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Journal of Materials Research and Technology  
journal homepage: [www.elsevier.com/locate/jmrt](http://www.elsevier.com/locate/jmrt)



# Construction and parameter optimization of LPBF-NiTi alloy bionic superhydrophobic surface based on laser processing

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## ARTICLE INFO

### Article history:

Received 24 March 2023

Accepted 17 May 2023

Available online 22 May 2023

### Keywords:

LPBF-NiTi alloy

Nanolaser processing

Orthogonal experiment

Superhydrophobic

Corrosion resistance

## ABSTRACT

Nickel-titanium (NiTi) is the most ordinarily used shape memory alloy (SMAs), which has important implications in aerospace, medical devices and so on. However, NiTi parts were limited in their application scope and ability due to the difficulty of processing. Until the appearance of laser powder bed fusion (LPBF) technology, it overcame NiTi alloy preparation's multiple challenges and became the preferred method to fabricate NiTi alloy. Nevertheless, the NiTi parts fabricated by LPBF that have a great shortage still exist in corrosion resistance. Therefore, in this paper, a series of micro-nano structures with different characteristics were constructed in LPBF-NiTi by orthogonal experiment for the first time, which wants to explore the degree of influence of various parameters on the wettability of samples. After variance analysis, the nanolaser processing parameters which are most suitable for constructing lotus leaf structures on NiTi alloy surfaces are obtained. The surface morphology and composition were studied by SEM, XRD, EDS, and XPS, respectively. Finally, the corrosion resistance of samples was tested by electrochemical analysis. The results show that the laser power during processing has the greatest influence on the surface morphology of LPBF-NiTi alloy. And the wettability is affected by surface morphology and -CF/-CF<sub>2</sub> adsorption. Furthermore, we compared the corrosion resistance of the superhydrophobic samples which was obtained based on the variance analysis with that of the substrate in 3.5 wt% NaCl solution. The result shows that the corrosion resistance and corrosion stability of superhydrophobic samples are brilliantly increased compared with the substrate.

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<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmrt.2023.05.162>

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## 1. Introduction

Laser powder bed fusion of NiTi (LPBF-NiTi) has excellent features, including direct moulding of complex parts and low impurity levels (e.g., oxygen, carbon) [1], which aroused wide interest in aerospace and medical devices [2]. However, LPBF-NiTi alloy is limited in its application in engineering fields due to its insufficient corrosion resistance [3,4]. Recently, fabricating superhydrophobic structure on the metallic surface has initiated extensive research interest because the air layer on the superhydrophobic surface can adequately inhibit the direct contact between the metal substrate and the corrosive interface, reducing the corrosion rate and achieving the role of corrosion protection accordingly [5–11].

Almost all ways for preparing the superhydrophobic surfaces of metals are based on two procedures. Firstly, fabricate the micro-nano structure on the substrate surface and then modify it for low free energy surface by fluorination treatment [12–15] or heating treatment [16,17]. Last few years, many mature methods, such as laser ablation, anodizing, chemical conversion [18], electroplating [19], or chemical plating [20], have been applied to the prepared micro-nano structure on metals surface. However, some methods are not suitable for LPBF-NiTi alloy due to which has disadvantages such as long preparation periods, high costs and poor reproducibility. Nanolaser processing is a reliable and accurate method of laser ablation. Therefore, the method has become a promising choice for the generation of micro-/nano-structure at the metal surface [21–23].

In the past two decades, the effect of nanolaser processing on the surface superhydrophobic or corrosion resistance of metallic materials has been widely studied. Ta et al. [24] prepared surfaces on 304S15 stainless steel by nanolaser processing with different wettability and proved that the laser power was positively correlated with the contact angles (CAs) due to the increase in roughness of the samples by the increase of laser power. Ludmila et al. [25] reported the superhydrophobic surfaces fabricated with nanolaser processing on the AMG aluminium-magnesium alloy. And it was found that the increase in scanning times (less than ten times) had an auxo-action on the enhancement of corrosion resistance about the AMG aluminium-magnesium alloy. Chen et al. [26] considered the scanning speed was negatively correlated with the CAs, while the sliding angle (SA) was positively correlated. And they believed that the larger the CAs, the higher the corrosion resistance. All these results showed that the superhydrophobicity and corrosion resistance of metals could be affected directly through nanolaser processing parameters, we can further improve the wettability and corrosion resistance of metal surfaces by optimizing the processing parameters. However, so far, to our knowledge, existing studies have been conducted with variations of a single parameter, while the relationship between the simultaneous change of multiple parameters and the metal surface superhydrophobicity has been no reported. Therefore, it is necessary to systematically evaluate the influence of different processing parameters on sample wettability during laser processing.

In this paper, nanolaser processing was used to prepare four typical micro-nano structure on LPBF-NiTi alloy surfaces,

and some samples with a superhydrophobic surface was obtained after ultrasonic fluorination. We used the design of orthogonal experiments for the first time and the variance analysis to systematically evaluate the level of influence of all the parameters on the surface wettability of processed samples in the process of laser processing. In addition, the mechanism of sample wettability transformation was studied and through electrochemical experiments evaluated systematically the corrosion resistance of the sample which was prepared from optimized parameters in 3.5 wt% NaCl solution.

## 2. Methods

### 2.1. Materials

In this experiment, pre-alloyed NiTi powder (55.8 wt% Ni) with a particle size range of 15–45  $\mu\text{m}$ , was established by electrode induction melting gas atomization (EIGA, Shenzhen Minatech Co Ltd, China). Samples (10 mm  $\times$  10 mm  $\times$  5 mm) were prepared by selective laser melting (SLM) equipment (BLT S210, China) with the best parameters from previous studies [27]. The sample was sanded to 2000# with sandpaper before processing and then polished with alumina powder to obtain a mirror-finish surface without scratches.

### 2.2. Sample fabrication

The surface of the polished sample was processed by a nanolaser system (AVIA 355-14) production of the United States to prepare a rough surface. The system wavelength was 354.7 nm, the pulse frequency was 40 ns, and the  $1/e^2$  laser diameter was 3.5 mm. Table 1 presents the machining parameters designed in the orthogonal experiments, which used different nanolaser power (P, 8–12 W), nanolaser scanning interval (H, 30–50  $\mu\text{m}$ ), nanolaser scanning speed (V, 300–700 mm/s) and number of scans (N, 1–5 frequency). The meticulous processing strategy is illustrated in Fig. 1. Table 2 provide the table of the orthogonal experimental for the L9 (34) orthogonal array with 4-column, 9-row.

### 2.3. Characterization and measurement of samples

The surface of samples was observed by scanning electron microscope (SEM, ZEISS EV018, Germany) before and after fluoridation treatment, and the elemental ingredients of the samples were research analyzed by an energy dispersive spectrometer (EDS, Oxford, UK).

