

Improving mechanical properties of Cu/CNTs composites by incorporating nanotwins

Wei-lin YU ^{a,#}, Si-wei LUO ^{a,#}, Juan ZHU ^{a,#}, Min SONG ^b, Tian-yu SUN ^a, Jian-hong YI ^c, Liang LIU ^c, Yang-zhen LIU ^a, Zhi-guo ZHANG ^{a,*}, Yong YANG ^d, Zhen-tao YU ^a, Wei LI ^a, Bai-song GUO ^{a,**}

^a Institute of Advanced Wear & Corrosion Resistant and Functional Materials, Jinan University, Guangzhou 510632, China;

^b State Key Laboratory of Powder Metallurgy, Central South University, Changsha 410083, China;

^c Faculty of Materials Science and Engineering, Kunming University of Science and Technology, Kunming 650093, China;

^d Department of Mechanical Engineering, College of Engineering, City University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong 99907, China

Abstract: To exploit the combined strengthening effects of nanotwins and carbon nanotubes (CNTs) in Cu matrix composites, the nanotwins with a width ranging from 3 to 30 nm were incorporated into the CNTs-reinforced Cu matrix composites using cryogenic rolling and optimizing the initial particle size of the raw Cu powders. The formation of nanotwins in the Cu matrix composite reinforced by only 0.2 wt.% CNTs is accompanied by the increased dislocation density and refined Cu grain size, resulting in much better strength–ductility synergy than the referenced composite without significant nanotwins formation. The analysis of strengthening and toughening mechanisms demonstrates that the strength increment mainly derives from grain refinement strengthening, dislocation strengthening, and nanotwin strengthening. The strength increment from the contribution of the nanotwins accounts for 19.9% of the overall strength increment for the composite. Meanwhile, the retention of good tensile ductility can be reasonably explained by the increased dislocation accommodation ability due to the formed nanotwins and the decreased induced dislocation proliferation.

Keywords: Cu matrix composite; carbon nanotube; nanotwin; strength; ductility

1 Introduction

Due to their remarkable mechanical properties and excellent thermoelectric properties, carbon nanotubes (CNTs) reinforced Cu matrix composites have been regarded as a new generation of Cu matrix composites for vast industrial areas [1–4]. Achieving good dispersion of CNTs and a high bonding interface with Cu matrix are the two premises for fully exploiting the potential strengthening effects of CNTs for Cu matrix composites [5,6]. To date, many

fruitful methods have been developed to improve the CNTs dispersion in the Cu matrix and to strengthen the Cu–CNTs interfacial bonding. However, the overall strength of CNTs/Cu composites is still far from the expectation, because the improvement of higher strength of Cu matrix has been ignored by most researchers. Grain refinement strengthening [7], solid solution strengthening [8], and precipitation strengthening [9] have been demonstrated to be effective approaches to improve the strength of Cu matrix materials, while the improved strength is generally accompanied by reduced ductility [10].

[#]Wei-lin YU, Si-wei LUO and Juan ZHU contributed equally to this work

Corresponding author: *Zhi-guo ZHANG, Tel: +86-13538885336, E-mail: zhigzhang@jnu.edu.cn;

**Bai-song GUO, Tel: +86-15700796463; E-mail: guobaisong@jnu.edu.cn

[https://doi.org/10.1016/S1003-6326\(25\)66982-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1003-6326(25)66982-2)

Received 27 May 2024; accepted 3 March 2025

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To alleviate the contradiction between the strength and ductility of metal materials, a series of microstructure regulation methods have been proposed in the past two decades, such as incorporating the nanotwins by various approaches [11,12]. The findings show that twinning can synergistically increase the strength and toughness of Cu matrix materials, breaking the inverse relationship between the strength and toughness. For example, ZHAO et al [13] synthesized heterogeneous nanostructured Cu with a high density of nanotwins, showing a much higher strength and fracture toughness. However, almost all previous studies only focused on the effects of nanotwins on the mechanical properties of pure Cu, Cu alloy, and other metal materials, whereas the combined effects of nanotwins and ex-situ reinforcement for Cu matrix composites have not been explored yet.

To introduce nanotwins into metal materials including Cu, a series of means including direct-current electrodeposition, annealing, and plastic deformation have been developed by various researchers [14,15]. CHENG et al [16] proposed a direct-current electrodeposition technique and demonstrated that the width and density of nanotwins can be effectively controlled in pure Cu by precisely adjusting the processing parameters. However, the low fabrication efficiency of direct-current electrodeposition and micro-scaled sample size limit the application of such a method. Annealing is also a feasible approach to introduce the nanotwins into metal materials, due to the existing shear strain at grain boundaries and disclination-like lattice rotation induced by the grain growth during annealing [17]. MA et al [18] pointed out that annealing-induced nanotwins require high deformation energy, dense defects, and ultrafine grains, but these factors and the coarsening of nanotwins limit their strengthening effect. Unlike annealing and electrodeposition, plastic deformation can induce nanotwin formation on a large scale, especially in metals with low stacking fault energy. However, although it is common in bulk copper alloys and other metals, it is rarely used to promote the formation of nanotwins in Cu matrix composites. Recently, it has been found that the addition of CNTs into the FCC metal matrix can substantially lower its stacking fault energy and result in the formation of stacking faults [19]. So, it can be deduced that the CNTs reinforced Cu matrix composite might be

easier to form nanotwins by plastic deformation than pure Cu. Nevertheless, the attempts to incorporate nanotwins into CNTs reinforced Cu matrix composites have not been reported so far.

In this study, the CNTs reinforced Cu matrix composites were fabricated by powder metallurgy route and subsequent hot rolling, which is effective in removing the residual pores after sintering [20]. Subsequently, cryogenic rolling was further applied to inducing the formation of Cu nanotwins in CNTs reinforced Cu matrix composites, because it has been demonstrated that the dislocation activity in the metal material was restricted in the cryogenic rolling process, thus facilitating the formation of nanotwins [21–23]. The microstructure and mechanical properties of the hot-rolled and subsequently cryogenically-rolled composites were investigated, and the involved strengthening and toughening mechanisms were also deeply discussed. The findings of this study can guide the microstructure regulation of the CNTs reinforced Cu matrix composites for higher mechanical properties.

2 Experimental

2.1 Purification and surface functionalization of CNTs

The CNTs with high purity (>98%) as used in our previous study [24] were employed for present CNTs reinforced Cu matrix composites. To remove the commonly residual catalyst particles, the raw CNTs were immersed in a mixed acid reagent (67 wt.% HNO₃ and 98 wt.% H₂SO₄ with a volume ratio of 1:3) for 0.5 h at 50 °C, the magnetic stirring was applied to enhancing the purification effect, the acid-treated CNTs were then collected by vacuum filtration and washed with deionized water to neutral pH. The collected CNTs were further oxidized in another mixed acid reagent (67 wt.% HNO₃ and 98 wt.% H₂SO₄ with volume ratio of 3:1) for 5 h at 50 °C under magnetic stirring to functionalize the CNTs with oxygen-containing functional groups. The oxygen-containing functional groups were attached to the surface of CNTs to promote the CNTs dispersion in Cu powders during the subsequent composite powder preparation process.

2.2 Fabrication of bulk CNTs reinforced Cu matrix composite

The coarse (~50 μm) and fine (~5 μm) Cu

powders in spherical shapes were sieved from the Cu powders prepared by Ar gas atomization [25]. Then, 90 g of Cu powders consisting of 50 wt.% coarse Cu powders and 50 wt.% fine Cu powders (C_1F_1) were mixed with the 0.2 wt.% acid-treated CNTs (0.16 g) by alcohol-assisted ball milling. The same parameters as in our previous study [2] were used for the ball milling mixing process and subsequent sintering and hot rolling. The hot-rolled composites were named as HR- C_1F_1 . For comparison, the composite using 100 wt.% fine Cu powders (C_0F_1) as the matrix powders was fabricated using identical processes and named HR- C_0F_1 . To induce the formation of nanotwins in the two types of composites, part of the hot-rolled specimens were rolled after immersing in liquid nitrogen for 10 min. The rolling direction was parallel to the hot rolling direction, and the height reduction after six passes rolling was about 30%. Finally, the specimens obtained by cryogenic rolling were annealed at 200 °C for 1 h followed by cooling in the furnace. The two types of cryogenically-rolled specimens were correspondingly named HCR- C_1F_1 and HCR- C_0F_1 , respectively. The details about the nomenclature of the specimens are listed in Table 1.

