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Application of 3D-printed metal pistons in internal combustion engines: advantages and challenges

The application of 3D-printed metal pistons in internal combustion engines (ICE) presents significant advantages, including enhanced design flexibility, weight reduction, and improved thermal management. This innovative manufacturing technique enables the creation of complex geometries and tailored surface textures, contributing to better fuel efficiency and reduced emissions. Moreover, it opens new possibilities for customised piston design in advanced combustion strategies. However, challenges such as material anisotropy, surface roughness, and long-term reliability must be addressed to ensure consistent and safe performance under demanding engine conditions. Ongoing research in material science, process optimisation, and post-processing techniques is essential for overcoming these hurdles and realising the full industrial potential of 3D-printed pistons in modern ICE technology.

1. Introduction

The growing demand for improved fuel efficiency and reduced emissions has become a central driver of innovation in internal combustion engine (ICE) technology, prompting academia and industry to seek transformative solutions [43]. Among these innovations, additive manufacturing (AM) of metal pistons stands out as a revolutionary advancement, offering unprecedented freedom in design optimization and functional integration. Unlike conventional casting or forging techniques, which constrain the geometric complexity and material distribution within pistons, 3D printing enables engineers to fabricate components with complex internal lattice structures, conformal cooling channels, and tailored surface textures that were previously unachievable [24, 36]. These capabilities facilitate significant enhancements in thermal management, mass reduction, and combustion dynamics—all of which contribute to higher power output, improved fuel economy, and lower pollutant emissions.

Furthermore, 3D printing enables the precise customization of piston geometries to suit advanced combustion strategies, such as homogeneous charge compression ignition (HCCI) or direct fuel injection, resulting in more uniform combustion and reduced engine knock. This level of customization, combined with the potential to integrate sensor networks for real-time monitoring of mechanical stress, temperature, and pressure, positions 3D-printed pistons at the forefront of smart engine components. However, despite the promise, this technological shift also introduces various engineering and economic challenges, including material anisotropy, surface roughness, long-term reliability, and cost-effectiveness in mass production. These challenges necessitate ongoing research in material science, process optimization, and post-processing techniques to ensure performance consistency and durability under demanding engine conditions.

This paper aims to comprehensively explore the benefits, technical limitations, and industrial prospects of 3D-printed metal pistons, highlighting recent progress in additive manufacturing technologies and examining how these components could reshape the future of internal combustion engines [53]. By addressing both the opportunities and constraints of this approach, the discussion seeks to provide a realistic yet forward-looking assessment of additive manufacturing's role in advancing next-generation engine systems.

2. Literature review

The integration of additive manufacturing (AM) into the design and production of internal combustion engine (ICE) components represents a paradigm shift in engineering. AM enables the fabrication of highly complex geometries, weight-optimized structures, and functionally graded materials that were previously unattainable using conventional casting or forging techniques. These capabilities are particularly advantageous in piston design, where thermal management, mechanical strength, and lightweight are simultaneously critical.

Recent reviews by [11, 25, 49] indicate that piston-grade alloys are primarily processed using laser powder bed fusion (LPBF), due to its high dimensional accuracy and compatibility with AlSi10Mg, Ti6Al4V and nickel-based superalloys. Electron beam melting (EBM) offers improved control of residual stress, while directed energy deposition (DED), frequently discussed by [5], is increasingly used for repairing worn piston crowns and ring grooves. Each AM technique produces characteristic microstructures and defect distributions that directly influence fatigue, thermomechanical resistance and post-processing requirements.

Kolganov et al. [30] and Adamou et al. [2] report that AM facilitates the production of robust engine components such as cylinder heads and combustion chambers. The design freedom offered by AM supports the integration of internal vanes, lattice cooling structures, and advanced fuel injection features, which collectively improve combustion uniformity and reduce emissions of NO_x and unburned

hydrocarbons. In micro-gas turbines, for instance, such designs have already yielded measurable performance and emission benefits.