Three-dimensional morphology of processed samples by nanolaser was obtained via white light interference. The CA of the sample was analyzed by the contact angle measuring

**Table 1 – Experimental levels of machining parameters.**

Symbol	Control parameters	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
P	Laser power (W)	8	10	12
V	Scan Speed (mm/s)	300	500	700
H	Scan interval ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	30	40	50
N	Number of scans (Fre)	1	3	5

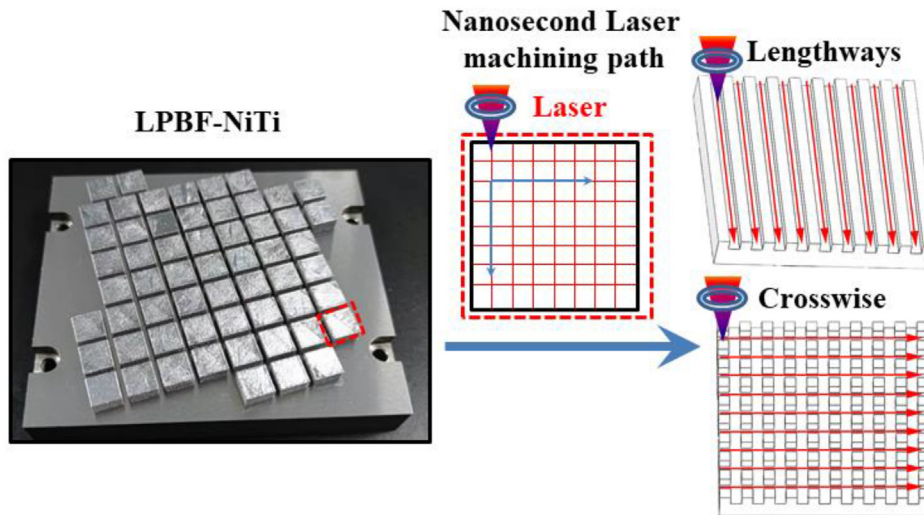


Fig. 1 – Schematic diagram of nanolaser processing path.

instrument (SINDIN SDC-350, China), and the final result was obtained by averaging the testing values of 3 repeated measurements (The size of a single droplet is three  $\mu\text{L}$ ). The chemical bonding components of the samples were analyzed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, Thermo ESCA-LAB250, US), and the surface phase composition was examined by X-ray diffractometer (XRD, SHIMADZU XRD-7000, Japan).

The corrosion behaviour of different samples was tested via the electrochemical workstation in 3.5 wt% NaCl solution ( $25\text{ }^\circ\text{C} \pm 0.5\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ). The three-electrode system was utilized for corrosion tests, in which the samples with a test area of  $1\text{ cm}^2$  as a working electrode, a block of flaky platinum served as the counter electrode, and a saturated calomel electrode was used as the reference electrode. EIS tests were acquired at open-circuit potential (OCP) for 10 mV disturbing potentials with a frequency range of 0.01 Hz–100 kHz. The polarization curve studies were carried out on a sweep rate of 0.001 V/s and potentials of  $-1\text{V}$ – $1\text{V}$  vs SCE. Corrosion potential ( $E_{\text{corr}}$ ) and

corrosion current density ( $i_{\text{corr}}$ ) were obtained by Tafel extrapolation.

The immersion tests were implemented in 3.5 wt% NaCl solution ( $25 \pm 0.5\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ). During the test, the change in corrosion properties of the samples was detected via EIS measurements.

### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Surface microstructure characterization

The microstructure of samples in the orthogonal experiment is illustrated in Fig. S1. In general, the samples after laser processing presented four typical characteristics, as shown in Fig. 2. Nanosecond laser cannot effectively ablate the surface of these samples (Samples 1, 2, 3 and 5) when the laser power is insufficient, but only a small protrusion will be made on the surface of the sample (Fig. 2a). When the nanolaser scanning frequency was insufficient, the mastoid structure of sufficient height (Fig. 2b) cannot be formed on the samples (Sample 6 and 9) surface even if the laser power was sufficient. The surface of samples (Sample 4 and 7) would appear neat and beautiful mastoid structures (Fig. 2c) when the laser power was sufficient to ablate the sample surface and is compatible with the scanning frequency, speed and spacing. Due to the laser in the processing of the substrate, the laser spot inside and outside the energy produced was very different, so the laser irradiation melted material would splash outward, these materials after cooling accumulate in the periphery, with the increase of scanning times gradually form the mastoid structure. On the contrary, when the laser power was too large, the structure of the sample (Sample 8) surface would be destroyed, and the ablation phenomenon would be formed (Fig. 2d).

At the same time, in order to represent different structures more directly, we obtained the 3D image of LPBF-NiTi alloy, which is processed by the nanolaser, through the white light interference experiment, as shown in Fig. 3. Through the 3D

Table 2 –  $L_9(3^4)$  The table of orthogonal Experimental.

Sample	Laser power(P) W	Scan Speed(V) mm/s	Scan interval(H) $\mu\text{m}$	Number of scans(N) Fre
1	1(8)	1(300)	1(30)	1(1)
2	1	2(500)	2(40)	2(3)
3	1	3(700)	3(50)	3(5)
4	2(10)	1	2	3
5	2	2	3	1
6	2	3	1	2
7	3(12)	1	3	2
8	3	2	1	3
9	3	3	2	1

The nanolaser processed samples were ultrasonically treated [28] during one 1 wt% ethanol ( $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$ ) solution of 1H, 1H, 2H, 2H-Perfluorodecyltriethoxysilane ( $\text{C}_{16}\text{F}_{17}\text{H}_{19}\text{O}_3\text{Si}$ ).

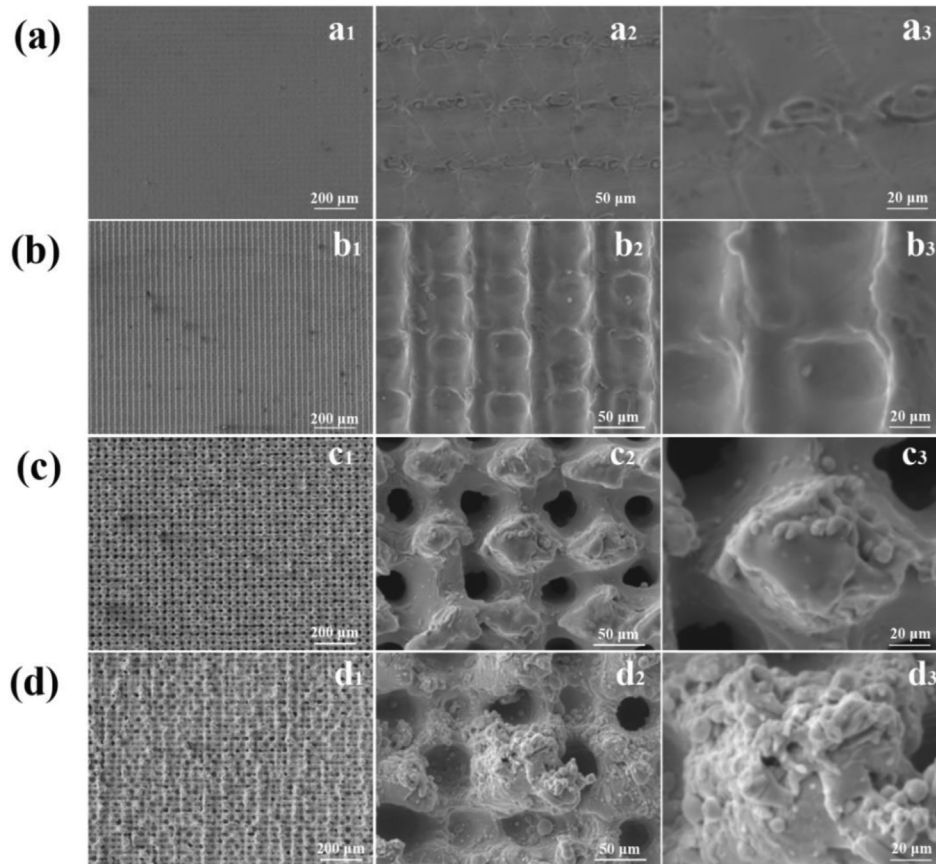


Fig. 2 – SEM image of L-PBF-NiTi alloy with nanolaser processing, (a) Sample 1, (b) Sample 6, (c) Sample 4, (d) Sample 8.

