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Stochastic Simplified Modelling of Abrasive Waterjet Footprints

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Abrasive micro-waterjet processing is a non-conventional machining method that can be used to manufacture complex shapes in difficult-to-cut materials. Predicting the effect of the jet on the surface for a given set of machine parameters is a key element of controlling the process. However, the noise of the process is significant, making it difficult to design reliable jet-path strategies that produce good quality parts via controlled-depth milling. The process is highly unstable and has a strong random component that can affect the quality of the workpiece, especially in the case of controlled-depth milling. This study describes a method to predict the variability of the jet footprint for different jet feed speeds. A stochastic partial differential equation is used to describe the etched surface as the jet is moved over it, assuming that the erosion process can be divided into two main components: a deterministic part that corresponds to the average erosion of the jet, and a stochastic part that accounts for the noise generated at different stages of the process. The model predicts the variability of the trench profiles to within $< 8\%$. These advances could enable abrasive micro-waterjet technology as a suitable technology for controlled-depth milling.

1. Introduction

Abrasive Waterjet (AWJ) machining is a non-traditional machining process that is being developed in order to manufacture complex 3D parts with difficult to machine materials. Like other non-conventional machining methods, AWJ machining, is a tool-free (i.e. utilises a jet plume instead of a contact tool) technique that is cost efficient [1], but also has other important advantages such as low cutting forces [2], a non-existent heat affected zone, and the ability to erode almost any material, independent of its properties [3,4].

The AWJ process consists of a high speed water jet that accelerates abrasive particles to velocities of up to 750m/s [5], depending on the pressure of the pump. The mixture of high-speed water and abrasive garnet particles is focused by a nozzle, and this produces a circular high-energy jet that can erode the target material. The erosion rate of the process and the shape that the jet leaves on the target during AWJ controlled-depth milling can be manipulated by varying several parameters, such as the mass flow rate of the abrasive particles, \dot{m}_a , the pressure of the pump, P , and the feed speed at which the jet is moved, v_f . In order to produce a given 3D shape, it is therefore necessary to understand the effect of these parameters to determine how to move the jet. The limitations imposed by other factors, such as the jet size, which constrains the size of features that can be machined, must also be considered. An example of the problem is given in figure 1, showing how a single straight jet pass generates a trench. A single straight jet pass is regarded as the most basic entity that can be studied, since it is difficult to obtain an isolated footprint.

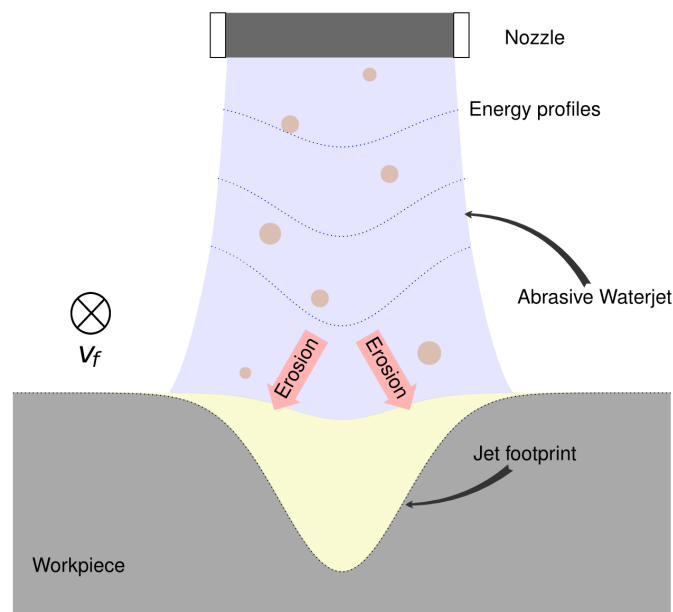


Figure 1: Sketch of the generation of an abrasive waterjet milled channel. The trench is formed by the jet as it moves over the workpiece.

The problem of predicting the depth of penetration or, more importantly, the shape of the jet footprint, has led to extensive research on predictive models for different abrasive jet processes.

24 A common approach is to use finite element models of multiple particles hitting the surface at
25 high velocity [6–8]. These simulations are computationally expensive, which makes the models
26 difficult to use when investigating how to machine parts with large features. Significant effort
27 has also been put into the development of simplified surface evolution models based on partial
28 differential equations to predict the effect of the jet on the workpiece, from early work [9], which
29 is an attempt to estimate the effect of powder blasting on glass, to more advanced methodologies
30 presented in [10,11]. The main advantage of this methodology is the ability to predict the jet
31 footprint without using complex models, leading to more flexible frameworks that can potentially
32 be used by the machine operator in real time. One of these alternatives is based on an evolution
33 equation whose parameters can be estimated from a small amount of experimental data [11–13].
34 The challenge addressed by these methods is to relate the operating parameters, particularly
35 the feed speed of the jet, to the average profile of the jet footprint. However, AWJ milling is
36 a highly fluctuating process, since several parts of the system undergo significant variations
37 during the process. The pressure in the pump is constantly fluctuating, since it has an inherent
38 pulsating nature, and this fluctuation affects the water, which influences the mass flow rate and
39 the velocities of the abrasive particles when they are entrained into the jet stream. Moreover,
40 the entrainment process of these particles into the water leads to instabilities that are ultimately
41 reflected on the AWJ milled surface. These variations in the surface can be visualized in the
42 example shown in figure 2, in contrast with the diagram of figure 1 where a smooth idealized
43 trench is presented.

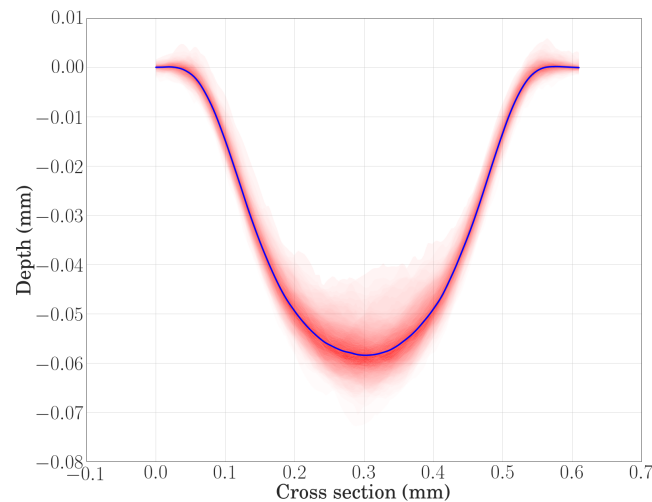


Figure 2: Cross section of an AWJ milled trench, showing a distribution of profiles around an average footprint. The trench was machined at $P = 138\text{MPa}$, $v_f = 41.67\text{mm/s}$, $\dot{m}_a = 0.5\text{g/s}$, a nozzle of diameter 0.5mm and garnet abrasive particles of mesh size #220.

44 The high variability observed in the etched surfaces means that average jet footprint
45 predictions, as developed in previous research, cannot provide enough information about the
46 system to understand the variabilities of 3D milled surfaces. Such variability has given rise
47 to several modelling frameworks that have included stochastic methods to account for such
48 fluctuations. An early method consisted of a unit-event based model [14], overlapping several
49 damage events that account for impacts with different particle size, velocity and position using a
50 probabilistic input. A later model used a similar unit-event framework by adding multiple single

51 particle impacts [15]. More advanced simulation frameworks were introduced for AWJ cutting to
 52 predict the quality of the cut [16,17]; the process variability is even more important for controlled-
 53 depth milling, since the fluctuations are directly transferred to the surface. This issue has also
 54 been addressed using finite element analysis [7,8,18,19], but these methods are computationally
 55 expensive and cannot be implemented into optimisation routines for designing jet-path strategies.
 56 None of these alternatives has attempted to estimate the inherent noise of the jet in order to take
 57 it into account in the surface evolution model. An alternative solution is proposed in [20], but the
 58 method requires the periodic performance of calibration channels to account for the fluctuations
 59 in the erosion rate. It is necessary to develop a system that runs independently after an initial
 60 calibration procedure that requires a minimum set of experimental tests.