A growing body of work, including studies by [8, 41], emphasizes the importance of design-for-additive-manufacturing (DfAM) in engine components. Principles such as load-path alignment, minimization of overhangs, control of heat-affected zones, and orientation-aware topology optimization enable the integration of conformal cooling channels, lattice-reinforced skirts, and variable-thickness crowns. These design adaptations improve stiffness and reduce thermal gradients compared to cast pistons.

Dolan et al. [14] and Dongre et al. [16] demonstrated that 3D-printed pistons, particularly heavy-duty diesel engines, can incorporate optimized ribbed and honeycomb structures that reduce mass while maintaining stiffness. These designs are feasible exclusively due to AM's topology optimisation capability, which efficiently redistributes material load. Selvaraj et al. [42] validated such designs using finite element modelling, confirming mechanical gains with no stress concentration in critical regions. AM also enables multi-material printing – for example, combining high-strength tool steels with copper alloys to enhance thermal conductivity without compromising structural integrity. Gray et al. [22] report the successful production of OEM-grade components, such as aluminum cylinder heads, using laser powder bed fusion (LPBF) with reduced porosity and high dimensional accuracy.

The LPBF microstructure of AlSi10Mg is characterised by melt-pool bands, fine cellular silicon networks and rapid-solidification dendrites, as extensively described by [15, 19, 40]. This architecture contributes to high as-built strength yet also introduces anisotropy and stress-raising interfaces. Typical AM defects, such as gas pores, lack-of-fusion voids, and keyhole porosity, are strongly correlated with crack initiation under cyclic loading, making microstructural control essential for piston-grade applications.

Despite AM's advantages, fatigue performance remains a bottleneck, particularly for alloys such as AlSi10Mg, which are commonly used in piston applications. Romano et al. [40] and Dan et al. [10] demonstrate that the fatigue strength of such components is influenced by defect size and distribution, which are attributed to porosity and layer-by-layer fabrication. However, post-processing treatments, such as T6 heat treatment, polishing, and nano-alloying (e.g., TiB_2 reinforcement), have significantly enhanced fatigue life. Machine learning-assisted studies [34] further indicate that surface roughness is dominant in the elastic fatigue regime.

Build orientation and process parameters have a decisive influence on fatigue performance. Ngnekou [15] and Zhang [51] show that specimens built at 0° consistently outperform those built at 90°, due to fewer lack-of-fusion defects and more favourable melt-pool alignment. Studies by [19, 40] demonstrate that optimizing scan speed, hatch spacing, and volumetric energy density reduces defect size and scatter, significantly increasing the high-cycle fatigue limit.

The following table summarizes influential studies and their contributions to developing 3D-printed pistons and AM applications in ICE.

Table 1. Summary of key studies on additive manufacturing in piston design and internal combustion engines [2, 10, 14, 16, 22, 30, 31, 40, 42]

Focus area	Key contributions
General AM in ICE components	Enables durable, complex engine parts
AM combustion chambers and emissions	Improved fuel-air mixing; reduced NO_x
3D printed pistons: geometry and cooling	Advanced geometries; improved cooling
Topology optimization of piston design	Weight reduction with maintained strength
Structural modeling of optimized pistons	FEA-validated piston stiffness gains
Fatigue modeling of AlSi10Mg pistons	Defect-based fatigue life predictions
Nano-alloying to improve fatigue life	Nanostructure enhancement of fatigue resistance
LPBF cylinder heads and crankcases	OEM-grade AM components with low porosity
Heat treatment for AM consistency	Improved microstructure and mechanical reliability

Table 1 illustrates that the development of 3D-printed pistons encompasses a range from general structural innovations to fine-tuned fatigue resistance and emission optimization. A key observation is the trend toward multi-material solutions and structural simulations, which suggests a maturing field transitioning from feasibility to application-specific refinement.

