

1 Mechanical properties of carbon foams under quasi- 2 static and dynamic loading

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7 **Abstract**

8 In this study, compressive behaviours of carbon foam are investigated experimentally under
9 quasi-static and dynamic loading. Carbon foams with two densities of 320 and 480 kg/m³ are
10 considered and their microstructures are compared. Two testing machines are employed to
11 apply quasi-static and dynamic compressive load respectively with the strain rate varying
12 between $6.67 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and 178 s^{-1} . The mechanical properties of carbon foams including
13 compressive strength and modulus are measured under various strain rates and their dynamic
14 increase factors (DIF) are compared. Based on the testing data, empirical formulae are
15 proposed for both types of carbon foams to predict their dynamic mechanical properties, i.e.,
16 compressive strength and modulus.

17 **Keywords:** Carbon foam; dynamic crushing; compressive strength

18 **1 Introduction**

19 Cellular materials are widely used in many applications due to their lightweight and high
20 strength characteristics. Different topologies of the cellular material including lattices [1-3],
21 honeycomb [4-6] and corrugated structures [7, 8] have been extensively investigated. Despite
22 high strength to weight ratio, some of these common cellular structures [5, 8] have inconsistent
23 crushing resistance under large deformation, making them non-ideal for the applications as
24 energy absorbers. Foam materials on the other hand, often have low initial crushing resistance
25 and are capable of undergoing large deformation [9]. Mechanical properties of these foam
26 materials including polymer foams [10, 11], syntactic foams [12-15] and metallic foams [16-
27 18] were studied under various loading conditions. Foam materials were also used as filler
28 inside the structures such as tubes and panels to significantly enhance their structural
29 mechanical properties owing to the foam-wall interaction effect [19]. Strain rate effect on

30 mechanical properties of foam materials was extensively studied under quasi-static and
31 dynamic loading. Many foam materials including EPS foam [10, 11], and closed-cell
32 aluminium foams [20] show different levels of strain rate sensitivity. Very low strain rate
33 sensitivity has been observed on PU foams [11] and some aluminium foams up to strain rate
34 nearly 3000 s^{-1} [9].

35 Carbon foams have drawn attention in recent years due to their thermal, mechanical and
36 electromagnetic characteristics [21]. Different applications of carbon foam were studied. The
37 electromagnetic shielding performance of carbon foams was investigated as well [21]. Due to
38 their low thermal conductivity and lightweight, carbon foams can be used as thermal protection
39 on spacecraft for its re-entry to the earth's atmosphere [22]. Hypervelocity impact resistance
40 of reinforced carbon-carbon composite with carbon foam backing at high temperature was
41 investigated [22]. Quasi-static compressive stress-strain response of cellular vitreous carbon
42 foam (CVC) and reticulated vitreous carbon foam (RVC) was studied as well recently [23].
43 The carbon foam with a plate glued on both ends of specimens has the modulus almost 10 times
44 than the specimen without a plate. Effects of cell size and material density on mechanical
45 behaviours of the carbon foams were also studied. However, only quasi-static tests on carbon
46 foams were carried out.

47 As a new form of cellular foam with low density, high operational temperature, and high
48 corrosive resistance [24], carbon foam has potential to be used as composite structure for
49 impact mitigation or energy absorption under some harsh conditions such as high temperature
50 or high corrosive environment where conventional metal or polymeric composite structures
51 might deteriorate quickly. However, there is no research on the dynamic behaviour of carbon
52 foams in open literature yet. Therefore, to better design carbon foam composite structures to
53 resist dynamic loads, it is necessary to understand the mechanical properties of carbon foams
54 under dynamic loading conditions.

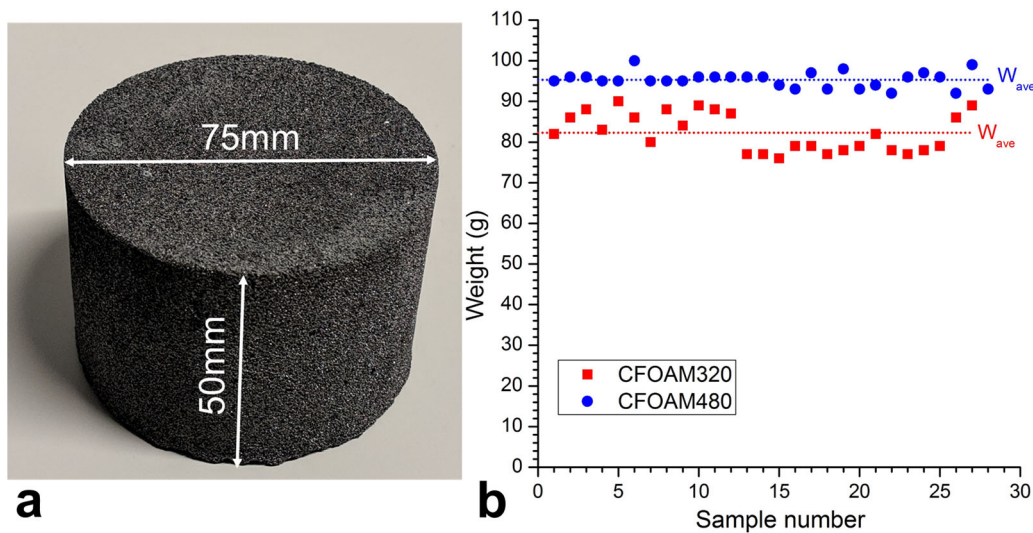
55 In this study, the mechanical properties of carbon foams with two densities are investigated
56 under various strain rates (from 6.67×10^{-4} to 178 s^{-1}). Shimadzu uniaxial testing machine is
57 used for quasi-static and low speed crushing test for up to 5 mm/s. Instron testing machine is
58 used for intermediate crushing speeds from 0.2 m/s to 10 m/s. Compressive strength and secant
59 modulus of two carbon foams are recorded and analyzed under these strain rates. The dynamic
60 increase factors (DIF) of the carbon foams with two densities are calculated and empirical

