

Influence of wire feed speed and torch speed on the mechanical properties of wire arc additively manufactured stainless steel

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ABSTRACT

Wire Arc Additive Manufacturing (WAAM) enables 3D printing of large high-value metal components.

However, integrating WAAM into production lines requires a critical understanding of the influence of

process parameters on the resulting material characteristics. As such, this research investigates the

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36 *relationship between WAAM wire feed speed (WFS) and torch speed (TS) on the resulting mechanical*
37 *characteristics of 316LSi thick parts (2.5 cm (0.98 in)). The experimental procedure is informed by a training*
38 *matrix that allows parametric analysis of WFS and TS on the ultimate tensile strength (σ_{ult}), yield strength*
39 *(σ_y), elastic modulus (E), failure strain (ϵ_f), hardness (HV0.5) and dimensional accuracy (D_a) of the printed*
40 *samples. The research found that WAAM-processed 316LSi parts feature isotropic material properties*
41 *despite variations in WFS and TS. The surrogate model developed in this study offers five significant*
42 *polynomial models capable of accurately predicting the influence of WAAM process parameters on σ_{ult} , σ_y ,*
43 *ϵ_f , E and D_a . The research found TS to be the most significant WAAM process parameter in comparison to*
44 *WFS for σ_{ult} and ϵ_f . On the contrary σ_y , E and D_a were found to be primarily driven by WFS as opposed to*
45 *TS. Overall, the paper for the first time presents an accurate surrogate model to predict the mechanical*
46 *characteristics of WAAM 316LSi thick parts informed by wire feed speed and torch speed. The study*
47 *demonstrates that the mechanical properties of WAAM-processed steel are primarily influenced by the*
48 *underlying process parameters offering significant potential for tunable performance.*

49

50 **1. INTRODUCTION**

51

52 Wire Arc Additive Manufacturing (WAAM) has proven to be a highly effective
53 technique in the metal AM field due to its low material wastage and high deposition rate
54 [1–3]. This method involves melting a metal wire through an electric arc, which deposits
55 the material in a layer-by-layer fashion [4]. Ongoing research efforts have focused on
56 addressing challenges such as in-situ monitoring of WAAM [5] and the development and
57 characterization of novel metallic materials [6,7]. To lower the heat input during the
58 WAAM process, Fronius International GmbH has developed the Cold Metal Transfer
59 (CMT) variant of WAAM. This variant manages the energy of the electric arc and wire
60 retraction through a push-and-pull electromechanical process during deposition [8].

61 As a result, WAAM CMT is an improved process [9] suitable to manufacture large
62 high-value metal components suitable for a range of industries [2]. Literature [10,11] so
63 far on WAAM processes highlights the importance of controlling the energy input as the
64 primary influencer on the thermal history of the manufactured part dictating its
65 mechanical properties. However, as suggested by Rodrigues *et al.* [8] further refinement
66 in the process knowledge is necessary to optimize WAAM process parameters to predict
67 bulk material properties for industrial application which this research aims to contribute.

68 Although research on WAAM has been primarily targeted at aluminum (Al) and
69 titanium (Ti) due to their increasing application for light weighting and specialists
70 applications [8,12–15], some recent work focused on steel as it is still the most widely
71 used metal when it comes to the industry as a whole [16–18]. WAAM of 316LSi stainless
72 steel is of significant interest due to its use in large structural parts suitable for industries
73 such as construction, defence, energy, naval and tooling [2,8,15]. It has also been found
74 suitable for functionally graded materials [19]. Studies on WAAM of 316LSi reveals that
75 suboptimal process parameter leads to inferior mechanical performances and
76 geometrical accuracy primarily dictated by excessive heat accumulation [20]. Although
77 WAAM is faster in comparison to other AM processes, it offers inferior geometrical
78 accuracy. Nowadays, process parameters are chosen accordingly to printability and to
79 meet mechanical requirements, as stated by Evans *et al.* [21].

80 Numerous studies [22–27] have been conducted in this regard on a range of
81 materials to identify process parameters for the precise control of bead height and width.
82 When it comes to single beads their thickness and deposition rate are informed by a range

83 of process and material parameters which include the energy input (e_i), wire feed speed
84 (WFS), wire thickness and torch speed (TS). When it comes to steel, wire diameters of 0.8
85 to 1.2 mm (0.18 0.28 picas) to are often used, accordingly to the wire feeding system,
86 leading to a thickness in the range of 3.5-8 mm (0.83-1.89 picas) for an individual bead
87 [28–30]. Although studies have explored the influence of WAAM process parameters on
88 single and multiple beads in isolation, the observations do not always translate to
89 improving the quality of thick parts. Although limited, some studies on WAAM 316LSi
90 have characterized the isotropy of the tensile properties and the hardness variation under
91 varying process parameters [20,31]. Nevertheless, studies focused on exposing the
92 optimum WAAM process parameters suitable for thick (25 mm (0.98 in)) steel parts
93 offering high structural integrity are yet to be carried out.

94 The latest literature on the mechanical behavior of WAAM of steel explores its
95 hardness and tensile properties. Where there are certain cases where WAAM has offered
96 mechanical properties similar to that of conventionally manufactured parts [32], this is
97 not always the case [28]. It appears to be due to the geometry of the part and the process
98 parameters which influences the metallurgical phases through heat input and cooling
99 [33]. Meaning, an in-depth analysis of the relationship linking the process parameters and
100 the mechanical behavior of WAAM is called for [15]. Research carried out by Wang *et al.*
101 [31] showed that the energy input during the WAAM process impacts both the
102 microstructure and the bulk properties of the fabricated parts. This is of particular interest
103 when studying WAAM process parameters as the energy input can vary significantly
104 despite using a constant wire feed speed [31]. For instance, with the same process

105 parameters and varying only the heat input, from 260 to 470 J/mm, Cunningham *et al.*
106 [28], found variations in elasticity modulus (from 165 GPa to 141 GPa) and ultimate tensile
107 strength (from 579 MPa to 565 MPa). But when it comes to estimating this impact, there
108 is no existing analytical model, such as equations linking the tensile properties or hardness
109 of a part to the first-order process parameters. Another phenomenon of interest is the
110 metal transfer mode which influences the resulting mechanical properties of produced
111 parts [34–36].

112 Despite the success of WAAM of steel, Jin *et al.* [37] in their review reveal that
113 there is still a lack of a holistic view on this topic. Overall, the bulk performance of the
114 fabricated material is closely related to wire and torch speed, heat input, cooling time,
115 and interlayer temperature. Although there is significant interest, no comprehensive
116 model of the impact of process parameters on the geometrical accuracy, tensile
117 properties, and hardness of thick WAAM 316LSi stainless steel are reported [38,39]. To
118 address this gap, the research conceives the question: How do the WAAM process
119 parameters affect the mechanical properties of thick 316L steel? To answer this question,
120 the research investigates the use of WAAM to fabricate 25 mm thick 316L stainless steel
121 samples. Nine different combinations of process parameters informed by a range of wire
122 and torch speeds were studied. The print quality of the samples was analyzed using 3D
123 scanning technology to characterize the influence of WAAM on the dimensional accuracy
124 of the prints. Subsequently, tensile and hardness tests were carried out to reveal the
125 mechanical behavior of the samples. The physical test data were also used to develop a
126 surrogate model capable of predicting the mechanical performance of WAAM stainless

127 steel. The study also introduces a response surface model capable of characterizing the
128 interaction effects of the process parameter wire (WFS) and torch speed (TS) on elastic
129 modulus (E), yield strength (σ_y), ultimate tensile strength (σ_{ult}), fracture strain (ϵ_f) and
130 the dimensional accuracy (D_a). The hardness (HV0.5) for the printed samples were also
131 characterized and found to be not in direct co-relation with WFS and TS. This is the first
132 research to bring forward a surrogate model that links the WAAM wire and torch speed
133 to the mechanical properties of 316LSi steel for decision making.

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135 **2. MATERIAL AND METHODS**

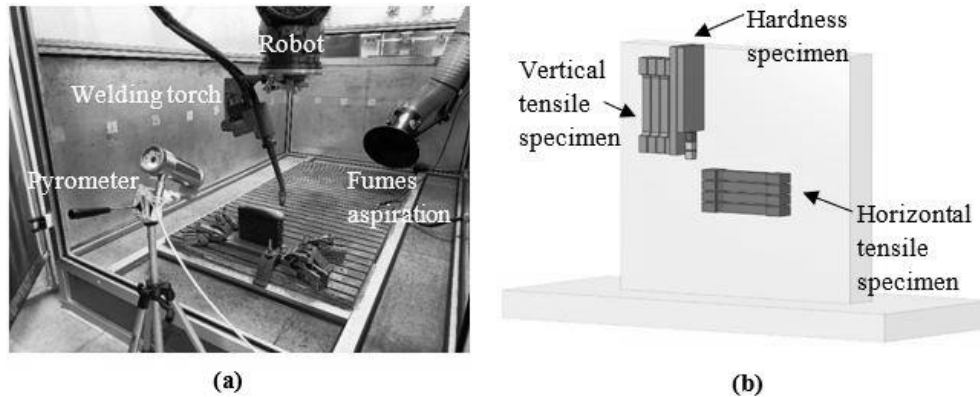
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137 **2.1. Manufacturing process**

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139 The fabrication of all the samples evaluated in this study was carried out using the
140 FRONIUS TransPuls Synergic 3200 CMT WAAM station coupled to a robot KUKA KR 100
141 HA 2000. Communications between the robot and the WAAM system were enabled
142 through the AB Device Net protocol. The chosen feedstock was a 316LSi stainless steel
143 wire of diameter 1.2 mm (0.28 pica) which composition is given as G 19 12 3 L Si, following
144 ISO 14343-A standard [40]. The samples were additively manufactured on a 316L stainless
145 steel plate of dimension 300 × 120 × 18 mm (11.8 x 4.7 x 0.7 in). The welding torch was
146 mounted on the robotic arm from which the wire was fed as shown in Fig. 1a. The material
147 was deposited layer-by-layer on the substrate following a bi-directional triangular
148 scanning path. All first-order and second-order process parameters are detailed in the
149 next section. A pyrometer was used to monitor the interlayer temperature set at 400°C
150 (752°F) during the manufacturing process. In practice, the interlayer time is equal to the
151 cooling time of the upper layer to 400°C. The temperature was measured in the middle

152 of the upper layer. Once the measured temperature underreached 400°C, the pyrometer
 153 was relocated to target the next layer and the fabrication was restarted.



