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1 Grain boundary mediated plasticity in  
2 aluminum films unraveled by a statistical  
3 approach combining nano-DIC and ACOM-  
4 TEM

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18

## 19 **ABSTRACT**

20 Nanomechanical on-chip testing is combined with nanoscale *in situ* digital image correlation and  
21 automated crystal orientation mapping in TEM to deliver novel statistically representative quantitative  
22 data about the deformation mechanisms in nanocrystalline aluminum films. The films are very ductile,  
23 with a rare stable multiple necking process with local strains reaching up to 0.45 and macroscopic  
24 elongation up to 0.17. The strain fields with resolution below 100 nm are related to the underlying  
25 microstructure and crystallographic orientation maps. This reveals nanoscopic shear bands forming  
26 preferentially along GB with high misorientations, tilted at +/- 45° with respect to loading direction.  
27 The analysis of these data prove that the strong strain delocalization process is promoted by GB  
28 migration and grain rotation, leading to large strain rate sensitivity. The distribution of misorientation  
29 angles between grains evolve during deformation. The GB with misorientation between 20 and 40 °,  
30 which are the GBs with highest energy, involve the largest strains.

## 31 **1. Introduction**

32 Nanocrystalline (nc) and ultrafine-grained (UFG) metals exhibit outstanding mechanical strength and  
33 fatigue resistance compared to their coarse-grained (cg) counterparts. Thin films made of nc or UFG  
34 metals are potential candidates for hard and tough coatings, for structural components in  
35 MEMS/NEMS, and conductive layers in microelectronic devices [1–4]. However, the use of such films  
36 is often restricted by the limited ductility due to low dislocation storage capacity within small-sized  
37 grains [5,6]. In such systems, some strain hardening capacity can be induced by nanotwins or  
38 secondary phases restoring then moderate to high resistance to plastic localization [7–9]. Ductility can  
39 also sometimes be significantly improved by raising the rate sensitivity, owing for instance to a complex  
40 interplay between thermally activated dislocation-based processes and grain boundary (GB)  
41 mechanisms [10,11]. This has driven a strong research interest in unraveling the fundamentals and  
42 magnitude of the competing deformation mechanisms in these materials at the smallest length scales  
43 [12–22]. Among others, the dislocation-based deformation processes nc and UFG metals include  
44 intragranular dislocation-glide within the grains [19–21] as well as at the GBs [21,23,24]. The  
45 interaction of dislocations with GBs including their absorption or re-emission from the GBs is enhanced  
46 due to a large fraction of GBs [20,25–27]. The dislocation-mediated plasticity in nc metals is often  
47 characterized by global texture evolution [28,29] due to the rotation of individual grains and their  
48 interaction with neighbors as revealed by kernel average misorientation (KAM) [30] and intragranular  
49 misorientation (mis2mean) [12,31] local analysis.

50

51 One aspect that is often lacking in the current literature to assess scenarios for these competing  
52 deformation mechanisms is the need for quantitative data with sufficient statistical value particularly  
53 with respect to the deformation fields connected to the microstructure characteristics. Microscopic  
54 strain fields can nowadays be acquired by digital image correlation (DIC) in a SEM for sample sizes in  
55 the range of the millimeter down to several tens of micrometers with spatial resolution between 50  
56 and 500 nm This results from the continuous improvement of surface patterning methods [32–34].  
57 Such strain fields are linked to the microstructure by coupling DIC and *in situ* electron back scatter  
58 diffraction (EBSD) during deformation [35–40]. Linne *et al.* quantitatively estimated both grain  
59 boundary sliding and slip transmission in micro-scale aluminum samples with a typical grain size of a  
60 few tens of microns and DIC spatial resolution of 410 nm [38,41]. Vermeij *et al.* [37,40] as well as  
61 Yavuzyeğit *et al.* [42] produced strain maps with a spatial resolution down to some tens of nanometers.  
62 They paved the way to probe intra-granular plasticity and grain boundary-mediated plasticity at very  
63 small scales. Nevertheless, such HR-EBSD analysis cannot be applied to nanocrystalline materials nor  
64 freestanding films due to insufficient spatial resolution and film thickness under backscatter diffracting  
65 conditions.

66

67 The deformation of thin films has been widely studied with *in situ* TEM nanomechanical testing  
68 [14,21,24,43,44]. Using *in situ* TEM straining and dark-field TEM (DFTEM) imaging, Shan *et al.* showed  
69 grain rotation in nc-Ni thin film (mean grain size 10 nm) being accommodated by diffusive processes  
70 in GB regions [45]. However, DFTEM imaging offers visualization of only a limited number of grains  
71 that are under suitable diffraction conditions. Wang *et al.* demonstrated by high-resolution TEM  
72 (HRTEM) on nc-Pt that the grain rotation involved dislocation climb at GB and the evolution of  
73 misorientation angle was studied by considering the change of Frank-Bilby dislocation content in the  
74 GB [46]. Li *et al.* employed *in situ* TEM straining with bright field TEM (BFTEM) imaging to show the  
75 operation of GB sliding and migration for specific GBs in nc-Au films [47]. BFTEM has been proven  
76 highly advantageous for detailed analysis of intra- and inter-granular plasticity during *in situ*  
77 deformation [20,21,47,48]. However, deformation-induced grain rotations are the cause of sudden  
78 changes in the diffraction contrast, which are difficult to reliably interpret. Moreover, local  
79 characterization within a sampling size of only a few tens of nm is seldom fully representative of the  
80 deformation mechanism. Kobler *et al.* performed automated crystal orientation mapping in the TEM  
81 (ACOM-TEM) during *in situ* straining of nc-Pd [12]. This allowed a high spatial resolution (1 nm) with  
82 statistically significant information related to the distributions of grain size, crystal orientation, GB  
83 misorientation and intragranular lattice curvature. Momprou *et al.* used this approach together with  
84 complementary BFTEM imaging to quantify grain growth and grain rotation in sub-micron Al thin films  
85 deformed to 7% strain [49]. Elastic strain field measurements at spatial resolution from 0.5 to 4 nm

86 were performed with a field of view of 20 to 200 nm [50–52]. Yet, strain distributions over larger  
87 samplings would be required to explain the microstructure evolution in nc or UFG materials. A key  
88 challenge is the correlation between high-resolution measurements of the local strain and high-  
89 resolution microstructural characterization over a wide sampling area inside a TEM.

90

91 In the present study, a novel approach is demonstrated combining nanomechanical lab-on-chip (LOC)  
92 testing with both nanoscale *in situ* digital image correlation (nano-DIC) and automated crystal  
93 orientation mapping in TEM (ACOM-TEM). Nano-DIC is capable of high-resolution quantification of  
94 both the in-plane shear strains and the grain rotations. The spatial distribution of strains at the GBs as  
95 well as within the grains is captured over the whole deformed polycrystal. Strain and rotation maps  
96 are correlated with the microstructural characteristics including GB character, GB misorientation as  
97 well as crystal orientation and extended defects, which can be explored by ACOM-TEM. Owing to these  
98 new capabilities and rich data, it has been possible to unravel the elementary plasticity mechanisms  
99 leading to the large ductility of the tested UFG aluminum freestanding films. Plastic deformation in  
100 UFG aluminum films as well as in other nanocrystalline FCC material has been extensively studied  
101 [10,14,21,23,24,43,44,53–56] but the interpretation of the data remains debated due to the variety of  
102 deposition processes and microstructures. The combination of LOC testing, nano-DIC and ACOM-TEM  
103 opens the possibility of making a closer link between the local strains and microstructure of  
104 polycrystalline materials at nanoscales with a statistically significant sampling size. This offers new  
105 insights into the complex interplay between intra-granular and GB plasticity in nanocrystalline  
106 materials.

## 107 2. Material and methods

### 108 2.1. Film deposition and on-chip test method

109 The principle of the tensile-on-chip test method (TOC) developed at UCLouvain [57] is illustrated in  
110 Fig. 1. The design and fabrication of these experiments based on photolithography are reported with  
111 more details in refs [57,58]. Only the salient features of the method are given here. Once the deposited  
112 structure is freed from the substrate (by chemical etching), the partial release of residual stress causes  
113 the actuators to pull on the test material. The resulting overall stress and strain are deduced from the  
114 change of length of the beams.

115 The actuator material is a silicon nitride  $\text{Si}_3\text{N}_4$  produced by low-pressure chemical vapor deposition  
116 (LPCVD). The Young's modulus, measured by nanoindentation, is equal to 250 GPa, and the residual  
117 stress is close to 1 GPa in tension. The layer thickness is measured by ellipsometry after deposition and