Residual stress accumulation is another critical issue highlighted in AM literature. Reviews by Liu [33] and Martina [35] demonstrate that steep thermal gradients during LPBF generate high tensile stresses at the surface, thereby increasing distortion risk and reducing fatigue life. Mitigation strategies include substrate preheating [52], chessboard scanning or low-power strategies [7], and topology-optimised supports [9]. These approaches can substantially reduce stress magnitudes and improve dimensional stability of piston components.

Thermo-mechanical analyses reveal that pistons fabricated using AM encounter steep temperature gradients – often exceeding 300°C between the crown and skirt. Velugula [47] reports localized thermal stresses of up to 270 MPa in diesel and spark-ignition pistons. Fully coupled FEA simulations by Valera [45] and Selvaraj [42] demonstrate that topology-optimised and lattice-reinforced AM pistons exhibit lower peak temperatures and more uniform stress distributions compared with cast counterparts. Functional grading and porosity control, as explored by Najibi & Alizadeh [37], further mitigate thermal strain and delay crack initiation.

Research continues to push boundaries in multi-material integration, in-situ sensing, and automated quality assurance. Challenges like cost scalability, surface finish control, and regulatory certification remain. However, the innovation trajectory supports the broader adoption of AM in mainstream piston production and other high-performance ICE components.

This critical review underscores that while AM technologies offer transformative benefits for piston design and performance, significant engineering challenges remain to be overcome. Further research is necessary for multi-material printing, durability under real engine conditions, and cost-effective scalability.

Multi-material and functionally graded approaches are emerging as a promising route for next-generation piston architectures. Fracchia [20] and Tian [44] demonstrate that graded aluminium alloys with region-specific silicon content or ceramic reinforcement improve thermal resistance in the crown while maintaining ductility in the skirt. Studies on hybrid steel–copper and aluminium–copper architectures, supported by recent work by Dan [10] and Gray [22], confirm substantial gains in heat dissipation without compromising load-bearing capacity. AM thus shifts piston design toward spatially optimised material distributions rather than uniform alloy selection.

3. Design workflow for additively manufactured pistons

The successful development of additively manufactured pistons requires more than selecting a suitable alloy or printing process; it also necessitates careful consideration of the material properties and the printing process. Modern engineering practice relies on a structured, multi-stage workflow that integrates mechanical requirements, thermal constraints, geometry optimisation and post-processing. This workflow links engine-specific loads with AM-specific design rules, ensuring both manufacturability and in-service durability.

Load-path analysis and topology optimisation

The workflow begins with evaluating the piston's load paths under peak cylinder pressure, thermal gradients, and inertial forces. Conventional finite element analyses are used to identify high-stress regions around the crown, bowl rim and ring belt. Topology optimisation enables systematic redistribution of material, removing low-load regions while reinforcing structural paths [3, 16]. These methods have already demonstrated substantial stiffness improvements for lightweight AM geometries.

Integration of internal features is enabled exclusively by AM

Based on the optimized geometry, additive manufacturing enables engineers to embed features unattainable through casting, such as conformal cooling channels positioned close to the crown surface, thereby reducing thermal peaks and improving heat extraction efficiency [6, 18]. Similarly, self-supporting lattice structures can be integrated into the skirt, pin boss or crown regions to reduce weight while maintaining rigidity or damping vibrations [29]. Such features directly address the thermal-mechanical bottlenecks of conventional pistons.

Thermo-mechanical validation using FEM and coupled simulations

Before manufacturing, the optimised piston is validated under realistic thermo-mechanical loading conditions. Recent simulation studies have reported temperature differences exceeding 300°C between the crown and skirt in heavy-duty and SI engines, resulting in local stress concentrations exceeding 250 MPa [47]. Fully coupled CFD–FEA analyses demonstrate that AM-optimised crowns exhibit more uniform temperature distribution and reduced distortion compared with cast pistons [42]. Accurate wall and piston boundary temperatures are essential for such coupled simulations; concise wall-temperature models calibrated using measurements in the cylinder head, liner and piston have therefore been widely used to support thermal boundary-condition definition [46]. These simulations prevent design iterations at the manufacturing stage and ensure that AM features do not introduce stress concentrations or geometries that are prone to failure.