154
 155 **Fig. 1.** Wire arc additive manufacturing facility showing (a) the fabrication setup used and (b) the build
 156 orientation for sample extraction

157 **2.2. Process parameters**

158 For WAAM, the thermal history and thus the deposited material properties are
 159 dictated by the heat input (e_i) in J/mm [41,42] which is calculated following Eq. (1):
 160

$$e_i = \eta \times \frac{U \times I}{TS} \quad (1)$$

161 where η is the energy efficiency. For WAAM CMT it is 80% [43,44]. U is the welding
 162 voltage in V, and I is the welding current, in A, responsible for the creation of the electric
 163 arc. U and I are linked to WFS which is the wire feed speed i.e., the speed at which the
 164 wire (feedstock) goes through the welding torch. Through the synergic laws developed by
 165 Fronius, U and I are determined according to WFS. TS is the torch speed, expressed in
 166 mm/s. TS is the speed of displacement of the robot holding the welding torch through the
 167 scanning path. There are numerous considerations when determining the limits of the
 168 process parameters to inform the training matrix. The first one is that the chosen
 169 parametric combinations should achieve a consistent, fully dense track. Generally, both
 170 the wire and torch speed are carefully controlled, to ensure the right amount of heat

171 input. Insufficient heat input causes incomplete layers melting which is one of the factors
 172 leading to the formation of porosity [45]. On the contrary, high heat input might lead to
 173 an unstable melt pool and poor geometrical accuracy, depending on the geometry of the
 174 printed part and the deposition strategy [46]. As such, there is an optimum parametric
 175 window that achieves a continuously fused material track [47].

176 The first-order WAAM process parameters are WFS and TS. Second-order process
 177 parameters such as current, voltage, heat input, and the scanning period of the triangular
 178 deposit vary according to the chosen values of WFS and TS. The nominal values for these
 179 varying process parameters are summarized in Table 1.

180 **Table 1.** Nominal first-order process parameters WFS and TS and the related nominal second-order process parameters.

Part reference	WFS m/min	TS m/min	U V	I A	e_i J/mm	Scanning period mm
(a)	5	0.60	12.5	165	165	3.6
(b)	7.5	0.60	13.4	219	234	5.2
(c)	10	0.60	14.0	260	291	6.0
(d)	5	0.75	12.5	165	132	3.2
(e)	7.5	0.75	13.4	219	188	4.5
(f)	10	0.75	14.0	260	233	5.4
(g)	5	0.90	12.5	165	110	2.9
(h)	7.5	0.90	13.4	219	157	4.1
(i)	10	0.90	14.0	260	194	4.3

181 The mean measured values for WFS current, voltage and mean layers height are
 182 displayed in Table 2. The estimated heat input based on the measured values of current
 183 and intensity is also provided. The fixed second-order parameters are synthesized in Table
 184 3.

185

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Table 2. Measured WFS and specific second-order process parameters.

Part ref	Measured parameters					Calculated parameters
	WFS (mean) m/min	U (mean) V	I (mean) A	Number of layers	Layers height (mean) mm	e_i J/mm
(a)	5.6 ± 0.6	11.9 ± 0.8	159.2 ± 5.5	31	5.2 ± 0.6	151.6 ± 11.5
(b)	8.0 ± 1.3	13.4 ± 1.5	205.8 ± 8.7	35	4.7 ± 0.3	220.6 ± 26.4
(c)	9.7 ± 1.7	15.9 ± 1.6	218.5 ± 14.6	38	4.3 ± 0.6	277.9 ± 28.6
(d)	5.3 ± 0.5	11.5 ± 0.6	159.8 ± 2.3	34	4.8 ± 0.6	117.6 ± 6.4
(e)	8.3 ± 1.4	13.7 ± 1.5	209.5 ± 8.5	37	4.4 ± 0.7	183.7 ± 21.4
(f)	9.2 ± 1.3	14.0 ± 1.5	229.1 ± 15.7	46	3.5 ± 1	205.3 ± 22.6
(g)	5.2 ± 0.6	11.6 ± 0.6	158.7 ± 4.8	35	4.7 ± 0.5	98.2 ± 5.9
(h)	7.8 ± 0.9	13.2 ± 0.9	210.3 ± 8.4	38	4.3 ± 0.8	148.1 ± 11.7
(i)	8.7 ± 1.3	14.9 ± 1.3	226.4 ± 14.5	40	4.0 ± 0.6	179.9 ± 16.1

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Table 3. Synthesis of deposit and WAAM second-order process parameters used.

Deposit	Height / Width / Length	160 mm x 25 mm x 180 mm
	Deposition strategy	Triangular path - bidirectional
	Scanning amplitude	25 mm
WAAM Process	Shielding Gas	Mison 2 (Ar + 2% CO ₂ + 0,03% NO)
	Shielding Gas rate	17 L/min
	CMT synergic law	CMT 1627 - base 0979
	Stick out	15 mm
	Interlayer temperature	400°C

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2.3. Post-processing

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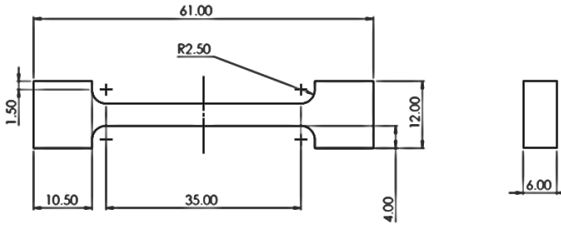

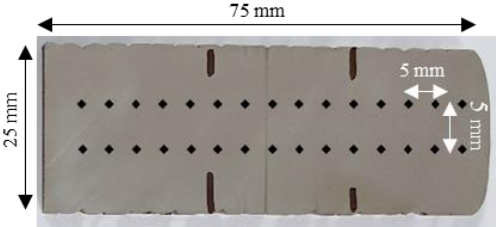
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A heat treatment was applied to all produced parts (4 hours at 500°C (932°F) with heating and cooling phases of 50°C/h (122°F/h)) to remove the residual stresses without significantly modifying the mechanical properties of the printed material. Following the heat treatment, the parts were post-processed using five-axis and electrical discharge machining (EDM) to extract the test samples which are informed in Table 4. Regarding tensile specimens, two sample orientations (vertical and horizontal) as shown in Fig. 1b

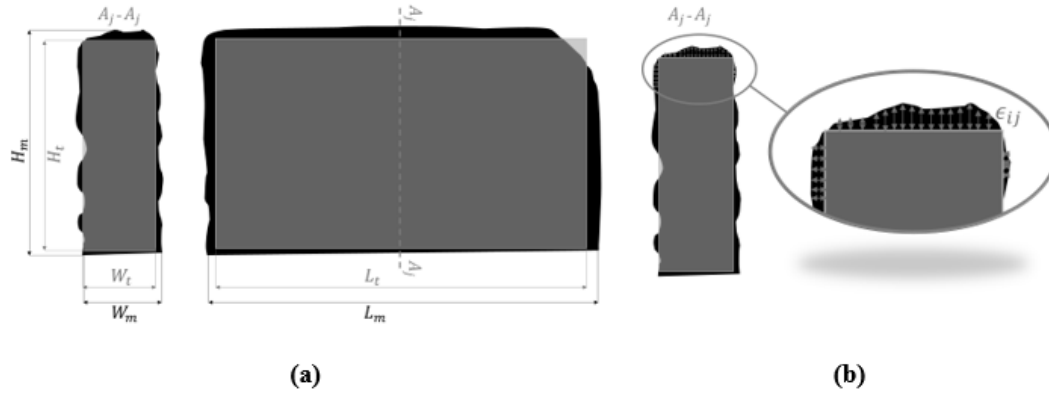
198 were considered to check the isotropy of the fabricated material. For each direction, 3
 199 specimens were cut out for each part. Regarding the hardness specimens, all the tests
 200 were carried out on polished flat samples that were extracted using submerged wire EDM.

201 **Table 4.** Shape, size and number (n) of extracted specimens from WAAM 316LSi samples for mechanical testing.

Type	Shape and size	Specimen count (n)
Horizontal tensile specimen		3 per parts n = 27
Vertical tensile specimen		3 per part n = 27
Hardness specimen		1 per part n = 9 Number of indentations: $N_i = 9 \times 15 = 135$

202 2.4. Characterization of dimensional accuracy

203 Among the range of additive manufacturing technologies, WAAM is commonly
 204 acknowledged as the most appropriate method for producing sizeable components. Small
 205 dimensional inaccuracies during printing can become significant changes when translated
 206 to large parts affecting the limits and fits. As such the dimensional accuracy becomes a
 207 significant parameter when characterizing the quality of WAAM parts. In this study, the
 208 dimensional accuracy parameter estimates the discrepancies between the surfaces of
 209 each printed sample and their ideal computer-aided design (CAD)[48]. On Fig. 2a and 2b,
 210 an exaggerated representation of the difference between a printed sample in black and
 211 the targeted CAD in blue is schematized.