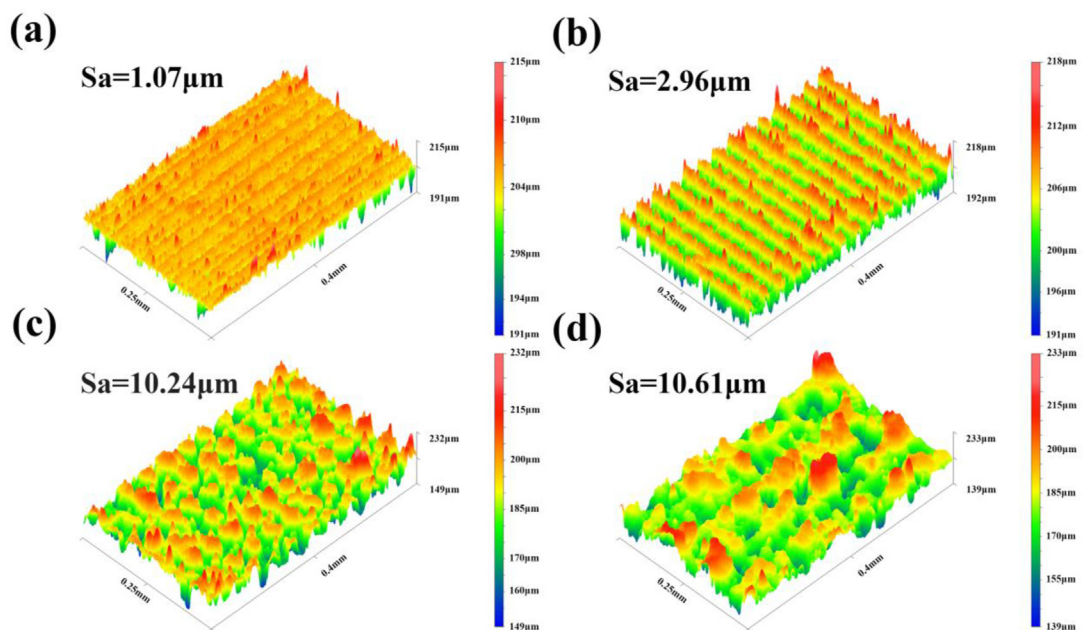


Fig. 3 – Three-dimensional topography of samples by nanolaser processing, (a) Sample 1, (b) Sample 6, (c) Sample 4, (d) Sample 8.

images of samples can be observed when the laser energy was insufficient (which occurs when the laser power was too low, or the scanning frequency was insufficient, or the scanning speed was too fast), the prepared surface structure was small in height and depth, resulting in failure to form the distinct mastoid structure (Fig. 3a and b) on the surface of samples. The surface roughness (Sa) of these two surfaces was relatively small, which is 1.07  $\mu\text{m}$  and 2.96  $\mu\text{m}$ , respectively. When the laser energy was appropriate, the Sa of the sample (Fig. 3c) increased rapidly due to the formation of mastoid structures with good size. However, when the laser energy was too large, the surface of the samples would appear to be an ablation phenomenon (Fig. 3d). The partial adjacent mastoid structures of the sample were melted and joined together, so the Sa did not increase significantly after nanolaser processing. The results indicate that a regular and well-sized mastoid structure of samples needs appropriate processing parameters, and the surface roughness of the sample will increase obviously when the mastoid structure appears on the surface of the sample.

### 3.2. Contact angle analysis

Hydrophilic metal surfaces developed superhydrophilic properties (CA of  $0^\circ$ ) with increased roughness. NiTi alloy has high surface energy and good hydrophilicity. Therefore, increased roughness of the sample surface increased after nanolaser processing and showed super hydrophilic (CAs is  $0^\circ$ ) as shown in Fig. S2). Ultrasonic fluorination can significantly reduce the surface energy of materials and thus enhance the CAs of its progressive change from the hydrophilic to the hydrophobic state. However, after fluorination, the CAs of samples with different roughness increased to different degrees. The roughness of each sample and the respective CAs are displayed in Table 3.

In order to research the connection between the surface roughness and the CAs of the fluorinated samples more directly, the patterns change of CAs with the surface roughness of the samples after fluorination is revealed in Fig. 4. The results showed that with the increase of the sample surface roughness, the CA increased quickly. In particular, Sample 4 and Sample 7 were superhydrophobic, with CA values of  $150.4^\circ$  and  $152.8^\circ$ , respectively, which correspond to their high roughness (10.24  $\mu\text{m}$  and 16.01  $\mu\text{m}$ ). However, when the surface of the samples (Sample 8) was overfired, even with the high roughness of these samples, the fluorinated samples were not superhydrophobic, which is consistent with

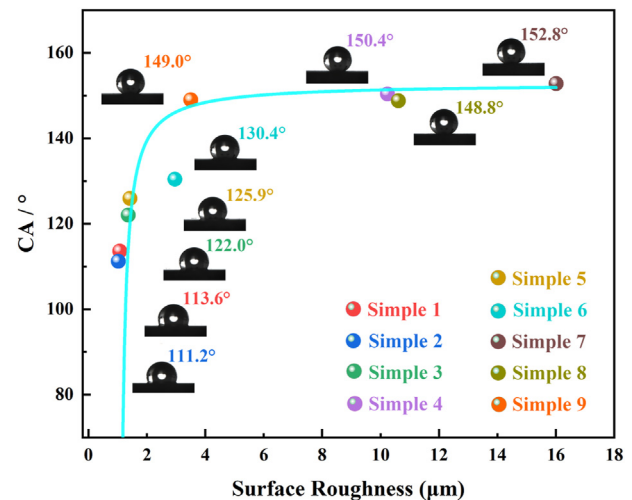


Fig. 4 – Variation of CAs with sample's surface roughness.

previous studies [29,30]. Therefore, in order to realize the superhydrophobicity of the metal surface, the surface structure (mastoid structure) of the sample surface needs to be intact, i.e., appropriate process parameters. Interestingly, both sample 4 ( $150.4^\circ$ ) and sample 7 ( $152.8^\circ$ ) have larger CA than at  $150.3^\circ$  (the CA of LPBF-NiTi superhydrophobic surface prepared in previous studies [31]), which fully demonstrates the necessity of parameter optimization.”

### 3.3. Chemical composition

XRD and EDS were used to analyze the component changes on the surface of these samples before and after fluorination, revealing the reasons for the transition in wettability of the sample surface.

Fig. 5 demonstrated the XRD patterns of LPBF-NiTi alloy, which was nanolaser processed and fluorination treatment. The B2 phase and B19' phase are the main phase components of the LPBF-NiTi alloy. The results show that a new TiO<sub>2</sub> phase appears after all samples have been nanolaser processed. This is due to the combination of O<sup>2-</sup> in the air with Ti<sup>4+</sup> on the surface of the substrate when the sample surface is irradiated by the laser during the nanolaser processing. At the same time, it was found that the intensity of the B19 phase was reduced plenty (all samples), and the B2 phase's intensity was increased considerably (all samples) after nanolaser processing. These changes may be due to high laser beam energy restraining the formation of the B19' phase and therefore stabilizing the B2 phase during the nanolaser processing. The XRD pattern of the samples did not change basically (Fig. 5a and c) before and after fluorination treatment. Only the peak intensity of the B2 phase was slightly increased (Fig. 5d) at  $\sim 63^\circ$  or reduced (Fig. 5b) at  $\sim 42^\circ$ , which testified that the fluorination treatment had less effect on the phase structure of samples [32]. The results show that the transformation of wettability is independent of the phase structure.

Fig. S3 and Fig. 6 depicted the EDS result of LPBF-NiTi before and after fluorination which was processed by nanolaser. The

Table 3 – L<sub>9</sub>(3<sup>4</sup>) orthogonal array, control parameters, and observed values.