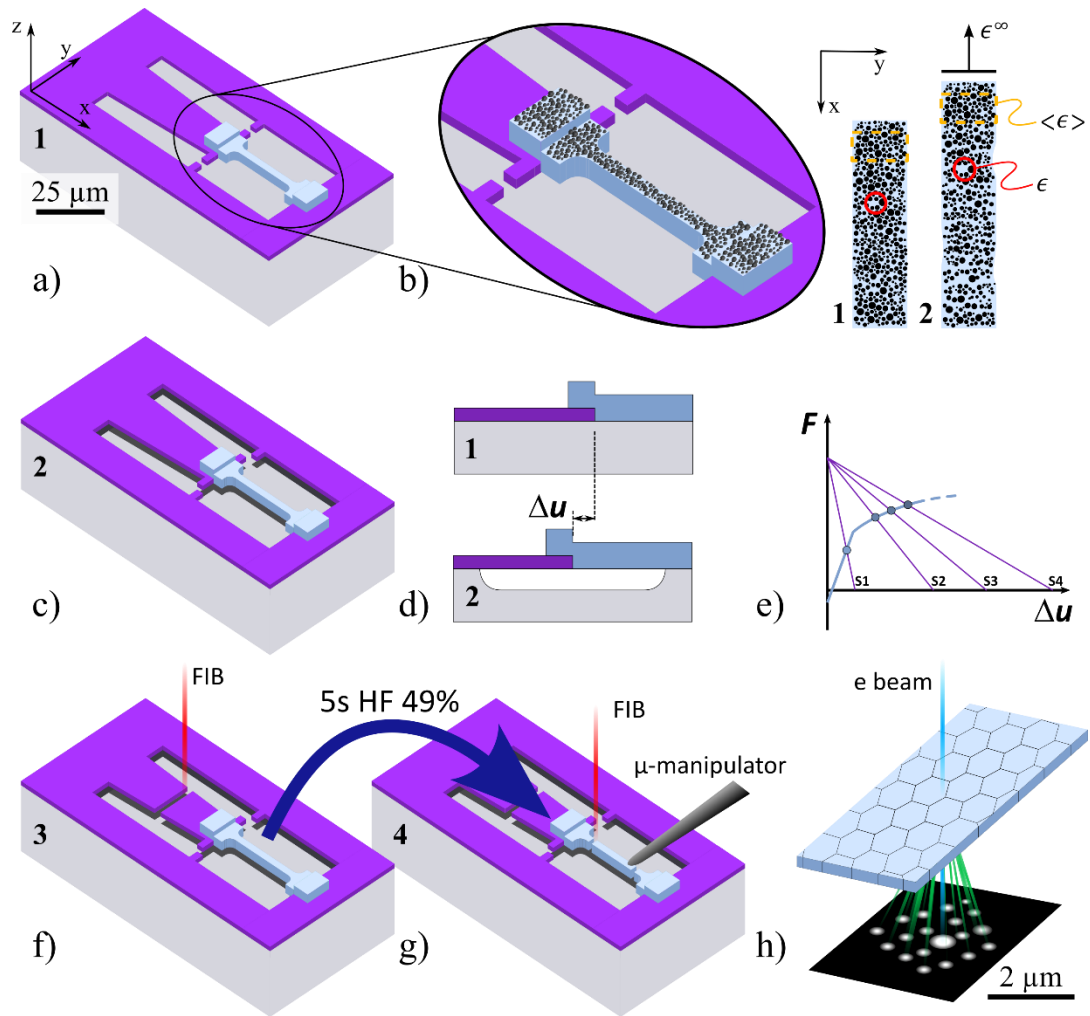
118 is equal to 125 nm. The actuator layer is patterned to generate actuator beams with different lengths  
119 – i.e. the longer the beam the larger the tensile strain applied to the specimen.

120 The specimen layer is deposited by sputtering from a 99.999 % pure aluminum target at room  
121 temperature and 1.2 mTorr pressure under a current of 300 mA in Ar gas. The film has been  
122 characterized by atom probe tomography and only Al atoms were found (see supplementary material  
123 Fig. S1). The grains grow with a columnar shape across the film thickness, which has been observed by  
124 cutting a cross-section of a specimen by focus ion beam (FIB) (see Fig. S2.d in the supplementary  
125 material). The columnar structure is evidenced with GBs nearly perpendicular to the silicon substrate,  
126 which has been reported by Pletea *et al.* [59].

127 The sample thickness, measured with a profilometer Dektak150, is equal to 240 nm. Sputtering  
128 involves a shadow effect, which reduces the deposition rate at the edges of the specimen – i.e. close  
129 to the photo-resin walls. The resulting cross-section has rounded edges with a thickness lower than  
130 the center of the cross-section. The ratio between the real cross-section area and the ideal rectangular  
131 shape is taken into account when determining the engineering stress. Photolithography and lift-off are  
132 used to pattern the film with a dogbone shape (see Fig. 1.a). The length and width of the specimens  
133 are varied between 10 - 800  $\mu\text{m}$  and 1 - 10  $\mu\text{m}$ , respectively. Here, only specimens with length of 25  
134  $\mu\text{m}$  and width of 2.5  $\mu\text{m}$  are investigated, see supplementary material, Table 1.

135 After deposition and patterning, electron beam evaporation from indium pellets with a 99.90 % purity  
136 is performed (see Fig. 1.b and supplementary material Fig. S2). The speckles cover only the test  
137 specimen [37,60]. The deposition rate is set to 1  $\text{\AA}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$  with a targeted thickness of 5 nm, leading to  
138 equiaxed indium particles of 8.1 nm average size with a small scatter of  $\pm 2$  nm considering the 25<sup>th</sup> and  
139 75<sup>th</sup> percentile. The particle size distribution is provided in supplementary material (Fig. S3) and is very  
140 close to the one characterized by Klavzer *et al.* [34].

141 Finally, the structures are released from the silicon substrate by selective dry etching (see Fig. 1.c) using  
142  $\text{XeF}_2$  gas by iteration of pulses until the silicon under the specimen and actuator is completely removed.  
143 The actuator contracts and pulls on the specimen. The displacement of reference cursors is measured  
144 under force equilibrium conditions several minutes after the loading has been applied (see Fig. 1.d and  
145 e). This provides an estimate of the specimen elongation, which will be referred to as macro-strain in  
146 contrast with the local strain deduced from DIC. The cursor displacement also corresponds to the  
147 shortening of the actuating beam, out of which the stress is deduced by assuming a linear elastic  
148 behavior of the  $\text{Si}_3\text{N}_4$  actuator.



149

150 *Figure 1 Schematic of the on-chip fabrication process, measurement and characterization: a) patterning of the actuator and*  
 151 *specimen, b) zoom on the specimen after deposition of indium nano-particles and representation of the DIC principle, c)*  
 152 *release of the test structure, d) measurement of the cursors displacement after release and equilibrium of the test structure,*  
 153 *e) representation of the force against displacement of each test structure and equilibrium points dictated by the specimen*  
 154 *mechanical behavior, f) unloading of the specimen to be observed in TEM by FIB cutting, g) manipulation the specimen after*  
 155 *removing the indium nano-particles with HF and h) characterization of the specimen by ACOM-TEM.*

156

## 157 2.2. Nano-digital image correlation

158 The strain field on the top surface of the Al beams is determined by DIC, using a speckle of indium  
 159 nano-particles for image correlation. These indium particles adhere to the specimen and are  
 160 disconnected from each other. Therefore, they do not significantly affect the specimen loading, nor  
 161 the deformation mechanisms under investigation.

162 One image with a resolution of 2048 x 1536 pixels is taken for each TOC structure both before and  
 163 after release. All images are acquired at a working distance of 5 mm and magnifications of 10k and

164 20k. The pixel resolution is 11 and 5.5 nm, respectively. The scanning electron microscope (SEM) image  
 165 acquisition is performed by integrating 5 fast image scans in order to minimize the image distortion  
 166 due to drift. The resulting images can be slightly blurred.

167 Displacement maps are generated using the Matlab script Ncorr developed by Blaber *et al.* [61], which  
 168 is well suited to handle high local strains. The algorithm treats the best-correlated subsets before the  
 169 worst ones, which reduces error propagation. Hence, the highly deformed regions are treated at the  
 170 end of the DIC analysis. The components of the strain tensor are computed from the displacement  
 171 map inside subsets with a radius of 15 pixels. The spatial shift between two adjacent subsets is 1 pixel.  
 172 The three in-plane components of the Lagrangian strain tensor are computed from the local gradient  
 173 of the displacement field as

$$\epsilon_{xx} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \left( \frac{du}{dx} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{dv}{dx} \right)^2 + 2 \frac{du}{dx} \right), \quad (1)$$

174

$$\epsilon_{yy} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \left( \frac{du}{dy} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{dv}{dy} \right)^2 + 2 \frac{dv}{dy} \right), \quad (2)$$

175

$$\epsilon_{xy} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{du}{dy} + \frac{dv}{dx} + \frac{du}{dx} \frac{du}{dy} + \frac{dv}{dx} \frac{dv}{dy} \right), \quad (3)$$

176 with  $u$  and  $v$  being the displacements along the  $\vec{x}$  and  $\vec{y}$  directions, respectively. If incompressibility  
 177 is assumed (thus neglecting elastic strains) and unmeasurable out-of-plane shear disregarded [37], the  
 178 equivalent von Mises strain  $\epsilon_{VM}$  is estimated as:

$$\epsilon_{VM} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} (\epsilon_{xx}^2 + \epsilon_{yy}^2 + \epsilon_{xy}^2 + \epsilon_{xx}\epsilon_{yy}). \quad (4)$$

179 The rotational component of the transformation is reflected by the skew-symmetric part of the in-  
 180 plane displacement gradient:

$$\omega_{xy} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{du}{dy} - \frac{dv}{dx} \right). \quad (5)$$

### 181 2.3. TEM characterization

182 The microstructure is characterized by TEM on both the undeformed specimen and the specimen  
 183 deformed to 0.165 macrostrain. In order to facilitate the TEM characterization of the deformed  
 184 specimen, the In particles are removed by dipping into liquid HF 49% for 5 s, see schematics of Fig. 1.f-



185 g. As the removal of the native oxide on the Al specimen is likely to induce softening, the actuators of  
186 the selected test structures are cut with a focus ion beam (FIB) [62] before dipping the structures in HF  
187 (see Fig. 1.f). This prevents any further deformation. HF wet etching is followed by rinsing in 3-  
188 isopropanol solution baths and critical point drying to prevent stiction on the underlying substrate. The  
189 cut-off specimen is transferred to an Omniprobe TEM lift-out grid with the aid of a micromanipulator  
190 inside a Helios Nanolab 600i focused ion beam (FIB) (see Fig. 1.g).