61 formulae of the mechanical properties such as compressive strength and modulus are derived
62 with respect to strain rate as well.

63 2 Carbon foam specimens

64 2.1 Specimen preparation

65 Two types of coal-based carbon foams CFOAM320 and CFOAM480 used in this study have
66 the marked densities of 320 and 480 kg/m³ respectively. CFOAM[®] is a trademark owned by
67 CFOAM LLC and the foam panels were procured from CFOAM LLC. The carbon foam panels
68 with a thickness of 50 mm were cut into cylindrical specimens for material testing. Each has a
69 diameter of 75 mm and a height of 50 mm as shown in Figure 1 (a).



70

71 Figure 1. (a) Specimen of carbon foam; (b) scatter chart of weight for two types of carbon
72 foams with an average weight marked out

73 A total of 55 specimens of two densities were prepared. The weight of each specimen is
74 measured. The weight distributions of the two carbon foam specimens are shown in Figure 1
75 (b). The weights of carbon foam specimens are listed in Table 1. CFOAM320 has a larger
76 variation in terms of the mass of specimens, where a standard deviation of 4.681 g is calculated
77 as compared to 1.926 g for CFOAM480. The average densities of these two carbon foams are
78 calculated using average specimen mass divided by volume. As listed in Table 1, the average
79 bulk density of CFOAM320 specimens is 371 kg/m³, larger than the given density of 320 kg/m³
80 by the supplier. The average bulk density of CFOAM480 specimens is 432 kg/m³, slightly
81 smaller than the designated density of 480 kg/m³. It should be noted that similar variation in
82 densities can be observed for closed-cell aluminium foam [25].

Foam type	Average specimen weight (g)	Median specimen weight (g)	Standard deviation (g)	Calculated density (g/cm ³)
CFOAM320	82.30	82.0	4.681	0.371
CFOAM480	95.32	95.5	1.926	0.432

83 Table 1. Weight and density of two carbon foam specimens

84 A classic micromechanical model of open-cell aluminium foam material has been developed
85 by Gibson and Ashby [26], which predicts the fracture of foams by the successive failure of
86 bending in the struts. The plastic yield stress, σ_{pl} is a function of the relative density of the
87 open-cell foam material as follows,

$$\frac{\sigma_{pl}}{\sigma_{ys}} \approx 0.3 \left(\frac{\rho}{\rho_0} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \quad (1)$$

88 where σ_{ys} is the static yield strength of base material of the foam, ρ is the density of the
89 foam, and ρ_0 is the density of the solid from which the foam is made.

90 Based on the model of closed cell aluminium foam [27], $\frac{\sigma_{pl}}{\sigma_{ys}}$ of the foam material
91 incorporating strain rate effect can be expressed as follows:

$$\frac{\sigma_{pl}}{\sigma_{ys}} = x \left(1 + y \left(\frac{\dot{\varepsilon}}{\dot{\varepsilon}_0} \right)^z \right) \left(\frac{\rho}{\rho_0} \right)^w \quad (2)$$

92 where x , y , z , and w are coefficients and dimensionless, $\dot{\varepsilon}$, $\dot{\varepsilon}_0$ is dynamic and quasi-static strain
93 rate with the unit of s^{-1} , respectively.