61 In this paper, a novel approach to predict the variability of the jet footprint at different jet
 62 feed speeds has been investigated. Furthermore, the proposed methodology aims at providing
 63 a procedure to estimate the parameters of the model using a reduced amount of experimental
 64 data. The use of stochastic partial differential equations provides a very flexible framework to
 65 model the fluctuations of surfaces etched using abrasive waterjet controlled-depth milling. The
 66 model can be solved numerically using Monte Carlo methods, but it can also be used to estimate
 67 the statistical information in simple jet passes by solving deterministic equations. This approach,
 68 together with previous investigations developed by Billingham et al. [13] on how to predict the
 69 average jet footprint, can readily be extended to larger features generated by multiple jet passes,
 70 enabling the use of AWJ milling to manufacture 3D complex parts in high performance materials
 71 with reduced variability. To generate such complex parts, it is necessary to find a jet path that
 72 will generate the desired shape. Since different strategies, such as random paths or parallel jet
 73 passes, can be used to obtain the same average surface, there may be more than one suitable path.
 74 However, each jet path will generate parts with different variability, and therefore a method to
 75 predict such variations is essential to choose the jet path that will produce optimum results.

76 2. Stochastic modelling of AWJM

77 An explanation of the proposed model is presented in this section. A short introduction of how
 78 to predict the evolution of the average jet footprint profile is presented first. Then, each of the
 79 elements that are proposed to model the fluctuations of the process are explained in detail.

80 (a) Prediction of the average jet footprint

81 The main idea of the model presented in [12] can be written as

$$\frac{\partial Z(X, t)}{\partial t} = \Psi(X, Z, t). \quad (2.1)$$

82 The aim of using such a model is to determine how the surface of the workpiece $Z(X, t)$, evolves
 83 when the jet, represented by an etching rate function $\Psi(X, Z, t)$, moves over the surface. To obtain
 84 the final jet footprint profile, $Z(X, T)$, (2.1) is solved during the time, T , taken by the jet to
 85 complete a full pass over a certain line, usually taken as $Y = 0$ for convenience, as is illustrated
 86 in figure 3. This approach was extensively validated for multiple experimental parameters and
 87 is able to simulate overlapping jet passes and non-normal attack angles. The method was only
 88 designed to predict the average evolution of the system, and the limitations of this model are the
 89 main motivation of our work.

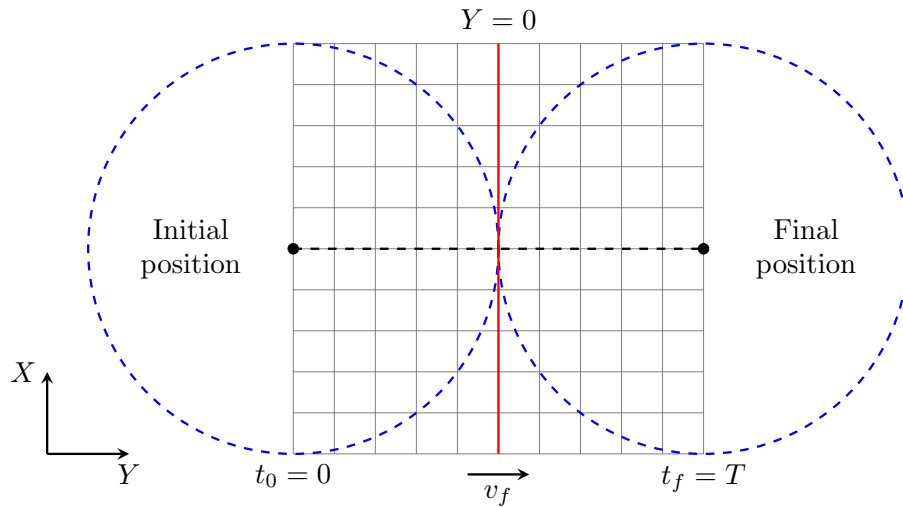


Figure 3: A full jet pass over a given line is required to simulated the average jet footprint profile.

90 Taking advantage of the symmetry of the problem when modelling single straight jet passes, r
 91 is defined as the distance from a given point along $Y = 0$ to the centre of the jet at any time t ,

$$r^2 = X^2 + (v_f t)^2. \quad (2.2)$$

92 Equation (2.1) can then be rewritten as

$$\frac{\partial Z(X, t)}{\partial t} = \mu(r)g(Z, t), \quad (2.3)$$

93 where $\mu(r)$ is the etching rate function and $g(Z, t)$ represents the nonlinear effects of the process.
 94 It has been found that for shallow trenches (i.e. large feed speeds), a linear model can be used to
 95 predict the average trench profile [21], and therefore the problem can be stated as

$$\frac{\partial Z(X, t)}{\partial t} = \mu(r) \quad \text{for } 0 < t < T. \quad (2.4)$$

96 As will be shown later, this can be inverted to obtain $\mu(r)$ by using experimental data from milled
 97 trenches performed at high feed speeds, $Z(X, T)$.

98 (b) Stochastic model

99 In order to cope with the variability of the process, a new framework, based on modelling the
 100 system using a stochastic partial differential equation is proposed. The proposed equation must be
 101 capable of accounting for different sources of fluctuations, such as the randomness of the particles
 102 within the jet and the variability of the pressure in the pump that leads to variations of the mass
 103 flow and velocities of the particles. In its most general form, this equation is

$$dZ = \mu(\mathbf{X}, Z, t)dt + f(\mathbf{X}, Z, t) [dW(\mathbf{X}, t) + d\xi(t)], \quad (2.5)$$

104 where $\mathbf{X} = (X, Y)$, $\mu(\mathbf{X}, Z, t)$ is the deterministic erosion rate function, $dW(\mathbf{X}, t)$ represents an
 105 isotropic Gaussian random field with a given covariance structure (C) [22], $d\xi(t)$ is an Ornstein-
 106 Uhlenbeck process [23], and f accounts for the radial dependence of the variability. Therefore,
 107 the equation has two stochastic components, $dW(\mathbf{X}, t)$ and $d\xi(t)$, that model the noise during
 108 the process. Since the solution of (2.5) at a given time T is not deterministic, one can only study
 109 either single realisations or the statistical moments of the solution. The model has a deterministic

110 and a stochastic part that play different roles. On the one hand, the deterministic etching rate
 111 accounts for the average erosion power of the jet. On the other hand, the stochastic terms contain
 112 information regarding the varying part of the system, and can be used to model the properties of
 113 such variations. The advantages of this stochastic modelling approach are two-fold: (i) it is a more
 114 realistic modelling framework to investigate a system with uncertainties and fluctuations; (ii) it
 115 makes it possible to estimate the bounds of such fluctuations and thereby determine the expected
 116 quality of the machined features, providing a new tool for further research to minimise these
 117 deviations without performing extensive experimental tests. Each term of (2.5) will be described
 118 in detail in the following sections.

119 (i) Definition of the random field

120 The second term on the right-hand side of (2.5) is a Gaussian isotropic random field [22],
 121 $dW(\mathbf{X}, t)$, whose variables follow a standard normal distribution. The role of this term is to model
 122 the randomness of the particles within the jet, since it is known that their position within the jet,
 123 velocity, size and shape are random and this variability is transferred to the milled surface [19]. It
 124 is considered reasonable to use a Gaussian field to simulate the variability, although other options
 125 could be considered if there was information about the system that suggested otherwise. The
 126 field is stationary, so the mean is independent of the position within the jet, and the correlation
 127 between two points depends only on the distance between them. This correlation structure is used
 128 because the size of the abrasive particles, which are considered to be the main erosion entities, is
 129 comparable to the jet size [24]. The particles cannot therefore be considered as point masses, and
 130 the length-scale of the noise takes this issue into account. One of the assumptions of this model is
 131 that the random fields are not correlated in time, since the particles hit the surface independently
 132 in time. Furthermore, it is considered isotropic owing to the symmetry of the problem.

133 Conceptually, these properties imply that the random values of points that are close to each
 134 other are not independent. Mathematically, this field can be decomposed using the eigenvalues
 135 and eigenfunctions of the correlation kernel, as stated by the Karhunen-Loève theorem [25]. The
 136 field $dW(\mathbf{X}, t)$ has a spectral decomposition:

$$dW(\mathbf{X}, t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sqrt{\lambda_n} \phi_n(\mathbf{X}, t) d\zeta_n(t), \quad (2.6)$$

137 where λ_n and ϕ_n are the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions of the correlation kernel of the Gaussian
 138 random field, and $d\zeta_n(t)$ are independent Wiener processes. An example of a realisation of a
 139 random, field with such characteristics is shown in figure 4a. It must be noted that the sum in
 140 (2.6) is truncated in order to compute a realisation of a given random field.