191 Bright-field TEM (BFTEM) and darkfield TEM (DFTEM) imaging is carried out on a ThermoFisher Osiris  
192 F20 TEM to characterize dislocations and grain boundaries (GBs). Automated crystal orientation  
193 mapping in TEM (ACOM-TEM) is performed on a ThermoFisher Tecnai G2 equipped with the  
194 NanoMEGAS ASTAR system which is used for quantitative analysis of the polycrystalline microstructure  
195 (see Fig. 1.h). ACOM-TEM involves an electron beam precessing at  $0.5^\circ$ , a camera length of 44 mm and  
196 a step size of 5 nm. The ACOM-TEM maps are processed using the MTEX-5.2.beta2 toolbox to analyze  
197 the grain size distribution, crystallographic texture, kernel average misorientation (KAM) as well as  
198 character of the GBs. For grain identification, a segmentation angle of  $2^\circ$  is used whereas the KAM  
199 analysis is performed for up to 5<sup>th</sup> order neighbors with maximum threshold angle of  $2^\circ$ , to obtain maps  
200 with reduced noise.

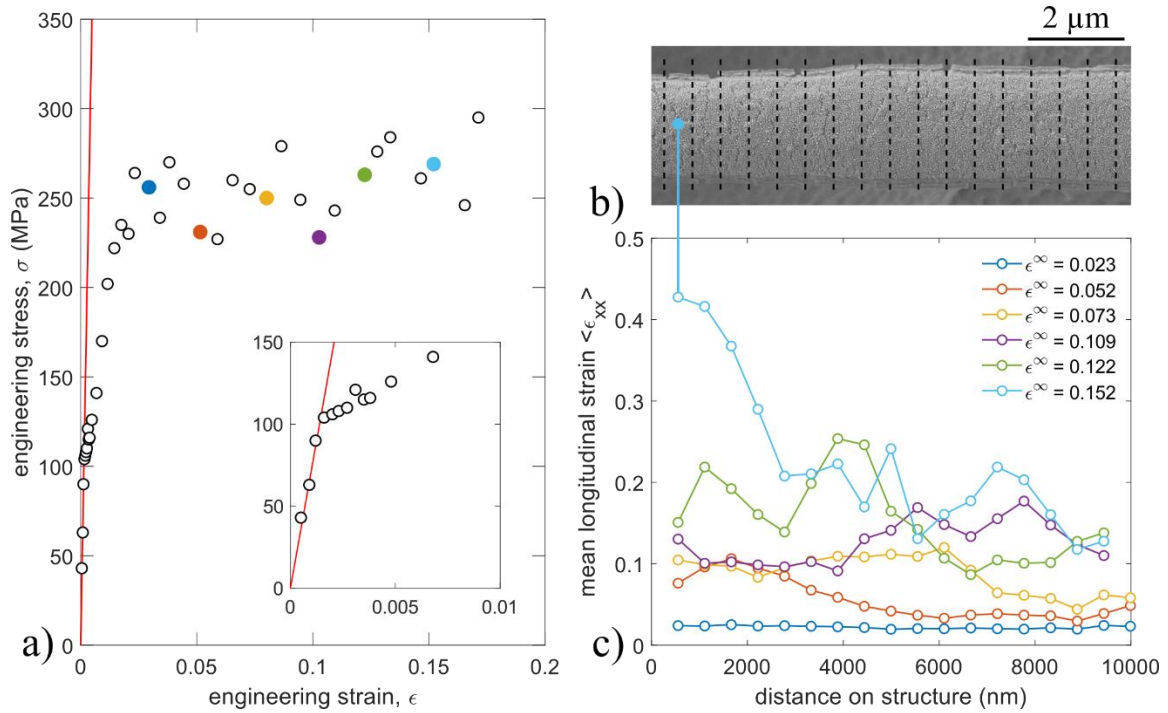
## 201 3. Results

### 202 3.1. Overall mechanical response and local strain distribution

203 The tensile response of the Al film is shown in Fig. 2.a. The red line corresponds to a Young's modulus  
204 of 70 GPa, as expected for Al. Each dot corresponds to one TOC test structure with a different length  
205 ratio of the two beams (actuator and sample). Only a few of them involve a small strain, as we focus  
206 here on the plastic strain regime. A large ductility is found as the longitudinal strain (averaged over the  
207 sample length) reaches a tensile elongation of 0.17.

208 The mean hardening exponent  $n = 0.14$  is calculated from the variation of the stress with the plastic  
209 strain (see supplementary material Fig. S5). Creep/relaxation measurements, using the same on-chip  
210 technique [63], provide the strain rate sensitivity exponent  $m = 0.05 \pm 0.02$ , assuming that the yield  
211 stress is linked to the strain rate according to a simple power law  $\sigma = K \dot{\epsilon}^m$ . The average rate  
212 sensitivity exponent is determined based on the progressive relaxation of the stress in nine specimens  
213 deformed between 0.012 and 0.043 macro-strain (see supplementary material Section 6). This  
214 conforms with a previous study by Gianola *et al.* [64] on pure Al films ( $m \approx 0.04$  for 150 nm thickness  
215 and  $m \approx 0.08$  for 300 nm thickness). The large standard deviation in our measurement may be due to

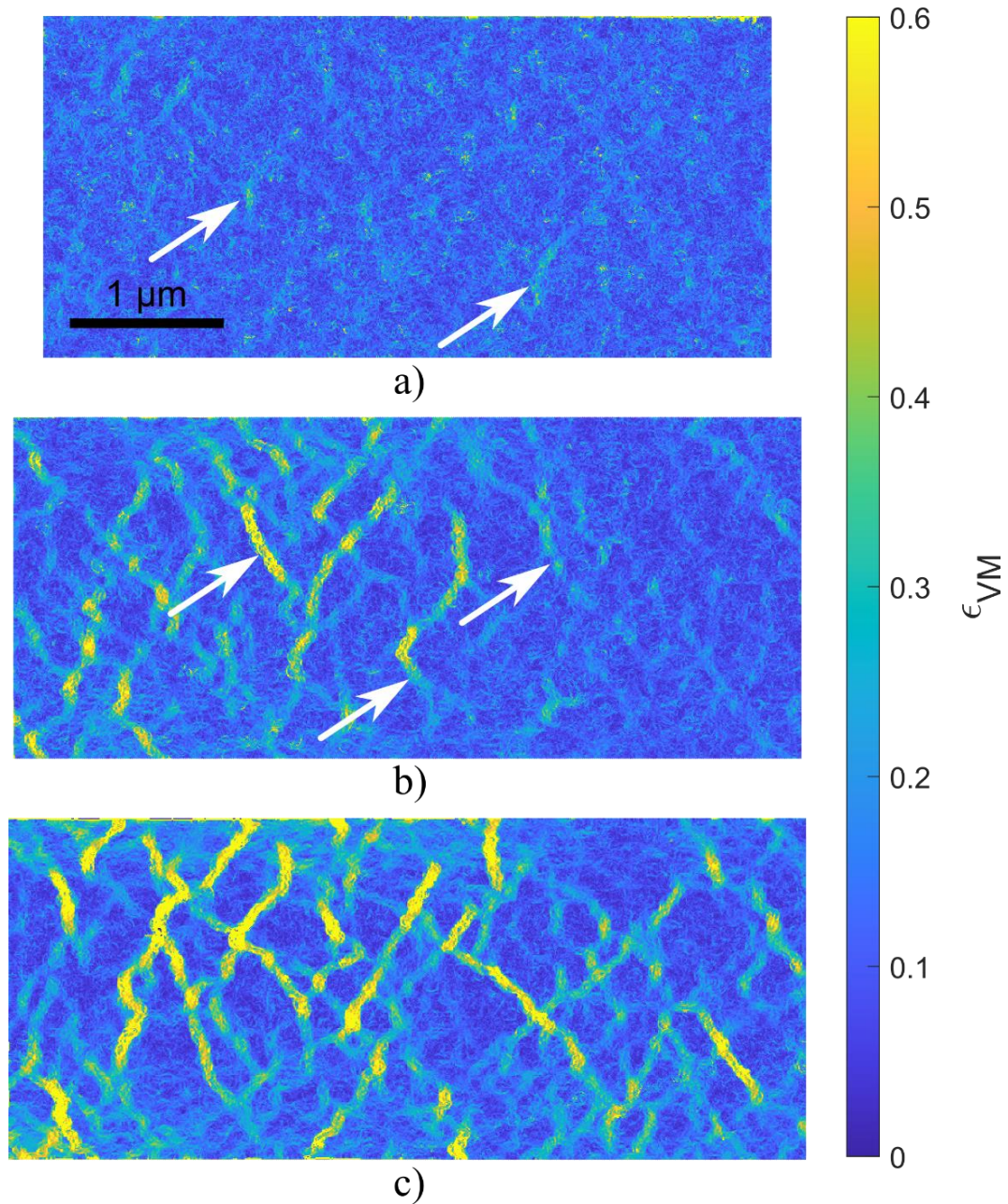
216 the inhomogeneous microstructural changes occurring during relaxation – i.e. grain growth and other  
 217 competing mechanisms – [63–65], as described in section 3.2.



218  
 219 *Figure 2 Uniaxial tension response of 240 nm thick Al thin films: a) engineering stress versus engineering strain of*  
 220 *freestanding Al thin film, b) top view of a specimen after 0.14 macro-strain and c) evolution of the local longitudinal strain*  
 221 *along the length of different specimen undergoing macroscopic strains ranging from 0.023 up to 0.15.*

222 Fig. 2.b shows that soon after the elasto-plastic transition ( $\epsilon_{VM} > 0.025$ ), the longitudinal strain  
 223 measured by nano-DIC analysis ceases to be uniform along specimen length. Multiple onsets of necking  
 224 are found, evidenced by local maxima in the distribution of the longitudinal strain shown in Fig. 2.c.  
 225 The formation of necks may also explain the slight scattering of the results in Fig. 2.a above 0.025  
 226 macro-strain. Indeed, the engineering stress appearing in Fig. 2.a is an average value assuming a  
 227 constant cross-section area, which does not exactly conform to SEM observations.