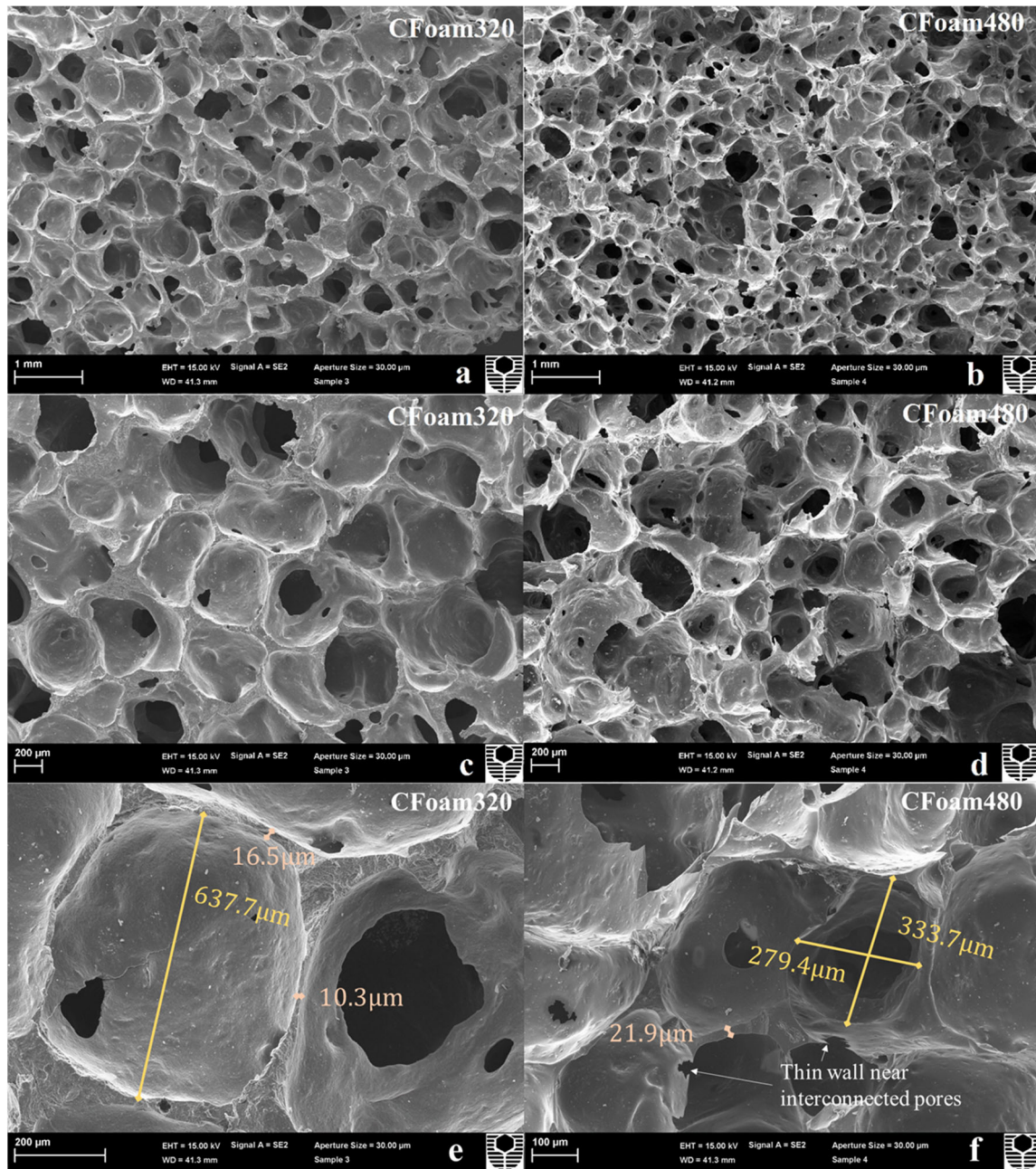
94 2.2 Microstructure comparison

95 Figure 2 shows the Scanning Electron Microscopic (SEM) images of CFOAM320 and
96 CFOAM480 under the magnifications of 15 times, 30 times and 100 times, captured by Zeiss
97 NEON 40 EsB high resolution dual beam scanning electron microscope. Both carbon foams
98 are closed-cell structure with some of the pores interconnected with adjacent pores. The
99 difference in pore size, connectivity and regularity of the pores can be observed between two
100 carbon foams. As compared to CFOAM480, CFOAM320 has a larger average pore size with
101 slightly more regular sizes and shapes of the pores. It has slightly lower connectivity of the
102 pores, as less interconnected pores are observed for CFOAM320. It is worth noting that the

103 microstructures of both carbon foams are different from vitreous carbon foams investigated in
104 the previous studies [21, 23, 28]. Regular 3D arrangement of tetrahedral open-cell
105 microstructures is observed for reticulated vitreous carbon foams [21, 23, 28]. The heat-treated
106 mesophase-pitch-derived carbon foams have similar microstructures to the carbon foams used
107 in this study, where spherical microstructures with interconnected pores are shown between
108 most of the cells [28]. However, less layering of the cells is shown in this study, which results
109 in smoother cell walls comparing to mesophase-pitch-derived carbon foams [28].

