present study. The hatch spacing was varied  
18 from 100 – 500  $\mu\text{m}$  in increments of 100  $\mu\text{m}$ . Rotation angles 60° and 67° were applied for all levels of hatch spacing.  
19 The process parameters varied for this study are reported in Table 1. Figure 2 shows optical microscopy images of  
20 select samples with different hatch spacings and rotation angles.

21 Table 1. Laser powder bed fusion process parameters and the resulting relative density and sintered powder fraction.

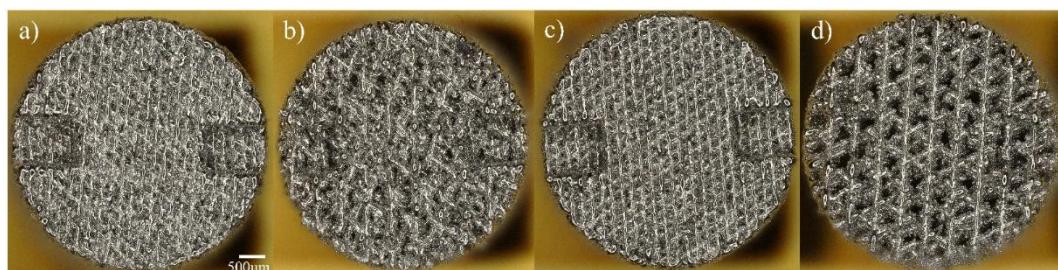
Sample ID	Hatch spacing [ $\mu\text{m}$ ]	Rotation angle [°]	Relative density (%)	Fraction of sintered powder (%)
1	100	67	99.98	0.00
2	200	67	90.97	6.61
3	300	67	78.91	9.70
4	400	67	72.97	16.52
5	500	67	60.73	11.32
6	100	60	99.98	0.00
7	200	60	88.74	8.13
8	300	60	81.56	19.57
9	400	60	63.37	11.98
10	500	60	50.20	9.66



22 Figure 1. SEM of Ti-6Al-4V powder.

## 23 2.3. Characterization methods

24 The samples were removed from the build plate using a bandsaw. Optical microscopy images were taken with a VHX700  
25 Digital Microscope (Keyence, Japan). To obtain the relative density with high accuracy, XCT was conducted (Xradia  
26 520 Versa, ZEISS, Germany) with a voxel size of 6  $\mu\text{m}$ . Analysis of the XCT data was performed using Dragonfly 3.0  
27 software (Object Research Systems Inc., Canada). Each sample was separated into 3 regions – full solid, “fuzzy” sintered  
28 powder, and void. The reported relative density includes the fractions of full solid and the “fuzzy” sintered powder region.

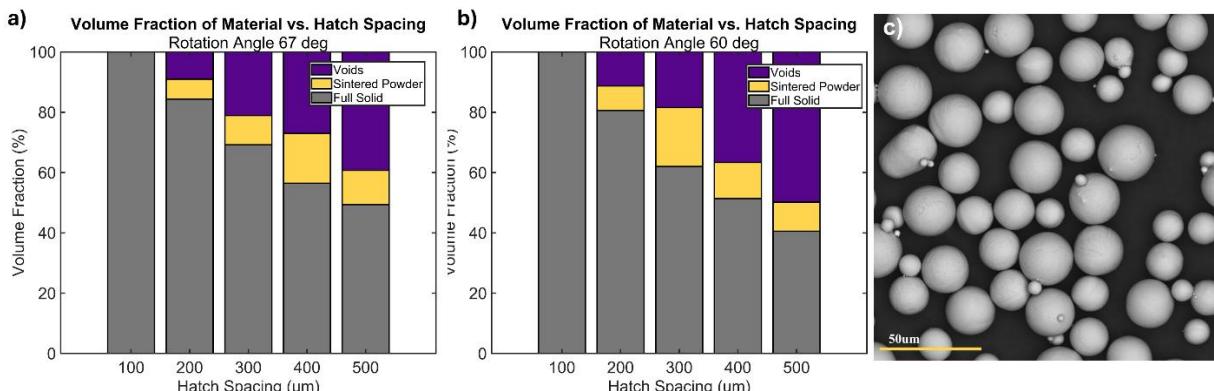


29 Figure 2. Top-down (XY) view of a) sample 2: hatch spacing 200  $\mu\text{m}$ , rotation angle 67°, b) sample 5: hatch spacing 500  $\mu\text{m}$ ,  
30 rotation angle 67°, c) sample 7: hatch spacing 200  $\mu\text{m}$ , rotation angle 60°, d) sample 10: hatch spacing 500  $\mu\text{m}$ , rotation angle 60°.

