

Formation of fully equiaxed grain microstructure in additively manufactured AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} high entropy alloy

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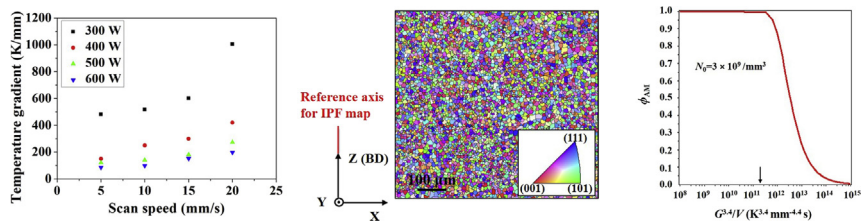
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HIGHLIGHTS

- Fully equiaxed grain microstructures are easily achieved in additively manufactured high entropy alloy AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5}.
- The equiaxed grain formation is attributed to frequent dendrite fragmentation and hence profuse effective nucleation sites.
- A quantitative analysis is performed to provide a theoretical basis for our experimental findings.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



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ABSTRACT

In this work, the non-equiatomic high entropy alloy AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} was additively manufactured via the laser engineered net shaping (LENSTM) process. Contrary to the columnar grain microstructure commonly observed in previously reported alloys, the as-deposited AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} specimens exhibit a fully equiaxed grain microstructure in a wide range of temperature gradients G (85 to 1005 K/mm) and solidification velocities V (5 to 20 mm/s). The main microstructural characteristics were found to be B2-structured proeutectic dendrites delineated by lamellar or rod-like B2/A2 eutectic structures. The formation of this microstructural feature can be discussed with the aid of Scheil's solidification model. The proeutectic B2-structured dendrites were frequently found to be fragmented, which may provide profuse effective nucleation sites, and hence promote equiaxed grain formation. Furthermore, we estimated the volume fraction ϕ values of equiaxed crystals at solidification front for various $G - V$ combinations established in this paper, which can provide a theoretical basis for our experimental findings. The current work provides guidelines for producing fully equiaxed alloys by the additive manufacturing (AM) process.

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1. Introduction

High entropy alloys (HEAs) define a new and near-infinite compositional space for materials design, enabling the discovery of more diverse microstructures with improved properties [1–3].

This new class of alloys typically forms a single-phase face-centered-cubic (FCC) [4], body-center-cubic (BCC) [5], or hexagonal-close-packed (HCP) [6] structure. Multiple-phase microstructures are also possible in the form of eutectic structures [7], small-scale precipitates embedded in the matrix [8,9], or dual phases of identical chemical composition [10]. Until now, the vast majority of HEAs were typically processed by casting, possibly followed by post processing, e.g. cold forging and annealing

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treatments. However, only simple geometry parts are accessible, and post machining is normally needed. These disadvantages are intrinsically associated with this conventional metallurgical route, and are therefore difficult to eliminate. Furthermore, post processing/machining is impossible for certain ultrahigh-strength HEAs. By contrast, additive manufacturing (AM) produces a physical component layer by layer from a digital design, which increases design freedom and manufacturing flexibility. Complex shaped components can be built in a single step by the AM process without any post machining. Moreover, the AM process is a localized melting and solidification process, in essence, which typically creates a strong temperature gradient and high solidification velocity. Therefore, fine grains, and solidification and dislocation substructures can be achieved in the AM-ed alloys, which may lead to excellent mechanical properties, surpassing those of their counterparts fabricated via conventional metallurgical processes [11]. These advantages are the key drivers for the recently increasing interest in fabrication of HEAs using the AM process.

To date, the predominantly studied AM-ed HEAs are AM-ed Al_xCoCrFeNi [12–19] and CrMnFeCoNi [20–28] alloys. They were manufactured by various AM processes with different processing parameters. Other work includes AM of Co_{1.5}CrFeNi_{1.5}Ti_{0.5}Mo_{0.1} [29], TiZrNbMoV [30], Co_{0.5}CrCu_{0.5}FeNi_{1.5}AlTi_{0.4} [31] and compositionally graded HEAs, i.e. AlCo_xCr_{1-x}FeNi (0 ≤ x ≤ 1) [32], Al_xCrCuFeNi₂ (0 < x < 1.5) [33] and AlCrFeMoV_x (0 < x < 1) [34]. It is typically reported that these AM-ed HEAs are predominantly characterized by columnar and textured microstructures, see e.g. Refs. [12, 17, 20, 22], despite the fact that equiaxed grains are achievable at specific heights/compositions of the compositionally graded HEAs [32–34]. The predominantly columnar and textured microstructures are not surprising and are consistent with those of AM-ed conventional alloys [35–43]. It is widely acknowledged that, for a specific alloy, the temperature gradient *G* and solidification velocity *V* concurrently determine the volume fraction ϕ of the equiaxed crystals at solidification front, and hence concurrently control the solidification microstructure during the AM process (i.e. $\phi > 49\%$, fully equiaxed; $\phi < 0.66\%$, fully columnar; $0.66\% < \phi < 49\%$, mixed). Such effects can be quantitatively described by Gäumann's model [44], which takes into accounts high velocity effects and is hence applicable to rapid solidification, e.g. the AM process. In most cases, the *G* - *V* combinations (high *G*, low *V*) associated with the AM process lead to a ϕ value far below 49% and even below 0.66%, indicating that columnar grain microstructures, typically with crystallographic textures, are formed. Such morphological and crystallographic textures may result in mechanical anisotropy [35,45], which reduces the freedom in component design.

Our work reports a AM-ed fully equiaxed and randomly textured HEA AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5}, a prototype HEA with multiple-phase microstructures (i.e. disordered A2-structured precipitates embedded in ordered B2-structured matrix) and excellent wear resistance [46–48]. A large density of nucleation sites is estimated from the final solidification microstructure, and microstructural features provide insights into the origin of these nucleation sites. Furthermore, the volume fraction ϕ values of equiaxed crystals at solidification front for various *G* - *V* combinations established in this paper are evaluated, with the aid of Gäumann's model [44], to provide a theoretical basis for our experimental findings. The current work provides guidelines to produce fully equiaxed and randomly textured alloys by the AM process.