110 Comparisons of the pore of CFOAM320 and CFOAM480 are shown in Figure 2 (e, f). The
111 pore size and cell thickness are measured for both carbon foams. A typical pore length of
112 CFOAM320 is about 640 μm as shown in Figure 2 (e), almost twice than that of CFOAM480
113 with a typical pore size around 280 to 334 μm . The cell wall thickness is slightly different as
114 well for these two carbon foams. CFOAM480 has a slightly larger cell wall thickness at the
115 middle of the pore than CFOAM320. However, it should be noted that the cell walls for both
116 foams are not uniform, and the thickness varies along the cell wall. The portion of the cell wall
117 near the interconnected pores is much thinner as marked out in Figure 2 (f).

118 Some research suggested that the cell size had an insignificant influence on the mechanical
119 properties of foam materials such as plastic collapse strength and Young's modulus, providing
120 the densities of the foams are the same [29]. However, the aspect ratio between specimen size
121 and pore size affects the crushing resistance for both open and closed-cell aluminium foams.
122 When the specimen size is relatively small as compared to the pore size (i.e. < 10 times), the
123 compressive strength and Young's modulus measured could be very different from the
124 properties measured with larger size specimens [25, 30]. For small specimens (specimen size
125 less than 10 times of pore size), larger pore size reduces the compressive strength of foam
126 materials even the densities are the same. This is due to the decreased constraint at the free
127 surface of the foam providing a less stiff boundary layer and the area fraction of cut cell wall
128 at specimen boundary is higher for small specimens [25]. Other research suggested that larger
129 cell size leads to higher compressive strength for open-cell aluminium foam which could be
130 related to a change in the aspect ratio of wall thickness against edge length [31]. Similar edge
131 effect was shown for carbon foams, therefore, some researchers suggest that a minimum of 20
132 cells are required in all directions of specimen dimension to eliminate the corresponding test
133 errors [23].



134

135 Figure 2. SEM images of carbon foam surface for (a) carbon foam 320 with 15 times
 136 magnification; (b) carbon foam 480 with 15 times magnification; (c) carbon foam 320 with
 137 30 times magnification; (d) carbon foam 480 with 30 times magnification; (e) carbon foam
 138 320 with 100 times magnification; (f) carbon foam 480 with 100 times magnification

139 Since the specimen dimensions used in this study (DIA75×50 mm) are much greater than pore
 140 size (around 0.3-0.6 mm), the edge effect may be neglected, which is similar to closed-cell
 141 aluminium foams. The difference in density may be the main factor influencing the variations
 142 of the mechanical properties of these two foams, similar to other foam materials [26]. Pore size
 143 could be another factor as the increase of average cell size broadens the distribution of flaw

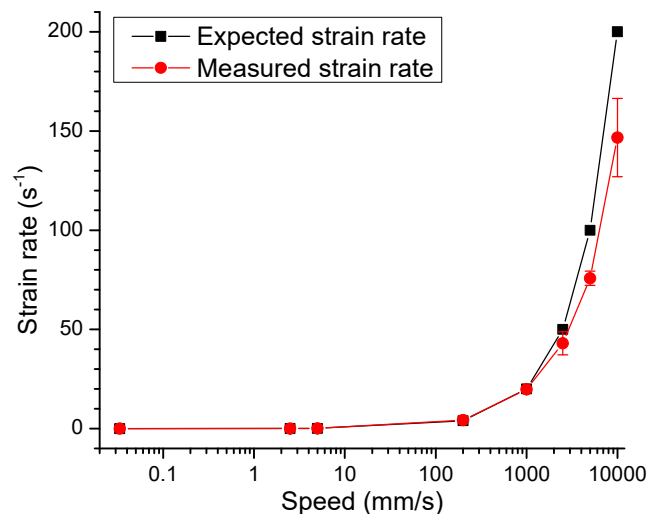
144 size within the structure, which controls the fracture of brittle material, and leads to the growth
145 of larger cracks and lower the collapsing stress [23].

146 3 Crushing test set-up

147 3.1 Quasi-static and low speed crushing

148 Shimadzu uniaxial testing machine was used for quasi-static and low speed crushing tests of
149 carbon foams. The testing machine has a speed ranging from 0.001 to 500 mm/min. Three
150 speeds, 2 mm/min, 2.5 mm/s, and 5 mm/s were tested, which corresponds to the expected strain
151 rates of 6.67×10^{-4} , 0.05, and 0.1 s^{-1} , respectively. The carbon foam specimens are placed between
152 cylindrical cross-head and base support.