212

213 **Fig. 2.** Schematic representation of the difference between the surfaces of the printed part (in black) and
 214 the targeted geometry (in blue) in general view (a) and cross-sectional view (b)

215 To evaluate the accuracy between the surface of the manufactured part and the
 216 targeted CAD, the distance between each pairwise points ϵ_{ij} of both surfaces (printed and
 217 targeted) is measured all over the additively manufactured part.

218 Then for each part, the mean distance between all points of the surface of the
 219 printed sample and the targeted geometry is calculated. The mean ($D_{a(mean)}$) and
 220 maximum ($D_{a(max)}$) distance between each pairwise points of the surface of the
 221 manufactured part and the surface of the targeted part (the CAD), were measured, as
 222 informed by the literature [49,50]. They are defined by Eq.2 and Eq.3.

$$D_{a(mean)} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{i=1}^m \epsilon_{ij}}{i \times j} \quad (2)$$

$$D_{a(max)} = \max(\epsilon_{ij}) \quad (3)$$

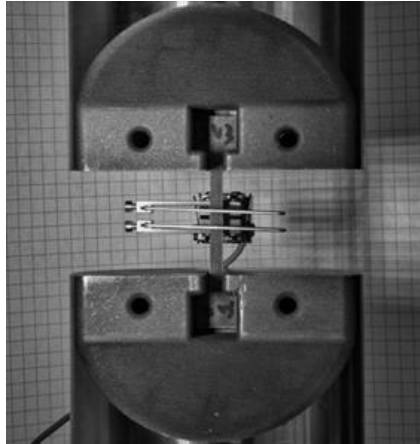
223 The dimensional accuracy (D_a) is defined as $D_{a(mean)}$ scaled down to a percentage
 224 of the part's dimensions, in this case its targeted height (H_t), as described by Eq.4. The
 225 targeted height (H_t), represented in Fig. 2a, is 160 mm (6.3 in).

$$D_a = 1 - \frac{D_{a(mean)}}{H_t} \quad (4)$$

226 To characterize the dimensional accuracy, the printed samples were scanned
227 using the Faro robot laser scanning arm featuring non-contact Laser Line Probe (LLP)
228 technology, where the laser is informed by the Faro Cam2 software. The scanned samples
229 were compared with the ideal geometry informed by the original CAD.

230 **2.5. Tensile testing**

231 To analyze the stress-strain (σ - ϵ) behavior of WAAM 316LSi stainless steel, 54 test
232 specimens were subjected to tensile testing. The configuration of the tensile specimens
233 taken from the printed part are presented in Table 4. The tensile tests were performed
234 using a Zwick Roell Z1474 universal material testing machine that has a maximum load
235 capacity of 100 kN. Prior to conducting the experiments, the equipment was calibrated
236 and validated in accordance with BSENISO 7500-1 (O 7500-1:2018 - Metalli, 2018). To
237 ensure quasi-static deformation as specified by the ISO 6892-1:2019(E) [51] standard, the
238 test coupons were pulled to failure at a rate of 0.63 mm/min. Deformation beyond the
239 elastic limit was necessary to analyze the failure modes and the overall behavior of the
240 material processed by WAAM. To capture the fine strain around the yield zone, a five-
241 millimeter gauge extensometer, as shown in Fig. 3, was affixed to each of the samples.
242 Based on the σ - ϵ curve, the properties of the test samples were characterized for elastic
243 modulus (E), fracture strain (ϵ_f), yield strength (σ_y) and ultimate strength (σ_{ult}). To avoid
244 data contamination due to sample slippage, non-slip platens were utilized for all
245 mechanical testing.



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Fig. 3. Mechanical testing of the WAAM samples showing the non-slipping platens and the placement of the fine-strain extensometer mounted to the test specimen

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2.6. Hardness testing

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The Vickers hardness tests were carried out using a Zwick/Rowell Indentec hardness machine. For each parametric combination of the WAAM process parameters, a sample of length 75 mm was extracted to characterize the hardness as shown in Table 4. To characterize the relationship between hardness to the length of the sample, 15 indentations were performed at 5 mm spacing between each indentation. The indentations were performed using a 500 gf (HV0.5) diamond head held for 15 seconds. To ensure the consistency of the data observed, another set of 15 indents was performed at 5 mm from the first one. All indents were measured with the Zwick/Roell ZH μ software using a 40x magnification lens.

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2.7. Surrogate modelling

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Surrogate models are analytical models that can replicate the relationship between input parameters and output characteristics in a complex system. Development of surrogate models requires carrying out scientifically constructed experimental tests informed by methodically created training matrices referred to as sampling points.

264 Surrogate models can thus be seen as a set of equations that reveals the relationship that
265 exists between a range of targeted input and output parameters [52]. Such models have
266 been developed for various AM techniques and applications [38,53].

267 The experimental trials were conducted in accordance with the training matrix,
268 and regression analysis was employed to establish the correlation between the WAAM
269 process variables and the resultant responses of the printed 316LSi samples. The two
270 process variables selected as input parameters for the surrogate modeling were the wire
271 feed speed and torch speed. Subsequently, best-fit empirical models were derived
272 through randomized experimental data measured for the responses E , ε_f , σ_y , σ_{ult} , HV0.5
273 and Da. The models generated were employed to determine the significance of the
274 contributing WAAM process parameters on the characteristics of the printed 316LSi
275 samples. By utilizing the surrogate model, it became possible to determine the optimal
276 WAAM process parameters combination, which results in improved mechanical
277 properties.

278 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

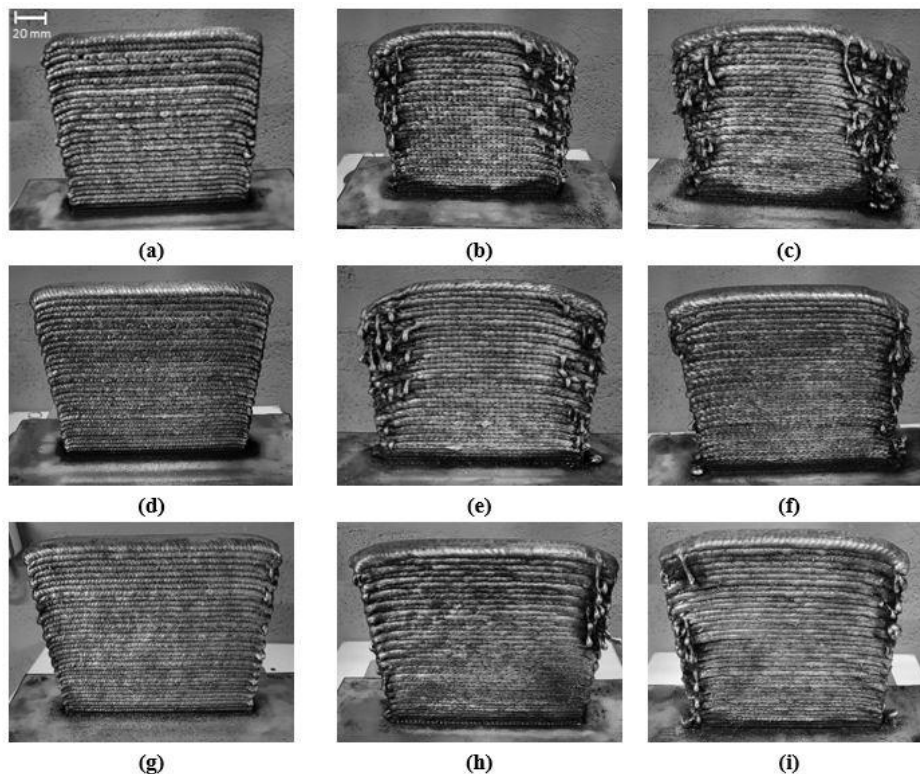
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280 3.1. Morphology and accuracy of the printed sample

281

282 Altogether nine WAAM samples were fabricated according to the different
283 combinations of WFS and TS leading to different energy inputs (e_i). The effect of the
284 process parameters on the ultimate morphology of the printed samples is illustrated in
285 Fig. 4. It can be seen that a lower WFS results in a cleaner part (Fig. 4a, 4d and 4g) with
286 fewer geometrical defects at the global scale. Thanks to a lower heat input induced by a
287 lower WFS less geometrical defects occur [54]. Moreover, once layers are being built on

288 top of one another, side collapse may appear due to excessive heat at the beginning of
 289 layers [8]. The printed tracks are also thinner which results in a final part closer to the
 290 original ideal geometry informed by CAD. The main geometrical defects at the global scale
 291 are primarily influenced by the high energy input signified by spattering and edge
 292 collapsing as shown in Fig. 4b, 4c and 4e. Spattering, melt pool overflowing and edge
 293 collapsing are due to the instability of the process and result in a poorer surface finish
 294 around the edges [8].