Sample	Surface Roughness(Sa) $\mu\text{m}$	CA
1	1.071	113.6
2	1.022	111.2
3	1.363	122.0
4	10.24	150.4
5	1.425	125.9
6	2.962	130.4
7	16.01	152.8
8	10.61	148.8
9	3.508	149.0

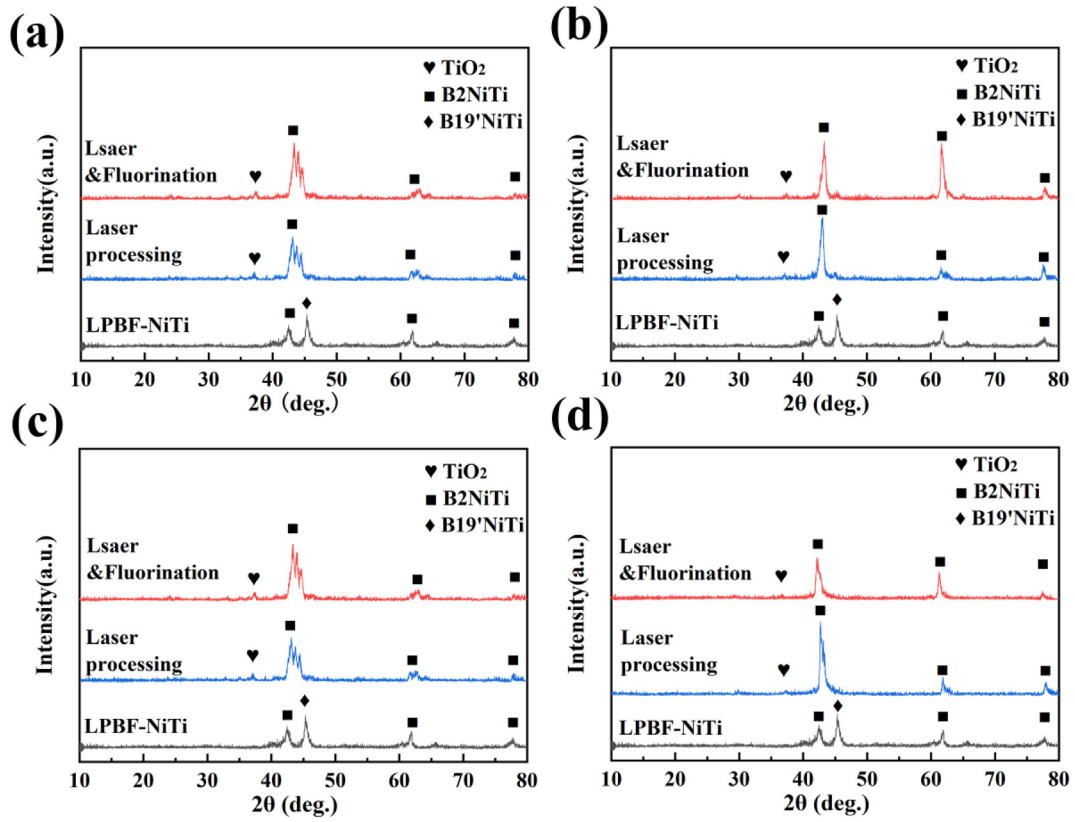


Fig. 5 – XRD patterns of samples nanolaser processing and after fluorination (a) Sample 1, (b) Sample 6, (c) Sample 4, (d) Sample 8.

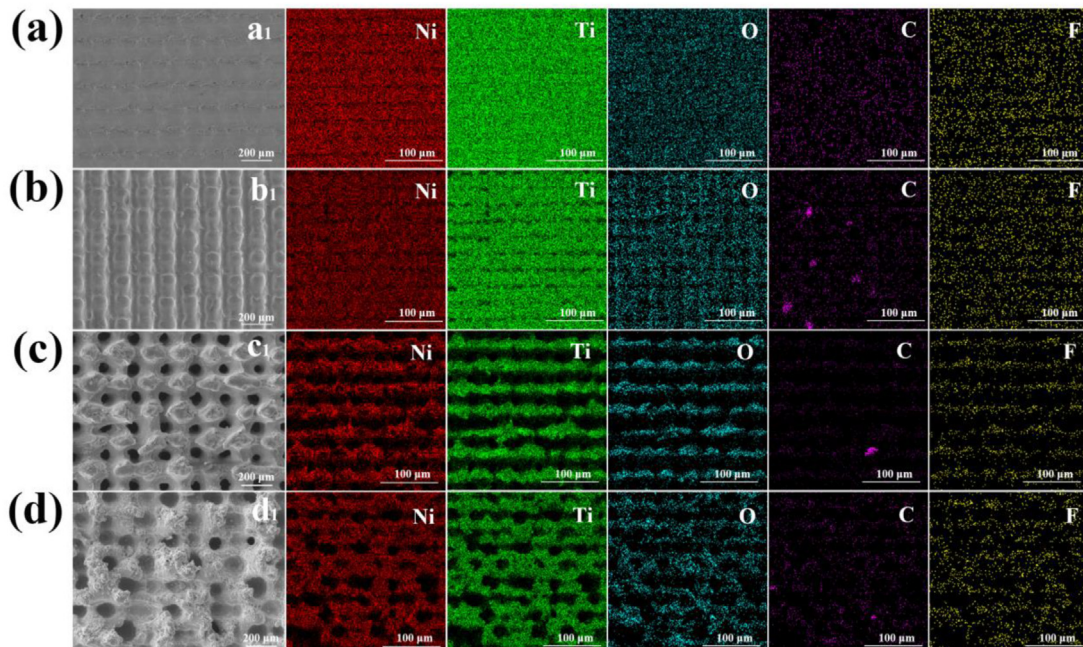


Fig. 6 – Distribution of elements on the surface of the sample after fluoridation treatment, (a) Sample 1, (b) Sample 6, (c) Sample 4, (d) Sample 8.