2. Experimental procedure

2.1. Specimens fabrication via the laser engineered net shaping (LENS™) process

The LENS™ process, a typical laser powder-blown AM process, was used in this study to deposit the AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} alloy. This

process typically blows powdered materials, with the aid of argon gas, into a melt pool which is created by a high powered laser beam. The AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} powders used in this study were prepared by inert gas atomization, with nominal chemical composition 18.2%Al, 18.2%Co, 18.2%Cr, 18.2%Fe, 18.2%Ni and 9.1%Ti (at%). Fig. 1 (a) is a SEM micrograph of the AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} powders, which are perfectly spherical. The satellite powders were occasionally observed, and their formations are attributed to the welding of smaller particles to the larger ones during the flight collision [49]. The particle size distributions were measured from SEM images using Nano Measurer software, and are shown in Fig. 1 (b). Such powders are suitable for using in the LENS™ system.

A series of AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} cuboid specimens (8 mm by 8 mm by 6 mm) were manufactured from the above-mentioned powders using different laser powers and laser scan speeds (300–600 W and 5–20 mm/s, respectively). A bidirectional scan path with a hatch spacing of 460 μm, and a cross-hatched scan (i.e. a 90° rotation of the laser scan direction when depositing the subsequent layer) were adopted during the manufacturing process, as shown in Fig. 1 (c). To minimize any potential oxidation, the whole manufacturing process was performed in an enclosed processing chamber with

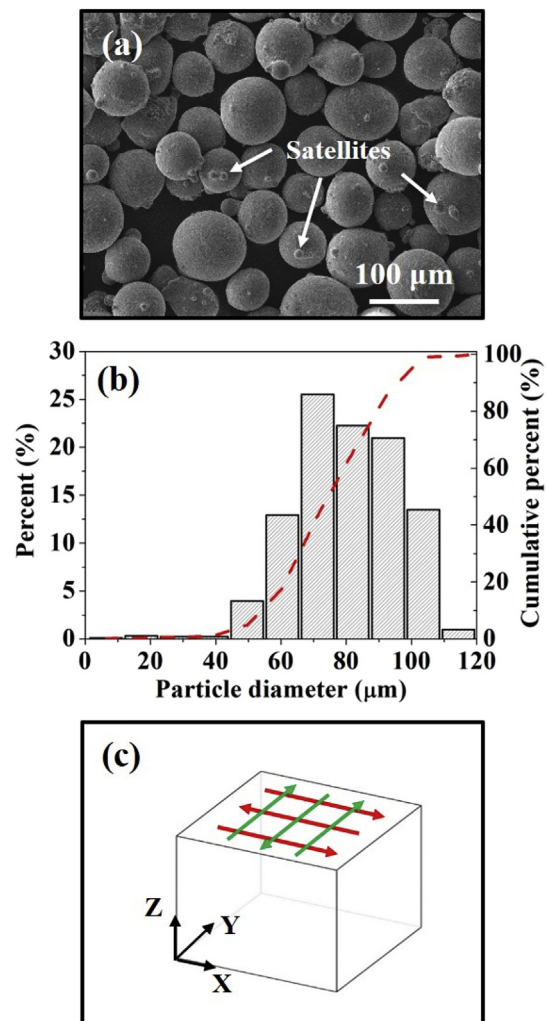


Fig. 1. (a) SEM image showing the AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} powders, with satellite powders indicated by white arrows. (b) Volume-weighted powder size distribution map. (c) Schematic illustration of the cuboid specimen fabricated by the LENS™ process. The red and green arrows represent the laser scan direction for successive two layers, showing the bi-directional and cross-hatched scan strategy. The Z axis indicates the building direction (BD).

<20 ppm oxygen content. To meet the required oxygen level, argon gas was used to purge the processing chamber, until reaching 200 ppm oxygen level. Then the processing chamber was connected to a blower, which drew the argon gas out of the chamber and passed it over the oxygen and moisture getter. The getter absorbed the O₂ and H₂O, and then returned the clean argon to the chamber, and after reaching the required oxygen level (i.e. below 20 ppm), the specimens were manufactured.

During the whole LENSTM process, we monitored the melt pool with the aid of a two-wavelength imaging pyrometer. This imaging pyrometer provides a high resolution (12.1 μm/pixel) and real-time (25 frames/s) temperature measurement, ranging from 1273 to 3073 K. A high temperature tungsten filament was used to calibrate this imaging pyrometer before usage. The temperature data enable us to evaluate the *G* value during the LENSTM processing.

2.2. Material characterization and thermodynamic calculations

The phase identification was performed on a Rigaku SmartLab X-ray diffractometer with Cu K α radiation. The scan speed and scan range were 5°/min and 30° ~ 100°, respectively. The microstructural analysis was performed with the aid of scanning electron microscopy (SEM), electron backscatter diffraction (EBSD), and energy dispersive X-ray (EDS) techniques. For SEM, both backscattered electron (BSE) imaging and secondary electron (SE) imaging were used. SEM, EBSD, and EDS investigations were performed at an acceleration voltage of 20 kV. The surface for microstructural analysis (i.e. SEM, EDS, and EBSD) was ground up to 4000 grit size emery paper and polished down to 0.05 μm particle diameter colloidal silica-based slurry.

The thermodynamic calculations were conducted by the CALPHAD (CALculation of PHase Diagram) method, on the platform of the Thermo-Calc software 2019a equipped with a HEA database. This HEA thermodynamic database enables the calculation of the equilibrium state and Scheil's solidification of HEA systems.

3. Results

3.1. Evaluation of *G* and *V* values

Fig. 2 (a) shows a representative color-coded temperature image of the melt pool surface for the AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} alloy deposited at a laser power of 400 W and a scan speed of 5 mm/s. The white arrow represents the laser scan direction. It can be observed from the thermal image that the peak temperature region is approximately located in the melt pool center. The temperature profile was evaluated along the white dashed line in Fig. 2 (a), which passes the peak temperature in the melt pool and is in the laser scan direction, and is shown in Fig. 2 (b). The broken black line indicates the liquidus temperature $T_L = 1620$ K (calculated by Thermo-Calc software) of the AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} alloy. The zero value on the X axis indicates the peak temperature point, which divides the melt pool into heating and cooling regions. Obviously, the latter region needs to be paid more attention. The *G* value in the cooling region was calculated accordingly, and its profile is shown in Fig. 2 (c). It can be seen that the *G* value is not a constant in the melt pool, and in this paper we adopt the *G* value at the melt pool boundary, at which solidification occurs. The melt pool boundary is represented by the crossover point between the temperature curve and the horizontal liquidus temperature line. As shown in Fig. 2 (c), the *G* value was estimated to be approximately 150 K/mm.