228 Figure 3 shows the microscopic distribution of the equivalent von Mises strain (Eq. 4), as deduced from  
 229 the DIC measurements on three different specimens deformed at, respectively, 0.023, 0.038 and 0.059  
 230 macro-strain. As highlighted by the arrows in Fig. 3, the deformation tends to localize along wavy  
 231 bands. These will be shown to correspond to GB locations in Section 3.2. Microscopic plastic  
 232 localization already shows up in the specimen with 0.023 macro-strain and is amplified at larger macro-  
 233 strains. Referring to Fig. 2, the onset of the microscopic localization of deformation in GB regions occurs  
 234 right after the elastic-plastic transition, when the macroscopic longitudinal strain ceases to be uniform.

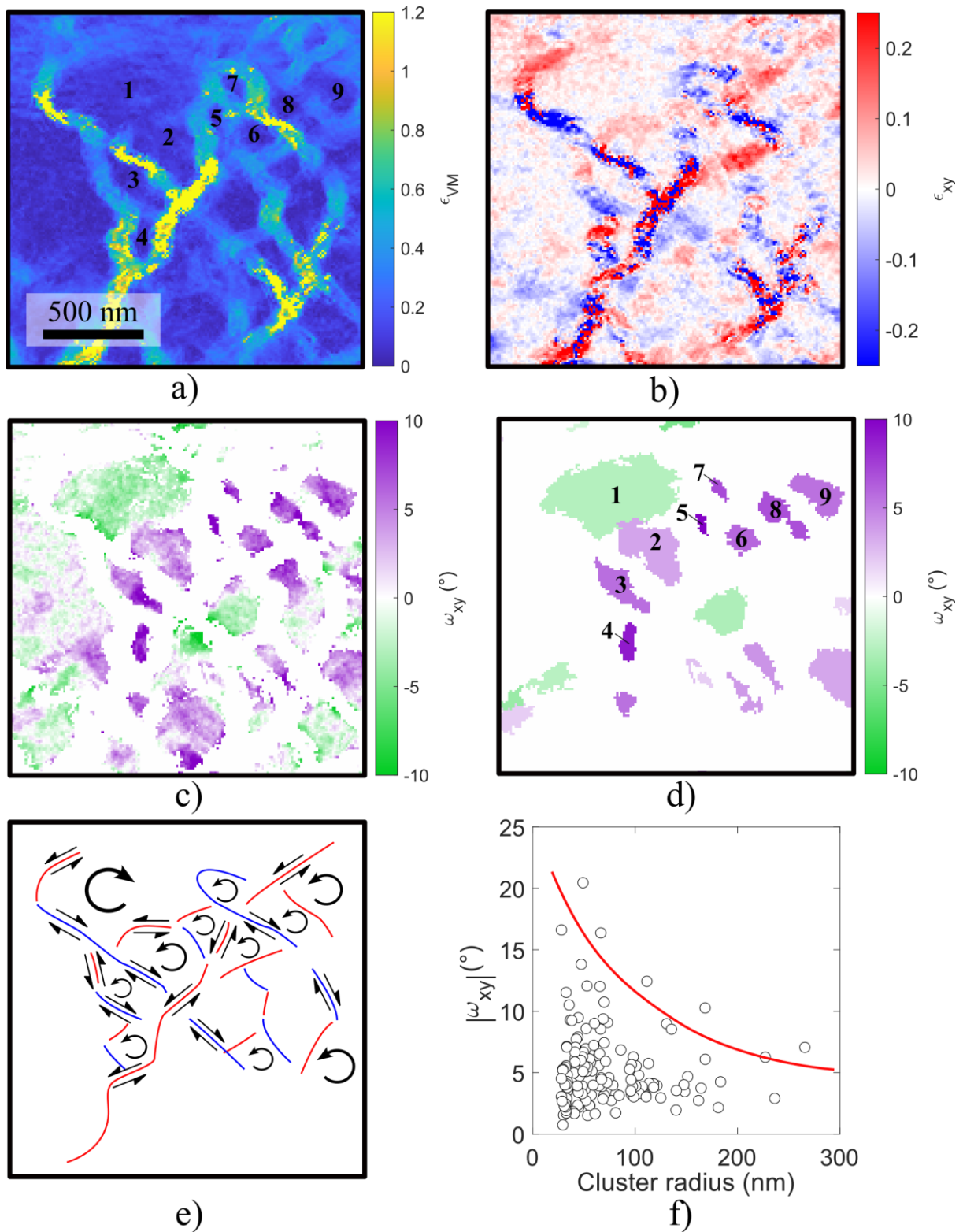


235

236 *Figure 3 von Mises strain maps inside the Al specimens deformed at a macro-strain equal to a) 0.023 (TOC 04), b) 0.038 (TOC*  
 237 *08), and c) 0.059 (TOC 14).*

238 In order to highlight the presence of rigid body rotation of some regions – e.g. grains or groups of  
 239 grains, named clusters –, we investigate the rotation field (Eq. 5) associated to low strain regions. Fig.  
 240 4.a represents the equivalent strain  $\epsilon_{VM}$  in a region of a specimen deformed at a macro-strain of 0.122  
 241 (TOC 32). In Fig. 4.b, the positive and negative values of  $\epsilon_{xy}$  inside the plastic localization bands tilted,  
 242 respectively, at + and  $-45^\circ$  relative to the tensile axis confirm that they contribute to the elongation  
 243 of the beam. The moderately deformed regions ( $\epsilon_{VM} < 0.18$ ) are individualized as clusters and the  
 244 rotation field  $\omega_{xy}$  in each of them is represented in Fig. 4.c. Clusters are assumed to undergo uniform  
 245 rotation if the average  $\omega_{xy}$  value is larger than 1.5 times its standard deviation. Fig. 4.d represents

246 clusters satisfying this condition. Fig. 4.e is a schematic of the rigid body rotations of the microstructure  
247 elements deduced from Fig. 4.b and 4.d. It indicates the shear lines (blue for negative and red for  
248 positive) and the corresponding rotation of clusters. Fig. 4.d and 4.e show both identical and opposite  
249 rotations of adjacent clusters – e.g. couples 2/3, 5/7, 6/8 and couple 1/2, respectively. Finally, Fig. 4.f  
250 represents the statistics stemming from the entire specimen surface (see Fig. S7 in supplementary  
251 material) of the clusters undergoing almost uniform rotation (see Fig. 4.d). The magnitude of the  
252 average rotation is plotted as a function of the cluster radius. The red line highlights the upper trend  
253 of the data. Smaller clusters are more prone to large rotation during plastic deformation.



254

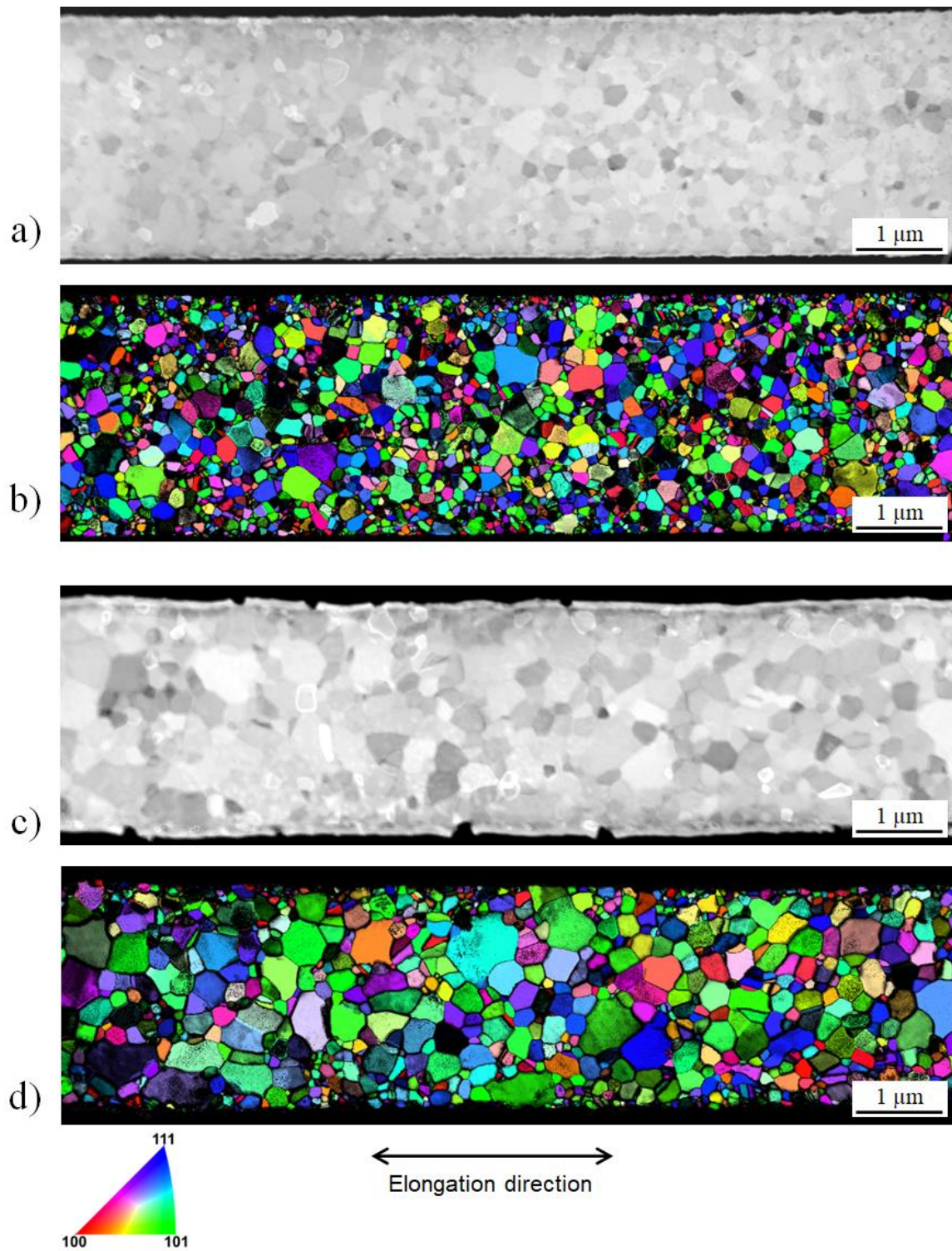
255 *Figure 4 Strain and rotation maps determined based on nano-DIC after a macro-elongation of 0.122: a) Equivalent von Mises*  
 256 *strain map exhibiting curly-shaped highly deformed region; b) shear strain  $\epsilon_{xy}$ ; c) rigid body rotation  $\omega_{xy}$  calculated from*  
 257 *nano-DIC, without taking into account the most highly deformed regions ( $\epsilon_{VM} < 0.18$ ); d) homogeneous rotation of clusters*  
 258 *for which the average rotation is significantly larger than its standard deviation; e) schematic of the clusters rigid body*  
 259 *rotation together with the shear components along the clusters boundaries; f) absolute rotation magnitude as a function of*  
 260 *the cluster equivalent radius calculated over the entire specimen (from a map larger than the one presented in this figure).*



