Reducing the Transient Effects in Laser Cutting via Model-Based Optimization As Applied to Cornering Cuts

> Paul Di Pietro Di Pietro and Sons Engineering Fairy Meadow, NSW, Australia

Y. Lawrence Yao Columbia University, New York, NY

#### ABSTRACT

Quality improvements in laser cutting of mild steel have been achieved by a newly developed model-based optimization strategy. The specific aims of such efforts are to assure quality of cut when cornering. Associated with cornering is the elevation of workpiece temperature in the vicinity of the cut. This is because of the increased beam exposure time due to reduced cutting speeds associated there. Corner melt-off is therefore common.

In order to focus on the development of such optimization, constant thermo-physical properties and twodimensional transient heat conduction are simply assumed. The model is therefore valid for the thin plate laser cutting case, where temperatures are approximately homogeneous with workpiece depth. Non-linear power adaption profiles are generated via the optimization strategy in order to stabilize cutting front temperatures. Uniform temperatures produce better quality by reducing i) kerf widening effects, ii) heat-affected zone extents, and iii) workpiece self-burning effects. Currently, extensive trial-and-error based experimentation is needed in order to improve quality for these routines. Thus model-based optimization has the added benefit of reducing this time-exhaustive step whilst leading to an optimal solution. Experimental results are presented, and it is demonstrated that such process manipulation can produce significant quality improvements.

# NOMENCLATURE

b	subscript denoting boundary point
c <sub>v</sub>	heat capacity
d	duct diameter
h <sub>c</sub>	mixed convective heat transfer coefficient
h <sub>f</sub>	forced convective heat transfer coefficient
hn	natural convective heat transfer coefficient
h <sub>r</sub>	radiative heat transfer coefficient
K	thermal conductivity
n	outward normal co-ordinate
Nud	Nusselt number
Pinc	incident beam power

P <sub>melt</sub>	melting power
Ptrans	transmitted power
Pr	Prandtl number
ģ	heat generation
$\hat{r}$ - $\hat{r}$	radial distance from beam centre
Red	Reynolds number
Τ	temperature
t	time
х, у, г	co-ordinate axes
8	emissivity
$\sigma_b$	Stefan-Boltzmann constant
ρ	density
$\mu_m$	mixed-mean coefficient of viscosity
$\mu_{w}$	wall coefficient of viscosity

# **INTRODUCTION**

Today, laser cutting of highly complex and intricate workpieces is a reality. Of concern though, is the effect of part geometry on the quality achievable. Such part programs typically contain many pre-cut sections and boundaries, and because of the obvious size of such workpieces, heat accumulation is often severe. This can result in poor cutting quality in the form of widespread burning, increased dross, increased surface roughness, increased heat-affected zone, and kerf widening being common amongst other problems. The appearance of even one of these abnormalities can render the complete job useless.

In cases where heat fluxes are strong enough to melt the material as in laser cutting, the problem becomes complex due to the moving solid-liquid interface. Efficient cutting occurs when the beam rides ahead on the unmolten material and therefore little energy falls through the generated cut. When the cutting front speed increases due to heat accumulation, or when cutting at slow processing speeds, the beam tends to lag behind the front. As a result, much more laser beam energy passes through the cut with little or no heating effect. Such characteristics of the process alter the amount of energy input into the interaction zone, and therefore cutting front temperatures are expected to change. Con-

<sup>1</sup> Currently with Di Pietro & Sons Engineering, Fairy Meadow, NSW, Australia.

sequently, such temperature deviations are attributable to the generation of inconsistent cut quality.