The same method was also used to evaluate the *G* values corresponding to various laser scan speeds and laser powers used in this study, and the results are summarized in Fig. 2 (d). It can be clearly seen that increase in laser scan speed or decrease in laser power contributes to a larger *G* value, i.e. a stronger temperature gradient. In summary, the manipulation of the laser scan speeds

and laser powers creates a wide range of *G* values (i.e. 85 to 1005 K/mm). As for the *V* value at the trailing edge of the melt pool, it is approximately equal to the advance rate of the liquidus isotherm, i.e. the laser scan speed, which is in the range of 5–20 mm/s.

3.2. Equiaxed grain microstructure

Fig. 3 (a) gives the inverse pole figure (IPF) image of an area of 700 μm by 700 μm taken in the XZ-plane of the LENSTM-processed AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} specimen deposited at a laser power of 400 W and a laser scan speed of 5 mm/s. Each individual grain in the IPF image was color-coded according to the relationship between its crystallographic orientation and the building direction (BD), which was aligned vertically upwards. Obviously, there is no preferred crystallographic texture developed in the specimen because the grains were randomly color coded. Furthermore, it is interesting to note, from the IPF image, that the grains show perfect equiaxed morphologies in the XZ-plane. To fully reveal the grain microstructure in 3D space, the XZ-, YZ- and XY-planes were characterized by BSE imaging, and the results are shown in Fig. 3 (b). It can be clearly seen that the grains exhibit equiaxed morphologies in all of these three planes, and it is thus confirmed that fully equiaxed grain microstructures in 3D space are formed, rather than columnar grain microstructures which are more common for the AM-ed alloys [35–41]. The statistics show that grains with aspect ratio values larger than 0.3, which can be regarded as equiaxed grains, account for >95.5% of all grains in the scanned area (Fig. 3 (c)). The aspect ratio in the present paper refers to the ratio of the minor axis length to the major axis length of an ellipse fitted to an irregular grain. Moreover, the statistical grain size is Gaussian distributed with a mean value of 12 μm, as shown in Fig. 3 (d). It should be noted that the laser scan speed and laser power (5–20 mm/s, and 300–600 W, respectively) were also varied to deposit the AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} alloy, and a wide range of *G* and *V* values have been established (Fig. 2 (d)). However, similar fully equiaxed grain microstructures have been achieved, without any exception, despite a variation in grain size, as shown in Fig. 3 (e)). With the increase of the linear heat input (i.e. the quotient of the laser power and laser scan speed), the cooling rate (i.e. the product of *G* and *V*) decreases, which leads to coarser grains. It can be also observed that a critical linear heat input value may exist in this study, beyond which the cooling rate is steady in general and therefore the grain size variation is less pronounced. Anyway, it is confirmed in the present study that fully equiaxed grains dominate the solidification microstructure of the LENSTM-deposited AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} alloy. To be more precise, it is the equiaxed solidification, rather than columnar solidification, that dominates the solidification process of the AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} alloy. Furthermore, it should be mentioned that the LENSTM-deposited AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} specimens deposited at various laser powers and laser scan speeds show similar phase constitution and microstructure details. Therefore, only one specimen is shown in Sections 3.3 and 3.4. Unless otherwise stated, the specimen shown was deposited at a laser power of 400 W and a laser scan speed of 5 mm/s.

3.3. Phase constitution

Fig. 4 gives the XRD analysis of the LENSTM-processed AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} alloy, with the examination surface being the XY-plane. Two BCC phases were detected: one is the ordered BCC-structured (B2) phase, and the other one is the disordered BCC-structured (A2) phase. More specifically, the microstructure of the LENSTM-processed AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} specimen consists of B2 and A2 phases, which is consistent with that of the as-casted counterpart [46]. The lattice constants of the B2 and A2 phases were calculated to be $a = 0.2912$ nm and $a = 0.2801$ nm, respectively. Furthermore, it is observed from the inset that the diffraction peaks originating

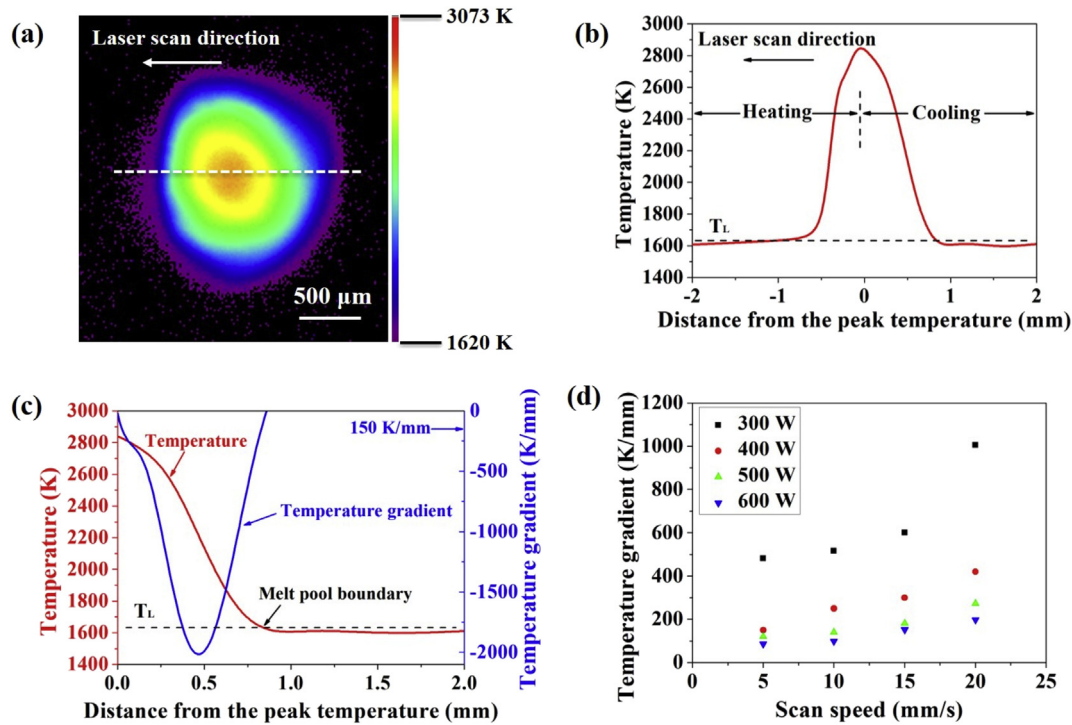


Fig. 2. (a) A representative color-coded temperature image of the melt pool surface for the AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} alloy deposited at a laser power of 400 W and a scan speed of 5 mm/s. The laser scan direction is indicated by a white arrow. (b) Temperature profile along the white dashed line shown in (a), which passes the peak temperature in the melt pool and is in the laser scan direction. The hottest point divides the temperature profile into heating and cooling regions. (c) Temperature profile and corresponding temperature gradient profile in the cooling region. The broken black lines in (b) and (c) indicate the liquidus temperature $T_l = 1620$ K. (d) A summary of temperature gradients corresponding to various laser scan speeds and laser powers.

from the same crystal plane are very close to each other, due to the similar lattice constants of the two phases, in addition to a (100) superlattice peak at $2\theta \approx 30.7^\circ$ originating from B2 phases.