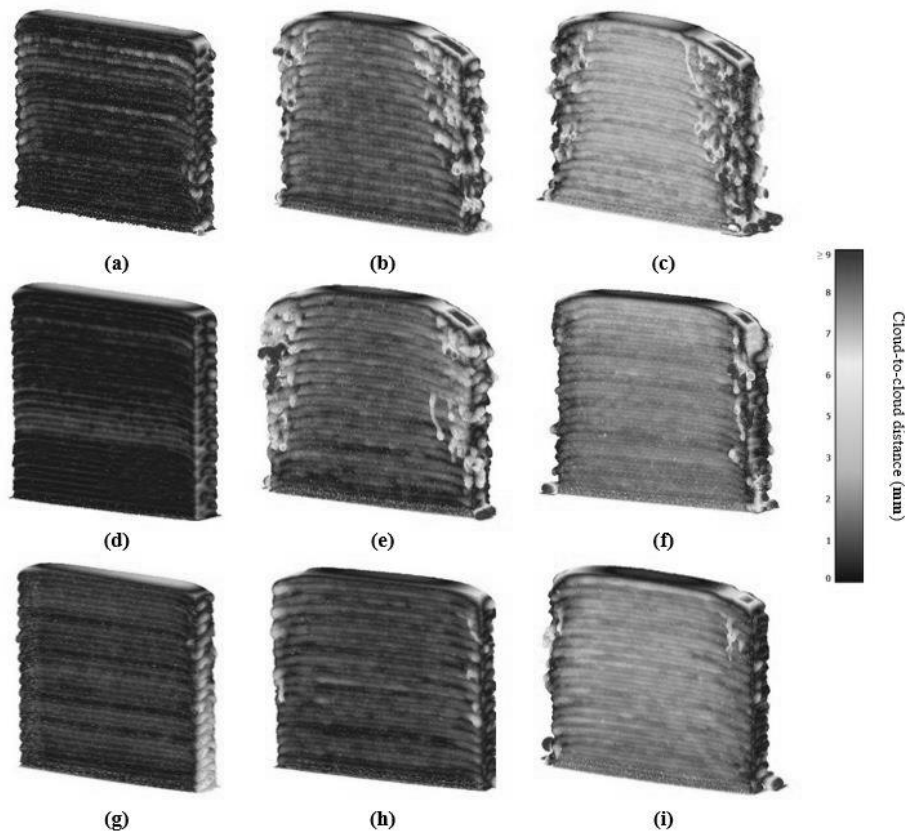


295 **Fig. 4.** Images of the additively produced components, fabricated using randomized combinations of
 296 process parameters (where WFS represents the wire feed speed, and TS represents the torch speed) that
 297 were later employed to train the surrogate model, as specified in Table 1
 298

299 Although these are evident in Fig. 4f, 4h and 4i to a smaller extent, the
 300 phenomenon is particularly obvious in Fig. 4b, 4c and 4e. Edge collapsing in additive
 301 manufacturing is primarily due to excessive heat when depositing a new layer over the
 302 previous one [55]. This phenomenon can be perceived as an arc shape that is magnified

303 by the number of layers, causing a variation in the overall height between the edges and
304 the center. This is particularly visible in the parts corresponding to Fig. 4b, 4c and 4e.

305 Fig. 5 shows the scanned data of all the WAAM samples with the deviation from
306 the ideal geometry highlighted. The color scale highlights the zone of minimum and
307 maximum deviation from the ideal. The contours highlighted in blue indicate areas of
308 lowest deviation and the ones in red highlight the area of maximum deviation between
309 WAAM samples and the ideal geometry.



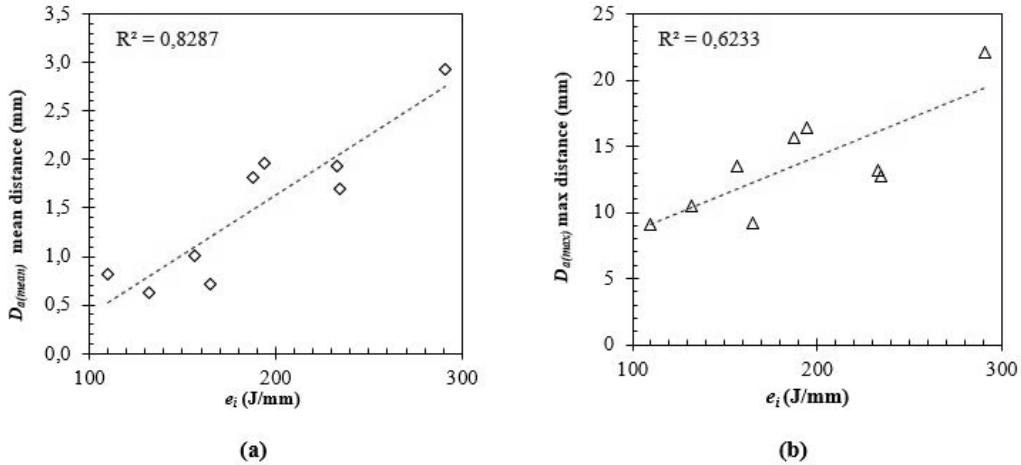
310 **Fig. 5.** Points cloud comparison between ideal geometry and additively manufactured 316LSi featuring the
311 process parameters detailed in Table 1
312

313 Comparing the data, it is clear that the sample shown in Fig. 5d shows the
314 minimum deviation offering the best dimensional accuracy of all the samples fabricated.
315 The worst dimensional accuracy was observed for the sample presented in Fig. 5c showing

316 significant spattering, and edge collapse leading to an arch shape. The reasons for this can
317 be explained by looking at the effect of torch speed and wire speed through the heat
318 input (Eq. 1) on the dimensional accuracy as shown in Fig. 6a and 6b.

319 The reason for the variation in dimensional accuracy (D_a) between the WAAM
320 printed samples are evident from Fig. 6a. The data shows that the lowest cloud-to-cloud
321 distance, thus the highest dimensional accuracy, is when the heat input is low. This shows
322 that a low heat input, driven by a high TS and a low WFS, results in a more precise
323 geometry of the printed part. On the other hand, parts printed at high energy input, with
324 higher WFS, present a poorer geometrical accuracy.

325 Fig. 6a and 6b demonstrate that the fluctuation in the mean and maximum
326 distance, which is influenced by the energy input of the WAAM process, falls within the
327 range of 0.63-2.93 mm and 9.10-22.06 mm, respectively. Translating this to design
328 guidelines suggests that the WAAM process can lead to a deviation of 0.35% in
329 dimensional accuracy when using a wire diameter of 1.2 mm. For both mean and
330 maximum deviation, the worst and best correspond to the higher and lower energy input
331 respectively. Overall, Fig. 6a and 6b show that a linear relationship ($R^2=0.8287$) and
332 ($R^2=0.6233$) exists between e_i and the dimensional accuracy for the parts being analyzed.
333 This means that an optimum WAAM process parametric should feature a WFS and TS
334 combination leading to a low energy input that is sufficient for creating a consistent melt
335 pool. Further analysis of the interdependency on the process parameters is carried out
336 using the surrogate model later in this article.

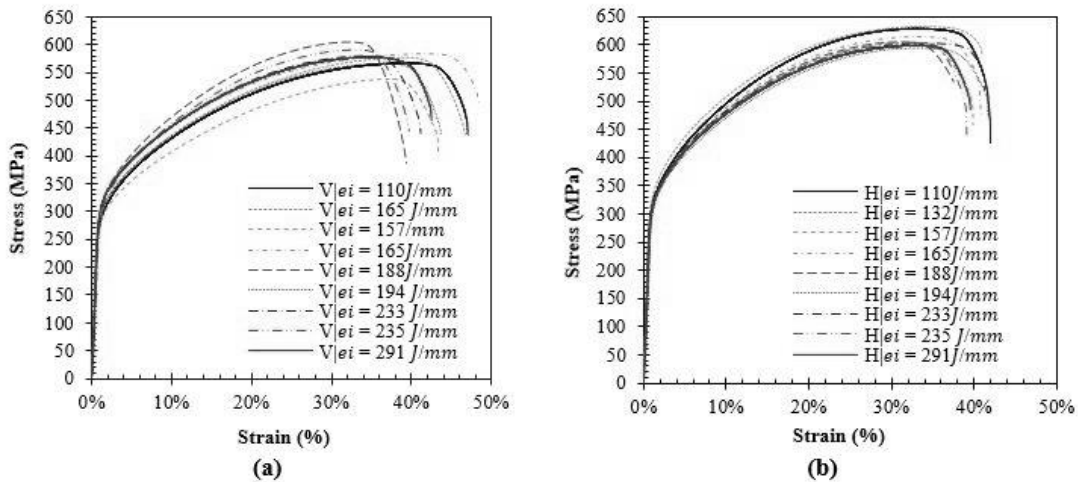


337
 338 **Fig. 6.** Dimensional accuracy of the printed samples in comparison to ideal geometry as a function of heat
 339 input showing (a) the mean and (b) the maximum cloud-to-cloud distance between the manufactured
 340 316LSi samples and the ideal geometry

341 **3.2. Mechanical properties**

342
 343 **3.2.1. Tensile properties**

344 The stress-strain (σ - ϵ) data extracted from experimental tests carried out on all
 345 WAAM specimens informed by the training matrix at different energy inputs are shown
 346 in Fig. 7. The σ - ϵ data is further collated based on the sample build orientation where Fig.
 347 7a and Fig. 7b shows the performance of the vertical (V) and horizontal (H) samples
 348 respectively.



349
 350 **Fig. 7.** Stress-strain curves of WAAM parts sorted by energy input and direction of the tensile specimen
 351 showing (a) vertical samples and (b) horizontal samples

352 The curves are representative of the standard stress-strain response expected
353 from bulk metals with no spurious effects confirming that any differences observed are
354 informed by the WAAM process. Comparing the data between vertical (Fig. 7a) and
355 horizontal (Fig. 7b) build orientation, no significant differences were observed at similar
356 energy input indicating an isotropic behavior of the printed samples. This means that for
357 the cold metal transfer WAAM process, austenitic stainless steel 316LSi can be printed
358 either in vertical or horizontal orientation without any difference in the mechanical
359 properties if the energy input is within 110-291 J/mm. In comparison studies conducted
360 by Müller *et al.* [56], Sun *et al.* [57] and Cunningham *et al.* [28] reported the potential for
361 anisotropy when printing steel using WAAM. In general, the variation in mechanical
362 properties among different printing directions is attributed to interlayer softening caused
363 by an inhomogeneous microstructure, as well as non-uniform strain distribution resulting
364 from differential cooling. However, the findings here seem to suggest that the tendency
365 for anisotropy is insignificant when printing thicker parts, especially at lower energy
366 inputs (110-216 J/mm). This might be mainly influenced here by the inter-layer
367 temperature set at 400°C and by the heat treatment applied to all printed parts.
368 Nevertheless, the elastic modulus (105-156 GPa) dictating the material stiffness is
369 consistent with the WAAM of thinner samples as reported in the literature [28].