141 (ii) Mean-reverting stochastic process

142 Although the randomness of the particles plays a significant role in the variability of the milled
 143 trench, it is not the only feature of AWJ milling responsible for the large fluctuations observed in
 144 the milled surfaces. By modelling only these uncertainties, it was found in [19] that the noise is
 145 underestimated compared to experimental data. The approach presented here aims to be more
 146 general, providing mechanisms to account for different sources of fluctuations. For this purpose,
 147 an Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process is introduced to account for the variability caused by the random
 148 variations of the system, such as changes in the pressure or instabilities in the entrainment
 149 process. The term $d\xi(t)$ in (2.5) accounts for this process, and is given by

$$d\xi(t) = \theta(\nu - \xi(t))dt + \sigma d\eta(t). \quad (2.7)$$

150 This is a mean-reverting stochastic process where θ , ν and σ are model parameters and $d\eta$ is a
 151 Wiener process. An example of a realisation of an Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process is shown in figure
 152 4b.

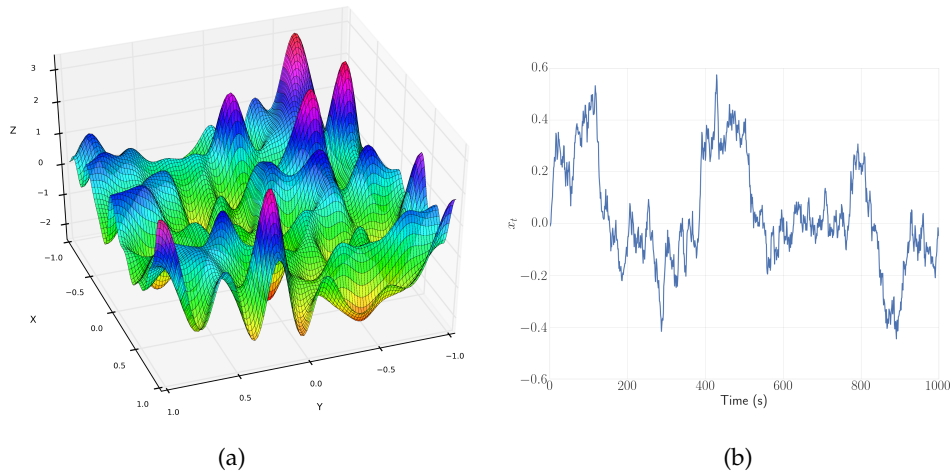


Figure 4: Stochastic structures used to model the variability during AWJM controlled-depth milling. **a)** Realisation of a Gaussian random field with an exponential correlation kernel. **b)** Example of an Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process.

153 (iii) Radial dependence of the variability

154 The model described in this section can be used to predict the variability across the jet footprint
 155 at different jet feed speeds. However, the parameters of the model are unknown for a given set
 156 of experimental conditions. Following the ideas developed in [12,13], a framework to estimate
 157 such parameters from a small number of experimental tests is provided here. The potential of
 158 this method lies in its ability to calibrate these parameters quickly for any material, jet size,
 159 equipment and, eventually, other similar processes. A detailed explanation of how to perform
 160 such estimations is provided in the following section.

161 3. Parameter Estimation

162 We have developed a procedure to estimate the following attributes: i) the deterministic etching
 163 rate function, $\mu(r)$; ii) the parameters that affect the standard deviation across the trench, σ , θ , b_1
 164 and b_2 ; iii) the correlation structure of the Gaussian field, C . For this investigation, the jet feed
 165 speed has been restricted to a range where the evolution of the average trench profile has been
 166 found to be linear, as in [21]. One can then rewrite (2.5) as

$$dZ = \mu(r, t)dt + f(r, t) [dW(\mathbf{X}, t) + d\xi(t)]. \quad (3.1)$$

167 Using (3.1), the final surface after one jet pass can be predicted by integrating

$$Z(\mathbf{X}, T) = \int_0^T \{\mu(r, t)dt + f(r, t) [dW(\mathbf{X}, t) + d\xi(t)]\}. \quad (3.2)$$

168 Since the solution of (3.2) is not deterministic, the required information can only be extracted by
 169 studying the expectations of this integral. The Itô interpretation has been used throughout this
 170 work, since the fluctuations that are modelled correspond to discrete pulses (i.e. particle impacts)
 171 that are independent from each other [26], and therefore information about future events is not
 172 known at any given moment.

173 (a) Etching rate function

174 The etching rate function, $\mu(r)$, determines the mean erosion rate of the jet and can be found by
 175 using the average profile of a single trench [11]. It is therefore necessary to show how to recover
 176 this method when using a stochastic framework.

177 **Theorem 3.1.** *Taking the expected value of the etched surface, represented in (3.2), leads to*

$$\mathbb{E}[Z(\mathbf{X}, T)] = \int_0^T \mu(r, t) dt. \quad (3.3)$$

178 This recovers the calibration procedure from previous work [12], and allows us to obtain the
 179 etching rate function $\mu(r)$, since the expectations of the two last terms on the right-hand side of
 180 (3.2) are each zero. The proof of theorem 3.1 is given in the [Appendix A](#).

181 (b) Estimating the variability

182 The expected value of the surface does not provide information regarding the variability of the
 183 process. Taking the covariance makes it possible to estimate the other parameters of the model.
 184 Before doing this, remember that

$$\sigma(X, Y) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])(Y - \mathbb{E}[Y])] = \mathbb{E}[XY] - \mathbb{E}[X] \mathbb{E}[Y]. \quad (3.4)$$

185 In this case, these terms would be

$$X = \underbrace{\int_0^T \mu(r, t) dt}_a + \underbrace{\int_0^T f(r, t) d\xi(t)}_b + \underbrace{\int_0^T f(r, t) dW(\mathbf{X}, t)}_c, \quad (3.5)$$

186 and

$$Y = \underbrace{\int_0^T \mu(r', t) dt}_a + \underbrace{\int_0^T f(r', t) d\xi(t)}_{b'} + \underbrace{\int_0^T f(r', t) dW(\mathbf{X}', t)}_{c'}. \quad (3.6)$$

187 In order to compute $\sigma(X, Y)$, it is necessary to study

$$\mathbb{E}[XY] = \mathbb{E}[(a + b + c)(a' + b' + c')], \quad (3.7)$$

188 where the crossed terms are symmetric, such as $\mathbb{E}[ab'] = \mathbb{E}[ba']$. This can be addressed term by
 189 term:

190 (i) $\mathbb{E}[aa']$

$$\mathbb{E}[aa'] = \mathbb{E}[X] \mathbb{E}[Y]; \quad (3.8)$$

191 and this will cancel out with $\mathbb{E}[X] \mathbb{E}[Y]$ in (3.4).

192 (ii) $\mathbb{E}[ac']$

$$\mathbb{E}[ac'] = \mathbb{E}[a] \mathbb{E}[c'] + \sigma(a, c') = 0 \quad (3.9)$$

193 since $\mathbb{E}[c'] = 0$ and $\sigma(a, c') = 0$. The same reasoning applies to $\mathbb{E}[bc']$ and $\mathbb{E}[ab']$.

194 (iii) $\mathbb{E}[cc']$
 195 This term, which contains the correlated random field, has to be studied carefully. It
 196 is easier to analyse the simple case of a non-correlated field first, and then include the
 197 correlation structure.

198 **Theorem 3.2.** *If $dW(\mathbf{X}')$ is a non-correlated Gaussian random field, then*

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[cc'] &= \mathbb{E} \left[\int_0^T f(r, t) dW(\mathbf{X}, t) \int_0^T f(r', t) dW(\mathbf{X}', t) \right] \\ &= \int_0^T f(r, t) f(r', t) dt \end{aligned} \quad (3.10)$$

199 The proof of theorem 3.2 is shown in Appendix B. Equation (3.10) is useful because it
200 provides a mechanism to estimate the covariance matrix in this particular case without
201 solving any stochastic integral. However, since an assumption of the model is that the
202 random field has a correlation structure, it is necessary to investigate how (3.10) behaves
203 in this case.

204 **Theorem 3.3.** *If $dW(\mathbf{X}')$ is a correlated Gaussian random field,*

$$\mathbb{E}[cc'] = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda_n \int_0^T \varphi_n(\mathbf{X}, t) \varphi_n(\mathbf{X}', t) f(\mathbf{X}, t) f(\mathbf{X}', t) dt. \quad (3.11)$$

205 where φ_n and λ_n are the eigenfunctions and eigenvalues of the Karhunen-Loève expansion shown
206 in (2.6).