3.4. Microstructural details

Fig. 5 shows the microstructural details of the LENSTM-deposited AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} specimen in the SEM BSE imaging mode. It can be clearly seen that the equiaxed grains are delineated by intergranular discrete bright phases (Fig. 5 (a)). Furthermore, the dendritic structure within each equiaxed grain can be seen. BSEs originate from the incident electrons which are back-scattered out of the specimen by specimen atoms. Therefore, phases with heavier elements (i.e. higher atomic number elements) more strongly backscatter electrons and appear brighter, in a BSE image, than phases with lighter elements (i.e. lower atomic number elements). To be more precise, the aforementioned bright phases must contain more heavier elements. Some eutectic structures were also observed, with lamellar or rod morphologies clinging to the edges of proeutectic dendrites (Fig. 5 (b)). Such eutectic structures and proeutectic dendrites belong to a single grain. Furthermore, eutectic cells were also observed at the grain boundaries, rather than adhering to the proeutectic dendrites, and these cells are believed to nucleate and grow independently at the very last stage of solidification. Therefore, these eutectic cells are new grains, which are separated with the adjacent dendrites by grain boundaries. A typical eutectic cell is marked in Fig. 5 (a). Fig. 6 shows the EDS elemental distribution analysis of the AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} alloy. Recalling the phase identification and microstructural details, the bright phases are Cr-Fe-rich A2 phases, and the dark phases are the Ni-Al-Ti-rich B2 phases. Certainly, the eutectic structure is a mixture of B2 and A2 phases. It should be mentioned that in the dark B2 dendrites some bright needle-like precipitates are also formed (Fig. 5 (b)), although they are not detected by EDS due to its resolution limit.

Similar decomposed microstructure is observed in the as-casted counterpart, and is attributed to spinodal decomposition of B2 dendrites into B2 plus A2 coexisting phases (i.e. a solid-state phase transformation process in nature) [47]. The microstructural evolution during solidification is discussed in Section 4.1.

4. Discussion

4.1. Microstructural evolution during solidification

The microstructural evolution during solidification is simulated using Scheil's model on the platform of Thermo-Calc software equipped with a HEA database. It should be noted that Scheil's solidification process is simulated, assuming no diffusion of any elements in the solid but infinite diffusion of all elements in the liquid. Fig. 7 (a) shows the mass fraction of the phases as a function of temperature during solidification. According to this diagram, the solidification mode is $L \rightarrow L + B2 \rightarrow L + B2 + A2$. More specifically, when the temperature is above 1400 K (and below 1620 K), only the B2 phases solidify from the molten alloy, and the B2- and solid-curves coincide. At this stage, Cr, Fe, and Ti atoms are rejected into the remaining molten alloy, as can be seen in Fig. 7 (b). This means that the first solidified region is enriched in Ni and Al, and the later solidified region is enriched in Cr, Fe, and Ti. At 1400 K, only 12.6% molten alloy is left, and it reaches the eutectic composition. With further decrease of temperature, the B2 and A2 phases are predicted to solidify concurrently, i.e. the eutectic reaction $L \rightarrow B2 + A2$.

4.2. Equiaxed grain formation mechanism

4.2.1. Density of nucleation sites vs. temperature gradient

The LENSTM-deposited AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} alloy exhibits a fully equiaxed grain microstructure at various $G - V$ combinations. This is