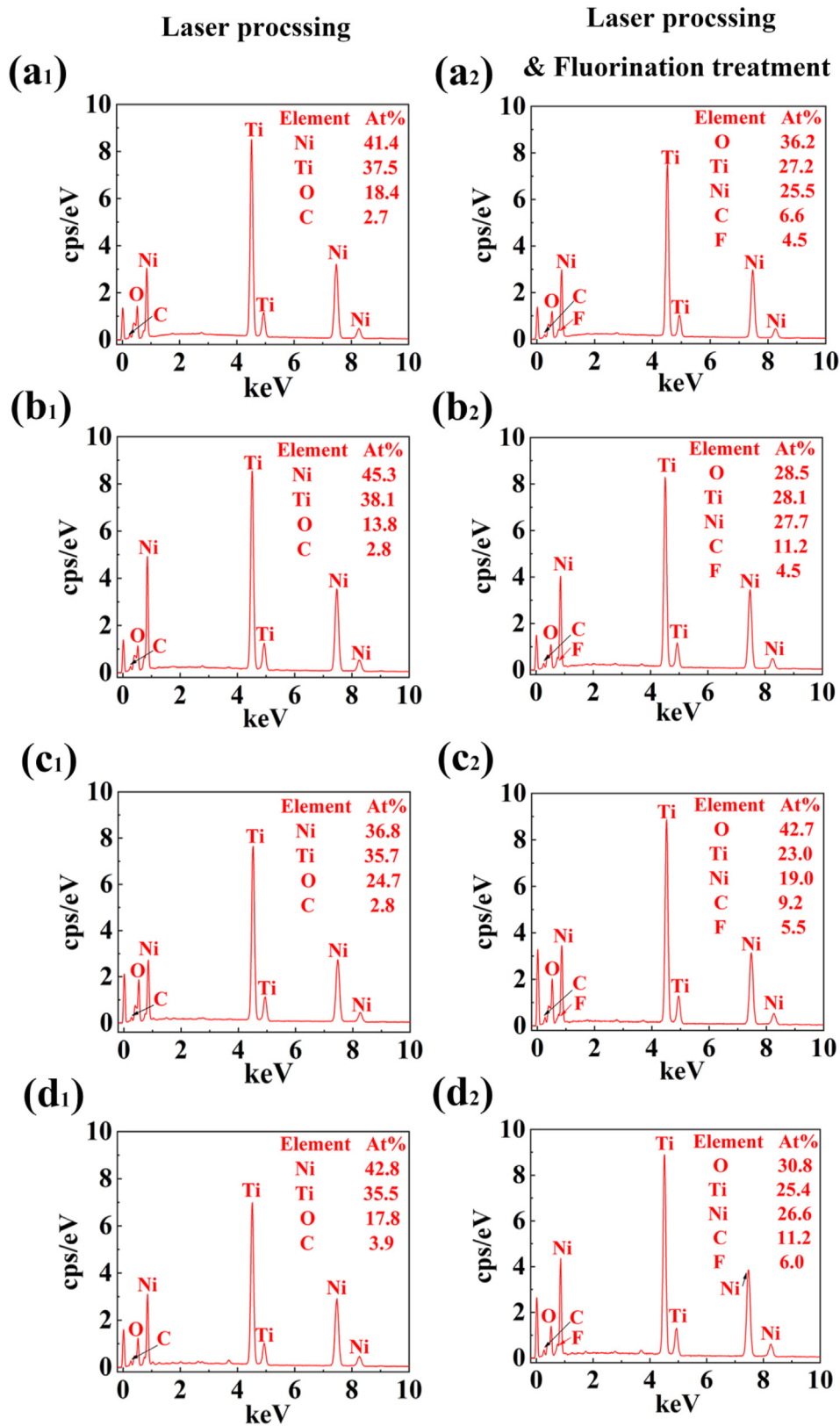


Fig. 7 – Surface element content diagram of samples before and after fluoridation (a<sub>1</sub>, a<sub>2</sub>) Sample 1, (b<sub>1</sub>, b<sub>2</sub>) Sample 6, (c<sub>1</sub>, c<sub>2</sub>) Sample 4, (d<sub>1</sub>, d<sub>2</sub>) Sample 8.

results of the element distribution map showed that Ni, Ti and O elements were uniformly distributed on the surface of the mastoid structure before and after fluoridation treatment. Moreover, after fluoridation treatment, the F element appeared on the sample surface and enriched the mastoid structure (Fig. 6c). The presence of the F element proved the fluoridation treatment to be successful, and the mastoid structure could absorb more F elements.

In order to determine the specific change in element content before and after fluoridation, the EDS spectrum results of samples were compared, as shown in Fig. 7. After fluoridation, the content of C, O and F elements on the surface of samples increased significantly, while the contents of Ni element or Ti elements decreased significantly, which was mainly due to introduction of C, F and O in the fluorination process, which covered the substrate on the surface. Therefore, it is considered that the change in element composition after fluoridation is an important factor affecting the CA of samples, and the change in elements C and F may be the main factor.

### 3.4. Variance analysis

The different morphology of the same substrate surface is obviously related to the nanolaser processing parameters (P, h, V, N). Next, we used analysis of variance (ANOVA) to study the influence degree of different nanolaser processing parameters on the surface roughness.

It (Table 4) provides the sensitive factors that influence surface CA changes in nanolaser processing. The results of variance analysis showed that the influence degree of nanolaser power on the CAs of samples was much higher than the influence of V, H and N on the CAs, which reached 34.6. In addition, It was predicted that when the processing parameters of nanolaser are P = 12 W, V = 300 mm/s, N = 5, and H = 40 μm, respectively (named B–NiTi), the nanolaser processed samples would have the maximum CAs after ultrasonic fluorination. The research reveals that the nanolaser power had the greatest influence on the surface morphology of NiTi during nanolaser processing when four parameters changed at the same time, but the influence of V, H and N was equally important. The quality of processing parameters will directly affect the surface roughness of the samples and indirectly affect the CAs of samples after fluorination.

The characteristics of the optimal parameter sample (B–NiTi) obtained by orthogonal experiment are shown in Fig. 8. It could be seen that the surface morphology of B–NiTi had a neat and beautiful mastoid structure (Fig. 8a) with micro-nanostructure sputtered material on the papilla

structure (Fig. 8b). The surface roughness (Fig. 8c) obtained by white light interference also accorded with the above analysis, and the content of C element and F element (Fig. 8d) was highest compared other samples after fluorination.

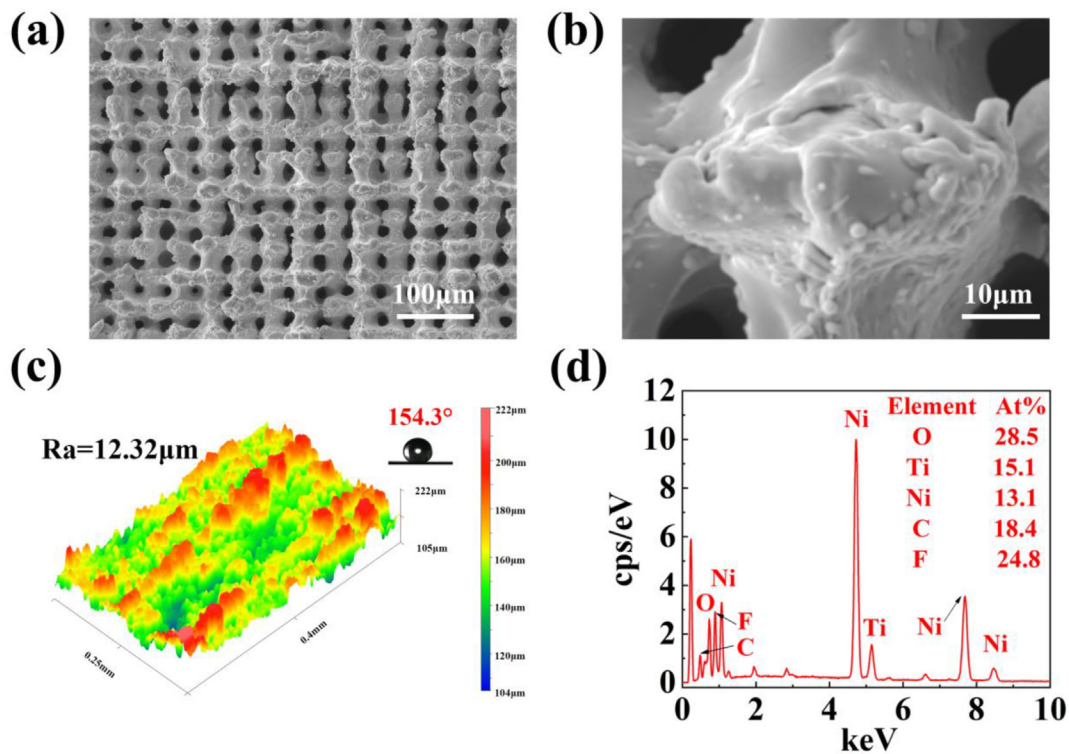
In order to explore the transformation mechanism of the surface wetting state of the sample, XPS was used to identify the evolution of functional groups on B–NiTi. Fig. 9 exhibition the XPS survey of B–NiTi before fluorination treatment, and Fig. 10 gives the high-resolution spectra of B–NiTi after fluorination (All high-resolution spectra are processed by XPS Peaks software). It can be observed that the Ni and Ti contents on the surface of the B–NiTi before and after fluorination were lower, but the difference was that the Ni content was more abundant than the Ti content after fluorination. This may be attributable to the fact that after laser processing, the surface of B–NiTi adsorbed more C compounds in the air or 1%wt ethanol solution of C<sub>16</sub>F<sub>17</sub>G<sub>19</sub>O<sub>3</sub>Si, which covered the Ni and Ti of the B–NiTi, while the Ni content was higher after fluorination due to the generation of NiF<sub>2</sub>. In addition, after fluorination treatment, the B–NiTi's XPS spectra showed new peaks appeared, which include F 1s and Si 2p; the content of F 1s was 57.1% among them. It proved the fluorination treatment was carried out successfully.