207 The proof of theorem 3.3 is given in Appendix C.

208 (iv) $\mathbb{E}[bb']$

209 **Theorem 3.4.** *The expression*

$$\mathbb{E}[bb'] = \mathbb{E} \left[\int_0^T f(r, t) d\xi(t) \int_0^T f(r', t) d\xi(t) \right], \quad (3.12)$$

210 where $d\xi(t)$ is an Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process, can be written as

$$\mathbb{E}[bb'] = \sigma^2 e^{-2\theta \int_0^T f(r, s) ds} \left(\int_0^t e^{\theta \int_0^t f(r, s) ds} e^{\theta \int_0^t f(r', s) ds} f(r, t) f(r', t) dt \right). \quad (3.13)$$

211 The proof of theorem 3.4 is provided in Appendix D.

212 Note that \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{X}' are points along a profile over which the jet has completely passed, such
213 as the red line shown in figure 3. This provides enough information to compute the variance, since
214 all the points along the chosen profile have been affected by a full jet pass; and for the correlation
215 between different points, making it possible to establish the relation between a set of points that
216 have been fully impinged by the jet. Therefore, this mechanism makes it possible to compare
217 the estimated covariance structure from either experimental and simulated data with an estimate
218 obtained by solving a simple deterministic integral. Furthermore, using single profiles to estimate
219 the covariance structure is a significant advantage, since the same data can be used to estimate
220 the etching rate and other statistical parameters of the problem at the same time.

221 Both functions μ and f are assumed to be functions of r , the distance to the centre of the jet.
222 The equation to be solved in order to estimate the model parameters for the variability is then

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma(Z, Z') &= \mathbb{E}[cc'] + \mathbb{E}[bb'] \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda_n \int_0^T \varphi_n(\mathbf{X}, t) \varphi_n(\mathbf{X}', t) f(\mathbf{X}, t) f(\mathbf{X}', t) dt + \\ &\quad \sigma^2 e^{-2\theta \int_0^T f(r, s) ds} \left(\int_0^t e^{\theta \int_0^t f(r, s) ds} e^{\theta \int_0^t f(r', s) ds} f(r, t) f(r', t) dt \right). \end{aligned} \quad (3.14)$$

223 The function $f(r)$ can be estimated using only the variance

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(Z) = & \int_0^T f(r, t)^2 dt + \\ & \sigma^2 e^{(-2\theta \int_0^T \mu(r, s) ds)} \left(\int_0^T e^{2\theta \int_0^t \mu(r, s) ds} \mu(r, t)^2 dt \right). \end{aligned} \quad (3.15)$$

224 Once $f(r)$ is known, the correlation length-scale can be determined making use of the full
 225 covariance matrix. Both (3.14) and (3.15) can be computed numerically. The strength of this
 226 framework resides in developing a non-stochastic expression for the covariance matrix that
 227 accounts for the erosion process, making it possible to use AWJ milled trenches to estimate the
 228 process variance, $f(r)$, and use it to generate complex shapes. Note that the expected value and
 229 the covariance can be estimated for single straight passes, but more complex features could be
 230 investigated approximating (3.2) numerically with the Milstein method [27], and using Monte
 231 Carlo methods to study the expectations of the generated surface.

232 4. Application to abrasive waterjet machining

233 The explanation of the model has been kept as generic as possible so far in order to provide a
 234 consistent framework that could be extended to other problems in energy beam processing [28].
 235 In this section, the model is illustrated for AWJ milling.

236 (a) Correlation structure of the Gaussian random field

237 The correlation kernel for the random field is assumed to be Gaussian, since it is expected that
 238 points that are further away than the size of the particles will have no correlation. This kernel can
 239 be written, for one dimension, as

$$K(x, x') = e^{-\varepsilon^2(x-x')^2}. \quad (4.1)$$

240 The eigenvalue problem for this kernel is

$$\int_{-a}^a e^{-\varepsilon^2(x-x')^2} \phi(y) dy = \lambda \phi(x), \quad (4.2)$$

241 and it can be solved analytically [29]. The eigenvalues are given by

$$\lambda_i = \frac{\alpha \varepsilon^{2n}}{\left(\frac{\alpha^2}{2} \left(1 + \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{2\varepsilon}{\alpha} \right)^2} \right) + \varepsilon^2 \right)^{0.5+n}}, \quad (4.3)$$

242 and the eigenfunctions have the form

$$\phi_i(x) = \frac{\sqrt[8]{1 + \left(\frac{2\varepsilon}{\alpha} \right)^2}}{\sqrt{2^n n!}} e^{-\left(\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{2\varepsilon}{\alpha} \right)^2} - 1 \right) \frac{\alpha^2 x^2}{2}} H_n \left(\sqrt[4]{1 + \left(\frac{2\varepsilon}{\alpha} \right)^2} \alpha x \right) \quad (4.4)$$

243 with the local length-scale parameter ε , the weigh function $\rho(x) = e^{-\alpha^2 x^2}$ that localizes the
 244 eigenfunctions, and the Hermite polynomials H_n . Since the two-dimensional exponential kernel
 245 is separable, these 1D results can easily be extended to 2D. The correlation kernel can be written
 246 as

$$C(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{X}') = e^{-\left(\varepsilon_1^2 (X_1 - X'_1)^2 + \varepsilon_2^2 (X_2 - X'_2)^2 \right)}, \quad (4.5)$$

247 and the eigenvalues and eigenvectors from (4.3) and (4.4) can be used to construct the solutions
 248 for the multidimensional case,

$$\phi_j(\mathbf{X}) = \phi_i^1(X_1) \phi_k^2(X_2) \quad , \quad \lambda_j = \lambda_i^1 \lambda_k^2. \quad (4.6)$$

249 For this model, it is assumed that $\varepsilon = \varepsilon_1 = \varepsilon_2$. These assumptions result in a problem that
 250 depends on the correlation length-scale, ε , while the global parameter α is chosen according to
 251 the size of the system.

252 (b) Radial dependence of the variability

253 Since the spatial distribution of particles within the jet is known to be Gaussian [5], a similar
 254 behaviour is expected for the variability. For this reason, the function $f(r; t)$ has been chosen to
 255 be Gaussian,

$$f(r) = b_1 e^{-2b_2(r)^2}, \quad (4.7)$$

256 where $r = r(\mathbf{X}; t)$ has been defined in (2.2). Then, replacing (4.6) and (4.7) in (3.14), and using
 257 the truncated Karhunen-Loève expansion, one can compute explicit expressions to estimate the
 258 variance and the covariance. The estimation procedure is then:

- 259 (i) Estimate $Cov(Z(\mathbf{X}, T), Z(\mathbf{X}', T))$ using experimental data.
 260 (ii) Compare these data with the predicted variance, and thereby determine four parameters:
 261 b_1 , b_2 , θ and σ . This optimization can be performed using a global search method,
 262 DIRECT-L [30], followed by a local optimization using COBYLA [31] to improve accuracy.
 263 This can be carried out minimising the cost function

$$J_1(b_1, b_2, \theta, \sigma) = \|Var_{exp}(Z) - Var_{sim}(Z)\|, \quad (4.8)$$

264 where $Var_{sim}(Z)$ is given by (3.15).

- 265 (iii) Find the correlation length scale, ε^{-1} , that minimises the cost function

$$J_2(\varepsilon^{-1}) = \|Cov_{exp}(Z, Z') - Cov_{sim}(Z, Z')\|, \quad (4.9)$$

266 where $Cov_{sim}(Z, Z')$ is given by (3.14).

267 Although computing the covariance can be expensive (i.e. around 40 minutes, although this
 268 depends strongly on the initial guess), the possibility of computing the variance without taking
 269 the correlation into account makes it possible to perform the optimization within a reasonable
 270 time, up to 8 times faster than in the full case. With the tools explained in previous section, it
 271 is now possible to make use of the model to predict the variability of abrasive waterjet milled
 272 footprints.