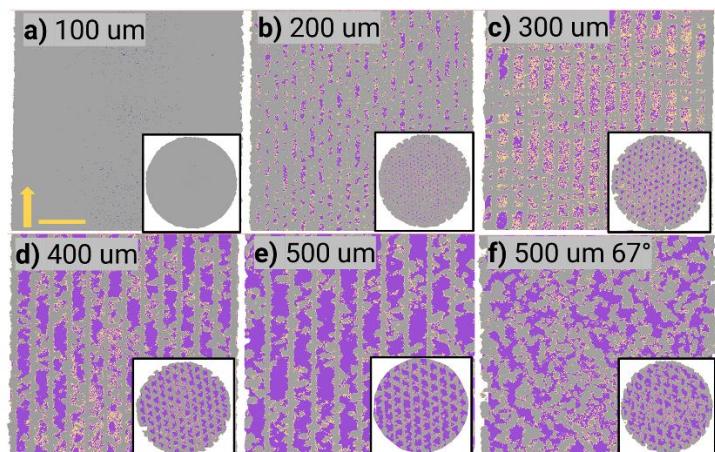
### 1 3. Results and discussion

#### 2 3.1. Effect of hatch spacing on density and pore morphology

3 The observed trend for both rotation angles is that increasing hatch spacing results in a decrease in density, as anticipated.  
 4 Table 1 reports the relative density associated with each parameter and the fraction of sintered powder. When looking at  
 5 the sintered powder region, the volume fraction initially increases with increasing hatch spacing, reaches a maximum  
 6 value at an intermediary hatch spacing and decreases while the hatch spacing continues to increase. This effect can be  
 7 seen in both rotation angles; however, the maximum volume fraction occurs at different hatch spacings, visualized in  
 8 Figure 2. In terms of pore morphology, as the hatch spacing increases, the pore size increases correspondingly. This can  
 9 be observed in Figure 4, where the pore width increases from Figure 4a to Figure 4e as the hatch spacing increases.



10  
 11 Figure 3. a) Volume fraction of each region at different hatch spacings with a rotation angle of 67°. b) Volume fraction of each  
 12 region at different hatch spacings with a rotation angle of 60°. c) SEM image of Ti-6Al-4V powder.



13  
 14 Figure 4. a) – e) 2D cross-section (XZ) of XCT scan of samples 6-10 at hatch spacings 100 – 500 μm with 60° rotation angle, f)  
 15 sample 5 at hatch spacing of 500 μm with 67° rotation angle. The inset shows the XY view of each sample. Grey is solid region,  
 16 yellow is sintered powder region and purple is voids. Scale bar is 1 mm, and the arrow indicates build direction.

17 This decrease in density is due to the lack of overlapping between adjacent melt tracks as the hatch spacing increases. It  
 18 creates regions that are not melted within the structure and the loose powder can get pulled into melt pools through  
 19 denudation [9] or get removed from the structure during the de-powdering process. Sintered powder occurs due to loose  
 20 powder that is near the outer region of the melt pool, where the temperature is not high enough to melt the powder but  
 21 enough to adhere it to the weld track. This creates a different surface texture compared to fully melted solid. The trend  
 22 of decreasing density with increasing hatch spacing is consistent with a previous study conducted by Sardarian et al. [10]  
 23 who explored hatch spacings of 61 – 129 μm.

#### 24 3.2. Effect of rotation angle on density and pore morphology

25 At low densities, rotation angle has an impact on density. When comparing the density of samples 5 and 10, both have  
 26 hatch spacing of 500 μm, the 67° sample has a higher relative density of 60.73% and the 60° sample has a relative density  
 27 of 50.20%. This effect can also be visually observed in the Figure 2b and Figure 2d, where in 2d, there is more void  
 28 space and distinct regions that are not scanned by the laser. This trend is consistent at all hatch spacings tested in this  
 29 study. In terms of pore morphology, 67° rotation angle resulted in a more random or stochastic distribution of pores.

Figure 4f shows the random pore morphology of the pores at a 500  $\mu\text{m}$  hatch spacing. Comparing this with a 60° rotation angle, there is a repeated pattern to the pores such that they are more columnar, which is seen in Figures 4b to Figure 4e. A 67° rotation angle is a common angle used in PBF-LB as it results in a more random scan pattern to reduce the number of defects or keep a random distribution of defects caused by rotation angle. With a 67° rotation angle, more of the cross section gets scanned, resulting in a higher density. At a 60° rotation angle, only certain regions of the cross section get scanned repeatedly, therefore decreasing the overall density. Studies on the effect of rotation angle on density of low-density samples are rare. Zhou et al. [11] studied the effect of 0°, 15°, 30°, 45°, 67° and 90° rotation angles on density with a goal of printing high density AlSi10Mg and concluded that rotation angle has no effect on density. However, the results from this study show that when printing low-density samples, rotation angle affects density. In terms of pore morphology, Vanmunster et al. [12] explored printing low-density Ti-6Al-4V structures with a 90° rotation angle and hatch spacing of 167  $\mu\text{m}$  and observed rectangular columnar pores with density of 84%, similar to what is observed in the present study.

#### 4. Conclusion

In this work, the effect of hatch spacing and rotation angle on density and pore morphology have been investigated. It was shown that hatch spacing has a larger impact on density, with increasing hatch spacing resulting in decreasing density. Rotation angle also influences the density when targeting low density samples and has a large impact on pore morphology. The achieved densities ranged from 50.20 – 99.98%, depending on the combination of hatch spacing and rotation angle. Two types of pore morphologies were obtained by changing the rotation angle, with the 67° resulting in a stochastic distribution and shape, and 60° resulting in a structured distribution and shape. Findings from this work can be incorporated in future design of orthopedic implants as an alternative method of reducing stress shielding and tailoring mechanical response. Future studies should explore the effect these parameters have on mechanical performance as well as biological performance based on the different surface textures created.

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#### 6. Conflicts of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest that could influence the research conducted in this paper.

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