Post-processing and property enhancement

Finally, the printed piston undergoes a tailored post-processing chain to achieve the required microstructure, density and fatigue strength. HIP treatments eliminate internal pores, while heat treatments, such as T6, modify the Si-rich network in AlSi10Mg. Targeted surface machining or polishing reduces roughness, which is known to be a primary factor in fatigue initiation [10, 34]. These steps are crucial for achieving repeatability and long-term durability under engine thermal cycling conditions.

Together, these four stages provide a systematic framework for transitioning AM pistons from prototype to functional, engine-ready components. They also demonstrate that additive manufacturing is not merely a replacement for casting, but a design-driven process that requires coordinated optimisation of geometry, materials, thermal management and process parameters.

4. Advantages of 3D-printed metal pistons

One of the most transformative advantages of 3D-printed metal pistons lies in the multifaceted improvements in design, efficiency, and sustainability that additive manufacturing enables. A primary benefit is the significant weight reduction achieved through topology optimization, which strategically removes material from low-stress regions, resulting in lower reciprocating mass, reduced inertial forces, and decreased friction [4]. These changes contribute to improved fuel economy, enhanced engine responsiveness, and reduced mechanical wear due to better dynamic balance. Coupled with this is the potential for enhanced thermal management by integrating complex internal structures, such as lattice geometries and conformal cooling channels, which dramatically increase heat dissipation capacity [32]. By mitigating thermal stress, these innovations extend the piston's operational lifespan and enable higher compression ratios that improve power output and efficiency while reducing the risk of engine knock and premature component failure [21].

Moreover, 3D printing facilitates customized geometry that optimizes combustion by tailoring the piston crown and combustion chamber shape to promote ideal air-fuel mixing and flame propagation. This customization supports advanced combustion modes such as homogeneous charge compression ignition (HCCI) and direct injection, which are instrumental in reducing NO_x emissions and unburned hydrocarbons [23]. The technology also supports the integration of embedded sensors directly into piston compo-

nents, enabling real-time monitoring of temperature, pressure, and mechanical strain [28]. These "smart pistons" empower predictive maintenance and adaptive engine control, ultimately increasing reliability and performance under varying operational conditions.

Economically, 3D printing is ideal for small-batch, high-precision production, as it eliminates costly tooling and significantly shortens the development cycle [48]. This makes it particularly attractive for motorsports, prototyping, and custom engine applications. Additionally, multi-material capabilities enable the fabrication of pistons with functionally graded materials (FGMs), allowing high-strength, heat-resistant alloys to be applied selectively to high-load zones (e.g., crown) while maintaining lightweight materials in other regions (e.g., skirt). This fine-tuned material distribution maximizes performance without compromising structural integrity. Lastly, the sustainability aspect of additive manufacturing cannot be overstated. Compared to traditional subtractive machining methods, 3D printing significantly reduces material waste by depositing only the necessary material, aligning with global trends in resource efficiency and environmentally responsible engineering.

5. Challenges of 3D-printed metal pistons

Despite the promising advantages of 3D-printed metal pistons, several challenges must be addressed to ensure their widespread and reliable adoption in high-performance and mass-market engines. One critical issue is material porosity, which can significantly reduce the mechanical strength and fatigue resistance of additively manufactured components. These internal voids, inherent in many powder bed fusion processes, compromise structural integrity and can lead to premature failure under cyclic loading. However, advanced post-processing methods such as hot isostatic pressing (HIP) and carefully optimized printing parameters have shown considerable effectiveness in minimizing porosity and improving part density [50]. Another inherent challenge is the anisotropic mechanical behavior introduced by the layer-by-layer nature of 3D printing. This directionality can result in non-uniform stress distribution and localized weaknesses under operational loads [17]. To counteract this, engineers must pay close attention to build orientation and apply thermal treatments or mechanical post-processing to enhance isotropy and ensure consistent performance.