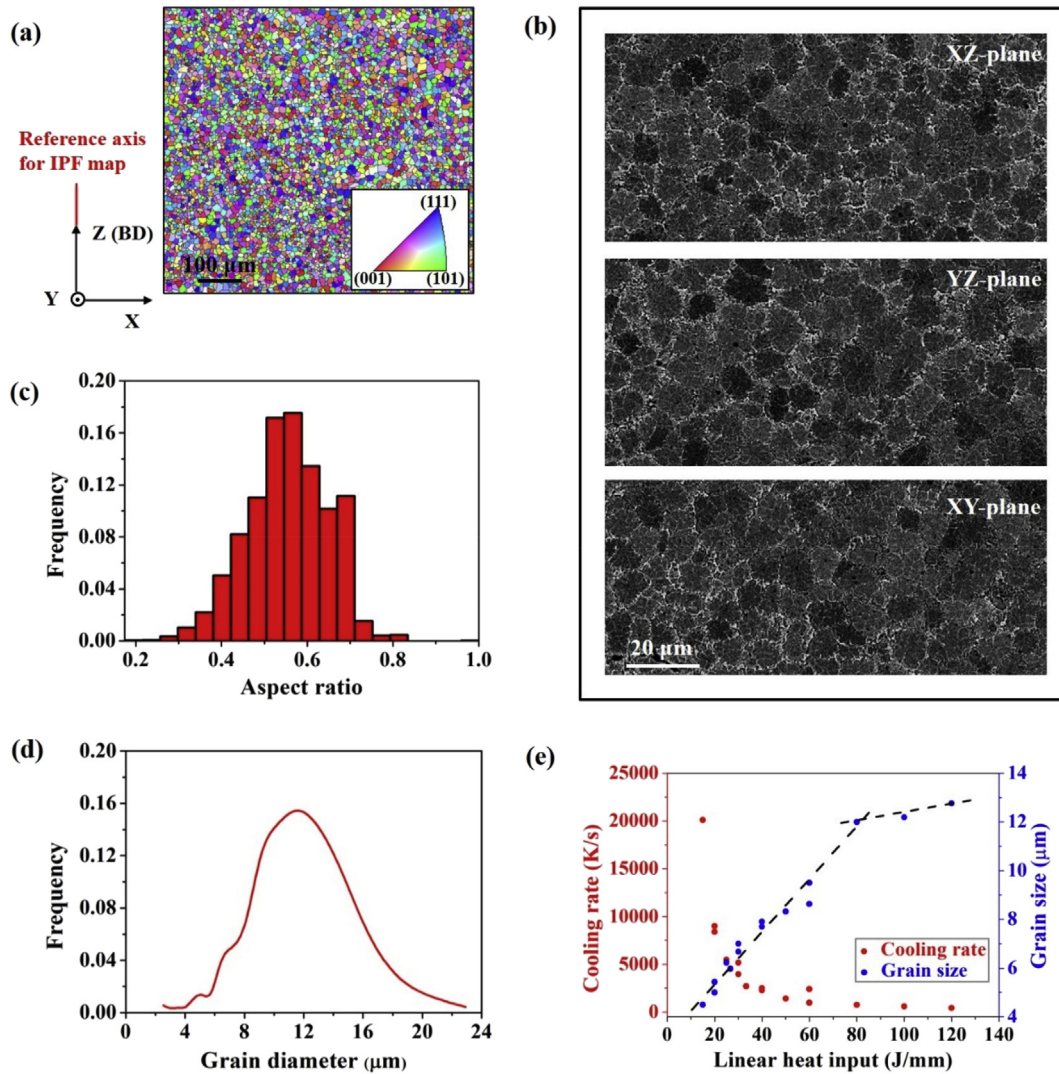


Fig. 3. (a) EBSD-IPF map of the XZ-plane, showing equiaxed grains in this section. (b) BSE images of XZ-, YZ- and XY-planes, confirming fully equiaxed grain microstructures in 3D space. (c) and (d) Statistics of the grain shape aspect ratio and grain size, respectively. (e) Cooling rate and grain size variations with linear heat inputs.

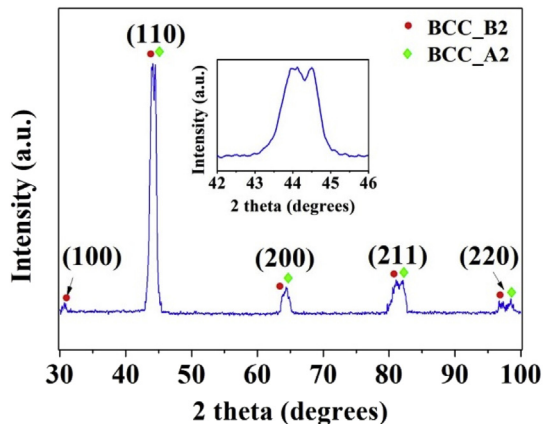


Fig. 4. XRD analysis of the LENS™-processed AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} alloy, with the examination surface being the XY-plane. The co-existence of ordered BCC-structured (B2) and disordered BCC-structured (A2) phases is confirmed. The inset shows an enlarged view of the strongest peak (110).

surprising, and not consistent with commonly reported AM-ed HEAs [12,17,20,22] and AM-ed conventional alloys [35–43]. As mentioned before, the $G - V$ combinations associated with the AM process facilitate columnar solidification, and hence promote the formation of columnar grain microstructures [44]. More specifically, it is the very large G value that is responsible for the columnar solidification during the AM process. However, according to classic solidification theory, the high density of nucleation sites counteracts the large G value, and may lead to the formation of fully equiaxed grain microstructures [44,50–55]. There have been two experimental studies, to the best of our knowledge, demonstrating this counteracting effect [56,57]. One example is the AM-ed Sc- and Zr-modified aluminum alloy prepared by Yang et al. [56]. After careful manipulation of the processing parameters (e.g. lower scan speed and higher platform temperature) and hence the solidification conditions (e.g. lower G value), they additively manufactured nearly equiaxed grain microstructures, thanks to the Al₃(Sc,Zr) particles as heterogenous nucleation sites during solidification [56,58]. Another example is shown in the paper by Martin et al. [57]. They decorated aluminum alloy powders with certain nanoparticles, which act as effective heterogenous nucleation sites and hence facilitate the formation of fully equiaxed grain

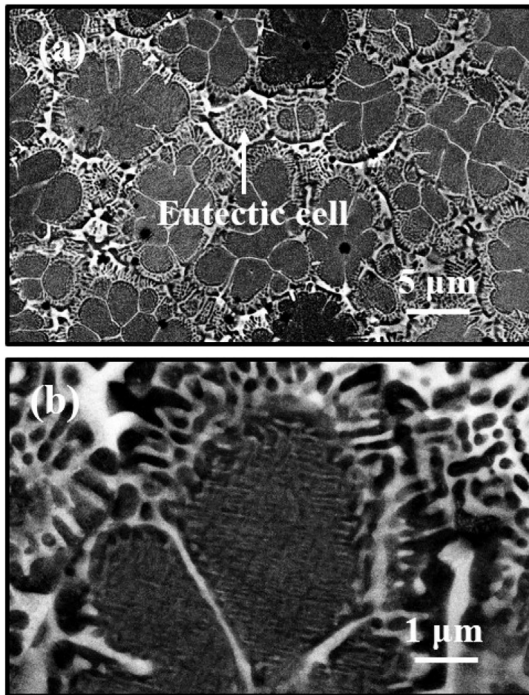


Fig. 5. BSE images of the LENS™-deposited AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} specimen showing microstructural details. (a) Low magnification BSE micrograph, showing equiaxed grains delineated by intergranular bright phases. A eutectic cell at grain boundary is also marked. (b) High magnification BSE image showing eutectic structures clinging to proeutectic dendrites.

microstructures during the AM process. These two experimental studies are very consistent with the classic solidification theory, and both experimental and theoretical studies show that a high density of nucleation sites makes it possible to form fully equiaxed grain microstructures in the AM process, despite a very extreme G value. Further investigations are therefore performed in our study to evaluate the density of nucleation sites in the AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} alloy and probe into their possible origins.

4.2.2. Nucleation

4.2.2.1. Estimation of density of nucleation sites. The density of nucleation sites N_0 can be evaluated by fitting the calculated volume fraction ϕ_{AM} of equiaxed grains in the final AM-ed specimen to the measured one. The calculated volume fraction ϕ_{AM} can be given

by the following equation [53]:

$$\phi_{AM} = 1 - \exp \left\{ \frac{-4\pi N_0}{3 \cdot \left[\sqrt[n]{nG^n / (Va)} \cdot (n+1) \right]^3} \right\} \quad (1)$$

where a and n are material constants. This equation is valid for G in the order of 10^3 K/mm and V in the order of 10 mm/s. The measured volume fraction $\phi_{AM} = 95.5\%$ of the equiaxed grains in the LENS™-manufactured specimen has been determined by EBSD analysis. Therefore, the density of nucleation sites N_0 is estimated to be a minimum of 3×10^9 /mm³ (i.e. $N_0 \geq 3 \times 10^9$ /mm³), assuming $a = 1.25 \times 10^3$ K^{3.4} s/mm and $n = 3.4$, as shown in Fig. 8. In other words, only when the N_0 value reaches or exceeds 3×10^9 /mm³, fully equiaxed grain microstructures can be achieved. Therefore, 3×10^9 /mm³ is a very conservative N_0 value. Anyway, this conservatively estimated $N_0 = 3 \times 10^9$ /mm³ is already very large as compared with those of previously researched alloys, such as the Al alloys (e.g. Al - 3 wt% Cu, $N_0 = 1$ /mm³ [44]), Cu alloys (e.g. Cu with rare earth microalloying, $N_0 = 5$ /mm³ [59]), and Ni-based superalloys (e.g. CMSX-4, $N_0 = 2 \times 10^6$ /mm³ [53]).