153 3.2 Intermediate loading rate



154

155 Figure 3. Expected strain rate and measured strain rate at different crushing speeds

156 High speed testing machine was used for compressive tests of the carbon foams under
157 intermediate loading rates. The carbon foams were crushed under four speeds, 0.2, 1, 5, and 10
158 m/s, which correspond to the expected strain rate of 4, 20, 100 and 200 s^{-1} . The Instron testing
159 machine is designed to provide a constant moving speed of the crush head throughout the
160 crushing process. However, the speed of cross-head must decelerate to zero before reaching
161 the base support. Therefore, the crushing process throughout each test is not necessarily
162 constant, especially under the higher crushing speed, as a longer distance is required for
163 crushing head to decelerate. Furthermore, as the specimens tested in this study are only 50 mm
164 high, the cross-head has fallen into the decelerating stage for higher crushing rate. Thus, the
165 desired crushing speed and strain rate may not be achieved in the tests at high crushing speeds.

166 The actual strain rates are measured at the moment of specimens reaching their peak
167 compressive stresses and are shown in Figure 3.

168 3.3 Stress equilibrium for dynamic testing

169 It is essential to check the stress equilibrium of the specimen for material testing, which ensures
170 the stress transmitting inside the specimen is uniform [32]. For quasi-static and low speed
171 impact, the stress state equilibrium can be achieved easily, as the stress wave travelling speed
172 is much faster as compared to loading speed. For high speed dynamic material testing, the stress
173 equilibrium should be checked carefully, especially for brittle materials, which may fail at
174 small strains. In general, to achieve this equilibrium state, the elastic stress wave shall be
175 reflected back and forth a few times along the length of the specimen before the failure takes
176 place [32, 33]. The elastic stress wave speed, c , can be determined as follows:

$$c = \sqrt{\frac{E}{\rho}} \quad (3)$$

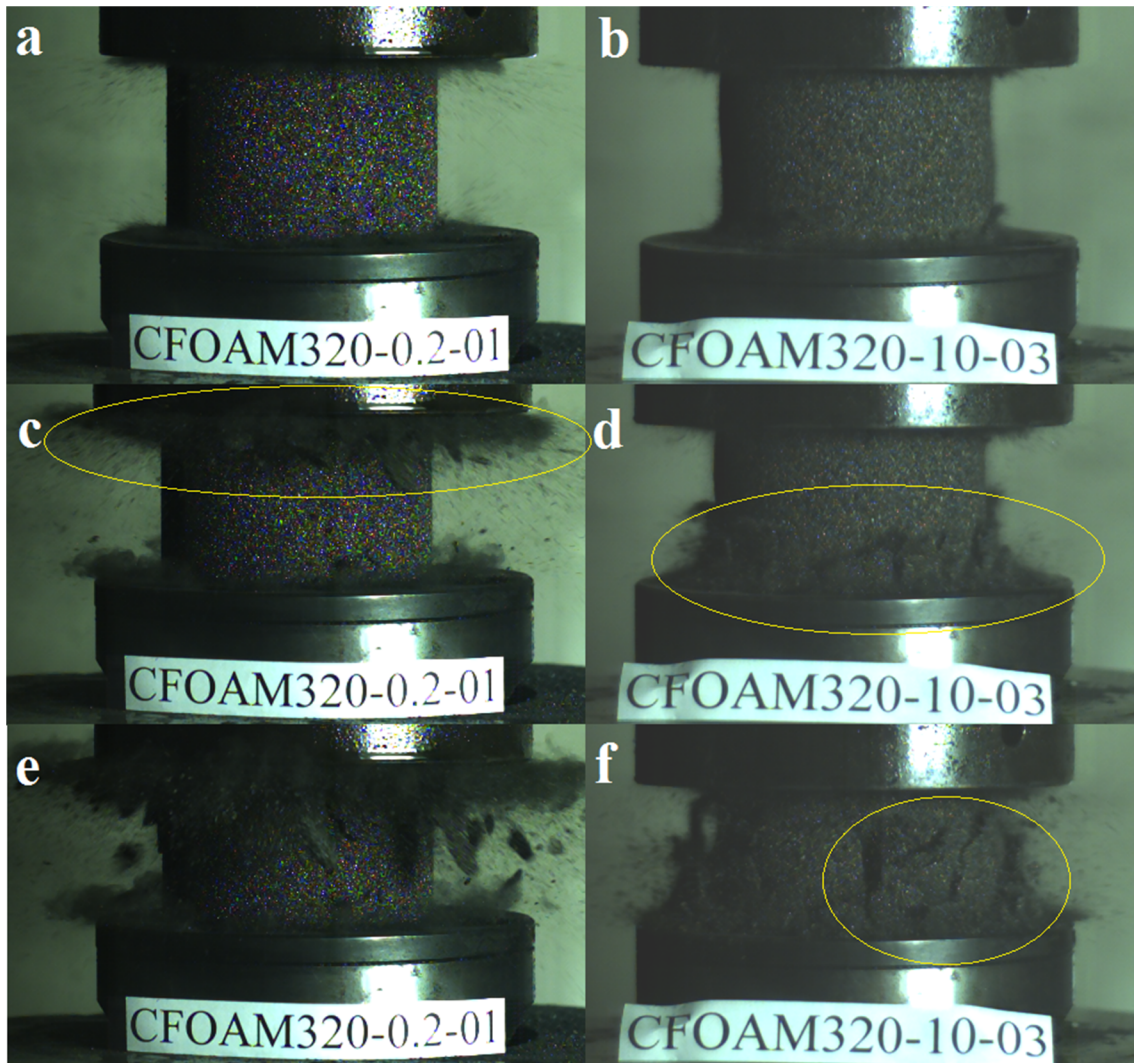
177 where E is the initial elastic modulus of the material and ρ is its density.