Moreover, the long-term durability of 3D-printed pistons remains a subject of scrutiny. Exposure to prolonged thermal and mechanical stress can exacerbate residual stresses and fatigue issues, requiring more comprehensive research into material behavior over time and under realistic engine conditions [13]. In addition to internal material issues, the surface finish of 3D-printed pistons is often rougher than that of conventionally machined parts, which can elevate friction levels and accelerate wear during engine operation [21]. This necessitates applying secondary finishing techniques, such as precision machining, surface polishing, or functional coatings, to enhance tribological performance and extend the component's lifespan. Lastly, while 3D printing is advantageous for low-volume and customized applications, its economic viability for large-scale production is still limited. The high cost of metal powders, energy-intensive processes, and comparatively slower build rates pose challenges to cost efficiency when compared with traditional casting or forging methods [38]. Therefore, detailed cost-benefit analyses and advancements in high-speed additive manufacturing systems are vital for transitioning from prototyping to commercial-scale production. Addressing these limitations through multidisciplinary engineering efforts will be essential for the broader implementation of 3D-printed pistons in the automotive and aerospace sectors.

6. Material selection for 3D-printed pistons

The advancement of additive manufacturing has opened new pathways for optimizing the design and performance of internal combustion engine components, particularly pistons. Among the most promising developments is the application of 3D-printed metal pistons, which enables unprecedented design flexibility, weight reduction, and thermal efficiency [1, 26]. Material selection plays a pivotal role in the success of such components, as pistons must withstand extreme mechanical and thermal stresses while maintaining low weight and high durability [39].

Various metallic materials are currently being explored for 3D printing pistons, each with unique strengths and trade-offs. For example, AlSi10Mg, a lightweight aluminum alloy, has been successfully employed by companies like Mahle Powertrain in producing pistons for Formula 1 engines, offering significant weight savings and optimized geometry [56]. Meanwhile, Koenigsegg has adopted titanium-based components in its Jesko engines to reduce mass and increase mechanical performance at high rpm [54]. In more extreme environments, such as aerospace propulsion, Inconel 718 is preferred for its superior heat resistance and fatigue strength, albeit at an increased density and manufacturing expense [50].

A notable trend in this domain is the move toward multi-material 3D printing, where materials like CuCrZr are integrated for advanced heat dissipation, paired with strong structural alloys such as maraging steel or titanium. Research consortia, including GE Additive and NASA, are studying these functionally graded structures for next-generation propulsion systems [55].

The following table provides a comparative overview of key metallic materials used in metal additive manufacturing, supporting informed material selection for piston design. Properties such as tensile strength, thermal conductivity, and density are included, followed by a visual comparison chart to facilitate design decision-making.

As Table 2 shows, while AlSi10Mg offers excellent printability and acceptable strength, its limited heat resistance may constrain use in heavy-duty diesel or turbocharged gasoline engines. Conversely, Inconel 718 provides high fatigue resistance at elevated temperatures, making it suitable for aerospace and high-performance applications, albeit with compromises in weight and cost. CuCrZr stands out due to its high thermal conductivity, supporting hybrid solutions where localized heat dissipation is critical. Figure 1 further illustrates the complex trade-offs between density, thermal performance, and mechanical strength, highlighting the need for application-specific optimization.