4.2.2.2. Origin of nucleation sites. Fig. 5 (a) shows that the A2 phases frequently isolate the dendritic arms from their primary stalks, and even split individual grains in two, i.e. a dendrite fragmentation phenomenon during solidification. Such fragmented dendrites should be formed in the very last stage of solidification, when only a minor amount of liquid exists. Therefore, these fragments cannot move freely and have to remain close to their primary stalks. Fig. 9 (a), (b), and (c) show the image quality (IQ), kernel average misorientation (KAM), and IPF maps, respectively. In the IPF map, high angle grain boundaries (HAGBs, misorientation >15°) and low angle grain boundaries (LAGBs, 2° < misorientation <15°) are highlighted in black and red, respectively. Fortunately, this examined region contains a split grain and a LAGB is formed inside (i.e. the red line in Fig. 9 (c)). That means the fragments formed at the last stage of solidification merely experience a small degree of rotation and are not responsible for the new grain formation. However, dendrite fragmentation is predicted to be more frequent at the earlier stage of solidification, and fragments are able to move freely within the mushy zone, or even move out of the mushy zone and into the hot liquid. When these fragments flow out of the mushy zone and contact the hot liquid, they start to dissolve or even disappear. However, the fragments that are merely partially dissolved or are still within the mushy zone can be effective

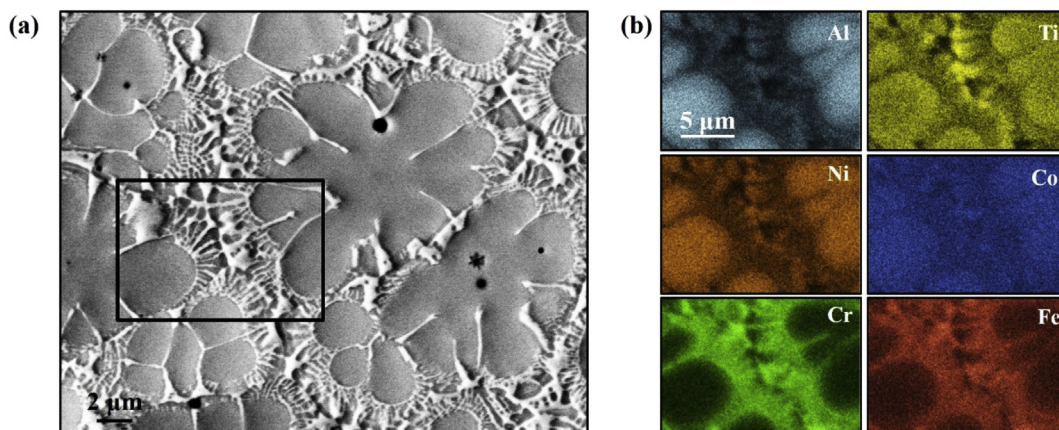


Fig. 6. EDS elemental distribution analysis of the AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} alloy. (a) SE image. (b) EDS elemental distribution of the rectangular region indicated in (a).

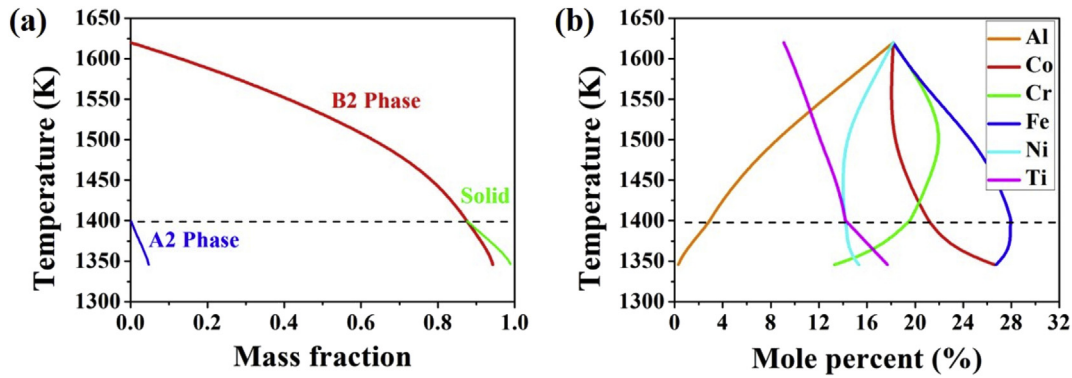


Fig. 7. Scheil's solidification simulation for the AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} alloy. (a) Mass fraction of phases plotted as a function of temperature. Solid refers to B2 plus A2 phases, and above 1400 K, B2- and solid-curves coincide. The solidification mode is L→L + B2→L + B2 + A2. (b) Compositional evolution of the liquid during solidification. The black dashed lines in (a) and (b) indicate the eutectic temperature.

nucleation sites for new grains. According to the results of Scheil's solidification simulation, the solidification range of the experimental AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} alloy is 275 K, which is quite large for fragments to survive. Such freely mobile dendrite fragments are more effective "nucleant agents" as compared with deliberately introduced nucleating agents (e.g. Al₃(Sc,Zr) nucleants in aluminum alloys) because dendrite fragments exhibit exactly the same crystal structure and lattice parameter as the solidifying alloys. Furthermore, dendrite fragmentation is a multiplication process, rather than a gradual consumption process, which can produce increasingly more "nucleant agents". More direct observation of dendrite fragmentation and subsequent growth into new grains can be found in the literature dealing with casting and welding processes [60–62]. Overall, we believe that the frequent dendrite fragmentation is the main origin of the large density of nucleation sites of the AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} alloy.