Table 1 Nomenclature of specimens

Specimen	Raw powders composition	Plastic deformation process
HR- C_0F_1	100 wt.% fine Cu powders	Hot rolling
HR- C_1F_1	50 wt.% coarse Cu powders + 50 wt.% fine Cu powders	Hot rolling
HCR- C_0F_1	100 wt.% fine Cu powders	Hot rolling + cryogenic rolling
HCR- C_1F_1	50 wt.% coarse Cu powders + 50 wt.% fine Cu powders	Hot rolling + cryogenic rolling

2.3 Characterization of microstructure and mechanical properties

The morphologies of the composite powders were examined using a scanning electron microscope (SEM, Hitachi SU8000) operated at 3 kV. The phase information of bulk composites was characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD, Rigaku Ultima IV) using a Cu K_α radiation source ($\lambda=1.54178 \text{ \AA}$). The XRD scanning voltage was 40 kV, the tube current was 40 mA, and the scanning rate and 2θ range were

5 ($^\circ$)/min and 10° – 100° , respectively.

The structural information of the Cu matrix was analyzed by an electron backscatter diffraction (EBSD) system attached to a JEOL-JSM-IT800 SEM. The EBSD samples were prepared by mechanical polishing with diamond suspensions followed by fine polishing using a Fischione 1061 ion mill. The continually adjusted processing voltage and time were 8 V, 30 min; 4 V, 30 min; 2 V, 2 min; 2 V, 2 min. The average copper grain size, local strain distribution, and Schmid factor were analyzed based on the obtained EBSD data using Aztec software.

The microstructures including the CNTs–Cu interface and nanotwins in the fabricated composites were characterized by a transmission electron microscope (TALOS F200X, Thermo Fisher Scientific) operated at 200 kV, and the equipped EDS system was used to analyze the elemental distribution in the selected area. The TEM samples with the thin area that the electron beam can penetrate were prepared by mechanical milling followed by ion thinning at 5 kV using a Gatan Model 695 precision ion polishing system.

To evaluate the tensile properties of the composites, tensile specimens with a cross-section of 5 mm \times 3 mm and a length of 10 mm were cut from the rolled sheets using wire-cutting, and the length direction of the tensile specimens was parallel to the rolling direction. The tensile tests were carried out at room temperature using an Instron 3369 tester with a strain rate of $2.1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$. To confirm the repeatability of tensile properties, at least three tensile tests were carried out for each type of composite. After the tensile tests, tensile fractured surfaces of composites were observed by scanning electron microscopy (SEM, FEI Nova Nano 230) operated at 5 kV.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Microstructures of powders and bulk composites

Figure 1 shows the SEM images of the two types of composite powders. As seen in Figs. 1(a) and (b), the raw spherical Cu powders are completely transformed into Cu flakes, due to the mechanical impaction of stainless-steel balls during the applied ball milling processes. Moreover, the cold welding coarsens the Cu flakes, increasing the average particle sizes of fine and coarse Cu flakes to $\sim 30 \mu\text{m}$

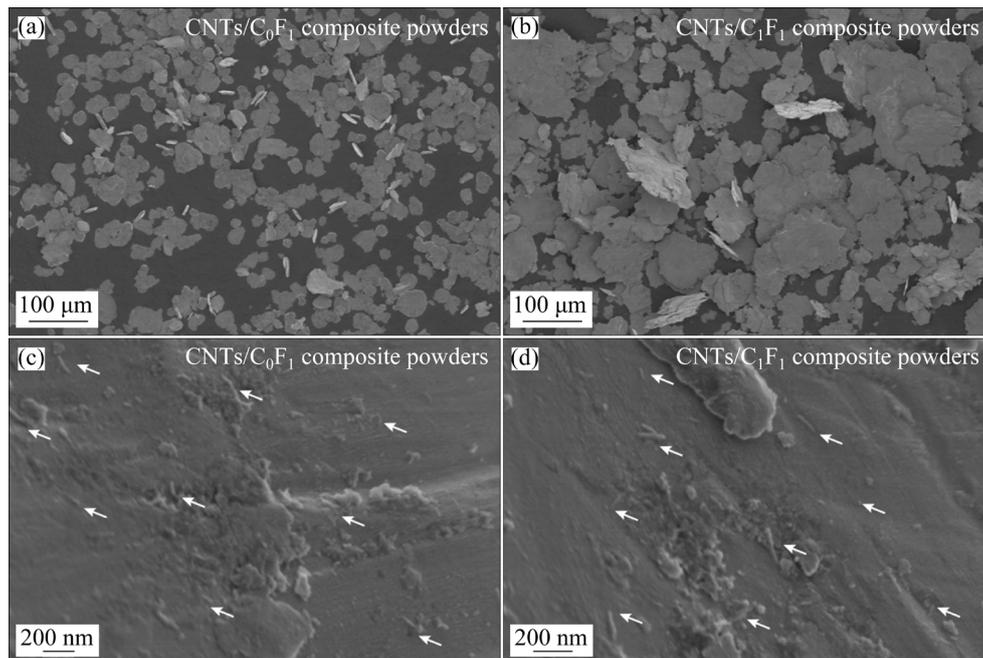


Fig. 1 SEM images with low and high magnifications of two composite powders: (a, c) CNTs/C₀F₁; (b, d) CNTs/C₁F₁ (The representative CNTs are marked by white arrows)

and $\sim 120 \mu\text{m}$, respectively. With further magnification (Figs. 1(c) and (d)), it can be detected that the CNTs are singly embedded in the Cu flakes and part of some CNTs are exposed outside the Cu flakes. Such observations confirm that the applied composite powder fabrication processes are effective in realizing the uniform dispersion and intragranular location of CNTs in the Cu matrix.

Figure 2 shows the XRD patterns of the as hot-rolled (HR-C₀F₁ and HR-C₁F₁) and further cryogenically-rolled (HCR-C₀F₁ and HCR-C₁F₁) composites. In the XRD patterns of the four bulk composites, several diffraction peaks at 43.31° , 50.45° , 74.12° , and 89.94° can be observed, which can be labeled as (111), (200), (220), and (311) crystalline planes of Cu, respectively, according to the PDF cards (PDF#85- 1326). The diffraction peaks of CNTs are not detected here due to their high dispersion and relatively low content. In addition, as shown in the inset, the addition of 50 wt.% coarse Cu powders (HR-C₁F₁) shifts the peak belonging to Cu(111) crystalline plane to the location with larger 2θ , while further cryogenic rolling significantly lowers the 2θ of Cu(111) crystalline plane for the two composites. Such peak shift characteristics denote that the incorporation of coarse Cu powders can reduce the dislocation density of the fabricated composites, and the cryogenic rolling results in substantial dislocation propagation and storage [26].