370 Looking at the yield and ultimate strength, the data indicates that the WAAM
371 samples are performing in the range of 281-314 MPa and 572-603 MPa respectively which
372 are higher than the industry requirement. The observations are also consistent with the
373 literature on thin samples printed at or higher energy inputs. Comparing the data based

374 on energy input indicate that irrespective of the print orientation used, the mechanical
375 performance of the printed samples is significantly influenced by e_i . Looking at the
376 deviation rate, the highest difference was observed for elastic modulus which is
377 consistent with literature at a difference of 33% between lower and higher values [28].
378 The lowest influence of e_i was found for σ_{ult} indicating a 5% different between the
379 extremities. When it comes failure strain which signifies the elastic and plastic elongation,
380 a difference of 14% was observed as a result of varying the energy input. Overall, the
381 relationship between the mechanical properties (E , ε_f , σ_y and σ_{ult}) of the WAAM samples
382 and the energy input dependent upon the wire speed and torch speed. These aspects are
383 explored and mathematically quantified using the surrogate model later in the analysis.

384 Analyzing the failure strain for WAAM 316LSi as shown in Fig. 7, the strain
385 associated with failure is representative of a ductile metallic material. The ductile
386 classification is appropriate as the failure strain exceeds 38% strain at fracture for all the
387 process parameter combinations tested. The most ductile behavior is signified by a 44%
388 ε_f was revealed by two samples printed at 110 and 132 J/mm that correspond to the two
389 lowest energy inputs used. The amount of plastic strain quantified by ε_f becomes
390 important when using steel for fabricating energy absorption structures. For these
391 applications materials with high ductility offer higher performances as they can sustain
392 larger plastic deformation. In this regard fabrication techniques that can preserve or
393 enhance high ε_f of materials are significant. In this regard, WAAM seem to offer a wide
394 range of ε_f customizability depending on the energy input.

395 The mean values of experimentally obtained E , ϵ_f , σ_y and σ_{ult} from 316LSi WAAM
 396 samples are compared with typical values observed from conventionally fabricated
 397 samples as listed in Table 5.

398 **Table 5.** Comparison of mechanical characteristics of 316LSi stainless steel material manufactured from different
 399 techniques.

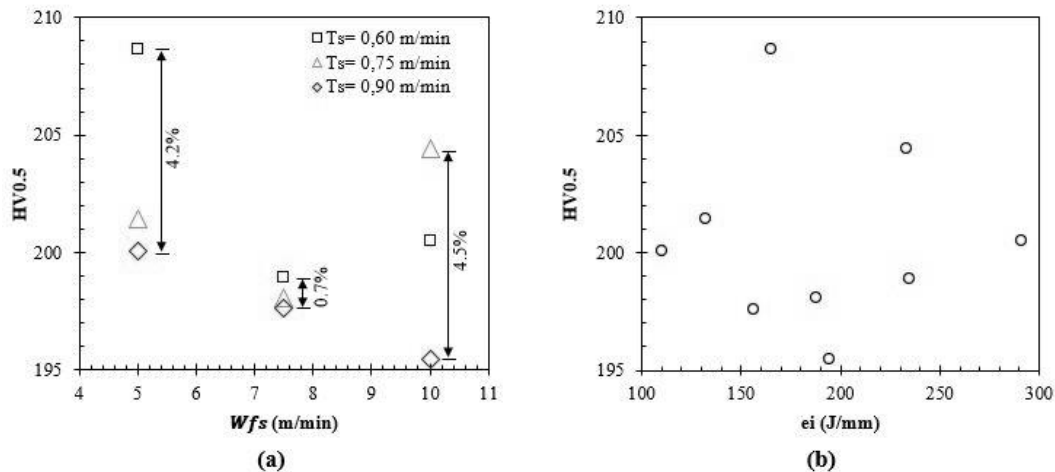
Process	σ_{ult} (MPa)	σ_y (MPa)	E (GPa)	ϵ_f	Ref
Cast	552	262	-	40%	[59]
Wrought	525-623	255-310	-	30%	[60]
Industry-standard	450	170	190	40%	[32]
WAAM	533 ± 23	235 ± 6	-	48% ± 2%	[32]
WAAM	550 ± 6	418	-	-	[31]
WAAM	549-582	297-330	112 -192	35%-47%	[28]
WAAM-CMT	572-603	281-314	105-156	38%-44%	present study

400 It can be seen that yield and ultimate strength of WAAM-fabricated 316LSi
 401 significantly outperform conventional fabricated samples. The elastic modulus data of
 402 WAAM 316LSi samples are rare in literature, however, comparison with industry
 403 requirements for 316LSi suggests that the WAAM samples are underperforming by
 404 19.65%. Nevertheless, ϵ_f , σ_y and σ_{ult} obtained are consistent with the requirements of
 405 the industry. These trends indicate the importance of multi-objective optimisation and
 406 surrogate modelling of the WAAM process parameters to print components with targeted
 407 performance requirements.

408 3.2.2. Hardness

409 Analysis of the data as shown in Fig. 8a shows a complex relationship between the
 410 wire and torch speed of the WAAM process concerning the hardness of printed 316LSi.
 411 At lower WFS of 5 m/min, the hardness seems to vary by 4.2% at a TS range of 0.6-0.9
 412 m/min. This trend seems to be consistent also at high WFS of 10 m/min resulting in a

413 hardness variation of 4.5%. However, when a medium WFS of 7.5 m/min was used, the
 414 influence of TS seems to be significant leading to only a 0.7% variation in the hardness
 415 data measured. The hardness of the printed samples varied between 195 and 209 HV0.5
 416 with no significant correlation to the energy input as shown in Fig. 8b. These findings are
 417 consistent with the observations of Bourlet *et al.* [3] in another grade of stainless steel
 418 manufactured by WAAM. Although the mean hardness values observed are consistent
 419 with the literature [31,32], no influence of sample or print height on the data was
 420 observed.



421
 422 **Fig. 8.** Vickers hardness measurements at 500 gf for 15 s on wire arc additively manufactured 316LSi
 423 samples showing the influence of (a) WFS and TS and (b) heat input

424 3.3. Surrogate modelling

425 426 3.3.1. Training matrix and regression analysis

427 The analysis thus far establishes the need for effective control of WAAM process
 428 parameters namely wire and torch speed for targeted mechanical properties. Doing this
 429 on a case-by-case basis requires establishing accurate analytical relationships between
 430 the parameters (WFS and TS) and responses (E , ε_f , σ_y , σ_{ult} , D_a and HV0.5) of interest. To

431 establish the relationship between the process and properties, a randomized Central
 432 Composite Design (CCD) training matrix was developed, which is presented in Table 6.

433 **Table 6.** The surrogate model training matrix indicates the randomized parameters and the corresponding measured
 434 responses. WFS represents the wire feed speed, and TS is the torch speed. The responses measured include σ_{ult}
 435 (ultimate tensile strength), σ_s (yield strength), E (elastic modulus), ϵ_f (fracture strain), HV0.5 (Vickers hardness), and
 436 D_a (dimensional accuracy).

Variable factors		Responses					
A = WFS (m/min)	B = TS (m/min)	σ_{ult} (MPa)	σ_y (MPa)	E (GPa)	ϵ_f	HV0.5	D_a
7,50	0,75	603	296	105	38%	198	98.87%
7,50	0,90	572	286	118	41%	198	99.37%
7,50	0,75	603	296	105	38%	198	98.87%
7,50	0,75	603	296	105	38%	198	98.87%
7,50	0,75	603	296	105	38%	198	98.87%
7,50	0,75	603	296	105	38%	198	98.87%
5,00	0,90	584	281	141	44%	200	99.49%
5,00	0,75	602	299	146	44%	201	99.61%
5,00	0,60	602	299	156	43%	209	99.55%
7,50	0,60	597	295	132	40%	199	98.39%
10,00	0,90	577	301	139	43%	195	98.77%
10,00	0,75	592	314	154	41%	204	98.80%
10,00	0,60	591	300	134	42%	201	98.17%

437 Keeping all the other parameters constant, two WAAM process parameters (WFS
 438 and TS) that have the highest influence on the heat input were chosen as the variable
 439 factors. Informed by the parametric combinations of the matrix, samples were printed
 440 using 316LSi stainless steel. These samples were subsequently characterized for their
 441 mechanical properties as listed in Table 5 which acts as the basis for the surrogate model.
 442 After performing regression analysis on the training data in Table 5 and utilizing the best-
 443 fit indicators, it was found that the ultimate tensile strength, yield strength, elastic
 444 modulus, and fracture strain have a quadratic relationship with the WAAM process
 445 parameters, as shown in Eq. 5, 6, 7, and 8. A quadratic relationship usually signifies
 446 significant interaction effects among the considered process parameters. The presence of

447 interaction effects indicates the need for a critical understanding of both individual and
 448 cumulative contributions of the selected process variables to accurately control the
 449 properties of the printed samples. When it comes to dimensional accuracy, a two-factor
 450 interaction model with the process parameters as shown in Eq. 9 has been identified. The
 451 regression analysis on hardness data indicated a random response, meaning any
 452 relationship is not directly linked to WFS and TS.

$$\sigma_{ult} = 329 - 1.7 WFS + 826 TS + 3.3 WFS.TS - 0.17 WFS^2 - 609 TS^2 \quad (5)$$

$$\sigma_y = 230 - 25.3 WFS + 438 TS + 12.6 WFS.TS + 1.22 WFS^2 - 375 TS^2 \quad (6)$$

$$E = 669 - 88 WFS - 577 TS + 13.8 WFS.TS + 5.1 WFS^2 + 297 TS^2 \quad (7)$$

$$\varepsilon_f = 1.07 - 0.08 WFS - 1.01 TS + \frac{2.9}{1000} WFS.TS + \frac{5.2}{1000} WFS^2 + 0.68 TS^2 \quad (8)$$

$$D_a = 1.02 - \frac{5.3}{1000} WFS + 0.02 TS + \frac{4.4}{1000} WFS.TS \quad (9)$$

453 3.3.2. Model accuracy

454 Table 7 summarizes the results of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) used to
 455 evaluate the accuracy of the surrogate models developed. The relevant accuracy
 456 indicators, including the probability (p-value), coefficient of determination (R^2), Adjusted
 457 R^2 , and Adequate precision, were considered. The F-values were high, and the p-values
 458 were very low for all models, indicating their significance. According to statistical
 459 standards, surrogate models with a p-value of less than 0.05 and an adequate precision
 460 ratio greater than four indicate an accurate model [58]. Furthermore, the R^2 and Adj- R^2
 461 values approaching one also confirm that the surrogate models are accurate for all the
 462 considered responses.