There have been many models developed over the years to describe the laser cutting process. A comprehensive review of these is given elsewhere by the authors Di Pietro and Yao (1994). In particular, Gonsalves and Duley (1972) first accounted for the fact that only part of the incident beam power is available for laser cutting sheet metals. This fraction was determined using a moving point source model. The model was used to determine the interrelationship between cutting speed, cut width and power required for efficient laser cutting. Powell (1993) devised cutting experiments to investigate the transmission and reflection losses occurring in the cutting process based on previous work done by Miyamoto et al. (1984, 1986). It was shown that the amount of reflected/transmitted light reduced as sample thickness was increased. Schreiner-Mohr et al. (1991) also conducted experimental work which showed that at maximum cutting speeds, the beam center can precede the front location. At slow cutting speeds the beam center was shown to lag behind the cutting front. A finite difference model for laser cutting thin metallic glasses was also conducted (Glass et al., 1989). It accounted for proper material removal by including the energy lost through the kerf by removing those nodes above the melting temperature. A mono-dimensional finite difference model was proposed by Yuan et al. (1988) which suggested that the cutting front could possess mobility when cutting at constant processing speeds. Arata et al. (1979) showed through high speed photography that the cutting front was indeed dynamic in nature, and the formation of striations on the kerf walls could be explained well by the relative movement between the front and the laser beam.

Previous attempts at characterizing the process have often assumed infinite workpiece length or they have prescribed fixed boundary temperatures. But in laser cutting of intricate parts, this assumption leads to low heat accumulation estimates. Such simplifications allow the general heat conduction equation to revert to the case of steady multidimensional conduction. A transient model was therefore developed to account for workpiece geometry and the presence of a kerf is considered, with nodal points within it becoming part of the convective environment. Thin plate laser cutting is considered, so that the model can assume the twodimensional heat conduction form in order to reduce the complexity of the optimization tasks. Inherent problems associated with a moving cutting front and temporal variations of the energy input per unit time are resolved. These issues require a numerical approach, which would otherwise be impossible to address analytically.

#### BACKGROUND

Simple observation of laser-cut corners show that in most cases, corner tip melt-off is common. This is due to the increased time the laser beam is in this area due to the deceleration of one axis, and then acceleration of the other to perform the desired task with adequate positional control. Many systems now allow the adaption of laser power when cornering to compensate for the reduced cutting speeds associated there (VanderWert, 1985, Steen and Li, 1988, and Powell, 1993). This was possible through advances made in controller design. Such adaption ensures that the rate of energy input into the interaction zone and the rate of melt ejection from the kerf is kept somewhat balanced. This technique can be used either under continuous wave (CW) or pulsed mode operation.

The determination of this power-feed ratio currently relies on extensive experimentation. One method of achieving this control feature is by varying the pulse frequency and/or pulse length proportionally to the feedrate (Schuocker and Steen, 1986, Borgstrom, 1988, and Schwarzenbach and Hunziker, 1988). Such duty cycle modulation produces very accurate control of the laser output by altering the percentage of beam 'on-time' to suit the feedrate.

If the system can respond quickly to power commands from the controller, then the input current to the laser can be manipulated for an effective power-feed strategy. Another approach is termed channel switching (Hertzel, 1987), whereby various power levels can be accessed via control functions in the part program generated. Multi-channel capabilities are therefore required so that each channel can be preset with a different power level. It is suggested that the controller needs to be able to effectively switch channels without significant delay in order to assure that no irregularities appear on the cut edge.

## **MODEL-BASED OPTIMIZATION**

A complete description of the mathematical formulation has been presented elsewhere by the authors, Di Pietro and Yao (1995a). Additionally, model-based optimization for laser cutting when encroaching upon a boundary has been studied previously in order to assure cut quality right up to pre-cut sections (Di Pietro et al., 1995b). Results showed that process manipulation can lead to significant quality improvements. The work is therefore extended to examine the geometric case of cornering. A brief summary is given below. A transient model is assumed:

$$\frac{K}{\rho c_{v}} \left(\frac{\partial^{2} T}{\partial^{2} x} + \frac{\partial^{2} T}{\partial^{2} y}\right) + \frac{\partial T}{\rho c_{v} \partial z} \left(h_{f} + h_{n} + 2h_{r}\right) + \frac{\dot{q}}{\rho c_{v}} = \frac{\partial T}{\partial t}$$
(1)

where  $h_f = N u_d K / d$  (2)

$$Nu_d = 0.027 \ Re_d^{0.8} \ Pr^{0.33} \ (\mu_m / \mu_w)^{0.14} \tag{3}$$

$$h_{r} = \varepsilon \sigma_{b} (T_{b} + T_{\infty}) (T_{b}^{2} + T_{\infty}^{2})$$
(4)

$$h_{c} = -h_{r} - K_{b} \frac{\partial T}{\partial n} |_{b} / (T_{b} - T_{\infty})$$
(5)

and other assumptions are stated in Di Pietro & Yao (1995a).