To further investigate the specific chemical components of the B–NiTi, all peaks were fitted (derived via XPSpeak). Fig. 9b shows that the C 1s high-resolution spectrum had three main peaks: 284.6 eV, 286.3 eV, 287.9 eV, which were attributed to C–C/C–H, C–O–C, and O–C=O [33], respectively, who only C–C/C–H was a non-polar group. The C 1s high-resolution spectra of B–NiTi after fluorination (Fig. 10b) show that two new peaks of C 1s were located at 290.5 eV (–CF<sub>2</sub> non-polar) and 292.6 eV (–CF non-polar) [34], and they accounted for a very large proportion, while the intensity of O–C=O (polar) peak was significantly reduced. The high-resolution spectra of O1s before and after fluorination treatment (Figs. 9c and 10c) were not significantly different and consisted mainly of three peaks, 530.1 eV, 531.4 eV, 532.6 eV, which were known to come from C–O, Ti–O, –OH groups. Similarly, the high-resolution spectrum of Ti 2p (Figs. 9e and 10e) also did not change significantly, consisting of three peaks, 458.6 eV, 464.3 eV, 460.1 eV belonging to Ti 2p<sub>3/2</sub>, Ti 2p<sub>3/2</sub> companion peak, and Ti 2p [35,36], respectively, which were mainly caused by the generation of TiO<sub>2</sub> after laser processing and TiF<sub>3</sub> after fluorination treatment [34,37]. The high-resolution spectra of Ni 2p (Fig. 9d) before the fluorination treatment was mainly divided into three peaks: 855.7 eV, 853.2 eV, 870.8 eV, which were caused by Ni in the oxide. After the fluorination treatment, only two peaks were composed, which resulted from the generation of Ni in NiF<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 10d) [38,39]. Moreover, the high-resolution spectra of F 1s had one main peak: 684.5 eV and a tiny peak: 688.5 eV. This main peak was mainly caused by NiF<sub>2</sub>, TiF<sub>3</sub>, –CF, –CF<sub>2</sub>, and the content of CF and –CF<sub>2</sub> was well above that of NiF<sub>2</sub> and TiF<sub>3</sub>. Another small peak was the formation of TiO<sub>2-x</sub>F<sub>x</sub>, which was produced by the combination of element F with TiO<sub>2</sub> on the surface of B–NiTi due to the fluorination process. Fig. 10g shows that the Si 2p high-resolution spectrum had three main peaks: 99.6 eV, 102.5 eV, 103.7 eV, which were attributed to Si–Si, Si–N, and Si–O [40], that were mainly produced by the surface residues of C<sub>16</sub>F<sub>17</sub>H<sub>19</sub>O<sub>3</sub>Si. Figs. 9f and 10g, respectively, show the content

**Table 4 – Range analysis of surface roughness.**

Range	P	V	H	N
K1	346.8	416.8	392.8	388.4
K2	406.7	385.9	410.5	394.4
K3	450.5	401.3	400.7	421.2
k1	115.6	138.9	130.9	129.5
k2	135.7	128.6	136.3	131.5
k3	150.2	133.8	133.6	140.4
R	34.6	10.3	5.9	10.9





**Fig. 8** – The characteristics of B–NiTi (a, b) SEM image, (c) Three-dimensional topography, (d) Surface element content diagram after fluoridation treatment.

of C1s peak polar bond and non-polar bond on the B–NiTi surface before and after fluoridation treatment. It can be found that the content ratio of  $\text{CF}_2$  and CF (non-polar) increased significantly after fluoridation treatment, which effectively reduced the surface energy of the sample.

Therefore, the adsorption of non-polar groups is the crucial factor in changing the CA of the B–NiTi, and only a small part of  $\text{TiF}_3$ ,  $\text{NiF}_2$ , was generated, which is not the main influencing factor. Due to the formation of many non-polar functional groups (mainly the  $-\text{CF}$  and  $-\text{CF}_2$ ) on the surface of the B–NiTi during fluorination, the surface energy of the B–NiTi will be significantly reduced, thus transforming the B–NiTi from superhydrophilic to superhydrophobic.

### 3.5. Electrochemical corrosion behaviors

For the purpose of studying the electrochemical behaviour of superhydrophobic surfaces, electrochemical experiments were carried out on LPBF–NiTi and fluorinated B–NiTi. The results of the experiments are shown in Fig. 11, and the specific values are given in Table 5. The  $E_{\text{corr}}$  value shows the degree of activity of the sample. The larger the  $E_{\text{corr}}$  value, the less active the sample surface and the less likely to be corroded [41,42]. On the contrary, the smaller the  $I_{\text{corr}}$  of materials, the larger its electrical resistance, and the even lower the rate of being corroded [43]. For fluorinated B–NiTi, the  $E_{\text{corr}}$  showed a positive shift phenomenon, from  $-0.43$  V to  $-0.21$  V, and  $I_{\text{corr}}$  was also reduced by about 10 times, from  $(4.42 \pm 0.5) \times 10^{-7}$  A/cm<sup>2</sup> to  $(2.27 \pm 0.5) \times 10^{-10}$  A/cm<sup>2</sup>.

The Nyquist plot for LPBF–NiTi, Pre–NiTi and fluorinated B–NiTi is shown in Fig. 11b and c. The size of the radius of the capacitor circuit usually indicates the corrosion resistance of the tested materials, and when it is larger, the sample is more resistant to corrosion [44,45]. It is obvious that the radius of the capacitance ring of fluorinated B–NiTi was larger than that of LPBF–NiTi alloy. The fluorinated B–NiTi exhibited higher  $|Z|$  than the LPBF–NiTi alloy at the low frequency of the Bode  $|Z|$  value map (Fig. 11d). This also reveals the excellent corrosion resistance of fluorinated B–NiTi [45]. The Bode phase plots of the fluorinated B–NiTi (Fig. 11e) show that there was a time constant in the low-frequency region and one in the high-frequency region, respectively. Moreover, fluorinated B–NiTi had higher and wider phase angle values than LPBF–NiTi in the middle-frequency region.

The corresponding equivalent circuit (EC) is shown in Fig. 11f to reveal the mechanism of corrosion resistance LPBF–NiTi alloy and B–NiTi. The equivalent circuit used for LPBF–NiTi alloy had one time constant, and that of fluorinated B–NiTi had two. In the EC,  $R_s$  represents the solution resistance, the charge transfer resistance is noted as  $R_{\text{ct}}$ , and  $\text{CPE}_1$  and  $\text{CPE}_2$  are perceived as the constant phase element, which is used for replacing pure capacitance.  $R_f$  represents the resistance of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  layer after sample oxidation.

The values in the columns of Table 6 are the fitted values for samples in EC. The  $Y_0$  of fluorinated B–NiTi is reduced by a factor of about 100 compared to the LPBF–NiTi alloy, which suggests that the sample surface is corroded in a smaller area [45]. The  $R_{\text{ct}}$  value of fluorinated B–NiTi increases