463

Table 7. The statistical technique called analysis of variance demonstrating the precision of the surrogate model.

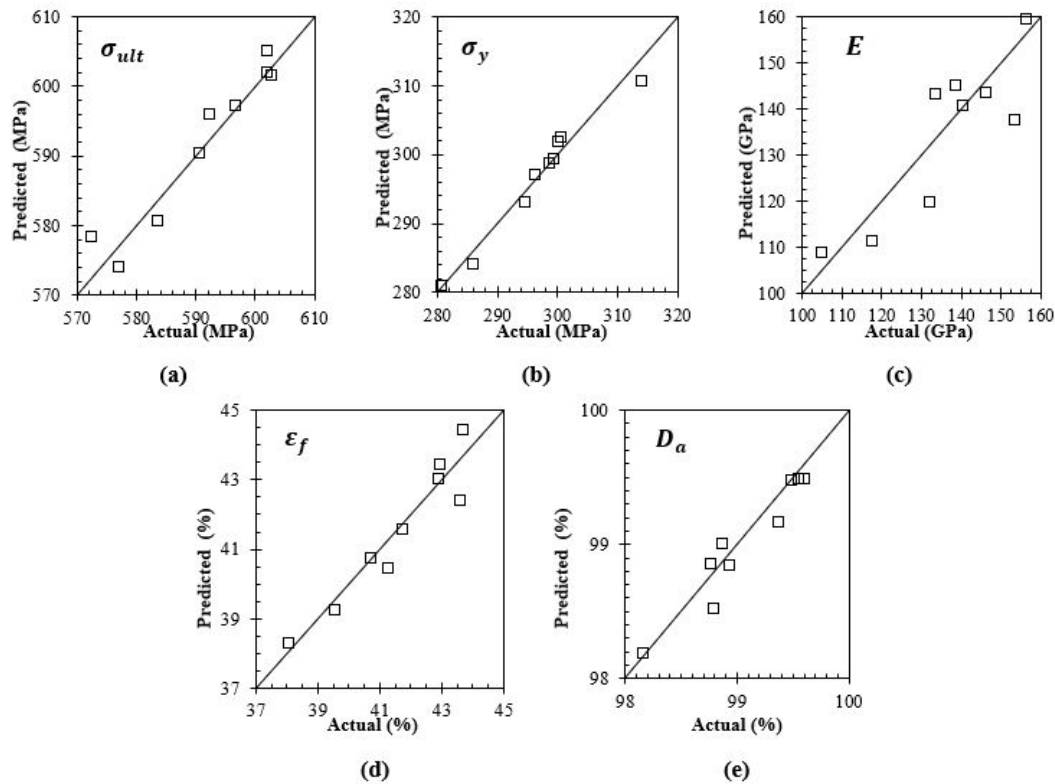
Model	F-Value	p-Value	Statistical Measurements		
			R^2	Adj- R^2	Adeq-Precision
σ_{ult} (MPa)	21.68	0.0004	0.9393	0.8960	13.1569
σ_y (MPa)	36.21	<0.0001	0.9628	0.9362	22.4262
E (GPa)	8.44	0.0071	0.8578	0.7562	7.4963
ε_f (%)	25.02	0.0002	0.9470	0.9092	12.9107
D_a (%)	20.55	0.0002	0.8301	0.7721	14.2207

464

Fig. 9 illustrates the correlation between the genuine responses and the ones

465

obtained from the surrogate model.



466

467

Fig. 9. The precision of the surrogate model is exhibited through a comparison of the forecasted and experimentally measured values for the parametrically produced 316LSi parts for (a) σ_{ult} , (b) σ_y , (c) E , (d)

469

 ε_f , (e) D_a

470

The actual values measured from the experiments seem to closely match the

471

predictions indicating the validity of the surrogate model. Looking at the residuals

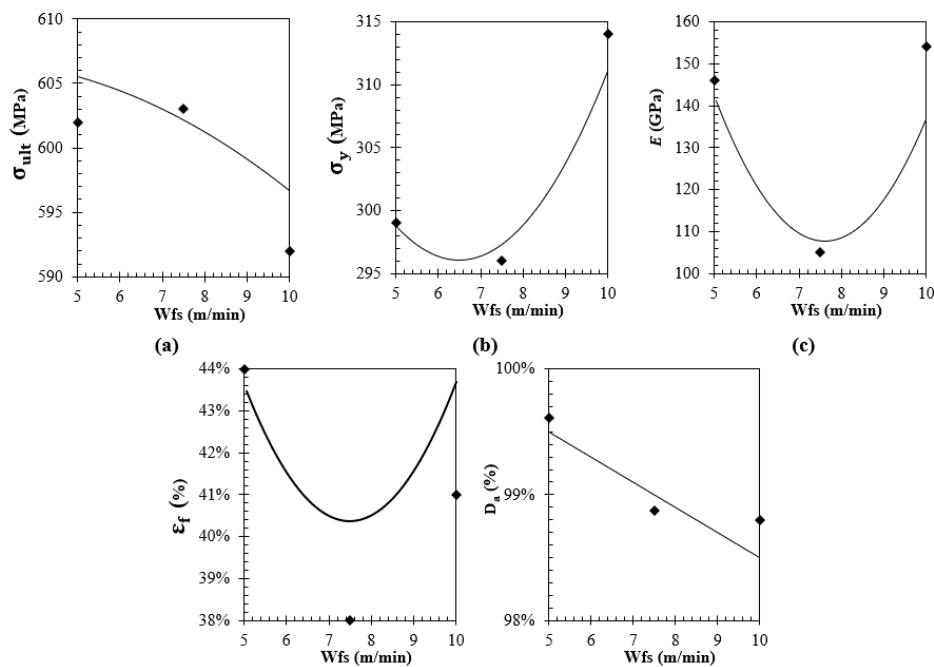
472

(difference between predicted and actual value), and considering a worst-case scenario,

473 the models offer an accuracy of 99%, 98,9%, 88.9%, 97,2% and 99,7% for σ_{ult} , σ_y , E , ε_f ,
 474 and D_a respectively. However, for most predictions other than for the worst-case the
 475 accuracy should be much higher than those mentioned. In general, the results of the
 476 analysis of variance indicate that the models created in this research are appropriate for
 477 generating accurate forecasts. As a result, equations 2-6 effectively depict the association
 478 between the wire feed speed, torch speed, the resulting mechanical properties, and the
 479 dimensional accuracy of WAAM 316LSi.

480 3.3.3. Influence of wire feed speed

481 The influence of WFS on the mechanical properties and dimensional accuracy of
 482 WAAM fabricated 316LSi steel at a constant TS of 0.75 m/min, is shown in Fig. 10.



483
 484 **Fig. 10.** Influence of wire feed speed on (a) σ_{ult} , (b) σ_y , (c) E , (d) ε_f , (e) D_a with experimental points

485 Looking at the ultimate tensile strength of the printed steel as shown in Fig. 10a,
 486 an almost linear trend to WFS can be observed. The highest σ_{ult} of 605 MPa was observed
 487 at the lowest WFS of 5 m/min and then decreasing linearly to 596 MPa as the WFS

488 increased to 10 m/min. This indicates that controlling the WFS can influence the σ_{ult} of
489 WAAM 316LSi by 1.5%. In comparison, the yield strength (Fig. 10b) seems to show a
490 quadratic relationship to wire feed speed. Here, the critical WFS seems to be 7.5 m/min
491 after which the σ_y rises consistently with subsequent increases in WFS reaching a peak of
492 310.5 MPa which is an improvement of 4.9%. However, changes in WFS speed below the
493 critical speed of 7.5 m/min did not seem to significantly affect the yield strength of the
494 printed material.

495 The elasticity modulus and fracture strain showed a comparable quadratic
496 relationship when it comes to the influence of WFS as shown in Fig. 10c and 10d. For both
497 cases, the lowest performance of 108.5 GPa and 38% for E and ϵ_f , respectively, was
498 observed around a WFS of 7.5 m/min. Any reduction or increase in wire feed speed from
499 this mid-point seems to increase both the stiffness and ductility of the printed steel.
500 However, in both cases, the highest performance seems to be when WFS is at its lowest
501 offering a 27.4% and 10% improvement in E and ϵ_f respectively. Characterising the
502 influence of WFS on the dimensional accuracy of the printed samples reveals a linear
503 relationship as shown in Fig. 10e. The inverse relationship means that the higher the wire
504 feed speed, the less accurate is the part geometry in comparison to ideal CAD. Overall,
505 the parametric analysis indicates the use of low WFS is beneficial for improving σ_{ult} , E, ϵ_f
506 and D_a . However, improving the yield strength requires the use of higher WFS around 10
507 m/min which suggests that the mechanical performance is influenced by the interaction
508 effects of the process parameters which are considered in subsequent sections.