178 4 Results and discussions

179 4.1 Damage modes

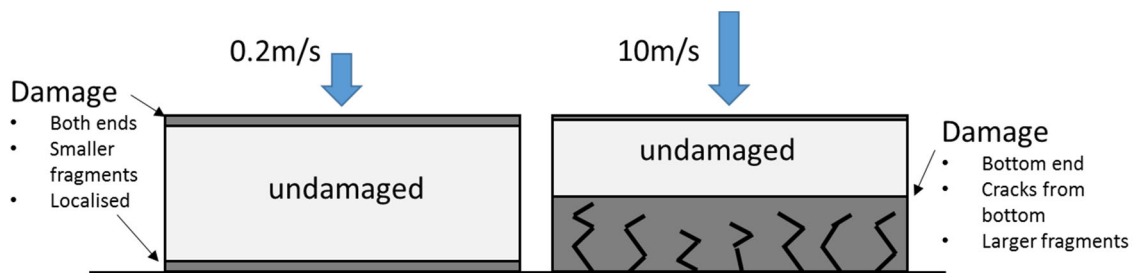
180 Damage modes of two carbon foams under dynamic crushing are compared. Two different
181 damage modes are observed under 0.2 and 10 m/s crushing. Under 0.2 m/s crushing, damage
182 initiates from both the impacting end and base support at the moment of impact as shown in
183 Figure 4 (a, c). The specimen shatters and splashes near both ends, where the middle portion
184 remains undamaged. The fragments are small and dust-like under 0.2 m/s impact. At the later
185 stage of the crushing, after the peak stress is reached, the damage propagates towards the centre
186 from both ends. Cracks and flying-off of the fragments result in the loss of crushing resistance
187 of the specimen. Under 10 m/s impact, the damage mode is different from that under 0.2 m/s
188 crushing. At the moment of impact, minor damage occurs at both the impacting end and base
189 support, and the small-sized fragments, less than those under 0.2 m/s impact, are generated.
190 This is followed by damage at the base end as shown in Figure 4 (d), while almost no damage
191 is observed at the top impacting end, different from the case under 0.2 m/s impacting as shown
192 in Figure 4 (c). These cracks keep propagating upwards from the lower base end and result in
193 larger fragments flying out from specimen as shown in Figure 4 (f). To more clearly illustrate
194 the above damage modes, a schematic diagram is shown in Figure 5, comparing two damage

195 modes under 0.2 m/s and 10 m/s impact speeds. With the development of these larger cracks
 196 under 10 m/s impact, after reaching the peak stress, the crushing resistance of carbon foam
 197 reduces quicker than that impacted under lower speeds, as shown in stress-strain curves of
 198 section 4.2.



199

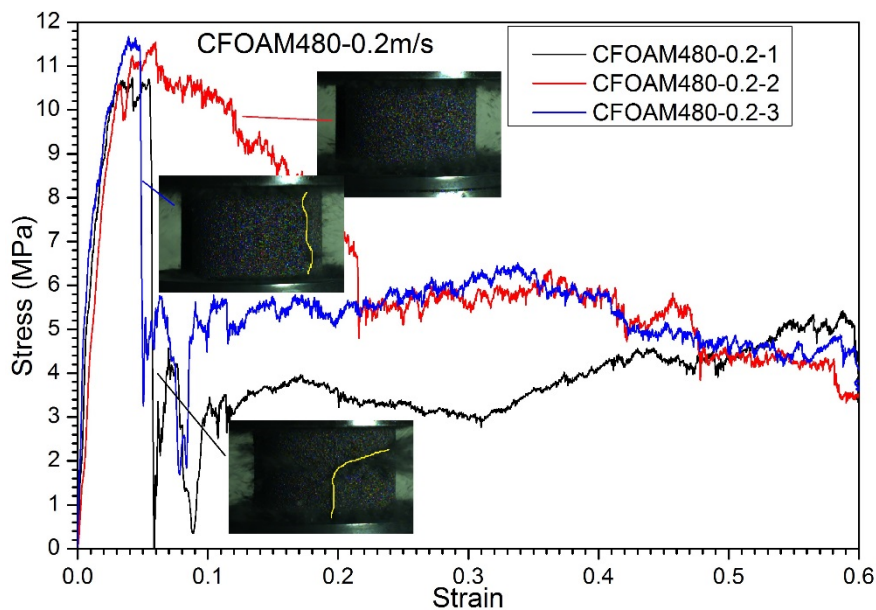
200 Figure 4. Damage process of carbon foam 320 at different stages under (a, c, e) 0.2 m/s; and
 201 (b, d, f) 10 m/s impacting