273 5. Experimental methodology

274 The machine used to generate the experimental data for this work is a Microwaterjet 3-axis
 275 machine developed by Waterjet AG, which can be used with several cutting systems with nozzle
 276 diameters from 0.2 to 0.8mm. The equipment is designed to perform high accuracy cutting
 277 operations (≤ 0.01 mm), and a positioning accuracy of ± 0.003 mm. The chosen system has a
 278 jet diameter of 0.5mm, and is used for this research because of its reduced size compared to
 279 conventional AWJ nozzles, which are 0.78mm or larger, good repeatability in producing circular
 280 jets and stability at low pressure (i.e. < 200 MPa). These conditions make this equipment ideal to
 281 test the mathematical concepts presented here. The pressure of the system is provided by a KMT
 282 streamline SL-V100D ultra-high pressure pump, with a pressure range from 70 to 400MPa.

283 In order to perform AWJ controlled-depth milling, relatively low pressure to control the
 284 erosion power of the jet was used. For this reason, and based on preliminary experimental work,
 285 the pressure is set to 138MPa throughout this testing programme. The abrasive particles used
 286 for this study are BARTON HPX #220. The reliability of the surface measurements is enhanced by
 287 measuring the milled features *in-situ*; this significantly reduces the alignment errors that might be
 288 introduced by moving the workpiece after milling. The channels are measured using a white light
 289 interferometer with a measurement range of 1.1mm , a spot size of $8\mu\text{m}$ and an axial resolution of
 290 25nm . The experimental setup is shown in figure 5.

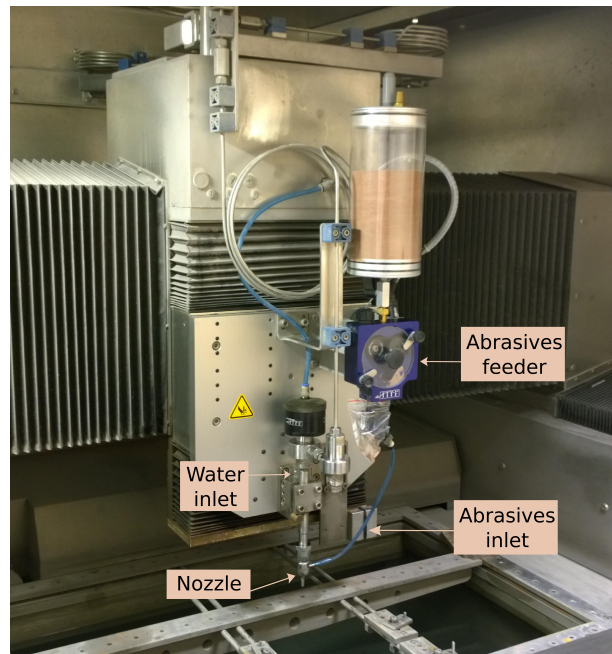


Figure 5: Abrasive microwaterjet machine used to perform experimental tests to validate the model.

P (MPa)	138
\dot{m}_a (g/s)	0.5
Nozzle diameter (mm)	0.5
Abrasive mesh size	220
v_f (mm/s)	25.00 - 58.33

Table 1: Operating parameters used to calibrate and validate the model.

291 The model was validated by performing experimental tests on a Titanium based alloy (Ti-6Al-
 292 4V). The objective of the validation step is to show that by performing two sets of jet passes,
 293 one at high speed (58.33mm/s) and another at low speed (25mm/s), it is possible to predict the
 294 variability of the jet footprint at any feed speed within this range. The operating parameters used
 295 for validation are shown in table 1. In order to gather consistent information on the process, each
 296 set of parameters has been repeated 10 times, performing jet passes of 70mm length. Figure 6
 297 shows an example of an abrasive waterjet machined trench and an example of the surface data.

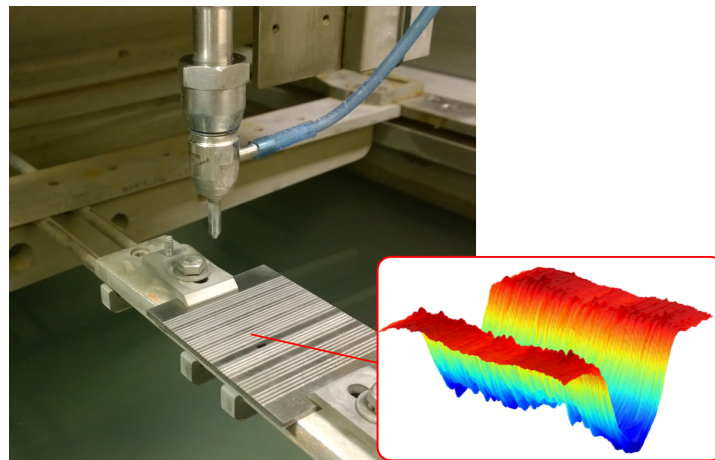


Figure 6: Example of one sample with several jet passes. The surface is scanned to extract 3D data of the abrasive waterjet footprint profiles from experimental data.

298 The method described in sections 2 and 3 is:

- 299 (i) Perform two jet passes at the highest and the lowest feed speeds.
 300 (ii) Use the average profile of the shallow trench to estimate the etching rate function, $\mu(r)$.
 301 (iii) Calibrate the parameters of the variability, b_1 ; b_2 ; θ ; and σ ; using (3.15).
 302 (iv) Using the expression in (3.14), compute the covariance matrix using the data of the
 303 shallow trench to estimate the correlation length-scale parameter, ε .
 304 (v) Perform jet passes at different feed speeds within the proposed range to test the
 305 predictions performed by the model solving (3.3) for the average profile and (3.15) for
 306 the variability.

307 Note that the last step could also be carried out by performing Monte Carlo simulations solving
 308 (3.2) numerically. This approach is computationally more expensive, but it can be used to simulate
 309 larger features with complex jet-paths.

310 6. Results and discussion

311 The model has been implemented in C++ with extensive use of the linear algebra library
 312 Armadillo [32] and the optimization package NLOpt [33]. This implementation has been
 313 developed to approximate numerically the integrals in (3.14) and (3.15), and therefore compute
 314 and minimize the cost functions (4.8) and (4.9) to estimate the parameters of the model. After this,
 315 the results for single jet passes can be either estimated using (3.14) and (3.15), or alternatively
 316 using Monte Carlo methods to evaluate (3.2). The computation time required to perform a
 317 complete test, including calibration and validation of the model is less than 10 minutes with
 318 a standard computer. This running time is similar to the one required in [12], and could be
 319 improved drastically by investigating alternative methods to estimate the parameters. Hence,
 320 the framework developed in this investigation provides a method to predict the jet variability,
 321 together with the average footprint profile, without increasing the computation costs. This
 322 technique could therefore be implemented in CAD/CAM applications to enable the improvement
 323 of the quality of abrasive waterjet milled surfaces.

324 In order to test the validity of the model, the results have been compared from different
 325 perspectives. First, numerical results comparing the predicted and experimental variability of the

326 footprint using the full data set are shown; this includes a comparison of the covariance matrices.
 327 Second, the statistical properties of single profiles are compared to determine whether the model
 328 is adequate to describe the effect of the erosion process on the surface. Third, a discussion of
 329 the effectiveness of the calibration procedure is provided, focusing on how the model depends
 330 on the quality of the experimental data, since the prediction of the variability can be affected if
 331 anomalous results are used to estimate the parameters of the model. The values of the parameters
 332 of the model used is shown in table 2.

b_1 (mm/s)	8.47977
b_2 (mm ⁻²)	$9.41678 \cdot 10^{-2}$
σ	$8.3552 \cdot 10^{-2}$
θ	$8.3249 \cdot 10^{-2}$
ε^{-1} (mm)	0.1241

Table 2: Parameters of the model.

333 (a) Validation of the model

334 The results of the model have been tested using 10 sets of milled channels at different feed speeds,
 335 as shown in table 1. Figure 7 shows the comparison of the average waterjet footprint profile at
 336 different jet feed speeds. The use of a linear model provides a good estimation of the average
 337 shape of the footprint, although this may need to be adapted for different materials or more
 338 complicated features; previous examples [12,13] show how this may be carried out.