Table 2. Comparative table of metal materials for 3D-printed pistons

Material	Tensile strength [MPa]	Melting point [°C]	Thermal conductivity [W/m·K]	Density [g/cm³]	Advantages	Limitations	Common applications
AlSi12	320–400	575–585	140–160	2.65–2.68	High thermal conductivity, low weight, good castability and fluidity, high corrosion resistance	Lower mechanical strength compared to AlSi10Mg, limited ductility under fatigue.	Heat exchangers, engine pistons, housings, thin-walled structures
AlSi10Mg	320–380	580–600	140–160	2.65	Lightweight, good thermal conductivity, excellent printability	Limited high-temperature resistance	Automotive pistons, motorsports
Ti6Al4V (Titanium Alloy)	900–1100	~1600	6–8	4.43	High strength-to-weight ratio, corrosion-resistant	Expensive, low thermal conductivity	Aerospace, high-performance racing engines
Inconel 718 (Nickel Alloy)	1000–1240	~1350	6–11	8.19	Exceptional heat resistance, fatigue strength	Heavy, costly, hard to machine	Jet engines, turbine pistons
316L Stainless Steel	480–620	~1370	15–25	7.99	Cost-effective, corrosion-resistant, and good wear resistance	High density, only moderate thermal properties	Industrial pistons, structural components
CuCrZr (Copper Alloy)	300–450	~1080	300–350	8.96	Excellent thermal conductivity, good for thermal regulation	Lower mechanical strength, heavy	Thermal management zones, hybrid structures
Maraging Steel (e.g., 1.2709)	1900–2100	~1400	20–25	8.00	Extremely high strength, good post-processing performance	High weight, relatively poor thermal performance	Long-life pistons, tool inserts, aerospace parts

Figure 1 compares the key physicochemical properties of metal alloys used to produce 3D printed pistons, including tensile strength, melting point, thermal conductivity, and density. Analysis of the graph indicates significant differences in parameters that determine the use of a given material in specific operating conditions.
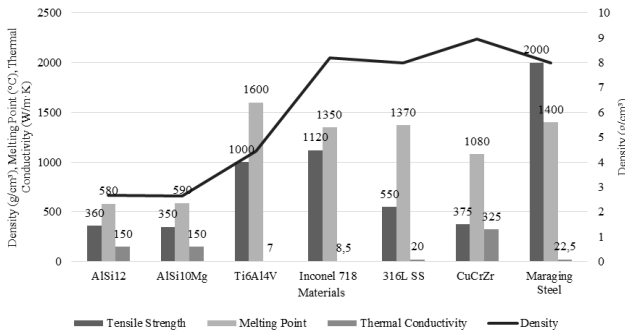

Fig. 1. Comparison of parameters of metal powders for 3D printing

For example, CuCrZr is characterized by the highest thermal conductivity (~325 W/m K), which makes it an excellent choice for piston zones requiring intensive heat dissipation. However, its density (~8.96 g/cm³) and moderate mechanical strength (~325 MPa) limit its use as the primary structural material.

In turn, Ti6Al4V is distinguished by an excellent strength-to-weight ratio (up to 1100 MPa at a density of 4.43 g/cm³). However, its low thermal conductivity (only 7 W/mK) requires the support of additional cooling systems.

Inconel 718 and Maraging Steel offer the highest strength values (1120 and 2000 MPa, respectively) and resistance to high temperatures. However, their weight and

difficulty in processing limit their use in specialized environments, such as aviation or high-performance engines.

AlSi10Mg and AlSi12, despite having relatively lower mechanical properties, offer a low specific weight and high thermal conductivity, which makes them widely used in lightweight structures of pistons in combustion engines.

This comparison confirms that there is no "ideal" material that would meet all the requirements at the same time. The alloy selection should be adapted to the specific operating profile – a high-performance engine will require properties different from those of a unit for a city or agricultural vehicle. Therefore, hybrid structures and gradient materials (FGM), combining the advantages of several alloys in one structure, are gaining increasing importance.

7. Industrial applications and prospects

The use of 3D-printed metal pistons is gaining traction in motorsports and aerospace industries, where performance gains outweigh production costs [26]. As the technology matures, improved manufacturing efficiency and material advancements could make it viable for mainstream automotive applications.