## 261 3.2. Microstructure characterization

262 Fig. 5 shows the evolution of microstructure during the TOC experiment. Both the virtual BF-STEM  
263 image and the crystal orientation map are obtained from ACOM-TEM with a spatial resolution of 5 nm.  
264 The first specimen is in the undeformed state (Fig. 5(a-b)) whereas the elongation of the second  
265 specimen is equal to 0.165 (Fig. 5 (c-d)). Both the diffraction contrast and the orientation indexing  
266 indicate that the equiaxed grain morphology is preserved during the deformation. Moreover, for the  
267 deformed specimen, the through-thickness microstructure is characterized by computed the  
268 correlation coefficient map as well as by imaging the crystals orientations from the front and back of  
269 the specimen. This analysis is presented in supplementary material, Fig. S4. It highlights the fact that  
270 the grains are mainly columnar structures that run through the film thickness.

271 ACOM-TEM also provides the statistical distributions of grain sizes and GB misorientations. The GB  
272 characteristics, respectively, before and after deformation are compared by considering both the  
273 orientation of the GB plane relative to the tensile axis and the lattice misorientation across the GB. The  
274 curvilinear structure detector algorithm of Steger [66] is used to compute the tilt angle of the normal  
275 of every GB segment, relative to the tensile axis. The GB misorientation is determined from ACOM-  
276 TEM. The grain boundary orientation is discretized by steps of  $22.5^\circ$  from  $0$  to  $90^\circ$  and the same is done  
277 for misorientation with discretization steps of  $10^\circ$  from  $0$  to  $70^\circ$ . A matrix of 28 orientations and  
278 misorientations is created with  $4 \times 7$  couples. Fig. 6.a and 6.b show the probability distribution inside  
279 this matrix for, respectively, the undeformed specimen and the deformed one. Fig. 6.a indicates a high  
280 fraction of misorientation angles around  $45^\circ$ . Fig. 6.b shows that the proportion of such high-angle GBs  
281 significantly decreases after deformation. Fig. 6.c gathers complementary information about  
282 misorientation evolution after deformation. It represents the integral of the distribution for any given  
283 misorientation angle. Finally, Fig. 6.d shows the grain size distributions of the undeformed and  
284 deformed specimens. The mean grain sizes in the undeformed and deformed specimens are equal to  
285  $84$  nm and  $120$  nm, respectively. This suggests deformation-driven grain growth. The fact that the  
286 specimen edges are thinner, as a result of the deposition process (see Section 2.1), probably explains  
287 why the largest grains in Fig. 5.c and 5.d are mostly located away from the sample edges. A quantitative  
288 study of the grain size distribution along the width of the specimen is available in supplementary  
289 material (Fig. S8 and S9).



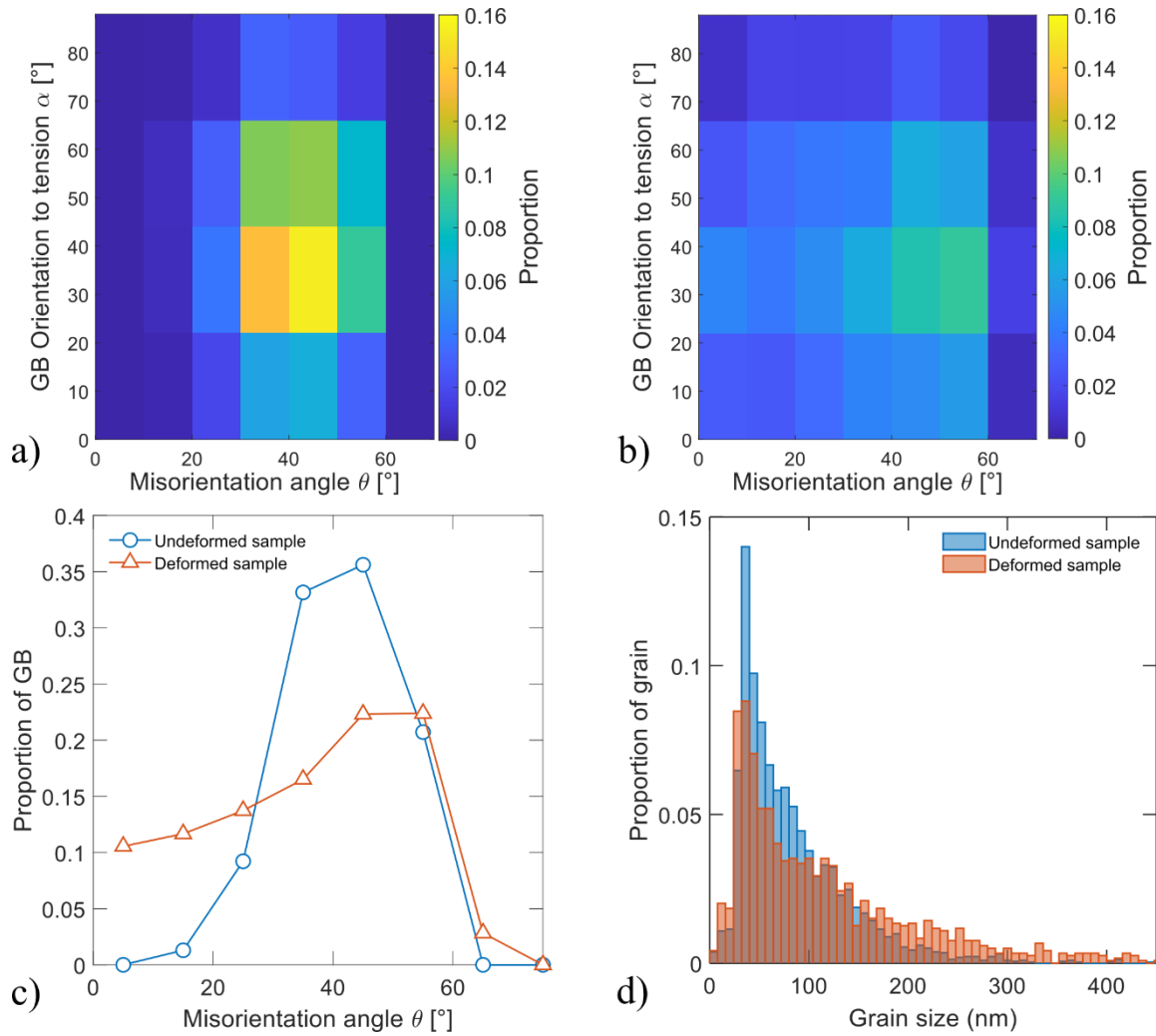
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*Figure 5 Microstructural characterization of an undeformed and a deformed specimen at 0.165: a) and c) show the virtual BF-STEM images of the undeformed and deformed specimen, respectively; b) and d) show the crystal orientation maps.*



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Figure 6 Proportion of GB as a function of misorientation angle and orientation to the tensile axis for a) the undeformed and b) the deformed specimen; c) distribution of misorientation angles for the undeformed and deformed specimen and d) grain size distribution for the undeformed and deformed specimen.