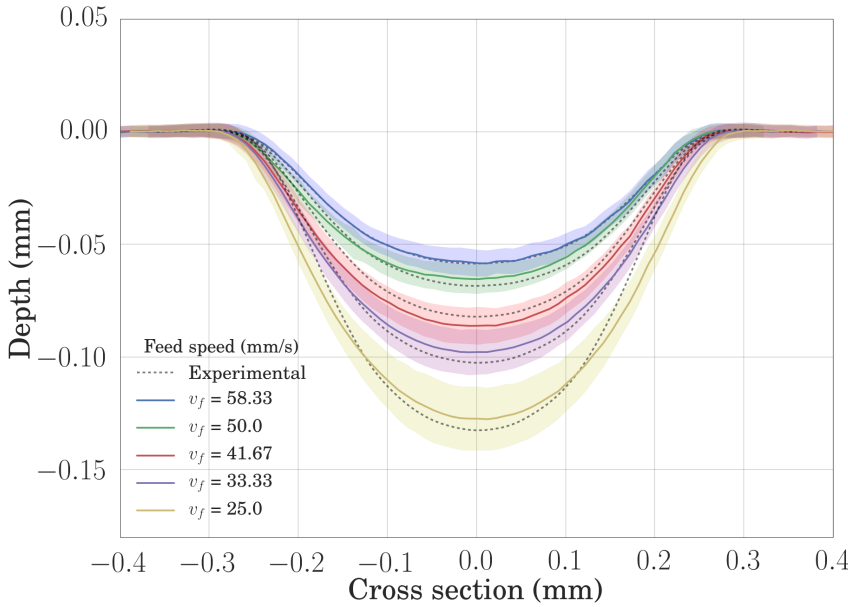
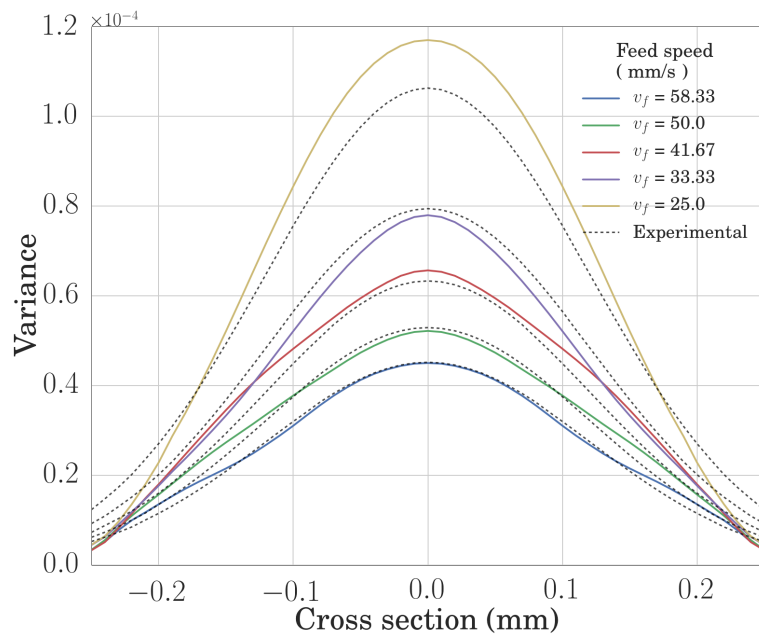


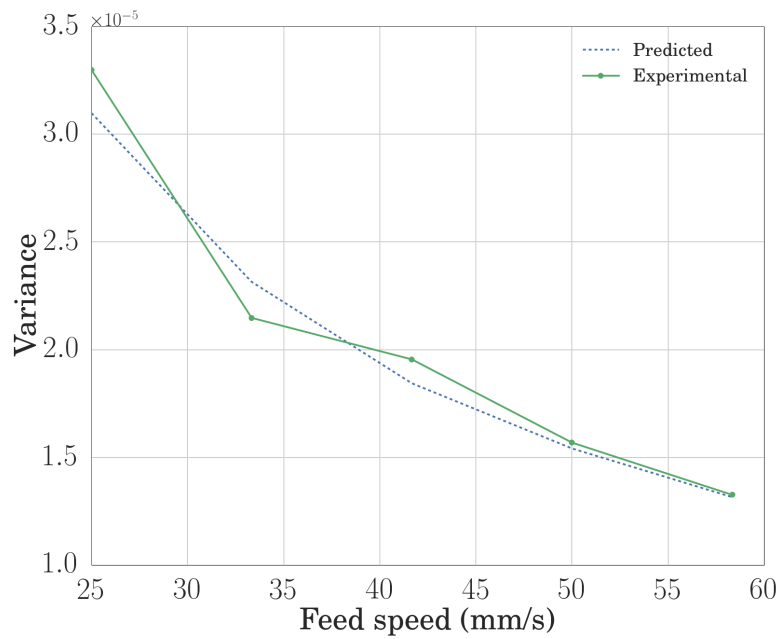
Figure 7: Average kerf profiles at different feed speeds. The shadowed area represents the standard deviation of the experimental trenches.

339 The profiles of the standard deviation across the jet are shown in figure 8a, suggesting that the
340 fluctuations of the process can be estimated reasonably well. This is a promising result because
341 it implies that the noise can be quantified numerically and, at the same time, the profile of such
342 fluctuations can be predicted in advance. This could be potentially used to design smarter jet-
343 path strategies that take the surface quality into account. It must be noted that the shape of
344 the predicted noise profiles differs from the observed ones near the edges of the trench; this is
345 influenced by the choice of $f(r)$, and, therefore, it can be improved by estimating it numerically
346 or finding more appropriate functions. Figure 8b shows the value of the integral of the profiles
347 shown in figure 8a. This is shown to evaluate how the model performs in order to estimate the
348 total noise of the process for single jet passes. It is observed that the model can predict this pattern
349 successfully within the range of jet feed speeds presented here.

350 The results shown in this section show that the model successfully captures the dependence of
351 the standard deviation of the jet footprint on the jet feed speed. The prediction is better at higher
352 jet feed speed, and this suggests that there may be non-linear effects below $v_f = 25\text{mm/s}$ that
353 affect the noise when the aspect ratio is larger. This is a limitation of the model presented here,
354 and it shows that controlled-depth milling at low jet feed speeds results in large fluctuations,
355 making the process difficult to control and therefore not applicable for industrial manufacturing.



(a)

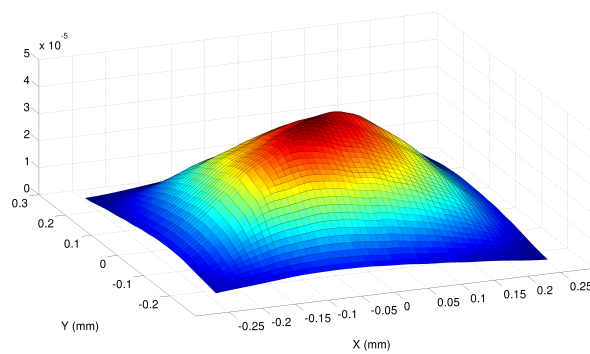


(b)

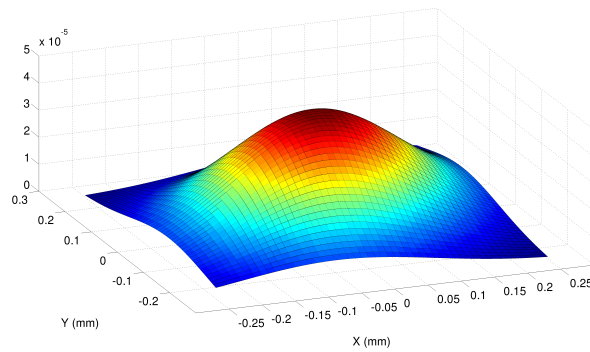
Figure 8: Comparison of predicted and experimental variance at different jet feed speeds. a) Profile of the variance across the jet footprint. b) Evolution of the uncertainty of the trench profile with the jet feed speed.

356 (b) Properties of the milled surface

357 The proposed framework has been proven to be adequate to predict the variability across the jet
 358 footprint. Another aspect that the model takes into account is the correlation between different
 359 points in the workpiece, as explained in section 2(b)i, since the capability of predicting the
 360 statistical properties of the surface is important. Figure 9a shows the estimated covariance matrix
 361 from a single experimental jet pass, and this can be compared to the estimated covariance from
 362 the simulated case. It is observed that the model successfully captures the correlation between
 363 different points within the surface using an exponential correlation kernel. It must be noted that
 364 this feature could be changed if the process showed different properties, either by using a different
 365 kernel or by estimating the correlation structure from experimental data.



(a)



(b)

Figure 9: Comparison of predicted and experimental covariance of abrasive waterjet milled trenches with a jet feed speed $v_f = 58.33 \text{ mm/s}$. a) Experimental covariance matrix. b) Predicted covariance with an exponential correlation kernel.