The Japanese corporation Mitsubishi (Moriyasu et al., 1986), and other research groups realized early on that adaptive control of laser parameters was a real possibility with conventional CNC (computer numeric control) systems. By adapting parameters such as laser power levels, switching between continuous wave (CW) and pulsed mode, and effecting cutting speed changes, vast quality improvements were obtainable. Such techniques are trial-and-error based, and therefore are time consuming, whereby the optimal set of parameters may still not be reached. It was recognized by Biermann and Geiger (1991) that simulation of the laser process under the effects of the motion system can lead to improved results for laser processing.

An optimization strategy is therefore proposed in which it forces the cutting front temperature to remain uniform, even when laser cutting conditions are unsteady. The problem of minimizing the deviation from steady state results in a non-linear power profile, as the inter-relationships between laser parameters are complicated by the mobility exhibited by the cutting front. Uniform cutting front temperatures affect quality in various ways. They produce better quality by reducing i) kerf widening effects, ii) heat-affected zones, and iii) wide spread self-burning. At the very least, uniform cutting front temperatures reduce the variability in progressive cut quality.

The strategy developed is iterative by nature. The model proceeds forward in time by the accumulation of the timestep  $\Delta t$  of integration. By monitoring the status of the front temperature at every instance, a steady state value can be established.

$$|T_{f}^{j+1} - T_{f}^{j}| < \Delta T \tag{6}$$

The cutting front temperature can be disturbed subsequently by a speed change of the motion system or a change in the workpiece heat accumulation (due to the workpiece geometry and the presence of the kerf and other boundaries which frustrate heat conduction). As the change in temperature exceeds the previously set limit  $\Delta T$ , a course of action is required in the form of a power rise or reduction of size  $\Delta P_{inc}$ .

$$\Delta P_{inc} = |T_{i}^{j+1} - T_{i}^{j}| \times k \tag{7}$$

The size of this power increment is based on two pieces of information forwarded to the optimization module. In order to return the system to its controlled state, the power change to be effected is directly proportional to the temperature deviation observed. For example, a large temperature difference results in a large power control action. This is achieved by the proportionality constant k, which effects the convergence rate of solution. Of course, if the constant is too large, then the temperature cannot be stabilized within the  $\Delta T$  control limit.

Logically if the cutting front temperature rises, then a power reduction is needed to return the temperature to its previous level. By analogy, a temperature fall requires an increase in power. This conditional test is expressed as follows:

Condition: {if 
$$(T_f^{j+1} > T_f^{j})$$
}:  $\Delta P^j = \Delta P^j - \Delta P_{inc}$   
{if  $(T_f^{j+1} < T_f^{j})$ }:  $\Delta P^j = \Delta P^j + \Delta P_{inc}$  (8)

From which, an updated cutting front temperature is determined. If it falls within the set allowable temperature tolerance, the model then proceeds forward to the next user-specified beam position whereby the procedure repeats.

After material is expelled from the kerf, conduction cannot occur across this region as these points are now part of the convective environment. The model accounts for this by removing all nodes above melting point which fall within the extent of the assist gas stream.

On most occasions, it is necessary to initiate a keyhole in the work material prior to cutting. This issue is considered so that a realistic cutting process is simulated. Molten material can only be ejected upwards in all directions until complete penetration. The model can be used to obtain minimum penetration times required to create such initiation holes, but to obtain more accurate penetration times, it is necessary to consider the formation of surface plasma (Yilbas et al., 1990). Once a kerf is formed, the effect of these plasma's are reduced somewhat due to the ability of the gas jet to remove them more effectively. Surface plasma's are neglected in this model as the main emphasis is to simulate the cutting process as opposed to the drilling one.

#### EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

## Experimental Setup

The experiments were performed on a fast axial flow 1.5 kW CO<sub>2</sub> laser (PRC model FH 1501). The beam mode is essentially TEM<sub>00</sub>, with all experiments performed under continuous wave (CW) operation. The laser beam was focused down to 250  $\mu$ m through a 5" ZnSe high pressure meniscus lens. The throat diameter of the nozzle used was 1 mm, and a nozzle-standoff distance of 1 mm was maintained. Oxygen assist gas pressures were kept constant at 2.7 bar throughout the experiments, and cutting was performed on bright, cold-rolled mild steel sheet (AS 1595) of 1 mm thickness.

## Verifying Beam Power Levels and Control

In order to perform the experiments, actual power levels needed to be established for accurate model validation. A Macken P - 2000C power probe was subsequently used for this task. It is a calorimeter-type power meter, which measures unfocussed laser power using a timed exposure and relies on knowing the mass of material it heats up. Stable discharge currents were observed for all of the eight resonator discharges. Current control is via a 12 bit digital word which allows accurate manipulation through part programs generated.

To achieve actual quality improvements through the model-based power optimization strategy, it is necessary to have current or power control of the laser which can respond fast enough to closely approximate the theoretical, desired profiles. Tests were therefore performed to check the performance of the laser under rapidly changing commands.

Fig. 1 shows the response of a resonator discharge to a step input. A power change from zero to 1 kW was commanded via the controller. The signal was obtained from a BNC bulkhead receptacle located on the discharge current meter (mA). The output approximates a step response of a first-order system, and thus the time constant of the system can be evaluated. It was found that the response reached 63.2% of its total change in as little as 1.3 ms. After two time constants, the response had all but reached its final value. Thus the laser control facility was adequate to perform the optimization power strategies to be implemented.



Fig. 1 Response curve of the discharge current subjected to a large step input from zero beam power to 1 kW

## **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

#### Workpiece Temperature Distributions

In order to validate workpiece temperature distributions calculated to those determined experimentally, type K, chromel-alumel thermocouples were used. An overall diameter of 0.5 mm was chosen because thicker diameter thermocouples result in slower response times. The thermocouples were imbedded 1.5 mm out from the generated corner point along the centerline of the workpiece (see Fig. 2). Such positions were chosen to avoid high temperature gradients closer to the line of cut and as such, allows the thermocouples to respond adequately. In addition, validation becomes difficult at very close positions to the line of cut because small shifts in thermocouple location result in large variations. This is due to the large temperature gradients experienced around the interaction zone. The thermocouple positions were accurately checked using a microscope and data collection was triggered via an electrical relay in the controller which actuates the beam shutter mechanism.



Fig. 2 Workpiece dimensions and thermocouple location when corner cutting

Often when computer processing of thermocouple data is needed, various n-th order polynomials are fitted to data. For precise analysis of the results, the thermocouples need to be calibrated directly against a known temperature source. In our case we employed the use of an accurate industrial oven to provide the heating source. The oven was set to reach 1000  $^{\circ}$ C over a period of one hour (NABER kiln with a microprocessor based temperature program controller - Model PS - 962C). The signal output was measured every 10  $^{\circ}$ C, with consistent, repeatable values only achievable up

to an oven temperature of about 870 °C. After which, random voltage fluctuations were significant. Although the thermocouples can withstand such temperatures, the voltage output from the amplifier was somewhat limited. A reasonably linear relationship was observed between temperature and signal output, but actual data was used for signal analysis instead of a curve-fitting algorithm.

Fig. 3 shows typical results obtained from model execution as compared to experimentally determined thermocouple values for laser corner cutting. Various cutting conditions are examined. It is clear from the plots that severe transience is common. Such high temperature yields about the corner point result in tip melt-off which degrades the overall quality of the finished product. Thermocouple detachment from the workpiece did occur because of the significant bulk heating experienced at this location. This explains why the temperature plots are incomplete for the very final stage of cutting. Nevertheless, numerical temperature histories are favorably compared. In all cases temperatures continually rise, even though the laser beam actually moves away from the thermocouple location after the corner point has been reached. This is because of the large heat accumulation present in the workpieces.