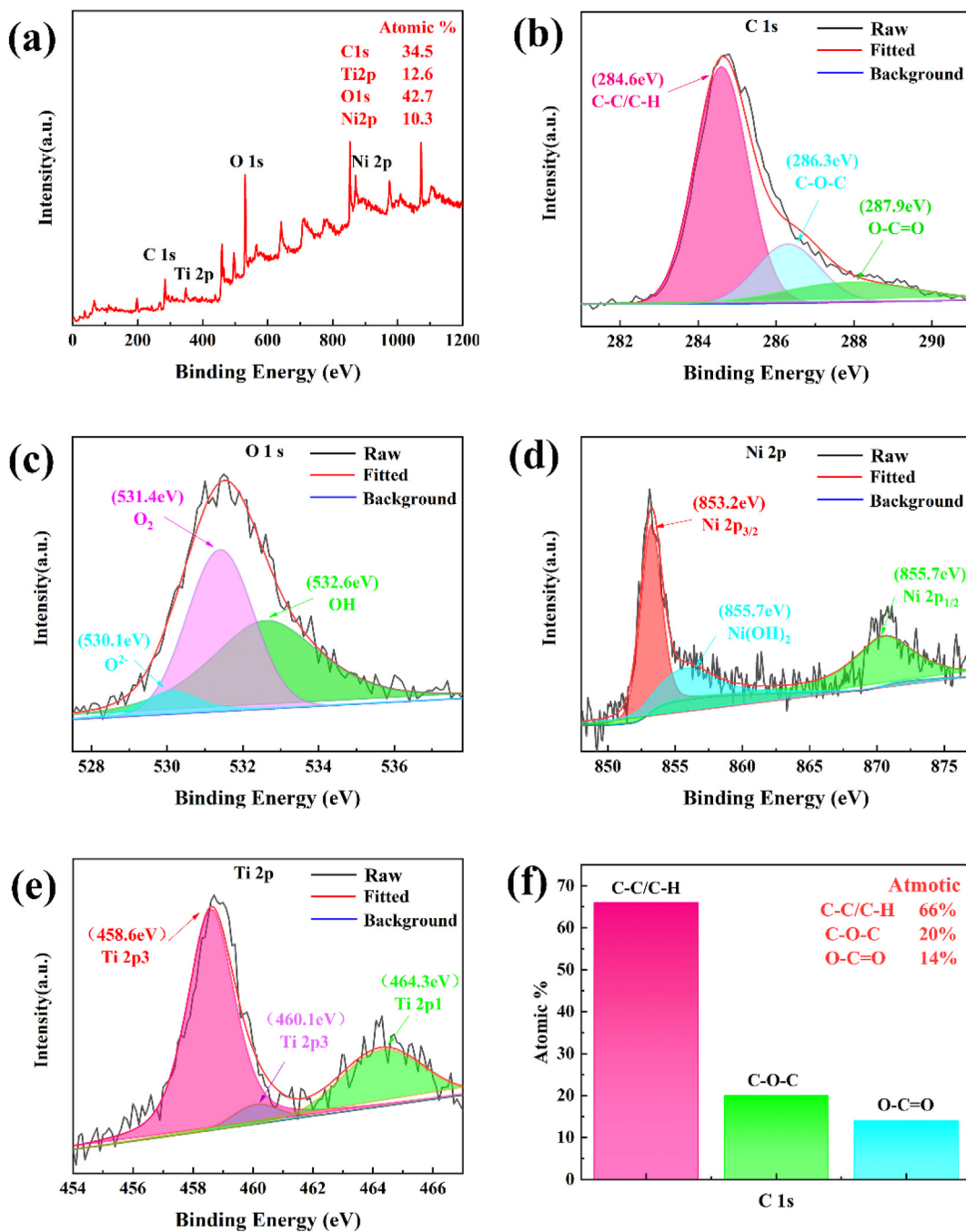


Fig. 9 – XPS spectra of B–NiTi surfaces before fluoridation, (a) Survey spectra, (b) High-resolution C 1s, (c) High-resolution O 1s, (d) High-resolution Ni 2p, (e) High-resolution Ti 2p, (f) Percentage ratio of C group.

significantly, and usually, the larger the  $R_{ct}$ , the better the corrosion resistance of the sample [46]. This is the same outcome as the polarization curve.

### 3.6. Immersion tests

In order to further study the stability of B–NiTi after fluoride treatment, it was immersed in 3.5 wt% NaCl solution for a 15-day immersion experiment. Fig. 12 Shows EIS curves of fluorinated B–NiTi soaked in 3.5 wt% NaCl solution for a

different time and corresponding fitting results. The Nyquist plot for fluorinated B–NiTi showed that the size of the capacitor circuit's radius changed little, proving that the corrosion resistance stability of the fluorinated B–NiTi is preferable. In the Bode  $|Z|$  value plot (Fig. 12b),  $|Z|$  values showed less fluctuation in the low-frequency region during the immersion, which indicated that fluorinated B–NiTi still maintained good corrosion resistance after 360 h immersion. The same result can be seen in the variation of the phase angle graph (Fig. 12c). The results show that the prepared

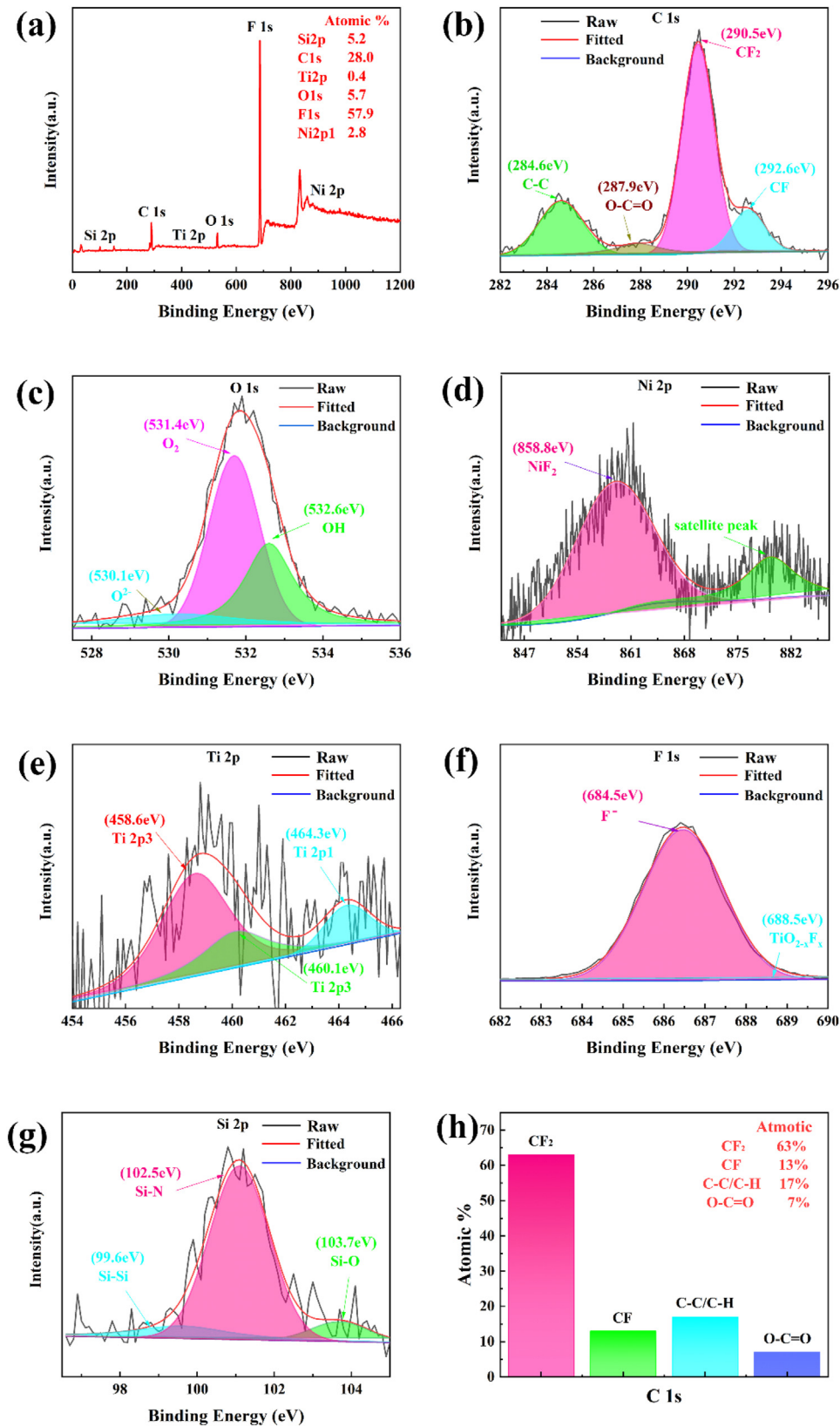


Fig. 10 – XPS spectra of B-NiTi surfaces after fluoridation (a) Survey spectra, (b) High-resolution C 1s, (c) High-resolution O 1s, (d) High-resolution Ni 2p, (e) High-resolution Ti 2p, (f) High-resolution F 1s (g) High-resolution Si 2p (h) Percentage ratio of C group.