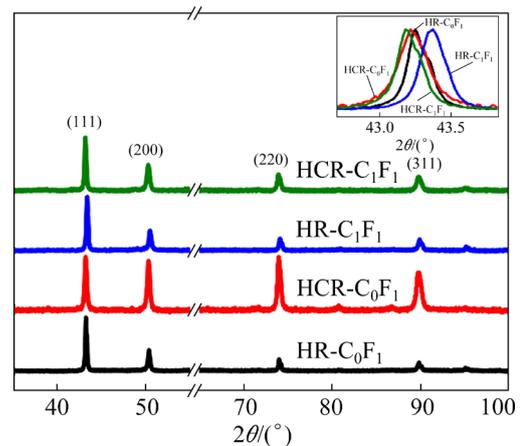


Fig. 2 XRD patterns of four types of fabricated composites (The insert is the amplified peak belonging to Cu(111) crystalline plane)

Figure 3 shows the EBSD inverse pole figures (IPFs) and statistical grain size results of the four types of composites. As shown in Figs. 3(a) and (b), both Cu matrices of HR-C₀F₁ and HR-C₁F₁ composites consist of equiaxed grains with large-angle grain boundaries, denoting that the applied sintering and hot rolling processes induce the complete recrystallization. However, as for the HCR-C₀F₁ (Fig. 3(c)) and HCR-C₁F₁ (Fig. 3(d)), the color gradient can be observed in the interior of the retained equiaxed grains, implying that the low-angle grain boundary is formed by the grain rotation during the cryogenic rolling. Specifically, the

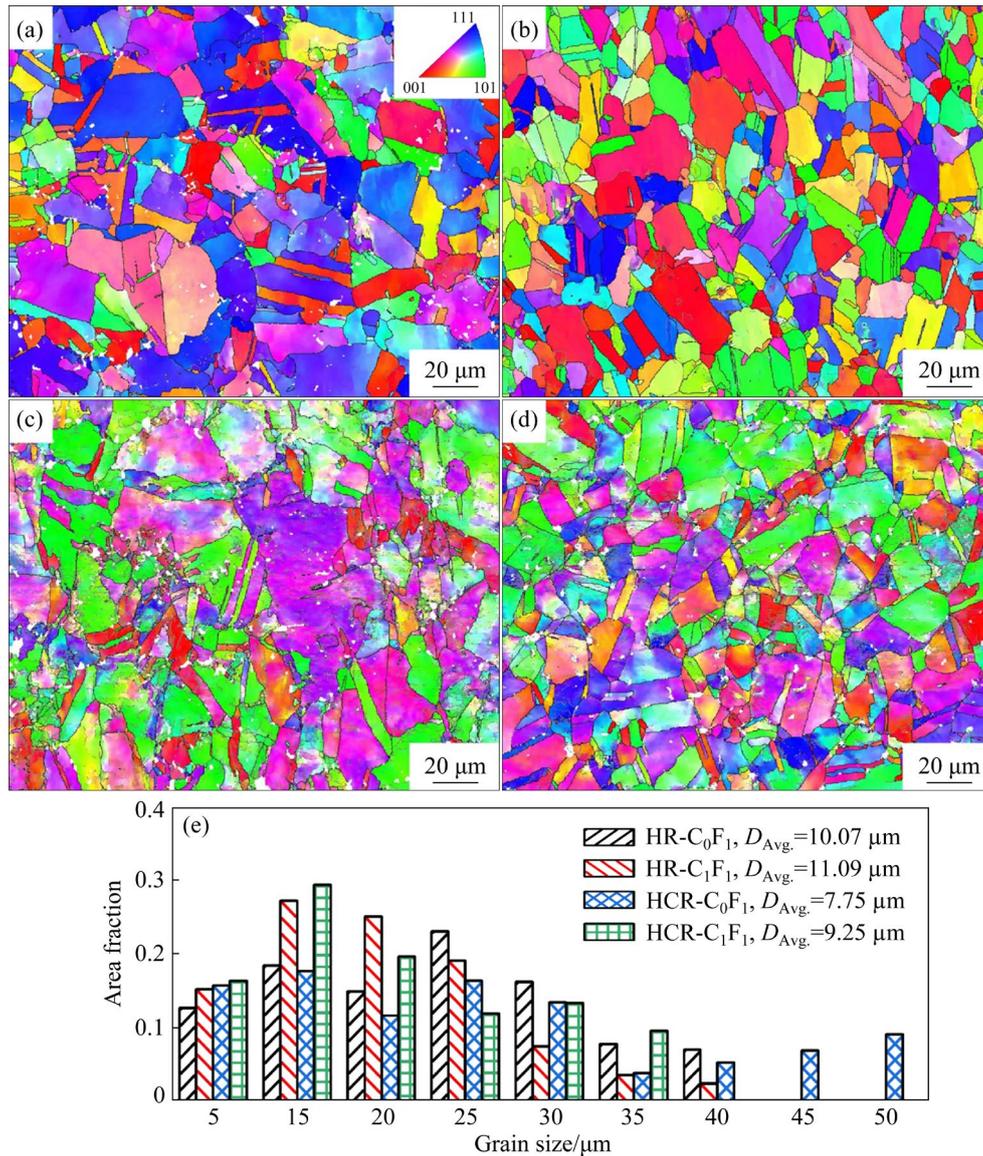


Fig. 3 EBSD IPFs and statistical grain size results of four types of composites: (a) HR-C₀F₁; (b) HR-C₁F₁; (c) HCR-C₀F₁; (d) HCR-C₁F₁; (e) Statistical grain size results

proportion of low-angle grain boundary in HCR-C₁F₁ is higher than that in HCR-C₀F₁, because the coarse grains are easier for local deformation and rotation. Moreover, as shown by the statistical grain size results, the average grain size of HR-C₁F₁ (11.09 μm) is slightly higher than that of HR-C₀F₁ (10.07 μm) (Fig. 3(e)). The minimized grain size difference further demonstrates that the two composites indeed experienced complete grain recrystallization and growth. In addition, the applied cryogenic rolling can refine the Cu grains to be 7.75 μm for HCR-C₀F₁ and 9.25 μm for HCR-C₁F₁. The grain refinement after cryogenic deformation has been commonly observed in Cu [27] and other metallic materials [28,29], because the deformation

under low temperatures can substantially induce the dislocation multiplication and interaction as well as the formation of dislocation walls, which can be developed into grain boundaries, thus refining the grain.

The Schmid factor can be used to assess the probability of slip initiation (difficulty of deformation) of crystalline material in a given slip system for a single-crystal material. The average Schmid factor (\bar{m}) characterizes the difficulty of slip in plastic deformation of polycrystalline materials. The higher the value of \bar{m} , the easier the slip and the better the material's plasticity. Accordingly, as shown in Figs. 4(a–d) and (e, f), the Schmid factor of the HR-C₁F₁ is slightly higher than that of the