Fig. 3 Typical cornering temperature measurements (obtained by thermocouples) as compared to simulation results

Fig. 4 shows typical progressive temperature contours determined from the numerical model when cornering. It is clear that heat diffusion in the workpiece is frustrated by the directional change of the kerf and results in a more complex isothermal description. Because of the higher temperatures experienced in the vicinity of the corner point when generating male corners, they are much more susceptible to tip melt-off when compared to their female counterparts. This feature is generally true under all laser corner cutting conditions.

#### **Transient Effects**

Fig. 5 shows typical simulation results when a corner is part-programmed. It is clear that the transmitted power increases to the corners because of the deceleration of one axis to zero. After the corners, greater beam coupling results because of the acceleration of the other axis to reach the target speed of 30 mm/s. Also note the dynamics of the cutting front, where there is an apparent speed lag behind the processing velocity. The net affect of these two contributions are shown by the complex temperature profiles generated. The contour change involved in processing such routines (viz., the positional relationship of existing boundaries to the kerf's altered directional path), impacts on the transmitted power, front velocity and temperature in that they do not stabilize to their pre-corner, steady-state values but to other levels.



Fig. 4 Progressive numerical temperature contour plots at a) 3.075 s, and b) 4.125 s (laser power: 800 W, cutting speed: 10 mm/s)

#### **Industry Practice for Quality Improvements**

- ĝ.

As mentioned above, many industrial laser cutting systems have facilities to adapt laser power to suit the actual cutting speed achievable around corners. If the processing speed falls, the controller attempts to reduce the laser beam power linearly in order to maintain the rate of energy input to some degree of uniformity.

This strategy was incorporated into the numerical model to ascertain its affect on transmitted power, cutting front mobility and temperature. From the results, it is clear that such linear adaptive control schemes produce complex effects on the cutting front. No linear power manipulation can bring about an optimized cutting front temperature when cornering. Accelerations imposed on the process significantly effect the mobility of the cutting front, and hence beam coupling levels are altered in a non-linear fashion.

#### Model-based Power Manipulation

The above strategy outlined for assuring quality around corners intuitively makes sense. That is, control the

rate of heat input into the cutting zone to achieve a more stable process. The simple fact that operators usually repeat many trial-and-error experiments in order to account for discrepancies in the above strategy, clearly supports the fact then that there is not a one-to-one correlation of laser power to cutting speed.



Fig. 5 The effect of cornering on transmitted power, front mobility, and cutting front temperature (cutting speed: 30 mm/s

The model-based power optimization strategy is therefore appropriate for cornering (as well as for many other geometric routines). It can force cutting front temperatures to remain uniform right around completely generated corners. It is expected that controlled temperature levels about the corner tip will reduce melt-off considerably. Fig. 6 shows power profiles determined by the scheme for various cutting conditions.

The optimization strategy was physically implemented when cornering. Typical results show that corner melt-off is significantly reduced by adapting laser power in a non-linear fashion as determined by the optimization module. So much so, that minimal kerf widening can be discerned even when viewed under high magnification.

It must be stressed that although industry practices may produce similar results by using linear power-feed assumptions, they require iterative, time consuming trial-anderror experimentation whereby fine parameter tuning can at best lead to a reasonable approximation. In contrast, model-



based optimization leads directly to an optimal solution from a single-step model execution.

Fig. 6 Laser beam power profiles required for temperature stabilization when cornering (initial laser power: 600 W)

## CONCLUDING REMARKS

Results show that by appropriate parameter control, corner melt-off can be greatly reduced. Such a model-based optimization strategy stabilizes cutting front temperatures right around corners, where ordinarily tip temperatures rise markedly due to the accelerations imposed on the process. Visual examination of the laser cuts show that kerf widening is almost completely eliminated. This strongly suggests that the energy balance at the interaction zone is kept at an equilibrium. Apart from significant quality improvements possible through this strategy, model-based optimization eliminates current industry practice trial-and-error experimentation and leads directly to an optimal solution.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors gratefully acknowledge the support given by the Australian Research Council under the grant A89330407.