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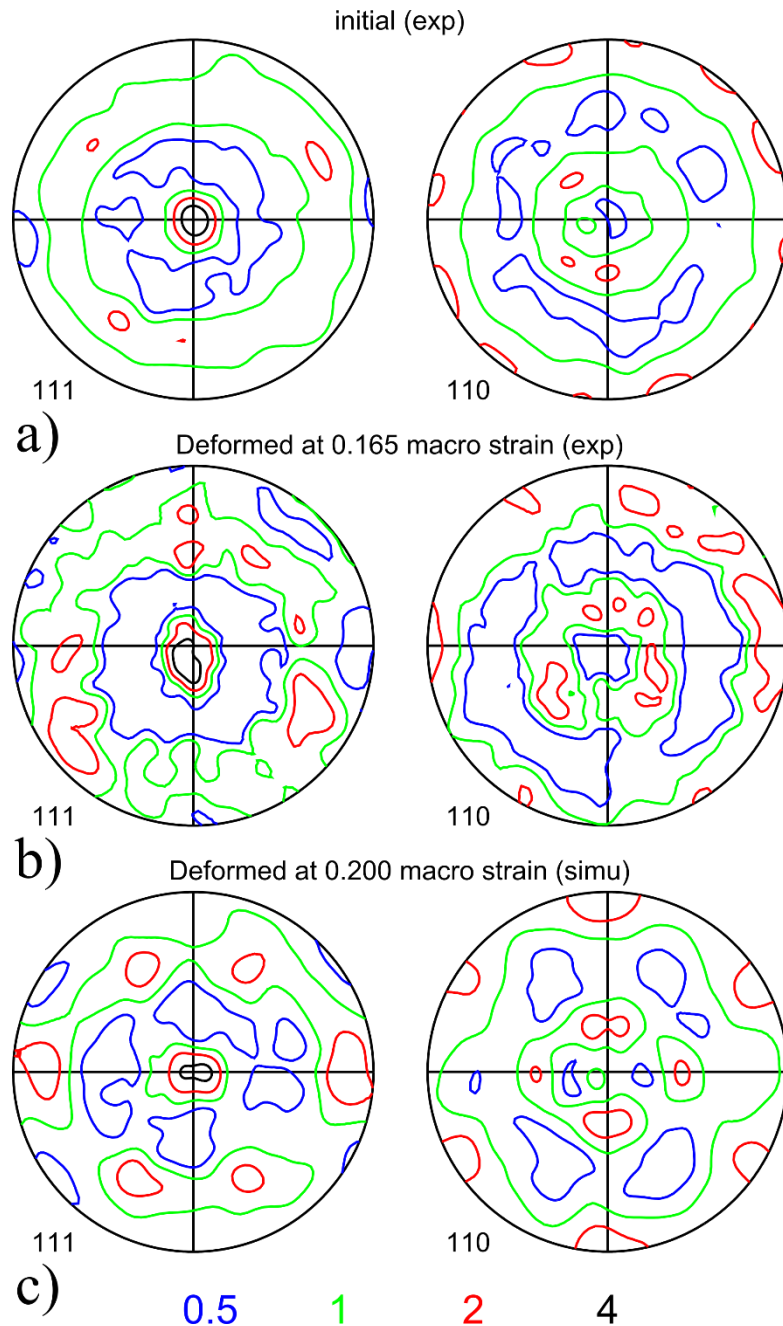
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Fig. 7 compares the (111) and (110) pole figures of the undeformed (a) and deformed (b) specimens. The center of the pole figures corresponds to the film's normal direction (ND) whereas the tensile direction is horizontal. Both specimens exhibit a (111) fiber texture along ND. This results from crystal growth during film deposition. The experimental measurement does not show any significant evolution of the crystallographic texture during plastic deformation as confirmed when comparing Fig. 7.b to Fig. 7.c. The latter corresponds to the texture prediction of a crystal plasticity model which assumes  $\{111\}\langle 110 \rangle$  dislocation slip (typical of coarse-grained Al) inside a uniformly deforming polycrystal (Taylor assumption). Dislocation-mediated plasticity would induce a progressive alignment of either a  $\langle 111 \rangle$  direction, or a  $\langle 100 \rangle$  direction, with the tensile axis. This does not occur in the TOC tensile tests. Instead, the random RBR of the pixel clusters (e.g. grains) determined by DIC (Fig. 4) are consistent with the resemblance of the two pole figures in Fig. 7.a-b. Indeed, according to DIC, grains tend to rotate around the film ND (e.g. around the center of the pole figure).





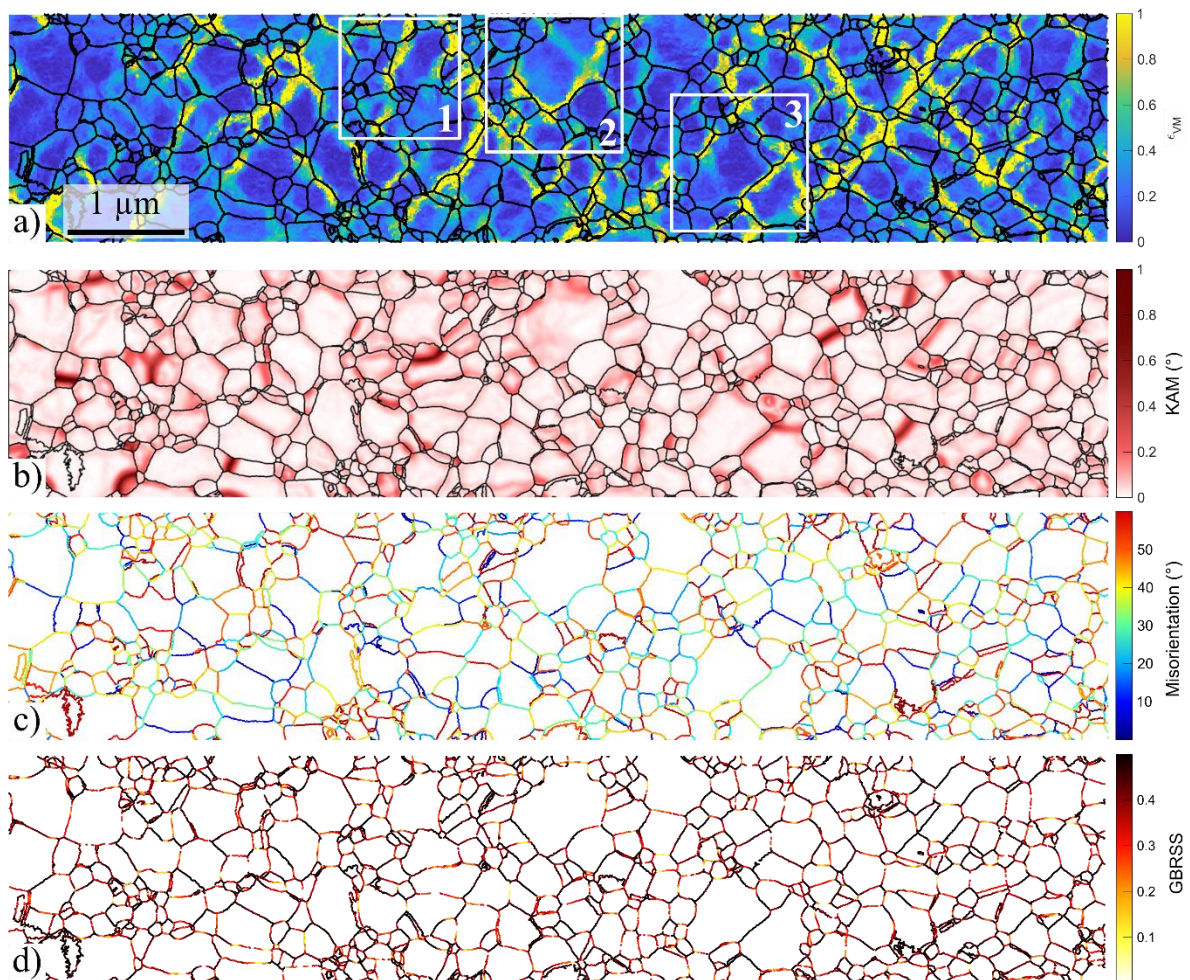
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311 *Figure 7 Pole figures obtained from: a) ACOM-TEM on the undeformed Al specimen; b) ACOM-TEM on the 0.165 deformed Al*  
 312 *specimen (TOC 46) and c) result of a crystal plasticity simulation using as input the experimental initial texture, and*  
 313 *assuming an elongation of 0.2 under uniaxial stress.*

### 314 3.3. Correlative analysis by ACOM-TEM and nano-DIC

315 A combined analysis, involving nano-DIC followed by ACOM-TEM, is performed on the deformed TOC  
 316 sample 46 (corresponding to an overall strain of 0.165). To allow the correlation of microstructure  
 317 features, the microscopic deformation map obtained by DIC in the SEM (Fig. 8.a) and the crystal  
 318 orientation map obtained by ACOM-TEM (Fig. 8.b-d) are resized and properly aligned, as detailed in  
 319 the supplementary material (Fig. S10). The black lines appearing in Fig. 8.a correspond to the grain

320 boundaries identified by ACOM-TEM, which demonstrates that plastic yielding mainly localizes around  
 321 the GB. Fig. 8.b-c-d show, respectively, the KAM map, the GB misorientation angles, and the GB  
 322 geometrical resolved shear stress (GBRSS). The GBRSS is calculated as equal to  $\cos(\alpha) \sin(\alpha)$ , with  $\alpha$   
 323 the angle between the GB plane normal and the tensile axis for a unitary stress amplitude (see Fig.  
 324 8.d). The latter is computed by accounting for the tilt angle of GB w.r.t. the tensile axis and by assuming  
 325 that the GB planes are aligned parallel with the ND. This factor ranges from 0 for GB either  
 326 perpendicular or parallel to the tensile axis to 0.5 for GB tilted at  $\pm 45^\circ$ . This geometrical estimate of  
 327 the local shear stress along the GB plane disregards the heterogeneity of the stress distribution across  
 328 a plastically deforming polycrystal [26]. The hypothesis of predominantly in-plane deformation and  
 329 rotation is supported by the sharp contrast of most GBs in the correlation coefficient map  
 330 (supplementary material: Fig. S4.c), indicating that GBs are almost parallel to the film growth direction  
 331 (maximum tilting of  $14^\circ$  to the ND). Such columnar grain shapes tend to impede out-of-plane rotation.  
 332 Additionally, the geometrical constraint – far from being equiaxed – in the plane parallel to the film  
 333 growth further limits the grains' out-of-plane sliding.