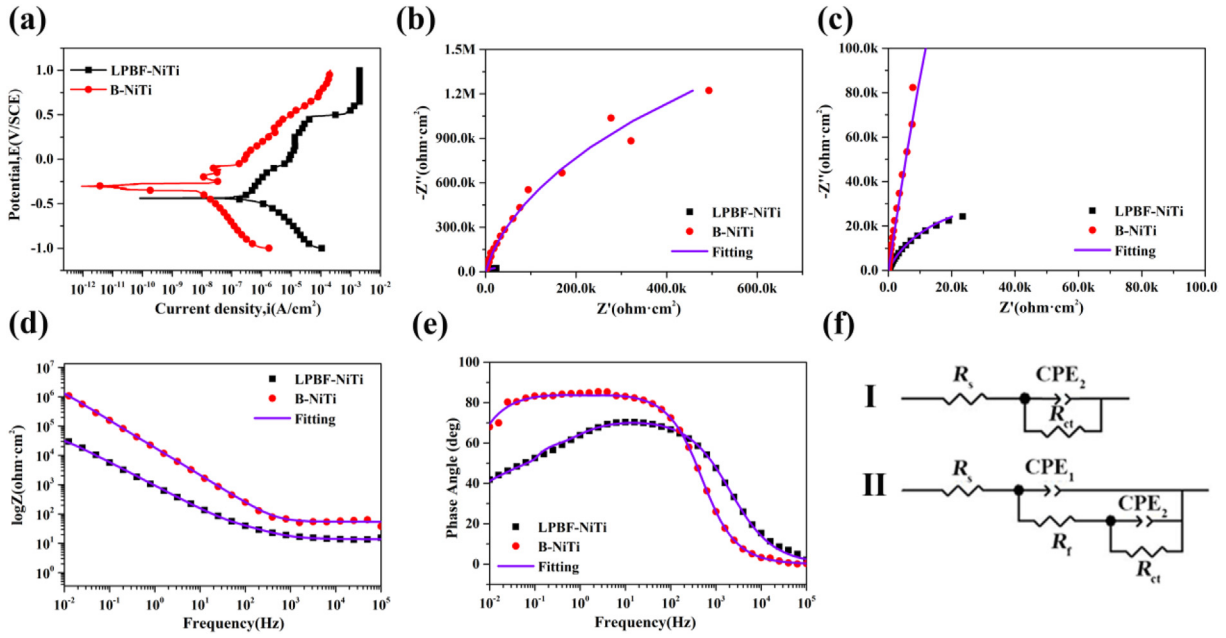


Fig. 11 – Polarization curves and EIS results of LPBF-NiTi alloy and fluorinated B-NiTi, (a) Polarization curves, (b) Nyquist plots, (c) An enlarged view of the Nyquist diagram, (d) Bode  $|Z|$  value plots, (e) Phase angle plots, (f) equivalent circuit of LPBF-NiTi (I) and B-NiTi (II).

Table 5 – Parameters obtained from polarization curves of LPBF-NiTi, Pre-NiTi and fluorinated B-NiTi.

Sample	$E_{CORR}$	$I_{CORR}$	$R_p$
	(V)	(A/cm <sup>2</sup> )	(KΩ·cm <sup>2</sup> )
LPBF-NiTi	-0.43 ± 0.04	$(4.42 ± 0.5) × 10^{-7}$	88.5
B-NiTi	-0.26 ± 0.03	$(2.27 ± 0.5) × 10^{-10}$	360.2

Table 6 – The fitted values of EIS measurements.

Samples	$R_s$ (Ω cm <sup>2</sup> )	$R_f$ (Ω cm <sup>2</sup> )	CPE <sub>1</sub>		$R_{ct}$ (Ω cm <sup>2</sup> )	CPE <sub>2</sub>	
			$Y_{O_2}$	$n_1$		$Y_{O_2}$	$n_2$
			(Ω <sup>-1</sup> ·s <sup>n</sup> ·cm <sup>-2</sup> )			(Ω <sup>-1</sup> ·s <sup>n</sup> ·cm <sup>-2</sup> )	
LPBF-NiTi	10.61 ± 1.2				$(6.21 ± 0.3) × 10^4$	$(1.53 ± 0.3) × 10^{-4}$	0.81 ± 0.02
B-NiTi	70.03 ± 3.2	$2.34 ± 0.3 × 10^3$	$2.51 ± 0.3 × 10^{-6}$	0.80 ± 0.4	$(4.43 ± 0.2) × 10^5$	$(3.92 ± 0.5) × 10^{-6}$	0.66 ± 0.04

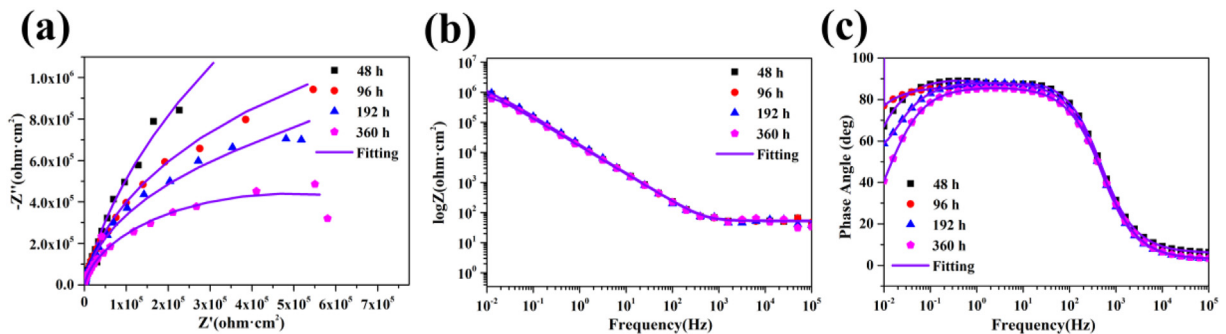


Fig. 12 – EIS curves and the fitted results of B-NiTi immersed in 3.5% NaCl for 360 h (a) Nyquist plots (b) Bode  $|Z|$  value plots, (c) Phase angle plots.

B–NiTi have excellent corrosion stability after fluoride treatment.

#### 4. Conclusions

“In this paper, four kinds of micro and nanostructures with different characteristics were prepared on the surface of LPBF–NiTi alloy by a nanolaser through an orthogonal experiment for the first time. The CAs of these fluorinated samples increase with the increase of Sa when the surface is not ablated. The influence of each processing parameter on the wettability of the sample was further studied by variance analysis. It was found that the laser power played a decisive role in the final wettability of the sample during laser processing. In addition, the principle of wettability transformation of samples was studied. The XRD results showed that the CA of the sample surface was not related to the phase composition. The XPS results justify that the –CF \ -CF<sub>2</sub> generated on the surface of the sample after fluorination is a crucial factor affecting its CA. The results of electrochemical experiments as well as immersion experiments in 3.5 wt% NaCl solution showed that the corrosion resistance and corrosion stability of superhydrophobic samples are distinguish increased compared with the substrate. This provides a new means for the application and life extension of LPBF–NiTi alloy in the ocean. In addition, a fast and efficient treatment method for improving the corrosion resistance of metal materials in NaCl solution was obtained.”

#### Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

#### Acknowledgments

This work was supported by the National Key R&D Program of China, China (No. 2022YFB4601701), the National Natural Science Foundation of China, China (No. 51975246, 52205310), Science and Technology Development Program of Jilin Province, China (20230508045RC), the Natural Science Foundation of Shandong Province, China (No. ZR2021QE263), the Capital construction fund plan within the budget of Jilin Province, China (No. 2023C041-4), the Chongqing Natural Science Foundation, China (No. CSTB2022NSCQ-MSX0225), the Interdisciplinary Research Fund for Doctoral Postgraduates of Jilin University, China (No.101832020D)X052) and the Interdisciplinary Cultivation Project for Young Teachers and Students, China (No. 415010300078).

#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmrt.2023.05.162>.

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