#### REFERENCES

Arata, Y., et al., (1979), "Dynamic behavior in laser gas cutting of mild steel", *Trans. JWRI* 8 (2), 15-26.

- Biermann, S., and Geiger, M., (1991), "Integration of diagnostics in high power laser systems for optimization of laser material processing", *Modeling and Simulation of La*ser Systems II, SPIE 1415, 330-341.
- Borgstrom, R.N., (1988), "Tool center point speed of industrial robots and cutting machines for adaptive control of laser power", *Laser Materials Processing*, Proc. of ICALEO, California, USA, 130-139.
- Di Pietro, P., and Yao, Y.L., (1994), "An investigation into characterizing and optimizing laser cutting quality - a review", Int. J. Mach. Tools Manufact. 34 (2), 225-243.
- Di Pietro, P., and Yao, Y.L., (1995a), "A numerical investigation into cutting front mobility in CO<sub>2</sub> laser cutting", *Int. J. Mach. Tools Manufact.*, 35 (5), 673-688.
- Di Pietro et al., (1995b), "Model-based quality optimization for laser cutting under transient conditions", *Manufacturing Science and Engineering*, ASME IMECE (WAM), San Francisco, USA, 12-17 Nov., MED-Vol.2-1, 29-53.
- Glass, J.M., et al., (1989), "Heat transfer in metallic glasses during laser cutting", *Heat Transfer in Manufacturing and Materials Processing*, Trans. ASME, HTD-113, 31-38.
- Gonsalves J.N., and Duley, W.W., (1972), "Cutting thin metal sheets with the CW CO<sub>2</sub> laser", J. Appl. Phys. 43 (11), 4684-4687.
- Hertzel, G.T., (1987), "Precision CO<sub>2</sub> laser cutting of small parts", *Lasers in Motion for Industrial Applications*, SPIE 744, California, USA, 96-100.
- Miyamoto, I., et al., (1984), "Intensity profile measurements of focused CO<sub>2</sub> laser beam using PMMA", *Proc. of ICALEO*, LIA 44, 313-320.
- Miyamoto, I., et al., (1986), "Beam absorption mechanism in laser welding", Laser Processing: Fundamentals, Applications, and Systems Engineering, SPIE 668, 11-18.
- Powell, J., (1993), CO<sub>2</sub> Laser Cutting. Springer, London, pp. 218-222.
- Schreiner-Mohr, U., Dausinger, F., and Hugel, H., (1991), "New aspects of cutting with CO<sub>2</sub> lasers", *Proc. of ICALEO*, SPIE **1722**, 263-272.
- Schuocker, D., and Steen, W., (1986), "Advanced concepts in laser material processing in Europe", *Manufacturing Applications of Lasers*, SPIE 621, 17-22.
- Schwarzenbach, A.P., and Hunziker, U.W., (1988), "Recent progress in laser-cutting", *Laser Materials Processing*, Proc. of ICALEO, California, USA, 303-312.
- Steen, W.M., and Li, L., (1988), "Some viewpoints on laser automation and processing quality control", *Laser Tech*nologies in Industry, SPIE 952, 544-551.
- VanderWert, T.L., (1985), "Systems considerations for multiaxis CO<sub>2</sub> laser material processing", *Laser Welding, Machining and Materials Processing*, Proc. of ICALEO, San Francisco, USA, 101-106.
- Yilbas, B.S., et al., (1990), "Study into the measurement and prediction of penetration time during CO<sub>2</sub> laser cutting process", J. Engng Manufact., Part B, 204, 105-113.
- Yuan, S.F., et al., (1988), "Thermical modelisation of laser cutting process", *Laser Technologies in Industry*, SPIE 952, 583-591.