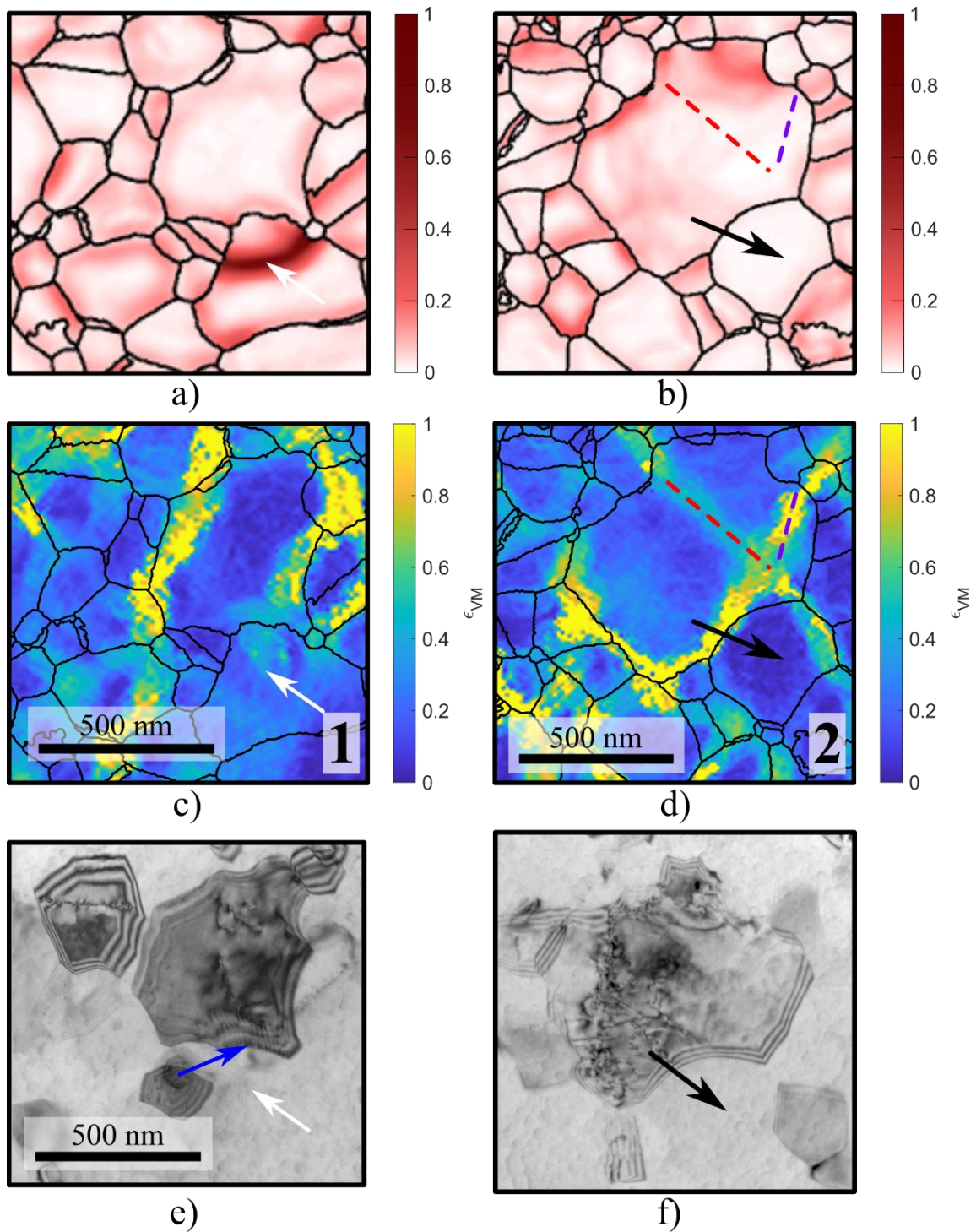
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335 *Figure 8 a) Comparison of nano-DIC equivalent Von Mises strain to TEM microstructure of the deformed specimen. Three*  
336 *zones are highlighted by white squares and detailed in Fig. 8; b) KAM map; c) GB misorientation and d) GB geometrical*  
337 *resolved shear stress.*

338 The local comparison of the nano-DIC measurement ( $\epsilon_{VM}$ ) to the ACOM-TEM measurement (KAM)  
339 follows different trends in certain locations. This is for instance the case for Regions 1 and 2 highlighted  
340 in Fig. 8.a, for which a close-up is presented in Fig. 9. Region 3 is presented in supplementary material,  
341 Fig. S13.

342 Fig. 9.a and b show the KAM map, Fig. 9.c and 9.d show the equivalent von Mises strain maps and  
343 Fig. 9.e and 9.f show the bright field TEM image of zones 1 and 2, respectively. In the DIC maps  
344 presented in Fig. 9.c and 9.d, plastic deformation localizes mostly along GB associated with low KAM  
345 value. However, the dotted lines in Fig. 9.d highlight two intragranular shear bands which are aligned  
346 with the traces of the most active dislocation slip planes according to crystal plasticity calculations  
347 (Taylor model). Such intragranular deformation is seen neither in the KAM map (Fig. 9.b) nor in the  
348 bright field TEM image (Fig. 9.f). The contrast of the bright field image is known to vary as a function  
349 of the tilting of the specimen relative to the electron beam. The black arrows in Fig. 9.b-d-f point to an  
350 undeformed grain (according to nano-DIC) which hosts low KAM values. This undeformed grain  
351 surrounded by highly deformed regions, at the grain boundaries, thus undergoes a rigid body motion.  
352 On the other hand, the white arrow in Fig. 9.a-c-e shows that the high local KAM value does not scale  
353 with the local equivalent strain nor with the contrast of the bright field image.



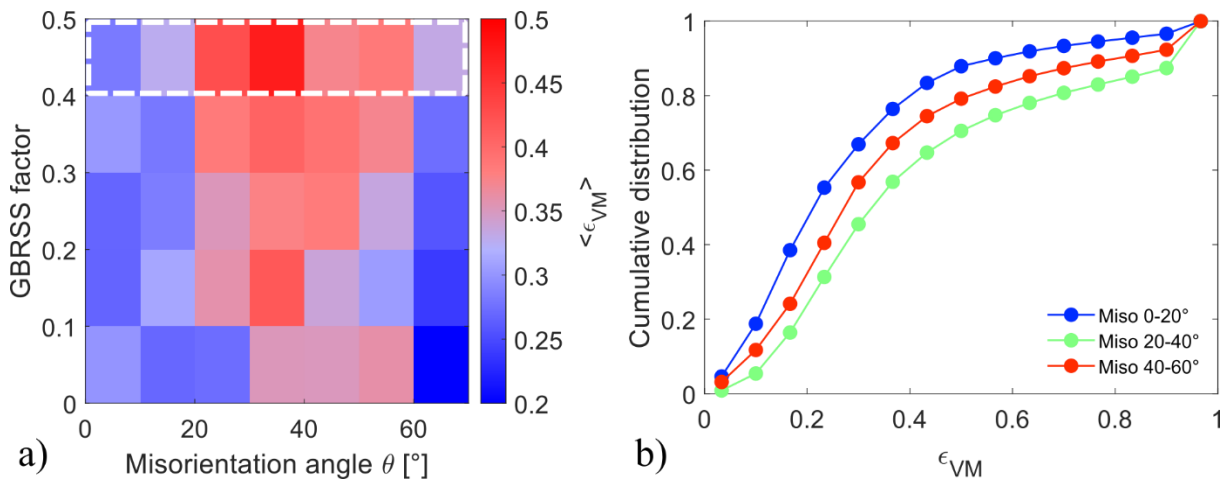


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355 *Figure 9 Characterization of plastic localization and lattice distortions based on the combined use of a-b) KAM map from*  
 356 *ACOM-TEM, c-d) equivalent Von Mises strain map from nano-DIC and e-f) BFTEM images. Dotted lines show intragranular*  
 357 *shear bands parallel to two dislocation slip planes. Black and white arrows show regions of the maps where the three*  
 358 *experimental methods tend to either agree or disagree. The blue arrow shows line defects (disconnections) at GB.*

359 By combining nano-DIC and ACOM-TEM, it is possible to check whether the local strain amplitude is  
 360 correlated with the characteristics of GB segments. For that purpose, the GBRSS is discretized by steps  
 361 of 0.1 from 0 to 0.5 and the same is done for misorientation (measured after deformation) with

362 discretization steps of  $10^\circ$  from 0 to  $70^\circ$ . A matrix of  $5 \times 7$  GBRSS and misorientation couples is created.  
 363 Fig. 10.a shows the average deformation calculated inside a 10 pixel-thick layer along the GBs for the  
 364 GBRSS and misorientation couples detailed above. As expected from the tilting of GB shear bands at +  
 365 and  $-45^\circ$ , the local value of the equivalent von Mises strain scales with the GBRSS. However, the  
 366 misorientation also seems to play a role: the local equivalent strain is low when the GB misorientation  
 367 is less than  $20^\circ$ , and it is the highest for GB misorientations between  $30^\circ$  and  $40^\circ$ . The average strain  
 368 associated with a type of GB is not fully representative of the local deformation since the strain  
 369 distribution within GBs is not uniform. Fig. 10.b presents the cumulative distributions of equivalent  
 370 strain in GBs with GBRSS between 0.4 and 0.5, as highlighted by the white dashed rectangle in Fig.  
 371 10.a. Three misorientation ranges are shown – i.e.  $(0-20^\circ)$ ,  $(20-40^\circ)$  and  $(40-60^\circ)$ . The GBs with 20-  
 372 40 misorientation range show the highest equivalent strain compared to  $0-20^\circ$  and  $40-60^\circ$ . Also, the  
 373 cumulative distribution of the GBs with  $20^\circ$  to  $40^\circ$  misorientation angles shows a sharp increase for  
 374 equivalent von Mises strain higher than 0.9, confirming the large proportion of highly deformed GBs  
 375 for this range of GB misorientations.



376 a)   
 377 *Figure 10 Local strain state associated with GB character characterized from ACOM-TEM: a) average equivalent von Mises*  
 378 *strain as a function of GBRSS and misorientation (measured after deformation) and b) cumulative distribution of local von*  
 379 *Mises strain for GBs with GBRSS between 0.4 and 0.5 and different GB misorientation ranges.*

## 380 4. Discussion

381 The unique experimental investigation performed in this research offers new quantitative insight into  
 382 the physical interplay between plastic deformation and the microstructure in nanocrystalline films.  
 383 The complementarity of nano-DIC and ACOM-TEM enables the extraction of data both from the GB  
 384 scale and from a more global statistical viewpoint. In the following, the macroscopic mechanical  
 385 behavior is related to the total strain field and microstructure in order to isolate the dominant physical

386 scenarios responsible for the high ductility of these aluminum freestanding films. These films are  
387 indeed representative of a wider class of FCC nanostructured systems.