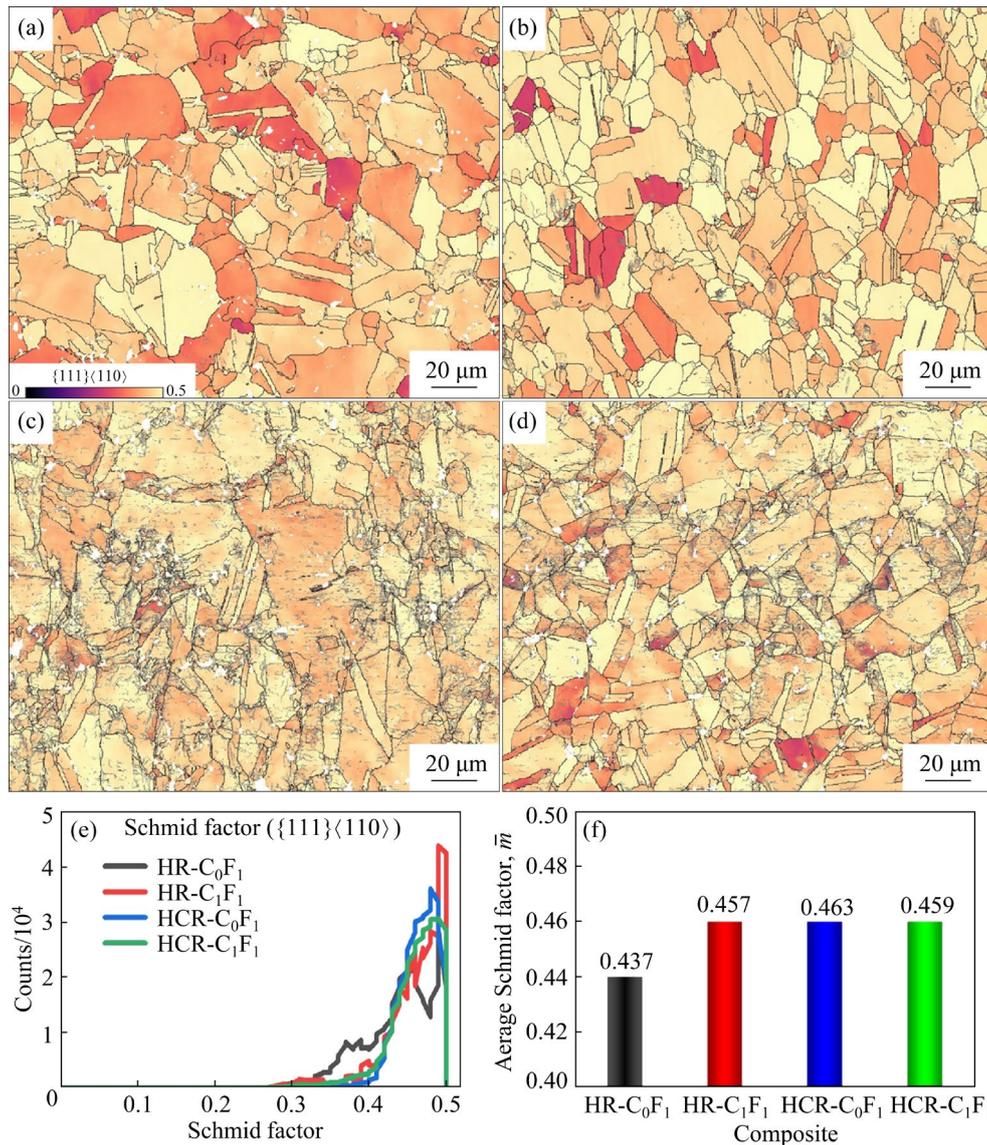


Fig. 4 Schmid factor analysis results of four types of composites: (a–d) Schmid factor maps of HR-C₀F₁, HR-C₁F₁, HCR-C₀F₁ and HCR-C₁F₁, respectively; (e, f) Statistical results of Schmidt factors

HR-C₀F₁, which suggests that the addition of coarse copper powder facilitates the slip of specific slip systems, thus benefiting the achievement of better plastic deformation ability. After cryogenic rolling, the difference in \bar{m} between the HCR-C₀F₁ and HCR-C₁F₁ composites is negligible, which means that the influence of the slip system on the plastic deformation characteristics can be ignored for the two composites.

Meanwhile, the geometrically necessary dislocation (GND) maps of the four types of composites were analyzed and shown in Fig. 5. As presented in Figs. 5(a) and (b), the GND density of HR-C₁F₁ is lower than that of HR-C₀F₁. The coarse grain can accommodate more dislocation

multiplication during plastic deformation and thus lower the GND density [30]. Furthermore, the GND density substantially increased in HCR-C₀F₁ and HCR-C₁F₁ after cryogenic rolling (Figs. 5(c) and (d)). The highly increased GND density can be attributed to two main reasons. On the one hand, the applied cryogenic rolling can induce GND multiplication more significantly in the Cu matrix than hot rolling, especially in the region around the Cu–CNTs interface, because the Cu matrix has much lower deformation ability at low temperatures. On the other hand, the low temperature can effectively suppress the dislocation recovery, thus leading to obvious dislocation accumulation. The corresponding statistical results are illustrated in Figs. 5(e) and (f),

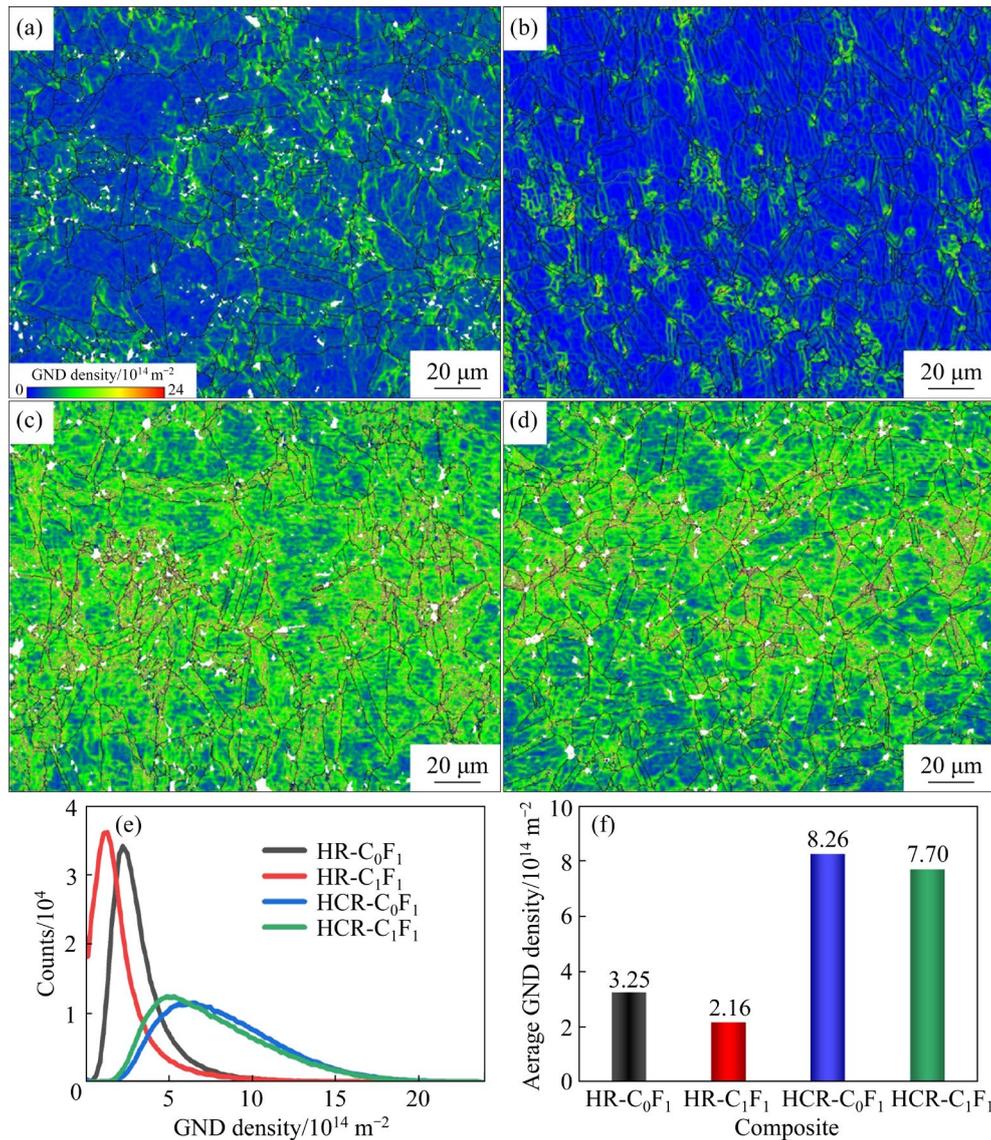


Fig. 5 GND analysis results of four types of composites based on EBSD characterization: (a–d) GND maps of HR-C₀F₁, HR-C₁F₁, HCR-C₀F₁, and HCR-C₁F₁, respectively; (e, f) Statistic results of GND density

showing that the average GND densities in HR-C₀F₁, HR-C₁F₁, HCR-C₀F₁, and HCR-C₁F₁ composites are 3.25×10^{14} , 2.16×10^{14} , 8.26×10^{14} , and $7.70 \times 10^{14} \text{ m}^{-2}$, respectively. This GND density variation implies that cryogenic rolling can induce larger dislocation accumulation strengthening compared to hot rolling.

