

# Structural stability of ultrafine-grained copper

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Ultrafine-grained (UFG) pure Cu, produced by equal channel angular pressing, was subjected to thermomechanical treatment (TMT) with stepwise deformation at rising temperature. The TMT leads to homogeneous subgrain coarsening according to the established inverse relation between flow stress and steady-state subgrain size and retards static recrystallization during annealing at 403 K.

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Pure ultrafine-grained (UFG) Cu produced by severe plastic deformation (SPD) has unique and useful mechanical properties, including high values of work hardening rate, yield stress and strain rate sensitivity of flow stress (see e.g. [1–5]). Its cellular/subgrain microstructure, resulting from storage and dynamic recovery of dislocations, is typical of cold-worked materials [6]. Each subgrain has a number of different boundaries equal to the number of its next neighbors. Depending on the misorientation  $\phi$  of the neighbors, the boundaries of a subgrain have low-angle (network of lattice dislocations,  $\phi < 15^\circ$ ) or high-angle boundaries ( $\phi > 15^\circ$ ). The volume density of the subgrain boundary area is  $f_w/w$ , where  $w$  is the linear intercept of the subgrains; the geometrical factor  $f_w \approx 2$  as the subgrains are approximately equiaxed. Analogously, the volume density of the high-angle boundary area is  $f_d/d$ . The area fraction of high-angle boundaries is  $f_{hab} = (f_d/f_w)(w/d)$  and may be approximated as  $w/d$  because the deviation of the geometrical factor  $f_d$  from 2 is limited. Substantial differences in  $f_{hab}$  may result in significant changes in the mechanical properties of a material due to the significant differences between the low- and high-angle boundaries. In particular, low-angle boundaries are penetrable dislocation obstacles, in contrast to (in general) high-angle

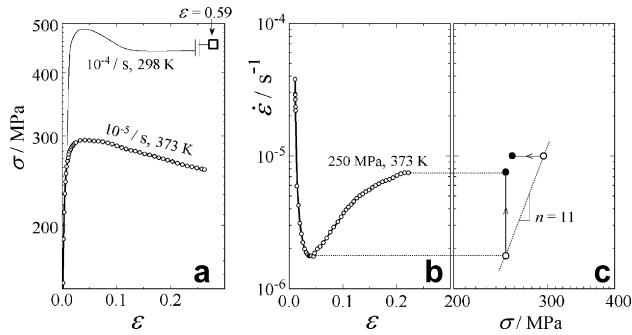
boundaries, and the diffusivity of high-angle boundaries is much larger than that of low-angle ones.

The special properties of UFG materials result from a relatively large  $f_{hab}$ . The high amount of stored energy restricts the stability of UFG materials against thermally activated structural changes. For instance, discontinuous static recrystallization occurs at relatively low homologous temperatures [6]. When the recrystallized volume is sufficiently large, hardness and yield stress are significantly reduced. Work softening during deformation of UFG materials at temperatures above the SPD processing temperature  $T_{SPD}$  has also been observed; examples are given in Li et al. [3] and Figure 1. The softening shows up as a decrease in flow stress  $\sigma$  at constant (total) deformation rate  $\dot{\epsilon}_{tot}$  and as an increase in creep rate  $\dot{\epsilon}$  at constant stress  $\sigma$ . The microstructural origin of work softening is not yet known in detail. Li et al. proposed homogeneous coarsening of the subgrain structure and a resulting increase of subgrain size [3]. However, some kind of dynamic recrystallization cannot be excluded as a cause of softening.

Strategies to stabilize the UFG structure by thermal treatments and to modify it in order to optimize its mechanical properties have been proposed [7–9]. These approaches comprise partial recrystallization to form a bimodal structure. Li et al. [3] reported that a thermomechanical treatment (TMT) stabilizes UFG Cu.

In the present work, we report on the stabilization of UFG Cu by TMT and its microstructural origin. UFG Cu (99.98 wt.%, oxygen-free high-conductivity) was

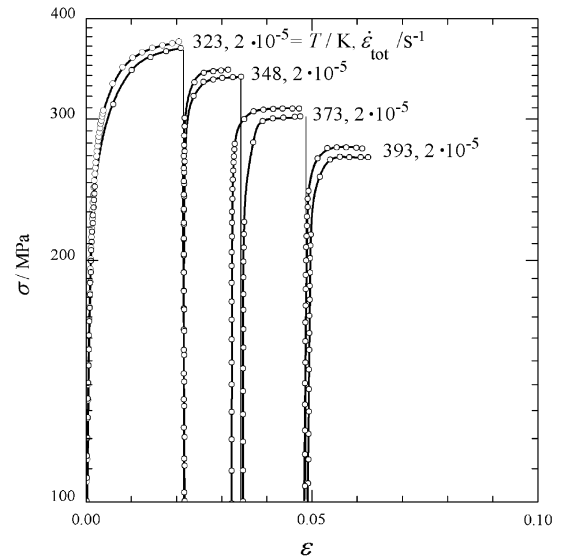
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**Figure 1.** Work softening of UFG Cu during uniaxial compression at 373 K and (a) constant  $\dot{\epsilon}_{\text{tot}}$ , (b) constant  $\sigma$ , (c) deformation paths in (a) and (b) in  $\dot{\epsilon}$ – $\sigma$  field from maximum of deformation resistance (open circles) to end of tests (filled circles);  $n$  is the  $\sigma$ -exponent of  $\dot{\epsilon}$  at the maximum deformation resistance (estimated error  $\pm 4$ ). The curve for 298 K (thin line) in (a) was taken from Ref. [17] for UFG Cu produced by cryorolling at 77 K and deformed at room temperature.