4.2.3. Equiaxed grain microstructure formation: a theoretical analysis

To further understand the formation of the equiaxed grain microstructure, the volume fraction ϕ of the equiaxed crystals at solidification front is estimated for various $G - V$ combinations

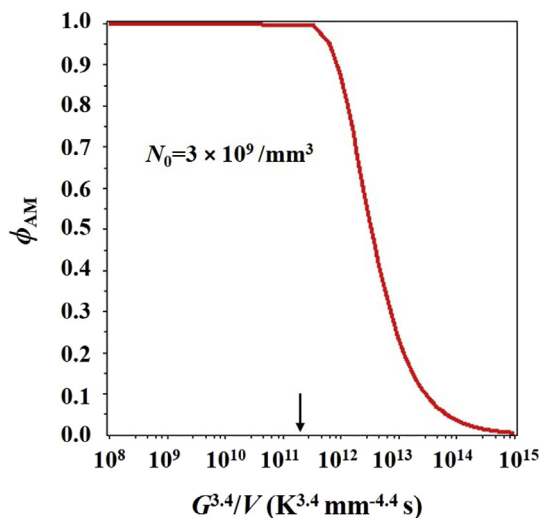


Fig. 8. Determination of the density of nucleation sites N_0 by fitting the calculated volume fraction ϕ_{AM} of equiaxed grains in the final AM-ed specimen to the measured one. The G and V values used are approximately corresponding to the melt pool bottom. The black arrow indicates the maximum $G^{3.4}/V$ value established in this work.

established in this study, with the aid of Gäumann's model [44]. This model considers high velocity effects, and can be used for rapid solidification, e.g. AM processes. The basic physics behind this model is that during columnar dendritic solidification, the solutes pile up in front of the moving solid-liquid interface, assuming a distribution coefficient of <1 . Therefore, the local concentration field and the local equilibrium solidification temperature ahead of the solidification interface will be affected. In this case, a constitutionally undercooled region will be established at the dendrite tip, possibly leading to the nucleation and growth of equiaxed crystals. When the volume fraction ϕ of these equiaxed crystals exceeds a critical value (i.e. 49%, as proposed by Hunt [54]), the columnar growth will be prohibited and a fully equiaxed grain microstructure will be achieved.

Assuming the columnar dendrite grows at marginal stability rather than at the extremum used in Hunt's model, the dendritic tip radius R_{tip} can be given by:

$$\frac{\Gamma}{\sigma^* R_{tip}^2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} m_{V,i} \zeta_{C,i} G_{C,i} - G \quad (2)$$

where Γ is the Gibbs-Thomson coefficient, $\sigma^* = 1/(4\pi^2)$ is a stability constant, $m_{V,i}$ is the liquidus slope of component i which is velocity dependent, $\zeta_{C,i}$ is the stability parameter of component i , $G_{C,i}$ is the concentration gradient of component i in the liquid at the dendritic tip. The parameters $m_{V,i}$, $\zeta_{C,i}$, and $G_{C,i}$, are given by following equations:

$$m_{V,i} = m_i \left\{ 1 + \frac{k_i - k_{V,i} [1 - \ln(k_{V,i}/k_i)]}{1 - k_i} \right\} \quad (3)$$

$$\zeta_{C,i} = 1 - \frac{2k_{V,i}}{\left[1 + \left(\frac{1}{\sigma^* Pe_i^2} \right) \right]^{1/2} - 1 + 2k_{V,i}} \quad (4)$$

$$G_{C,i} = - \frac{(1 - k_{V,i}) VC_{tip,i}}{D_i} \quad (5)$$

where m_i and k_i are the equilibrium liquidus slope and equilibrium partition coefficient of component i , respectively, $k_{V,i}$ is the partition coefficient which is velocity dependent, Pe_i is the solute Péclet number of component i , $C_{tip,i}$ is the concentration of component i in the liquid at the dendrite tip, D_i is the diffusion coefficient of component i in the liquid. The parameters $k_{V,i}$, Pe_i , $C_{tip,i}$, and D_i are given by:

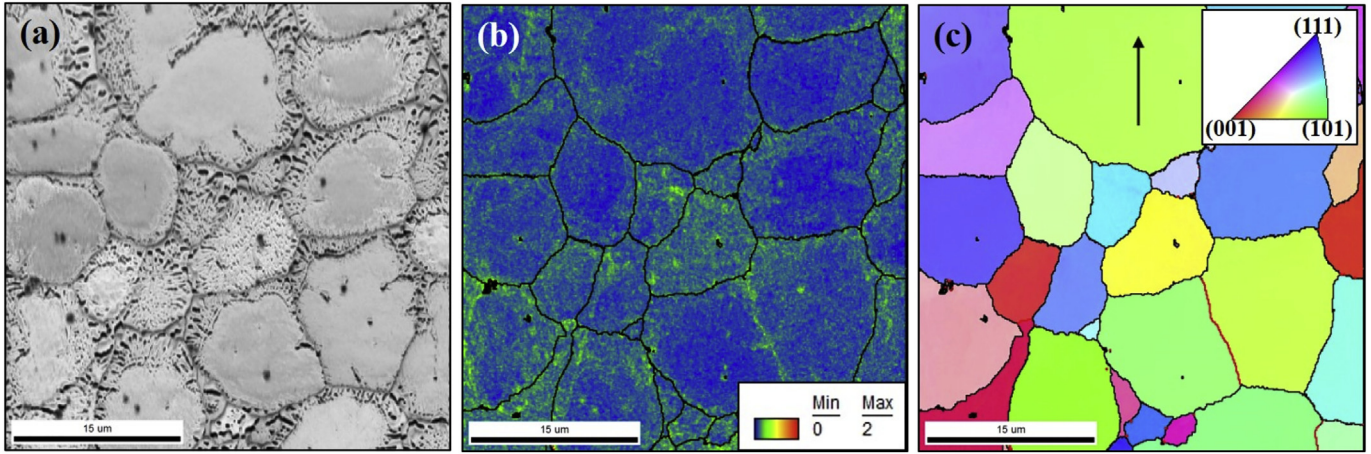


Fig. 9. (a) IQ map. (b) KAM image. (c) IPF map with HAGBs and LAGBs highlighted in black and red, respectively. Note figures (a), (b) and (c) were obtained from the same region of 40 μm by 40 μm .