Figures 6(a–c) present the microstructures of the HR-C₀F₁ composite revealed by TEM. It can be seen that the CNTs have a good dispersion and distribute along the rolling direction in the HR-C₀F₁ composite (Fig. 6(a)), forming a tortuous and tight interface with the Cu matrix (Fig. 6(b)). Moreover, the Cu matrix has relatively high dislocation accumulation (Fig. 6(c)). Similarly, the CNTs in the HR-C₁F₁ also have uniform dispersion (Fig. 6(d))

and flexuous interface (Fig. 6(e)) with the Cu matrix. However, the density of accumulated dislocations in HR-C₁F₁ (Figs. 6(d) and (e)) is much lower than that in HR-C₀F₁. In addition, some deformed twins with twisted twin boundaries (Figs. 6(e) and (f)) can be detected in the HR-C₁F₁. The micro-area strain distributions of the interfacial region shown in Figs. 6(b) and (e) are further analyzed by the geometrical phase analysis (GPA) algorithm [31], and the analyzed strain fields (ϵ_{xx} , ϵ_{xy} , ϵ_{yx} , and ϵ_{yy}) are illustrated in Figs. 6(g) and (h). It can be seen that both the interface regions of HR-C₀F₁ and HR-C₁F₁ have a uniform strain distribution, which can be attributed to the dislocation and strain recovery during the hot rolling. The low local strain facilitates

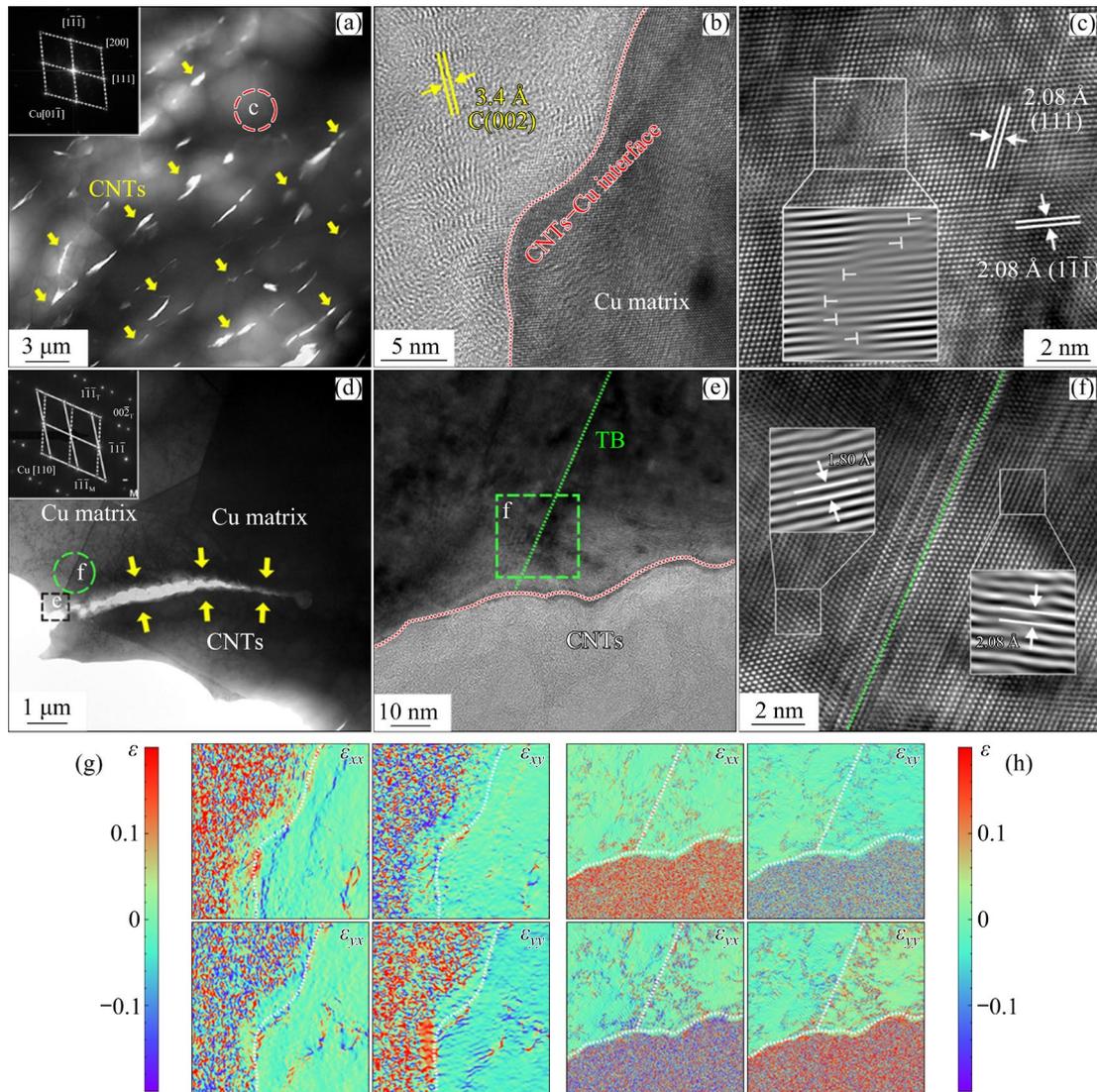


Fig. 6 Microstructures of HR-C₀F₁ and HR-C₁F₁ revealed by TEM (a–f) and corresponding local strain analysis results of Cu–CNTs interface (g, h): (a) Bright field TEM (BFTEM) image of HR-C₀F₁; (b) High-resolution TEM (HRTEM) image of Cu–CNTs interface in HR-C₀F₁; (c) HRTEM image of Cu matrix in HR-C₀F₁; (d) BFTEM image of HR-C₁F₁; (e) HRTEM image of Cu–CNTs interface in HR-C₁F₁; (f) HRTEM image of twin boundary in HR-C₁F₁; (g, h) Local strain distributions of Cu–CNTs interfaces of HR-C₀F₁ and HR-C₁F₁, respectively

the dislocation accommodation and delays the strain concentration in the interface region, thus achieving better ductility.

Figure 7 shows the microstructures of the HCR-C₀F₁ revealed by TEM. It can be seen that the cryogenic rolling results in substantial dislocation multiplication and pile-ups (Figs. 7(a) and (c)). Moreover, some twins can be occasionally detected in the deformed Cu matrix (Fig. 7(a)), and some twin boundaries (TB) have been developed into sub-grain boundaries (SGB), which can be demonstrated by the inserted SAED image and HRTEM image in Fig. 7(a) as well as the SAED patterns (Fig. 7(b))

recorded from the region of twin boundary. Such observations indicate that the transformation from twin boundary to sub-grain boundary should be responsible for the grain refinement during the cryogenic rolling (Fig. 3). In addition, stacking faults (SFs) can be detected in the nearby region of the twin boundaries (insets in Fig. 7(a)) because stacking faults generally serve as nuclei for twins. Along with the evolution of the microstructure in the Cu matrix, the tight Cu–CNTs interface was retained in HCR-C₀F₁ (Fig. 7(c)).

Figure 8 displays the microstructures of HCR-C₁F₁ characterized by TEM. It can be seen that lots of