produced from material with initial grain size  $\approx 2$  mm by equal channel angular pressing (ECAP) for eight passes through route B<sub>C</sub> (rotation of sample by 90° in the same direction after each pass [10]). The subgrain size of the UFG Cu is  $w_0 = 0.28$   $\mu\text{m}$  [11]. The fraction of high-angle boundaries was found to be around 0.6 (Y. Zhang, unpublished); this agrees with the literature [6,12–14], which reports  $0.5 < f_{\text{hab}} < 0.7$ . Deformation tests on UFG Cu were performed with an Instron 4505 testing machine at elevated temperatures  $323 \text{ K} \leq T \leq 403 \text{ K}$  in uniaxial compression under strain rate control and stress control (creep). Temperature was established by heating without load at the rate  $\dot{T} = 7 \text{ K min}^{-1}$  and soaking for 0.5 h before deformation was started. The direction of compression was parallel to the ECAP direction. The initial shape factor (ratio of length to square root of cross-section) of the sample was 1.3. Stress  $\sigma$  was determined as force per average cross-section at  $T$  (calculated with thermal expansion coefficient of  $1.7 \times 10^{-5} \text{ K}^{-1}$ ). The (true) total (elastic plus inelastic) strain  $\epsilon_{\text{tot}}$  was determined by measuring the change of length by extensometers attached to the deformation machine at a small distance from the test specimen. Due to the relatively large shape factor and the limited strains, correction of  $\sigma$  for the effect of friction at the interfaces of the specimens and the compression machine was unnecessary. Contributions from elastic deformation of the specimen and machine parts and local adjustment of the specimens to the compression machine were corrected by calculating the inelastic strain for stresses  $> 100$  MPa as  $\epsilon = \epsilon_{\text{tot}} - \epsilon_{\text{tot}}(100 \text{ MPa}) - \sigma/E_{\text{eff}}$ , where  $E_{\text{eff}} = 45 \text{ GPa}$  is the effective elastic modulus determined from the steepest slopes of the loading parts of the  $\sigma$ – $\epsilon_{\text{tot}}$  curves. The microstructure was investigated by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) (Philips CM200). The subgrain intercepts were determined from montages of TEM micrographs (three montages, total area  $> 360 \mu\text{m}^2$  per state) by the line intersection technique; the average intercept length is the subgrain size  $w$ .

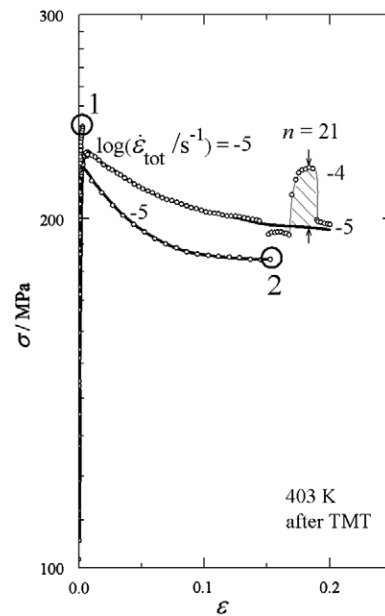
Figure 2 shows the  $\sigma$ – $\epsilon$  history in the TMT of the type proposed in Ref. [3] to stabilize the UFG structure. It involves steps of deformation up to the peak of flow stress



**Figure 2.**  $\sigma$ – $\epsilon$  curves during TMT of UFG Cu at successively increasing  $T$ ; upper and lower curves correspond to two specimens of slightly different strength.

at constant  $\dot{\epsilon}_{\text{tot}}$  and temperature  $T$  in a sequence of increasing  $T$  up to 393 K.

During deformation at 403 K the TMT-stabilized UFG Cu softens (Fig. 3) like that in Figure 1. TEM investigations of the microstructure were done before TMT in the initial state after SPD and after TMT at points 1 (near maximum flow stress) and 2 (after work softening) of Figure 3. Figure 4 presents the results. It is known that the subgrain size  $w$  is usually close to its steady-state value in coarse-grained material, and depends on stress as  $w_{\infty} = k_w b G / \sigma$ , where  $b$  is the length of the Burgers vector,  $G$  is the shear modulus [15], and



**Figure 3.**  $\sigma$ – $\epsilon$  curves at 403 K for UFG Cu after TMT of Figure 2 (curves ending at points 1 and 2 follow upper and lower curves from Fig. 2). Exponent  $n$  was determined from the change in flow stress with rate, marked by arrows.

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