Future research should focus on refining printing techniques, developing superior metal powders, and enhancing post-processing methods to address existing challenges. Collaborations between industry and academia will play a crucial role in accelerating the adoption of this technology [27].

8. Conclusion

Additive manufacturing presents a transformative approach to piston production, unlocking unprecedented design flexibility, functional integration and performance enhancements across a wide range of internal combustion engine applications [1, 12, 26, 53]. The literature reviewed

in this paper shows that metal AM processes – in particular LPBF – already enable the manufacture of geometrically complex pistons and related components such as cylinder heads and combustion chambers [2, 22, 30]. These components can integrate lattice-reinforced structures, conformal cooling channels, and tailored combustion-bowl geometries, supporting higher power density, improved fuel efficiency, and lower pollutant emissions compared to conventionally cast designs [4, 14, 32].

At the same time, the analysis of fatigue behaviour, residual stresses and microstructural features confirms that 3D-printed pistons cannot simply be treated as one-to-one replacements for traditional pistons made from the same nominal alloy. Defect size and distribution, surface roughness, and build orientation have a first-order influence on fatigue life, particularly for AlSi10Mg, which remains the most widely used alloy for AM pistons [10, 34, 40]. Residual stresses originating from steep thermal gradients and layer-wise solidification add further complexity, requiring careful control of process parameters and the use of post-processing operations such as HIP, heat treatment and precision finishing [13, 31, 38]. These findings underscore that AM pistons must be engineered as integrated systems, in which geometry, material state, and process history are jointly optimised.

The proposed design workflow for additively manufactured pistons synthesizes current best practices into four stages: load-path analysis and topology optimization, integration of AM-specific internal features, thermomechanical validation, and post-processing tailored to fatigue and tribological requirements. This framework demonstrates that AM is not merely an alternative production route, but a design-driven paradigm in which structural optimisation and thermal management are embedded from the outset of the development process. In parallel, advances in material selection – from AlSi10Mg and Ti6Al4V to Inconel 718, maraging steels and CuCrZr-based solutions – open the way for multi-material and functionally graded pistons that exploit spatially optimised property distributions [39, 50, 54–56].

From an industrial perspective, the current technology readiness level is highest in motorsports, prototyping, and specialized high-performance engines, where the benefits of rapid design iteration and performance gains outweigh the higher manufacturing costs [54–56]. In volume production, economic barriers remain significant due to the high price of metal powders, energy-intensive processing, and relatively low build rates compared to casting and forging [38, 50]. Nevertheless, as AM equipment productivity improves and experience with robust process windows grows, hybrid deployment scenarios – such as AM for prototype and small-series pistons, combined with conventional manufacturing for mainstream models – appear increasingly realistic.

Looking ahead, further research is needed in several areas to realize the potential of 3D-printed pistons fully. First, there is a clear need to bridge the gap between coupon-level fatigue data and long-term durability of full-scale pistons tested under representative engine duty cycles. Second, multi-physics simulation frameworks must be extended to account for microstructural anisotropy, graded materials and residual stress fields inherent to AM components. Third, design rules and certification procedures must evolve to address internal lattices, conformal channels, and multi-material architectures that do not fit within the assumptions of existing standards. Finally, comprehensive techno-economic and life-cycle assessments are essential to quantify the actual cost, environmental impact and supply-chain implications of deploying AM pistons at scale [1, 12].

In summary, additively manufactured metal pistons are unlikely to replace conventional pistons across all applications in the near term. However, for high-value, performance-critical, or highly customized engines, they already offer a compelling pathway to integrate advanced geometries, intelligent sensing, and tailored material architectures that would be impossible to realize otherwise. With continued progress in process stability, material systems, design methodologies and validation protocols, 3D-printed pistons have the potential to become a key enabler of next-generation internal combustion engines rather than a mere manufacturing curiosity.

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