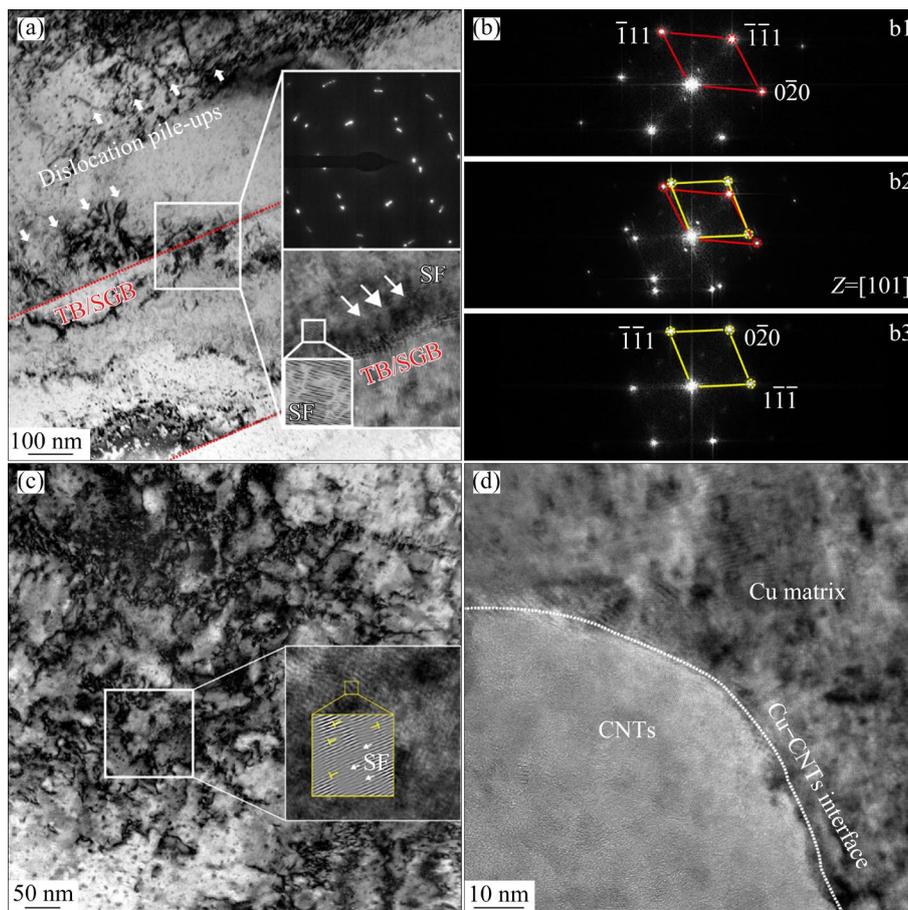


Fig. 7 Microstructures of HCR-C₀F₁ characterized by TEM: (a) BFTEM image of typical twin formed in HCR-C₀F₁ (The inserted SAED and HRTEM images are recorded from the twins); (b) SAED images recorded from upper grain (b1), twin boundary (b2), and lower grain (b3), respectively; (c) Representative BFTEM image of dislocation entangle in HCR-C₀F₁; (d) HRTEM image of Cu–CNTs interface

nanotwins and SFs were formed in the Cu matrix of HCR-C₁F₁ (Fig. 8(a)), as marked by the yellow and green arrows, respectively. The magnified BFTEM image (Fig. 8(b)) and HRTEM image (Fig. 8(c)) demonstrate that the twins have a width in the range from 3 to 30 nm. Moreover, the significant dislocation pile-ups were also induced near the multiple twins, approved by the inserted SAED pattern (Fig. 8(d)) and the corresponding HRTEM of the TB (Fig. 8(e)). The inverse fast Fourier transform (IFFT) image confirms that the multiplied dislocations entangle with each other and interact with the TB and SFs. In addition, similar to other composites, the tightly bonded interface between the Cu matrix and CNTs (Fig. 8(f)) is retained even though the HCR-C₁F₁ composite has experienced severe plastic deformation under low temperatures.

The above microstructure characterization results demonstrate that the inclusion of 50 wt.% coarse Cu powders can promote the formation of

twins in the fabricated composites, especially when the cryogenic rolling is further applied after hot rolling, which can be explained by the following reasons. On the one hand, as widely demonstrated in the available literature [32,33], grain size is a key factor that affects the twin formation in metals and alloys during plastic deformation, and larger grain size facilitates the twin nucleation for conventional coarse-grained (CG) materials. So, the larger grain size of HR-C₁F₁ and HCR-C₁F₁ induced by the incorporation of 50 wt.% coarse Cu powders should be responsible for the twin formation in them. On the other hand, during the cryogenic rolling for preparing HCR-C₀F₁ and HCR-C₁F₁, the dislocation slide is significantly restricted due to the low temperature. As a result, twinning as a deformation way is activated in the Cu matrix. Meanwhile, the uniformly dispersed CNTs should also promote the formation of nanotwins in the Cu matrix during the cryogenic rolling in the following aspects. Firstly,

the uniformly dispersed CNTs can induce lots of Cu–CNTs interface in the Cu matrix, which can promote partial emission from the Cu–CNTs interfaces, hence facilitating the formation of nanotwins [34]. Secondly, the incorporation of uniformly dispersed CNTs can substantially decrease the stacking fault energy of the Cu matrix, and the lowered stacking fault energy can make the nanotwins formation easier [19]. Therefore, the formation of nanotwins in HCR-C₁F₁ can be

attributed to the combined effects of larger grain size, cryogenic rolling, and uniformly dispersed CNTs.

3.2 Mechanical properties

The uniaxial tensile tests were conducted to evaluate the mechanical properties of the HR-C₀F₁, HR-C₁F₁, HCR-C₀F₁, and HCR-C₁F₁. As presented in Fig. 9(a), the HR-C₁F₁ has lower yield strength (YS) but larger ductility than HR-C₀F₁, while the two

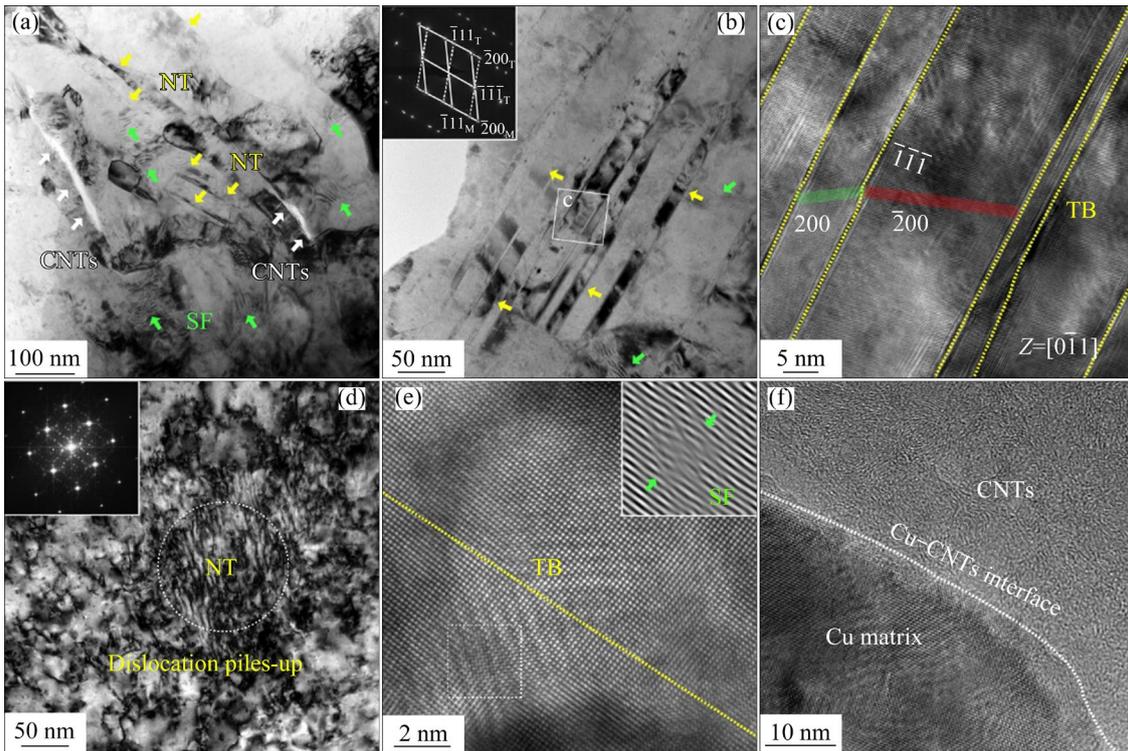


Fig. 8 Microstructures of HCR-C₁F₁ characterized by TEM: (a) BFTEM image with low magnification; (b) Enlarged BFTEM image of nano twins (NT) (The inset is SAED pattern of nanotwins); (c) HRTEM image of area marked by white square in (b); (d) Enlarged BFTEM image of coexisted nanotwins and multiplied dislocations (The inset is the SAED pattern of the multiple twins); (e) HRTEM image of nanotwins marked by white dashed circle in (d) (The inset is the IFFT image of Cu matrix near the TB); (f) HRTEM image of Cu–CNTs interface