509

510

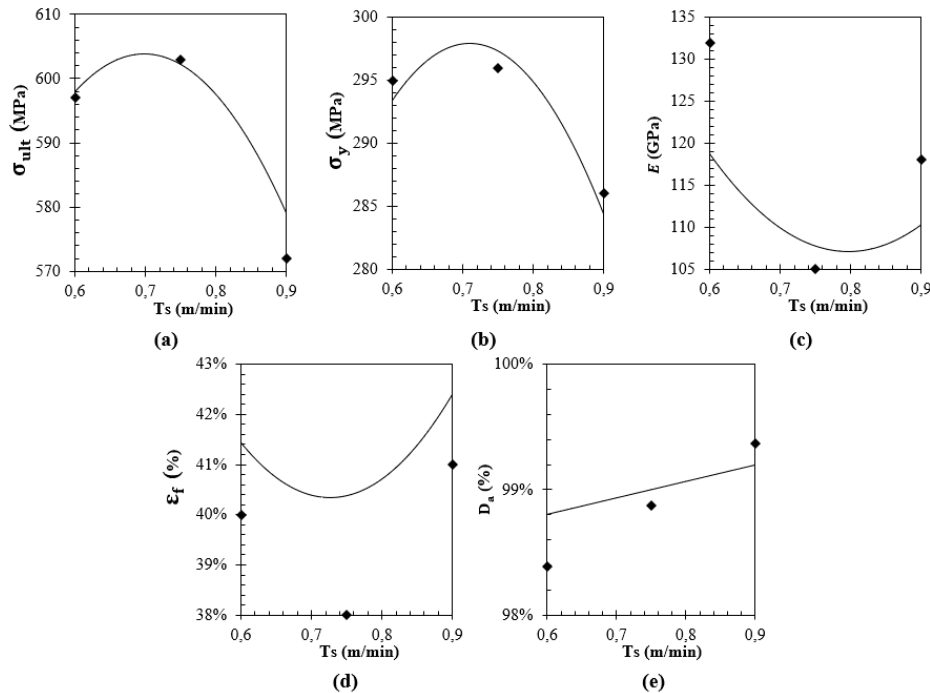
3.3.4. Influence of torch speed

511

The effect of TS on the mechanical characteristics and the dimensional accuracy

512

of the printed material is shown in Fig. 11 for a constant WFS of 7.5 m/min.



513

514

Fig. 11. Influence of torch speed on (a) σ_{ult} , (b) σ_y , (c) E , (d) ϵ_f , (e) D_a with experimental points

515

The ultimate tensile strength (Fig. 11a) and the yield strength (Fig. 11b) of the

516

WAAM 316LSi stainless steel demonstrate a concave quadratic relationship to torch

517

speed. The highest σ_{ult} of 603 MPa was observed at a torch speed of 0.7 m/min which is

518

neither the highest nor the lowest TS being tested. Increasing WFS further seems to

519

gradually decrease the σ_{ult} to the lowest performance of 579 MPa at the highest TS of

520

0.9 m/min. Looking at the yield strength a similar trend can be observed with a highest of

521

297.5 MPa at a TS of 0.7 m/min which subsequently decreased to 284 MPa as TS increased

522

to 0.9 m/min. Therefore, it is clear that σ_{ult} and σ_y of the 316LSi WAAM material are

523

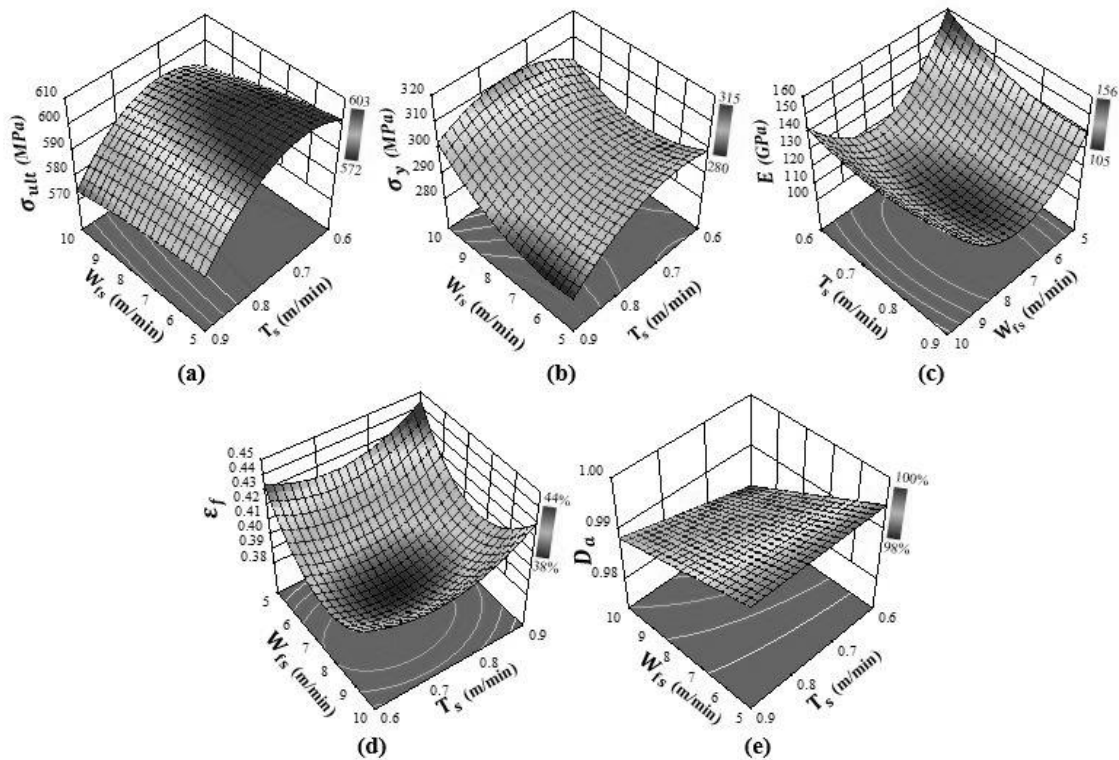
varying at 4% and 4.5% as a result of torch speed.

524 In comparison, the elastic modulus (Fig. 11c) and the failure strain (Fig. 11d) show
525 a convex quadratic relationship to TS. This indicates that the elastic modulus peaked
526 (119.5 MPa) at a torch speed of 0.6 m/min before decreasing to 108 MPa as TS was
527 lowered to 0.8 m/min. This resulted in an overall variation of 10% in elastic modulus at a
528 torch speed range of 0.6-0.9 m/min. For ε_f , the lowest ductility of 38.2% elongation was
529 at a torch speed of 0.72 m/min before increasing to 40.4% at 0.9 m/min, which is an
530 improvement of 5.6%. Characterizing the influence of TS on the dimensional accuracy of
531 the printed samples reveals a linear relationship as shown in Fig. 11e. This suggests that
532 the dimensional accuracy improved consistently as TS was increased leading to the most
533 accurate prints at the highest TS of 0.9 m/min. This means that parts with higher
534 dimensional accuracy are fabricated at higher TS values. This trend is consistent with the
535 performance of ε_f also offering improved ductility at high TS. Nevertheless, this
536 observation does not translate to the mechanical strength of the printed samples as high
537 torch speed leads to lower yield and ultimate strengths. The analysis shows that the
538 mechanical strength parameters at a torch speed of 0.7 m/min outperformed all other
539 parametric values for σ_{ult} and σ_y . This induces the investigation of interaction effects of
540 the process parameters which influence the mechanical performance as explained in
541 subsequent sections.

542 3.3.5. Interactions effects of the wire feed speed and torch speed

543 Although WFS and TS can be varied independently, the analysis so far confirms
544 that their interaction has the most significant effect on the material properties and the
545 accuracy of the printed samples. This is not surprising as these two WAAM process
546 parameters are directly related to informing the energy input during the printing process.

547 As such, studying the interaction effects between these two process parameters and
 548 identifying their order of influence is critical in evaluating their cumulative influence on
 549 the material properties. The interaction effects of WFS and TS on all the performance
 550 parameters of the printed 316LSi steel are shown in Fig. 12.



551
 552 **Fig. 12.** Influence of process parameters on WAAM 316LSi showing interaction effects between wire feed
 553 speed and torch speed on (a) σ_{ult} , (b) σ_y , (c) E , (d) ϵ_f , (e) D_a

554 Looking at the ultimate tensile strength of the printed steel as shown in Fig. 12a
 555 reveals the interdependence of process parameters with TS having a higher significance
 556 to WFS. The peak ultimate strength can be observed as a cumulative effect of TS and WFS
 557 being at 0.73 m/min and 5.6 m/min respectively. Overall, the most significant terms on
 558 σ_{ult} are the second-order and first-order effects of TS and WFS followed by their
 559 interaction effects in the order $TS^2 > TS > WFS > WFS.TS > WFS^2$. This means that
 560 if the goal is to achieve the highest ultimate tensile strength for the printed materials,

561 interaction effects between the torch speed and wire speed have to be considered in
562 identifying the optimum process parameters.

563 The yield strength of the printed material as shown in Fig. 12b reveal significant
564 interdependencies between WFS and TS. The highest yield strength of 311 MPa was
565 observed because of the cumulative effect of torch and wire feed speed of 0.75 m/min
566 and 10 m/min respectively. Overall, the most significant terms on σ_y are the first and
567 second-order effects of wire feed speed and torch speed followed by their interaction
568 effects in the order $WFS > TS^2 > WFS^2 > TS > WFS.TS$. As all terms of the model are
569 significant, optimizing WFS and TS is critical in achieving the desired yield strength when
570 WAAM processing 316LSi.