202

203 Figure 5. Schematic diagram of two damage modes of carbon foams under 0.2 and 10 m/s
 204 impacting

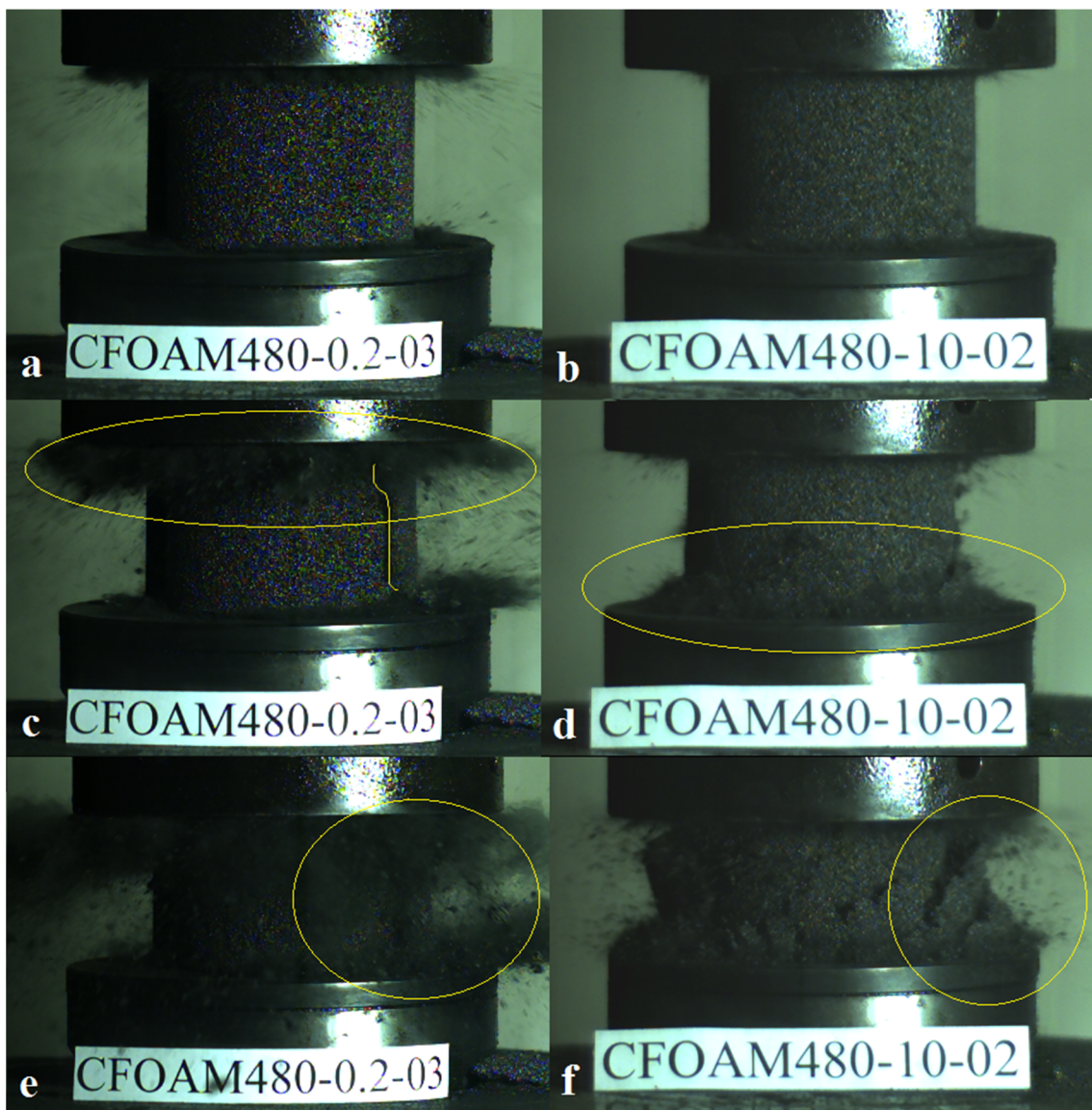
205 In some cases, large longitudinal cracks occur as marked out in Figure 6 after reaching the peak
 206 stress, which results in large pieces flying off the specimen. This sudden loss of large chunks
 207 of material from the specimen induces the sudden and significant reduction of crushing
 208 resistance. Otherwise, a slower reduction in crushing resistance is expected. For instance, as
 209 shown in Figure 6, out of three crushing tests for CFOAM480 under 0.2 m/s, two of which
 210 have long cracks along the longitudinal direction of the specimen after reaching the peak stress,
 211 and significant stress reductions can be observed at around 0.05 strain. These two types of
 212 damage modes occur randomly during the tests for all crushing speeds. As can be observed in
 213 Figure 9 and Figure 10, overall, the occurrence of sudden and substantial reductions of crushing
 214 stress is observed in less number of tested specimens than the gradual reduction of stress after
 215 reaching the maximum in the stress-strain curves. These cracks may be caused by pre-existing
 216 defects throughout the height of the specimen. It is worth noting that these long longitudinal
 217 cracks only reduces the crushing resistance for a short period of time, with further crushing,
 218 the cracked parts provide some resistance once it is again in contact with the rest of the
 219 specimen or with the crosshead.