388 The large ductility of the Al films with overall total elongation above 15 % appears connected to a  
389 strong strain delocalization phenomenon. Strain delocalization – i.e. absence of catastrophic shear  
390 band or narrow neck development after the onset of the first necks – has been evidenced for a number  
391 of equivalent micro-scale specimens in the literature [10,11]. The main evidence of strain  
392 delocalization is the presence of multiple or diffuse necking zones along the sample gauge. In this  
393 study, most moderately deformed structures (macroscopic strain larger than 0.025) show early  
394 development of multiple necks, as highlighted by arrows in Fig. 2.b. The average strain along the gauge  
395 length of different specimens deformed between 0.025 and 0.152 is not constant (see Fig. 2.c).  
396 Moreover, the large strain regions expand as the macroscopic strain increases (see specimens strained  
397 at 0.052 and 0.073 in Fig. 2.c). Among measurements performed before failure (Fig. 2.c), the highest  
398 value of the section-averaged longitudinal strain is 0.42. Early necking initiation is presumably due to  
399 a limited initial strain hardening capacity at small plastic strains combined with significant geometrical  
400 imperfections [7]. The fact that plasticity does not localize further and that the early necks get  
401 stabilized can be related to the moderately high strain rate sensitivity ( $m \approx 0.05$ ) and, maybe, to an  
402 increasing strain hardening capacity [7]. These findings will be further discussed in light of the strain  
403 field and microstructure evolution.

404 GB plastic activity is evidenced by complementary observations of the local strains measured by nano-  
405 DIC and the pole figures obtained by ACOM-TEM. Fig. 8.a demonstrates that most of the highly  
406 deformed regions coincide with GBs, suggesting that GB-driven plasticity mechanisms are dominant  
407 (see also Fig. S11 in supplementary material). Plastic localization bands are mostly tilted close to  $45^\circ$   
408 with respect to the tensile loading direction implying that they host intense shear deformation along  
409 the direction of maximum resolved shear stress (see also Fig. 9.d). This evidences that GBs undergo  
410 cooperative sliding processes accommodating the RBR of the grains (Fig. 4). The comparison of the  
411 pole figures obtained experimentally and numerically (Fig. 7.b-c) also highlights that classical  
412 dislocation mediated plasticity is not the mechanism at play. This was also reported by Yang *et al.* for  
413 UFG Pd [29]. Finally, the strain field measurements on several specimens deformed between 0.023  
414 and 0.059 (see Fig. 3) show localized curly structures, which look like grain boundaries. Even though  
415 the microstructure of the latter specimens was not characterized, it seems that GB plasticity is  
416 triggered at the early stage of the plastic deformation. Indeed, GB sliding has been shown to initiate  
417 under very low macro-strain to accommodate elastic anisotropy in millimeter-size samples [14,21,39].  
418 GB sliding is known to be thermally activated [7,21,24], which supports the strain delocalization  
419 capacity described in the former paragraph.

420

421 Grain rotation is observed in the specimen TOC 46 and further highlighted in TOC 32 (see Fig. 4). Grain  
422 rotation was previously quantified for Al-based thin films – i.e. between 2 and 4° – using ASTAR TEM  
423 measurements and confirmed by MD simulations [14,55,67]. The present study shows that small  
424 clusters tend to undergo larger rotations than large clusters (Fig. 4.f).

425

426 The distribution of GB misorientations evolves during plastic deformation (see section 3.2). The  
427 tendency to evolve towards a low GB misorientation angle during deformation (see Fig. 6.c) has never  
428 been highlighted for such a large number of GBs, at this scale, to the best knowledge of the authors.  
429 The strain along the GB location depends on the GBRSS, which was reported previously [41,68], but it  
430 depends also on the GB misorientation angle (see Fig. 10). The relationship between the GB  
431 misorientation and GB sliding has been discussed by several authors and is still an open subject in the  
432 literature. Molecular dynamics simulations were performed on an Al bi-crystal, oriented with a [111]  
433 normal, to characterize the GB energy as a function of the misorientation [69,70]. These studies also  
434 link the GB energy to the propensity to deform by shear under stress. Considering experimental results  
435 in the literature, no direct correlation between the GB energy and GB sliding was shown. GB sliding is  
436 influenced by a number of other factors, such as GBRSS, GB grooves or disconnections [14,21,41,68].  
437 Nevertheless, Linne *et al.* showed that even though the GB energy is not the main driving force for GB  
438 sliding in polycrystals, a synergy exists between the GB energy and increased GB sliding activity [41].  
439 The latter observation is in line with our statistical study for which the highest GB energy – i.e.  
440 misorientation between 20 and 40°, estimated by MD bicrystals simulations [69,70] – corresponds to  
441 regions undergoing the largest plastic strain, especially for the high GBRSS values. Therefore, the  
442 evolution of GB character toward lower misorientation during deformation might be partly driven by  
443 the fact that GB misorientations between 20 and 40° correspond to high-energy GBs. These high-  
444 energy GBs can slide more easily and promote grain rotation, which finally leads to a decrease in the  
445 overall GB misorientation (Fig. 6c).

446

447 The latter scenario does not explain the significant grain growth mechanism shown in Fig. 5 and  
448 Fig. 6.d. When comparing the undeformed and deformed microstructures (see Fig. 5), the average  
449 grain size is significantly larger for the sample deformed at 0.165 (see Fig. 6.d). This phenomenon was  
450 evidenced by many authors, especially for nanocrystalline aluminum [14,21,43,44,56]. Grain rotation  
451 may promote grain growth by aligning neighboring crystals. However, it is often associated with  
452 softening and strain localization, which is the opposite of what is observed here [44,71]. Guo *et al.*  
453 assessed that both atomic shuffling, disconnections and Frank-Bilby dislocation activities are at work  
454 and favor GB migration in the case of mixed GBs [72]. Disconnections are line defects that are present

455 at GBs with a partial dislocation (or Burgers vector) and a partial step character [73]. These are, thus,  
456 neither pure dislocations nor pure steps. The presence of disconnections at some GB observed by TEM  
457 in our sample (blue arrow in Fig. 9e) is coherent with a grain growth mechanism. Indeed disconnections  
458 induce shear-coupled GB migration and grain rotation by their cooperative motion [48,56]. This  
459 represents an alternative mechanism of plastic deformation [23,48]. In the present work, shear-  
460 coupled GB migration can also reduce the GB misorientation if the high-angle GBs (HAGBs) migrate  
461 and leave behind low-angle GBs (LAGBs). One fundamental question emerges at this stage: why is  
462 shear-coupled GB migration more effective for the 20°-40° GBs?

463

464 The presence of disconnections is confirmed using multiple micrographs under varying projections (see  
465 Fig. 9a and supplementary material Fig. S12 and S13). However, the full characterization of these  
466 defects in polycrystals is very challenging since it often requires very specific diffraction conditions that  
467 are not always met. The small Burgers vector of some disconnections makes it even more difficult. This  
468 explains why the study of these defects is often performed on bi-crystals or selected GBs in UFG thin  
469 films in the literature [74–76]. Note also that, our *post-mortem* observations are made in a fully relaxed  
470 film (after FIB cut). Thus, many disconnections could easily escape to the free surfaces of the thin film.  
471 These difficulties did not allow concluding on the link between active 20°-40° GBs and disconnections.  
472 Nevertheless, our results tend to indicate that GB sliding associated with both grain growth and grain  
473 rotation promotes the transition from HAGBs to LAGBs, which should contribute to a decrease in the  
474 energy of GBs and propensity to shear. This, finally, acts as a hardening mechanism by inhibiting GB  
475 sliding processes. Moreover, by increasing the grain size distribution, grain rotation is further reduced  
476 and intra-granular dislocation-based plasticity is triggered, which necessitates a larger critical stress  
477 [21]. Intra-granular plasticity is observed in the nano-DIC strain map, in large grains (see Fig. 9.d). The  
478 highlighted shear bands are perfectly correlated with crystal plasticity simulations, from which one can  
479 obtain the most favorable slip system in the considered crystals, subjected to uniaxial tensile loading.  
480 No correspondence of these lines was found in the KAM map (Fig. 9.b) and BFTEM micrographs  
481 (Fig. 9.f), suggesting that a large number of glissile dislocations slipped along those lines and most of  
482 them presumably disappeared by starvation or by some reverse motion due to back stress during  
483 unloading [77]. Very few occurrences of shear bands were found in the specimen so it is not expected  
484 that intra-granular plasticity triggers GB sliding mechanisms. Instead, intra-granular deformations  
485 might develop in larger grains, when GBs cannot accommodate the strain [21].



## 486 5. Conclusion

487 High-resolution nano-DIC, on-chip testing and ACOM-TEM techniques were combined to unravel the  
488 plasticity mechanisms underlying the remarkable strain delocalization propensity of nanocrystalline Al  
489 films, at a scale never resolved before. The main findings of this research are:

- 490 • Multiple necks develop along the tensile specimens already after 0.025 macro-strain, but  
491 remaining essentially stable. The local strains within the final necking zone can reach values  
492 up to 0.45 before failure.
- 493 • Strong plastic delocalization is shown to be promoted by GB plasticity, including GB migration  
494 – i.e. grain growth – and grain rotation. These mechanisms are thermally activated, explaining  
495 the large strain rate sensitivity of the material [7,11,14].
- 496 • The distribution of misorientation angles between grains significantly changes during  
497 deformation, which is evidenced by an overall GB misorientation reduction. Also, maximum  
498 strain within GBs occurs for misorientation between 20° and 40° which are the GBs involving  
499 the highest energy, according to bicrystal MD simulations [69,70]. Even though it is not  
500 claimed that GB energy is the only significant parameter to trigger GBS, a strong correlation is  
501 found between the GB energy as studied in the literature and its propensity to slide [41].  
502 Therefore, reducing GB misorientation during deformation might procure some slight strain  
503 hardening and contribute to mitigating catastrophic necking.
- 504 • Disconnections are observed at some GB and could explain the significant grain growth  
505 related to GB migration during deformation. In-situ TEM experiments are needed in order to  
506 further elucidate the possible link between disconnections and the more active GBs.

507 GB sliding, migration and grain rotation thus cooperate and compete, leading to a high ductility. The  
508 multiscale experiment approach adopted in the present work sheds new light on the role of general  
509 GBs in the mechanical response of UFG films dominated by GB-mediated plasticity.

510

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