571 Fig. 12c shows the interaction effects of the WAAM process parameters on the
572 elastic modulus of the printed material. Although there exists an interaction between
573 both the process parameters, the data reveals WFS as having a higher influence in
574 dictating E in comparison to TS As such the most significant term is the second-order
575 effect of the wire speed in the order $WFS^2 > TS^2 > TS > WFS.TS > WFS$. This means
576 that if the target is to obtain a stiffer material with maximum elastic modulus a
577 combination of low TS and WFS around 0.6 m/min and 5 m/min respectively are
578 warranted.

579 Other than stiffness and strength, ductility is a critical parameter when it comes
580 to additively manufactured materials. As such the analysis of the interaction effects is
581 extended to characterizing the failure strain where a higher failure strain indicates an
582 improved ductility. Analyzing the data shown in Fig. 12d indicates that both WFS and TS

583 are significant when it comes to the failure strain of the material. It appears that the
584 fabricated material is more ductile when the torch speed and wire feed speed are around
585 the extremities. This means that good ductility can be achieved in WAAM printed 316LSi
586 when either both WFS and TS are either low or high. For the process parameter ranges
587 considered in this study, peak ε_f was observed at a combination of 5 m/min (WFS) and
588 0.87 m/min (TS). Overall, the most significant terms on ε_f are the second-order effects of
589 wire feed speed and torch speed followed by their first-order effects and the interaction
590 effects in the order $TS^2 > WFS^2 > TS > WFS > WFS.TS$. Consequently, optimising
591 the elongation of the WAAM 316LSi requires careful consideration of both TS and WFS.

592 Lastly, the influence of the process parameter interaction on the dimensional
593 accuracy is shown in Fig. 12e. The interaction effect is only significant at high WFS of
594 around 10 m/min. As such for much of the process parameter ranges considered in this
595 study, both WFS and TS seem to be influencing the parts independently in a linear fashion.
596 However, TS has a higher significance in dictating the dimensional accuracy of the parts
597 in comparison to WFS. Overall, the most significant terms on D_a are the first-order effects
598 of wire feed speed and torch speed followed by their interaction effects in the order
599 $WFS > TS > WFS.TS$. Therefore, to achieve high dimensional accuracy for WAAM
600 printed steel, interaction effects between the wire feed speed and the torch speed must
601 be considered although to a relatively lesser extent. Considering all the analyses, the
602 optimum values from the surrogate modelling for the mechanical properties of WAAM
603 printed steel are summarized in Table 8. This data shows the potential of using WAAM in
604 an industrial setting depending upon the dimensional accuracy and properties required.

605 **Table 8.** Synthesis of the optimum values from the surrogate model for the mechanical properties considered according
 606 to the range of tested WFS and TS.

Mechanical properties	Optimum value	Corresponding WFS (m/min)	Corresponding TS (m/min)
σ_{ult} (MPa)	606	5.6	0.73
σ_y (MPa)	311	10	0.75
E (GPa)	157	5.0	0.61
ϵ_f (%)	44	5.0	0.87
D_a (%)	99.6	5.0	0.6

607 **4. CONCLUSION**

608

609 The mechanical properties of WAAM processed metals are of significant interest

610 to the industrial community. Despite this, comprehensive models that can predict the

611 influence of relevant process parameters on the resulting properties of 316LSi steel are

612 yet to be reported. As such, the paper reveals the first surrogate model that can predict

613 the influence of wire and torch speed on both the mechanical properties and dimensional

614 accuracy of WAAM-processed 316LSi steel. The surrogate model was informed by

615 experimentally conceived training data that found an isotropic behavior of WAAM-

616 printed steel for thick parts (25 mm – 0.98 in). It was also found that carefully controlling

617 the wire and torch speed can lead to ultimate tensile strength (606 MPa), yield strength

618 (311 MPa) and failure strain (44%) that meets or exceeds the industry requirement for

619 316LSi steel. While the mean hardness (202 HV0.5) of the printed samples was consistent

620 with the literature, no variation according to print height was observed. When it comes

621 to the quality of the printed samples, a low wire feed speed of 5 m/min (39.4 in/min) was

622 found to print samples at an accuracy of 99.6% in comparison to the ideal CAD. The elastic

623 modulus of the printed samples was found to be in the range of 105-157 GPa depending

624 upon the parametric combination of wire and torch speeds used allowing stiffness

625 personalization. The surrogate model found that the ductility of the printed steel was
626 primarily influenced by wire feed speed and can offer up to 44% elongation. Although,
627 the study found significant interaction effects between different WAAM process
628 parameters for all mechanical properties. The torch speed (TS) was found to be more
629 significant in comparison to wire feed speed (WFS) for ultimate tensile strength (σ_{ult}) and
630 failure strain (ε_f). On the contrary, the yield strength (σ_y), elastic modulus (E) and
631 dimensional accuracy (D_a) were found to be primarily driven by wire feed speed as
632 opposed to torch speed. The proposed surrogate model drastically reduces the pre-
633 processing requirements of WAAM-printed 316LSi steel and allows the manufacturer to
634 control the process to obtain targeted mechanical properties.

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636
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641 **AUTHORS CONTRIBUTION**

642 The study's conception and design were a collaborative effort by all authors. Laurent
643 Terrenoir, Julie Lartigau, and Arun Arjunan conducted the material preparation, data
644 collection, and analysis. Laurent Terrenoir initially drafted the manuscript, which was
645 subsequently reviewed and edited by all authors. The final manuscript was read and
646 approved by all authors.

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650 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

651 The authors state that they do not have any conflicts of interest.

652 **CONSENTS FOR PUBLICATION**

653 All authors have reviewed and approved the manuscript.

654

655 **NOMENCLATURE**

656

AM	Additive manufacturing
CAD	Computer aided design
E	Elastic modulus
HV0.5	Vickers hardness measured at 500gf
WAAM	Wire arc additive manufacturing
D_a	Dimensional accuracy as defined in Eq. (4)
$D_{a(max)}$	Maximum dimensional accuracy refers to the maximum cloud to cloud distance measured for a specific part
$D_{a(mean)}$	Mean dimensional accuracy refers to the mean cloud to cloud distance measured for all points of each part
e_i	Calculated energy input or heat input of WAAM process
WFS	Wire feed speed
TS	Torch speed
ε_f	Failure strain
σ_{ult}	Ultimate tensile strength
σ_y	Yield strength
316LSi	Stainless steel 316L

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658

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Figure Captions List

- Fig. 1 Wire arc additive manufacturing facility showing (a) the fabrication setup used and (b) the build orientation for sample extraction
- Fig. 2 Schematic representation of the difference between the surfaces of the printed part (in black) and the targeted geometry (in blue)
- Fig. 3 Mechanical testing of the WAAM samples showing the non-slipping platens and the placement of the fine-strain extensometer mounted to the test specimen
- Fig. 4 Images of the additively produced components, fabricated using randomized combinations of process parameters (where W_{fs} represents the wire feed speed, and T_s represents the torch speed) that were later employed to train the surrogate model, as specified in Table 1
- Fig. 5 Points cloud comparison between ideal geometry and additively manufactured 316LSi featuring the process parameters detailed in Table 1
- Fig. 6 Dimensional accuracy of the printed samples in comparison to ideal geometry as a function of heat input showing (a) the mean and (b) the maximum cloud-to-cloud distance between the manufactured 316LSi samples and the ideal geometry
- Fig. 7 Stress-strain curves of WAAM parts sorted by energy input and direction of the tensile specimen showing (a) vertical samples and (b) horizontal samples

- Fig. 8 Vickers hardness measurements at 500 gf for 15 s on wire arc additively manufactured 316LSi samples showing the influence of (a) W_{fs} and T_s and (b) heat input
- Fig. 9 The precision of the surrogate model is exhibited through a comparison of the forecasted and experimentally measured values for the parametrically produced 316LSi parts for (a) σ_{ult} , (b) σ_y , (c) E , (d) ε_f , (e) D_a
- Fig. 10 Influence of wire feed speed on (a) σ_{ult} , (b) σ_y , (c) E , (d) ε_f , (e) D_a with experimental points
- Fig. 11 Influence of torch speed on (a) σ_{ult} , (b) σ_y , (c) E , (d) ε_f , (e) D_a with experimental points
- Fig. 12 Influence of process parameters on WAAM 316LSi showing interaction effects between wire feed speed and torch speed on (a) σ_{ult} , (b) σ_y , (c) E , (d) ε_f , (e) D_a

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871**Table Caption List**

Table 1	Nominal first-order process parameters WFS and TS and the related nominal second-order process parameters
Table 2	Measured WFS and specific second-order process parameters.
Table 3	Synthesis of deposit and WAAM second-order process parameters used
Table 4	Shape, size and number (n) of extracted specimens from WAAM 316LSi samples for mechanical testing
Table 5	Comparison of mechanical characteristics of 316LSi stainless steel material manufactured from different techniques
Table 6	The surrogate model training matrix indicates the randomized parameters and the corresponding measured responses. WFS represents the wire feed speed, and TS is the torch speed. The responses measured include σ_{ult} (ultimate tensile strength), σ_s (yield strength), E (elastic modulus), ε_f (fracture strain), HV0.5 (Vickers hardness), and D_a (dimensional accuracy).
Table 7	The statistical technique called analysis of variance demonstrating the precision of the surrogate model
Table 8	Synthesis of the optimum values from the surrogate model for the mechanical properties considered according to the range of tested WFS and TS

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