$$k_{V,i} = \frac{D_i k_i + a_0 V}{D_i + a_0 V} \quad (6)$$

$$Pe_i = \frac{VR_{\text{tip}}}{2D_i} \quad (7)$$

$$C_{\text{tip},i} = \frac{C_{0,i}}{1 - (1 - k_{V,i})I_v(Pe_i)} \quad (8)$$

$$D_i = D_{0,i} \cdot \exp\left(\frac{-Q_i}{R_g T}\right) \quad (9)$$

where a_0 is the characteristic length scale for solute trapping, $C_{0,i}$ is the nominal concentration of component i , $D_{0,i}$ is the diffusion factor of component i , Q_i is the activation energy of component i , $R_g = 8.314 \text{ J} \cdot \text{K}^{-1} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ is the gas constant, I_v is the Ivantsov function, $I_v(Pe_i) = Pe_i \cdot \exp(Pe_i) \cdot E_1(Pe_i)$, and E_1 is the exponential integral function, i.e. $E_1(Pe_i) = \int_{Pe_i}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-t}}{t} dt$. Then the dendrite tip temperature T_{tip} can be calculated by:

$$T_{\text{tip}} = T_m + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} m_{V,i} C_{\text{tip},i} - \frac{2\Gamma}{R_{\text{tip}}} - \frac{V}{\mu_k} \quad (10)$$

where T_m is the melting temperature of pure metal, and μ_k is the linear kinetic coefficient. Solving Eqs. (2)–(10), we can achieve the dendrite tip temperature T_{tip} , the concentration of each component in the liquid at the dendrite tip $C_{\text{tip},i}$, and the dendrite tip radius R_{tip} for a given G and V . Then the actual temperature profile in the liquid $T(z)$ can be achieved:

$$T(z) = T_{\text{tip}} + G \cdot z \quad (11)$$

where z is the distance from the dendrite tip. Furthermore, the concentration profile of component i in the liquid, $C_i(z)$, and the corresponding liquidus temperature profile, $T_{\text{liquidus}}(z)$, are given by:

$$C_i(z) = C_{0,i} + (C_{\text{tip},i} - C_{0,i}) \cdot \frac{E_1[Pe_i(2z + R_{\text{tip}})/R_{\text{tip}}]}{E_1(Pe_i)} \quad (12)$$

$$T_{\text{liquidus}}(z) = T_L + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} m_i [C_i(z) - C_{0,i}] \quad (13)$$

where T_L is the equilibrium liquidus temperature corresponding to the initial composition. The local undercooling profile, $\Delta T(z)$, ahead of the moving solid-liquid interface is therefore given by:

$$\Delta T(z) = T_{\text{liquidus}}(z) - T(z) \quad (14)$$

The equiaxed grains may nucleate and grow in this undercooled region, and their volume fraction can be achieved by estimating the maximum radius of an individual equiaxed grain (i.e. the radius of an individual equiaxed grain when the columnar dendrite passes). The size of each equiaxed grain R_e is given by:

$$R_e = \int_0^{z_n} \frac{V_e(z)}{V} dz \quad (15)$$

where z_n is the distance from the solid-liquid interface to the position, where the local undercooling equals the nucleation undercooling, i.e. $\Delta T(z_n) = \Delta T_n$, and $V_e(z)$ is the growth velocity of the equiaxed grains which can be calculated by:

$$V_e(z) = \frac{A \cdot [\Delta T(z)]^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} C_i(z)} \quad (16)$$

If we assume the dendritic equiaxed grains grow in a spherical mode, the extended volume fraction of the equiaxed grains ϕ_e can be given by:

$$\phi_e = \frac{4\pi R_e^3 N_0}{3} \quad (17)$$

where N_0 is again the density of nucleation sites. Then the actual volume fraction of the equiaxed grains ϕ can be estimated by Avrami equation:

$$\phi = 1 - \exp(-\phi_e) \quad (18)$$

The thermophysical parameters associated with this model were largely achieved using Thermo-Calc software equipped with a HEA database, and are shown in Table 1. The ϕ values are calculated

Table 1

Thermophysical parameters associated with Gäumann's model (largely achieved by CALPHAD method on the platform of Thermo-Calc software equipped with a HEA database).

	Al	Co	Cr	Fe	Ti
$C_{0,i}$ (at.%)	18.2	18.2	18.2	18.2	9.1
k_i	1.675	0.964	0.574	0.665	0.554
m_i (K/at.%)	9.740	2.102	-1.495	-1.841	-4.017
$D_{0,i}$ (m ² /s)	1.51×10^{-7}	2.30×10^{-7}	2.20×10^{-7}	2.29×10^{-7}	2.08×10^{-7}
Q_i (J/mol)	4.63×10^4	6.54×10^4	6.65×10^4	6.51×10^4	6.08×10^4

to be >49% for various $G - V$ combinations established in this paper, assuming $N_0 = 3 \times 10^9 / \text{mm}^3$. This indicates that columnar growth will be completed prohibited, by the large amount of equiaxed crystals at the solidification front, and finally a fully equiaxed grain microstructure can be formed, which supports our experimental findings (Fig. 3).

5. Conclusions

The non-equiatomic HEA AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} was additively manufactured by the LENSTM technique in this study. The solidification conditions, grain morphology, phase constitution and microstructural details were investigated, and the underlying mechanisms were explained. The following conclusions can be drawn from our study:

(1) The increase of laser traverse speed or the decrease of laser power leads to a larger temperature gradient. Through the manipulation of the laser traverse speed and laser power, we have established a wide range of temperature gradients (i.e. 85 to 1005 K/mm).

(2) The microstructure of the LENSTM-deposited AlCoCrFeNiTi_{0.5} alloy consists of proeutectic B2-structured dendrites delineated by lamellar or rod-like B2/A2 eutectic structures which cling to the proeutectic dendrites. Furthermore, the B2 and A2 phases can nucleate and grow independently at the grain boundaries to form eutectic cells. Such microstructures have been successfully described with the aid of Scheil's solidification model.

(3) Proeutectic B2-structured grains are totally equiaxed and randomly textured. A high density of nucleation sites (a minimum of $3 \times 10^9 / \text{mm}^3$) is estimated, and attributed to frequent dendrite fragmentation. The volume fraction ϕ values of equiaxed crystals at solidification front are estimated to be >49% for various $G - V$ combinations established in this paper. This indicates that fully equiaxed grain microstructures can be formed, and therefore provides a theoretical basis for our experimental findings.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

S. Guan: Conceptualization, Methodology, Data curation, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. **K. Solberg:** Writing - review & editing. **D. Wan:** Writing - review & editing. **F. Berto:** Supervision, Writing - review & editing. **T. Welo:** Supervision, Writing - review & editing. **T.M. Yue:** Supervision, Conceptualization, Writing - review & editing. **K.C. Chan:** Supervision, Conceptualization, Writing - review & editing.

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