366 The introduction of the correlation is a key element of predicting statistical information of the
 367 etched surface, and this feature can provide an insight into the suitability of the process for a given
 368 application by taking into account such information. However, it must be noted that including
 369 this effect has a significant computational cost, and it could be removed if it was not relevant for
 370 a particular problem.

371 (c) Dependence of the method on available data

372 The proposal of a stochastic model for AWJ milling acknowledges the high variability inherent
 373 in the process. The method provided to estimate the parameters of the model relies on the use
 374 of good quality data to yield the right set of parameters. However, performing only two jet
 375 passes at different speeds does not yield significant information, since single realisations of non-
 376 deterministic processes are not meaningful. Figure 10 shows the average results obtained with
 377 10 data sets, as in figure 8b, together with the experimental result of each individual data set.
 378 The risk of using a single set of results is clear from the observation of single sets. In figure
 379 10f, the model would underestimate significantly the noise at low speeds, and this would cause
 380 an underestimation of the variability for higher jet feed speeds because this result is used for
 381 calibration. A different case, in 10g, shows that the variability at $v_f = 50\text{mm/s}$ is lower than at
 382 $v_f = 58.33\text{mm/s}$. Should this jet feed speed interval be the velocity range of interest for a given
 383 problem, an anomalous result such as this one would yield a completely opposite outcome from
 384 the pattern that is expected of this process and, eventually, would give unsatisfactory results.

385 The purpose of this comment is to explain the limitations of the model, since dealing with
 386 a stochastic system in a manufacturing process implies that the uncertainties may lead to
 387 unexpected results in some cases. By using techniques to predict the variability, such as the
 388 method presented in this paper, one can develop techniques to minimize this risk. At the same
 389 time, it reinforces the idea that quality and amount of data used for calibration is important, and
 390 this must be taken into account when implementing a methodology that includes this model.

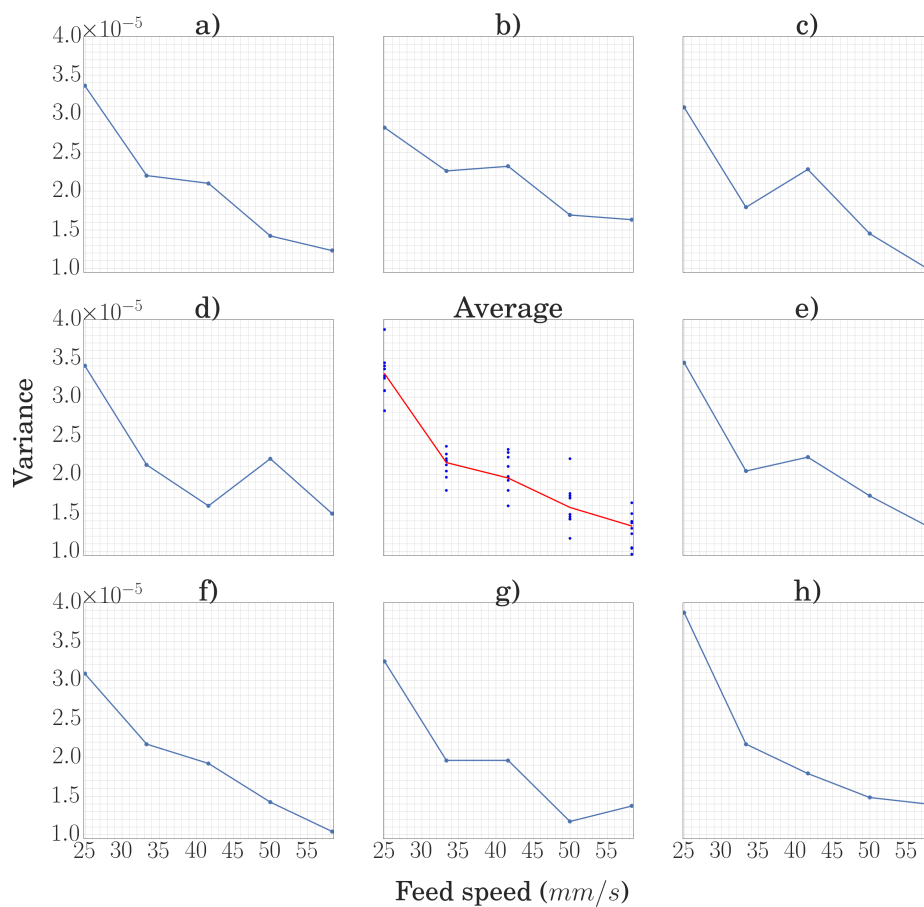


Figure 10: Comparison of the average results with individual data sets.

7. Conclusions

In contrast to conventional methods that aim to predict the mean depth-of-cut or kerf profile, the work presented here proposes a new mathematical framework that is appropriate not only to describe the average outcome of AWJ controlled-depth milling, but also for predicting the variability of an AWJ machined surface for different operating parameters. The model developed in this paper makes it possible to relate theoretical and experimental aspects of the variability of the process and it can be implemented into the most advanced AWJ machines to generate 3D free-forms with the existing technology. By accounting for the stochastic nature of the process, this new approach presents a more realistic model for AWJM since it can be used to enhance the capabilities of current AWJ machines by choosing jet path strategies that minimise the variability. Moreover, since the model is based on a stochastic partial differential equation that represents the evolution of a surface when it is affected by an energy beam, it could be extended to other energy beam processing methods. The main conclusions of this work are:

- Stochastic partial differential equations have been successfully used to reproduce the statistical properties of an AWJ etched surface. This provides a consistent mathematical framework to predict the variability of AWJ milled trenches to within $< 8\%$ error, and gives us a tool to overcome one of the most important limitations on this growing technology.
- The combination of correlated Gaussian random fields with a mean reverting stochastic process makes it possible to model the different sources of fluctuations in the process, such as the randomness of the impact of the abrasive particles and the noise caused by the equipment.
- The development of a new model calibration procedure proves that using the same data required to estimate the etching rate function, one can evaluate the variance and the correlation length-scale of the process. This maximises the amount of information extracted from the experimental data.
- The use of this method not only makes it possible to predict quantitatively the variability of the AWJ milled surfaces for different feed speeds, but also provides a method to generate simulated surfaces with similar statistical properties to the experimental ones.
- This framework is a significant achievement in AWJ machining research, and for other energy beam processes, since its implementation into jet-path generation routines can help improve the surface quality with existing machines. Since it is a simplified approach, it has the advantage of being a fast prediction tool compared with other approaches, such as finite element analysis or artificial intelligence methods. Compared with other deterministic approaches, this framework could potentially be used to complement monitoring methods by including control of the fluctuations of the system, obtaining online information about the deviation from the expected machined surface without surface measurements.

Further research is required to integrate this method into modelling frameworks to simulate overlapping jet passes and, eventually, into optimization routines to find the most suitable jet-paths to enhance the surface quality after the machining process by minimizing the variability of the etched features.

Data accessibility

The data used for this study has been uploaded as electronic supplementary material.

Competing interests

The authors have no competing interests.

437 **Authors' contributions**

438 PLT carried out the development and implementation of the mathematical model, experimental
439 work and drafted the manuscript. JB contributed to the mathematical development of this work
440 and helped draft the manuscript. DA coordinated the project, supported the experimental work
441 and helped draft the manuscript. All authors gave final approval for publication.