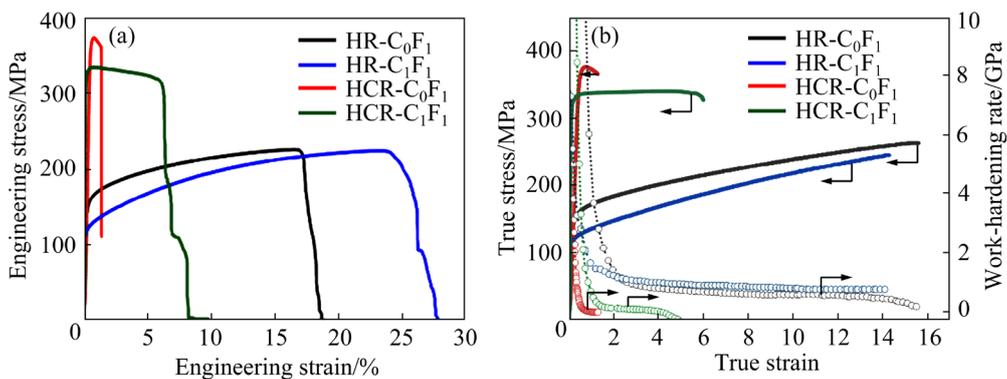


Fig. 9 Mechanical properties of fabricated composites: (a) Engineering stress–strain curves; (b) True stress–strain, and work-hardening rate curves

composites have comparable ultimate tensile strength (UTS). After cryogenic rolling, the YS of HCR-C₀F₁ is increased to (347.3±7.6) MPa, which is ~186.9 MPa higher than that of the HR-C₀F₁, but the elongation is substantially decreased to ~1.4%. Similarly, the YS of HCR-C₁F₁ is (336.6±8.5) MPa, which is ~229.1 MPa higher than that of the HR-C₁F₁. However, the tensile ductility of HCR-C₁F₁ is retained to be ~6.2%. The detailed values of the measured mechanical properties of these composites are illustrated in Table 2. The measured results of mechanical properties demonstrate that the incorporation of 50 wt.% coarse Cu powders when preparing the composite powders only slightly lowers the strength of the fabricated composites, but substantially improves their ductility, regardless of the hot-rolled or cryogenically-rolled state.

Figure 9(b) shows the true stress–strain curves

Table 2 Mechanical properties of four specimens

Sample	YS/MPa	UTS/MPa	Elongation/%
HR-C ₀ F ₁	160.4±9.2	225.5±10.9	17.1±0.6
HR-C ₁ F ₁	107.5±10.5	226.3±8.6	23.9±0.7
HCR-C ₀ F ₁	347.3±7.6	384.3±9.3	1.4±0.2
HCR-C ₁ F ₁	336.6±8.5	345.1±7.6	6.2±1.3

and the strain-hardening rate curves of the four types of composites. It can be seen that the work-hardening rate of the cryogenically-rolled composites is much lower than that of the hot-rolled counterparts. Nevertheless, the HCR-C₁F₁ exhibits a homogeneous deformation stage before the appearance of strain-softening. Such plastic deformation characteristics should be the result of the offset between work-hardening induced by the interaction between dislocation and nanotwins, and the work-softening caused by the dislocation recovery [35].

Figure 10 presents the SEM images of the fractured surfaces of tensile failed HCR-C₀F₁ and HCR-C₁F₁. As can be seen, the HCR-C₀F₁ presents typical intergranular fracture features (Fig. 10(a)), while transgranular fractured Cu grains can also be observed on the fracture surface of HCR-C₁F₁ in addition to the intergranular fractured Cu grains (Fig. 10(b)). The additional transgranular fracture features should originate from the addition of 50 wt.% coarse Cu powders, which facilitates the achievement of better ductility. In addition, it can be seen that the pull-out CNTs from HCR-C₀F₁ (Fig. 10(c)) and HCR-C₁F₁ (Fig. 10(d)) are stretched straightly along the tensile direction and have sharp ends, implying that the CNTs play an effective load bearing role before the two composites fracture.

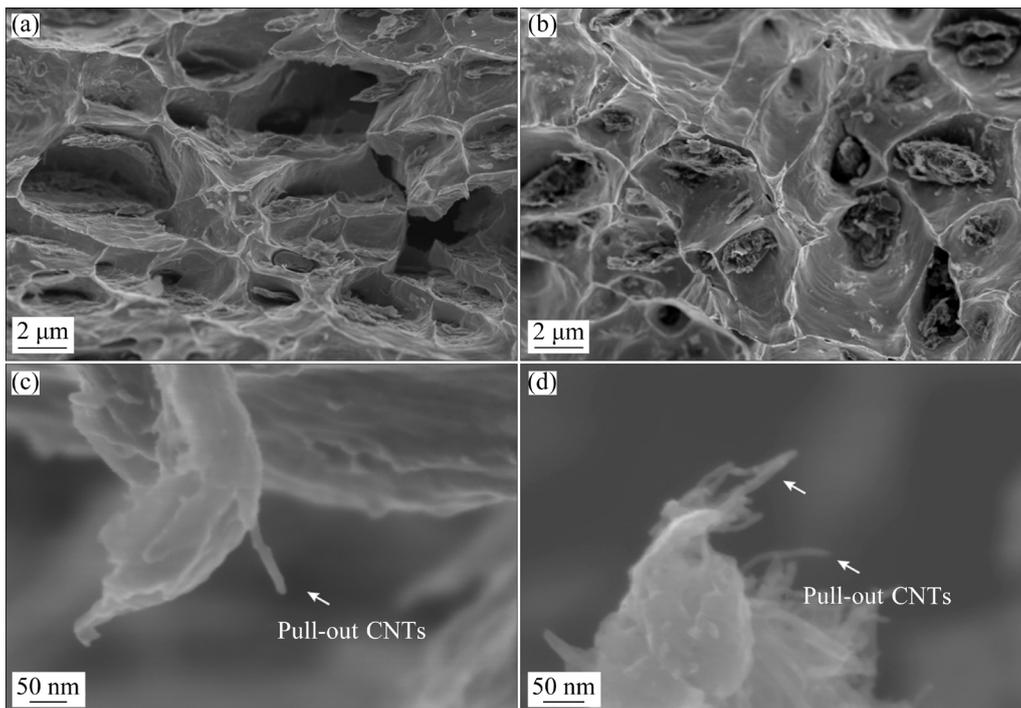


Fig. 10 SEM images of fractured surfaces of HCR-C₀F₁ (a, c) and HCR-C₁F₁ (b, d) after tensile failure tests

3.3 Strengthening and toughening mechanisms

To elucidate the fundamental reasons for the substantially improved strength and different ductility reductions of the HCR-C₀F₁ and HCR-C₁F₁ after cryogenic rolling, it is necessary to further analyze the involved strengthening and toughening mechanisms of these two composites. In general, the Orowan strengthening mechanism is important for the strength improvement of metal matrix composites. However, since the current hot-rolled and further cryogenically-rolled composites have similar CNTs dispersion, the Orowan strengthening mechanism should have a negligible contribution to the improved strength of the cryogenically-rolled composite over hot-rolled counterpart. According to the microstructure characterization results, the three main strengthening mechanisms should contribute to the improved strength, i.e., (1) grain refinement strengthening after cold rolling ($\Delta\sigma_{GR}$) [36], (2) dislocation strengthening due to the dislocation multiplication ($\Delta\sigma_{dis.}$) [19], and (3) nanotwins strengthening ($\Delta\sigma_{NT}$) [37]. Thus, assuming the YS of the cryogenically-rolled composites is the linear sum of the YS of the hot-rolled composites and the strength improvement originating from the strengthening mechanisms induced by cryogenic rolling, the YS of the HCR-C₀F₁ and HCR-C₁F₁ composites can be described as follows: $\sigma_{YS(HCR-C_0F_1)} = \sigma_{YS(HR-C_0F_1)} + \Delta\sigma_{GR} + \Delta\sigma_{dis.} + \Delta\sigma_{NT}$; $\sigma_{YS(HCR-C_1F_1)} = \sigma_{YS(HR-C_1F_1)} + \Delta\sigma_{GR} + \Delta\sigma_{dis.} + \Delta\sigma_{NT}$, where $\sigma_{YS(HR-C_0F_1)}$ and $\sigma_{YS(HR-C_1F_1)}$ denote the YS of the HR-C₀F₁ and HR-C₁F₁ composites, respectively.

The $\Delta\sigma_{GR}$ can be estimated based on the Hall–Petch relationship [38]:

$$\Delta\sigma_{GR} = K(D^{-0.5} - D_0^{-0.5}) \quad (1)$$

where K is the Hall–Petch slope (0.14 MPa·m^{1/2} for FCC Cu [39]); D and D_0 are the average grain sizes of the composites before and after cryogenic rolling, respectively. Based on the grain information obtained from the EBSD results in Fig. 3(e), the $\Delta\sigma_{GR}$ of HCR-C₀F₁ and HCR-C₁F₁ composites are 61.6 and 40.2 MPa, respectively (Fig. 11).