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447 **Ethics statement**

448 This work did not pose any ethical issues.

449 Appendix A.

450 *Proof.* To prove that the expected values of the stochastic terms in (3.2) are zero, we can analyze
 451 them independently. Since $dW(\mathbf{X})$ is a correlated Gaussian random field as discussed in section
 452 **i**, it has a spectral decomposition given by (2.6). The expected value of this term is therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} \left[\int_0^T f(\mathbf{X}_i, t) dW(\mathbf{X}_i, t) \right] &= \mathbb{E} \left[\int_0^T \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sqrt{\lambda_n} \varphi_n(\mathbf{X}_i, t) f(\mathbf{X}_i, t) d\zeta_n(t) \right] \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sqrt{\lambda_n} \varphi_n(\mathbf{X}_i, t) \mathbb{E} \left[\int_0^T f(\mathbf{X}_i, t) d\zeta_n(t) \right], \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.1})$$

453 It can be then shown that, if f is bounded,

$$\mathbb{E} \left[\int_0^T f(\mathbf{X}_i, t) d\zeta_n(t) \right] = \int_0^T f(\mathbf{X}_i, t) \mathbb{E} [d\zeta_n(t)] = 0, \quad (\text{A.2})$$

454 since $d\zeta_n(t)$ represents a Wiener process, therefore proving that the expectation of the term
 455 representing the random field is zero. The same reasoning can be used for the other term, by
 456 taking into account that

$$\mathbb{E} [d\xi(t)] = 0, \quad (\text{A.3})$$

457 when its mean, ν , and initial value are zero. \square

458 Appendix B.

459 *Proof.* Assume that $dW(\mathbf{X}', t)$ is uncorrelated noise, and define

$$\varepsilon = \mathbb{E} \left[\int_0^T f(\mathbf{X}, t) dW(\mathbf{X}, t) \int_0^T f(\mathbf{X}', t) dW(\mathbf{X}', t) - \int_0^T f(\mathbf{X}, t) f(\mathbf{X}', t) dt \right]. \quad (\text{B.1})$$

460 It must be proved that $\varepsilon = 0$ [34]. For this, we rewrite it in its discrete form

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon = \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_k f(\mathbf{X}, t_{k-1}) \Delta W_k \sum_j f(\mathbf{X}', t_{j-1}) \Delta W_j - \right. \\ \left. \sum_k f(\mathbf{X}, t_{k-1}) f(\mathbf{X}', t_{k-1}) \Delta t_k \right] \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B.2})$$

461 Now decompose the first term on the right-hand side into three terms:

- 462 i) $\sum_{k < j} f(\mathbf{X}, t_{k-1}) f(\mathbf{X}', t_{j-1}) \Delta W_k \Delta W_j$,
 463 ii) $\sum_{k > j} f(\mathbf{X}, t_{k-1}) f(\mathbf{X}', t_{j-1}) \Delta W_k \Delta W_j$,
 464 iii) $\sum_{k=j} f(\mathbf{X}, t_{k-1}) f(\mathbf{X}', t_{k-1}) \Delta W_k^2$.

465 The first term can be rearranged as

$$\mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{k < j} f(\mathbf{X}, t_{k-1}) f(\mathbf{X}', t_{j-1}) \Delta W_k \Delta W_j \right] = \sum_{k < j} \mathbb{E} [f(\mathbf{X}, t_{k-1}) f(\mathbf{X}', t_{j-1}) \Delta W_k \Delta W_j] \quad (\text{B.3})$$

466 To simplify, we define

$$A = f(\mathbf{X}, t_{k-1}) f(\mathbf{X}', t_{j-1}) \Delta W_k, \quad B = \Delta W_j. \quad (\text{B.4})$$

467 The expected value of a product is therefore

$$\mathbb{E}[AB] = \iint abp(a,b)dadb, \quad (\text{B.5})$$

468 where the joint probability distribution, $p(a,b)$, has the form $p(a)p(b)$ if A and B are
 469 independent. Since (B.3) has $k < j$, ΔW_k and ΔW_j are independent, while the functions f are not
 470 relevant since they are deterministic. As a result, (B.5) can be written as a product of expectations,
 471 $\mathbb{E}[A]\mathbb{E}[B]$ and, by definition,

$$\mathbb{E}[B] = \mathbb{E}[\Delta W_j] = 0. \quad (\text{B.6})$$

472 The same steps can be followed to prove the same result for the term *ii*. This simplifies (B.2),
 473 which becomes

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon = \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_k f(\mathbf{X}, t_{k-1}) \Delta W_k f(\mathbf{X}', t_{k-1}) \Delta W_k - \right. \\ \left. \sum_k f(\mathbf{X}, t_{k-1}) f(\mathbf{X}', t_{k-1}) \Delta t_k \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B.7})$$

474 Taking the deterministic functions out of the expectation gives

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon = \sum_k f(\mathbf{X}, t_{k-1}) f(\mathbf{X}', t_{k-1}) \mathbb{E}[\Delta W_k^2] - \\ \sum_k f(\mathbf{X}, t_{k-1}) f(\mathbf{X}', t_{k-1}) \Delta t_k, \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B.8})$$

475 and finally $\varepsilon = 0$, since $E[\Delta W_k^2] = \Delta t_k$, proving Theorem 3.2.
 476 □

477 Appendix C.

478 *Proof.* Equation (3.10) can be rewritten using the Karhunen-Loève expansion as

$$\mathbb{E}[cc'] = E \left[\int_0^T f(\mathbf{X}, t) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sqrt{\lambda_n} \varphi_n(\mathbf{X}, t) d\zeta_n(t) \int_0^T f(\mathbf{X}', t') \sum_{n'=1}^{\infty} \sqrt{\lambda_{n'}} \varphi_{n'}(\mathbf{X}', t) d\zeta_{n'}(t) \right]. \quad (\text{C.1})$$

479 This can be manipulated to get

$$\mathbb{E}[cc'] = E \left[\int_0^T \int_0^T \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f(\mathbf{X}, t) f(\mathbf{X}', t') \sqrt{\lambda_n} \sqrt{\lambda_{n'}} \varphi_n(\mathbf{X}, t) \varphi_{n'}(\mathbf{X}', t) d\zeta_n(t) d\zeta_{n'}(t) \right], \quad (\text{C.2})$$

480 and, using the linearity of the expectation,

$$\sigma(Z, Z') = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sqrt{\lambda_n} \sqrt{\lambda_{n'}} E \left[\int_0^T \int_0^T \varphi_n(\mathbf{X}, t) \varphi_{n'}(\mathbf{X}', t) f(\mathbf{X}, t) f(\mathbf{X}', t') d\zeta_n(t) d\zeta_{n'}(t) \right]. \quad (\text{C.3})$$

481 Now, we can obtain equation (3.11) using (3.10) and taking into account that the eigenvectors are
 482 orthonormal. □

483 Appendix D.

484 *Proof.* In order to compute this term, we must be able to determine the integral

$$I(T) = \int_0^T f(r, t) d\xi(t). \quad (\text{D.1})$$

485 This can be done by looking at the solution of a more general stochastic differential equation,

$$dX_t = \{a_1(t)X_t + a_2(t)\} + b_2(t)d\eta(t). \quad (\text{D.2})$$

486 The solution for this can be obtained using the change of variable

$$d(\ln X_t) = a_1(t)dt, \quad \Phi_{t,t_0} = \exp \int_{t_0}^t a_1(s)ds, \quad (\text{D.3})$$

487 and applying Itô's lemma to get

$$dY_t = a_2(t)\Phi_{t,t_0}^{-1}dt + b_2(t)\Phi_{t,t_0}^{-1}d\eta(t), \quad (\text{D.4})$$

488 with

$$U(t, x) = \Phi_{t,t_0}^{-1}x, \quad Y_t = U(t, X_t), \quad (\text{D.5})$$

489 which has the integral form

$$X_t = \Phi_{t,t_0} \left\{ X_{t_0} + \int_{t_0}^t a_2(s)\Phi_{s,t_0}^{-1}ds + \int_{t_0}^t b_2(s)\Phi_{s,t_0}^{-1}d\eta(s) \right\}. \quad (\text{D.6})$$

490 We take

$$a_1(t) = -\theta f(t) \quad a_2(t) = 0 \quad b_2(t) = \sigma f(t), \quad (\text{D.7})$$

491 and, since $X_{t_0} = 0$,

$$X_t = \sigma \Phi_{t,t_0} \left\{ \int_{t_0}^t f(s)\Phi_{s,t_0}^{-1}d\eta(s) \right\}. \quad (\text{D.8})$$

492 Using (D.8), (3.12) becomes

$$\mathbb{E}[bb'] = \sigma^2 \Phi_{T,0}^2 \mathbb{E} \left[\int_0^T f(r, s)\Phi_{s,0}^{-1}d\eta(s) \int_0^T f(r', s)\Phi_{s,0}^{-1}d\eta(s) \right]. \quad (\text{D.9})$$

493 Moreover, replacing

$$\gamma(r, s) = f(r, s)\Phi_{s,0}^{-1}, \quad (\text{D.10})$$

494 it is easy to see that (D.9) can be rewritten as

$$\mathbb{E}[bb'] = \sigma^2 \Phi_{T,0}^2 \mathbb{E} \left[\int_0^T \gamma(r, s)d\eta(s) \int_0^T \gamma(r', s)d\eta(s) \right], \quad (\text{D.11})$$

495 and this expression is similar to (3.10). From this, we can obtain (3.13) by replacing $\gamma(r, s)$ and
496 Φ . □

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