The $\Delta\sigma_{dis.}$ can be estimated by the following equation according to the literature [40–42]:

$$\Delta\sigma_{dis.} = MaGb(\rho_{HCR}^{0.5} - \rho_{HR}^{0.5}) \quad (2)$$

where M is the Taylor factor of the pure Cu matrix (3.06 [2]); a is the lattice parameter of the pure copper matrix (0.361 nm [43]); G is the shear

modulus of the Cu matrix and can be taken as 39 GPa [44]; b is the magnitude of Burgers vector of the Cu matrix and has a value of 0.255 nm [42]. ρ_{HCR} and ρ_{HR} are dislocation densities of the cryogenically-rolled composites and the hot-rolled composites, respectively. By substituting the dislocation density obtained from the EBSD analysis results into the above formula, the calculated $\Delta\sigma_{dis.}$ values for HCR-C₀F₁ and HCR-C₁F₁ composites are 117.9 and 143.4 MPa, respectively (Fig. 11).

Therefore, by calculating based on the equation: $\Delta\sigma_{NT} = \Delta\sigma_{YS(HCR)} - \Delta\sigma_{YS(HR)} - \Delta\sigma_{GR} - \Delta\sigma_{dis.}$, the strength contribution by nanotwins for HCR-C₀F₁ and HCR-C₁F₁ composites can be estimated to be 7.4 and 45.8 MPa, respectively (Fig. 11). Accordingly, the $\Delta\sigma_{NT}$ accounts for 3.9% and 19.9% of the overall increased strength for the HCR-C₀F₁ and HCR-C₁F₁ composites, respectively. Moreover, the proportion of the $\Delta\sigma_{GR}$ and $\Delta\sigma_{dis.}$ to the whole strength increment is 32.9% and 63.2% for HCR-C₀F₁ composite, while 17.5% and 62.6% for HCR-C₁F₁ composite, respectively (Fig. 11). Such theoretical calculation results demonstrate that the grain refinement strengthening and dislocation strengthening are the dominant strengthening mechanisms for HCR-C₀F₁, and the nanotwins strengthening is negligible. However, in addition to the grain refinement strengthening and dislocation strengthening, the nanotwins strengthening is also one of the main strengthening mechanisms for HCR-C₁F₁ composite.

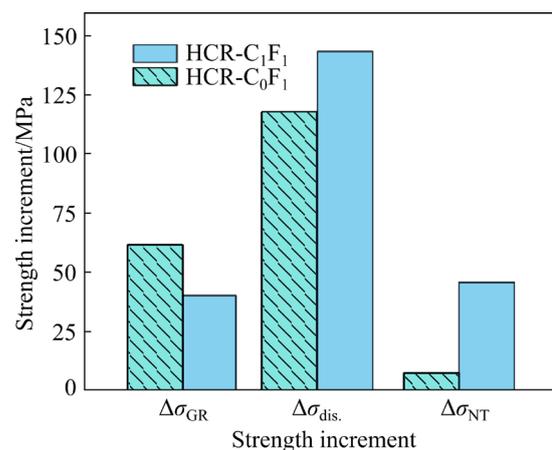


Fig. 11 Column figure summarizing strength increment contributions of involved strengthening mechanisms

In addition to the substantial strength increment after cryogenic rolling, it is surprising that HCR-C₁F₁ composite retains a much better tensile elongation than HCR-C₀F₁ composite, thus resulting

in higher synergy of strength and ductility of the CNTs reinforced Cu matrix composite, which can be attributed to the following reasons. Firstly, the HCR-C₁F₁ possesses a lower dislocation density than HCR-C₀F₁, which allows more dislocations to be accommodated during the tensile test. Secondly, the successful incorporation of nanotwins into HCR-C₁F₁ provides more space for accommodating the proliferated dislocation [45,46]. The higher dislocation accommodation space of HCR-C₁F₁ than HCR-C₀F₁ can delay the stress and strain concentration during the tensile test, thus helping achieve a much higher tensile strain.

4 Conclusions

(1) The incorporation of 50 wt.% coarse Cu powders when preparing the composite powders facilitates the formation of nanotwins in the fabricated CNTs reinforced Cu matrix composites, especially in the cryogenically-rolled composite.

(2) The hot-rolled composites (HR-C₀F₁ and HR-C₁F₁) without nanotwins have lower yield strength but higher tensile ductility, while the cryogenically-rolled composite without nanotwins (HCR-C₀F₁) has much higher tensile strength ((347.3±7.6) MPa) but extremely lower ductility ((1.4±0.2)%).

(3) The introduction of nanotwins in the CNTs reinforced Cu matrix composites not only helps to achieve substantially higher yield strength ((336.6±8.5) MPa) but also contributes to better tensile ductility ((6.2±1.3)%), resulting in better strength and ductility synergy.

(4) The strength increment originating from nanotwins is up to 19.9% of the overall strength increment for the composite after incorporating nanotwins. Good tensile ductility originates from the increased dislocation accommodation ability contributed by the formed nanotwins and lower induced dislocation proliferation.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

Wei-lin YU: Methodology, Data curation, Writing – Original draft; **Si-wei LUO:** Formal analysis, Investigation, Data curation; **Juan ZHU:** Data curation, Writing – Review and editing; **Min SONG:** Investigation, Supervision; **Tian-yu SUN:** Investigation, Formal analysis; **Jian-hong YI:** Supervision; **Liang LIU:** Investigation; **Yang-zhen LIU:** Investigation,

Supervision; **Zhi-guo ZHANG:** Supervision; **Yong YANG:** Investigation, Supervision; **Zhen-tao YU:** Methodology, Supervision; **Wei LI:** Resources, Supervision; **Bai-song GUO:** Investigation, Funding acquisition, Formal analysis, Conceptualization, Writing – Review & editing, Supervision.

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.

Data availability

The raw/processed data can be provided by the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Acknowledgments

This research was financially supported by the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities, China (No. 21624408), the Guangdong Basic and Applied Basic Research Foundation, China (Nos. 2023A1515012850, 2024A1515010416), Guangzhou Science and Technology Planning Project, China (No. 2024A04J9966), the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Nos. 52271132, 52004101), and the Key Laboratory of Advanced Materials of Yunnan Province, China (No. 2024KF02).

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通过引入纳米孪晶提高 Cu/CNTs 复合材料的力学性能

余炜琳¹, 罗思伟¹, 朱娟¹, 宋旻², 孙天宇¹, 易健宏³, 刘亮³,
刘洋赓¹, 张治国¹, 杨勇⁴, 于振涛¹, 李卫¹, 郭柏松¹

1. 暨南大学 先进耐磨蚀与功能材料研究院, 广州 510632;
2. 中南大学 粉末冶金全国重点实验室, 长沙 410083;
3. 昆明理工大学 材料科学与工程学院, 昆明 650093;
4. 香港城市大学 工程学院 机械工程系, 香港 999077

摘要: 为了发挥纳米孪晶和碳纳米管对铜基复合材料的综合强化作用, 通过低温轧制和优化所用铜粉的初始粒径, 将宽度为 3~30 nm 的纳米孪晶引入碳纳米管增强铜基复合材料中。仅用 0.2% (质量分数)碳纳米管增强的铜基复合材料中就形成了纳米孪晶, 同时铜基体的位错密度显著增加, 晶粒尺寸也显著细化, 与无明显纳米孪晶形成的复合材料相比, 其强度–延展性协同作用要好得多。强化和韧化机理分析表明, 强度的提高来源于细晶强化、位错强化和纳米孪晶强化, 其中, 纳米孪晶引起的强度提高占复合材料整体强度提高的 19.9%; 同时, 良好的拉伸延展性是由于所形成的纳米孪晶位错容纳能力的提高及诱导位错扩散的降低。

关键词: 铜基复合材料; 碳纳米管; 纳米孪晶; 强度; 延展性