220

221 Figure 6. Long cracks lead to significant strength loss after reaching its compressive strength
 222 The damage modes under 0.2 and 10 m/s crushing are compared for CFOAM480 as shown in
 223 Figure 7. Similar to CFOAM320, the damage modes of CFOAM480 are different under two
 224 crushing speeds. Under 0.2 m/s crushing, the damage occurs from both ends of the specimen,
 225 with a large crack observed in the longitudinal direction throughout the specimen. The middle
 226 portion of the specimen is not fragmented except the long crack appeared. CFOAM480 under

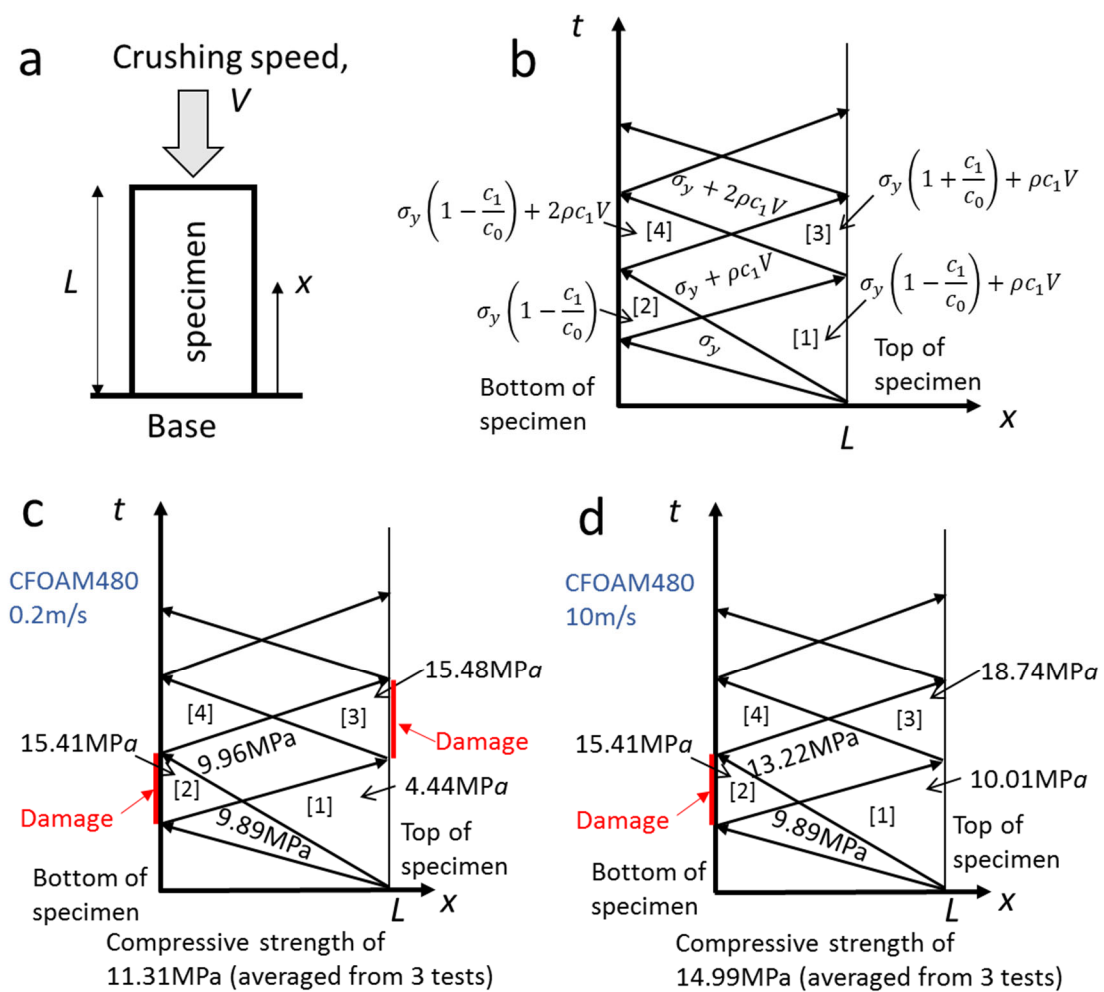
227 0.2 m/s crushing generates smaller fragments as compared to CFOAM320. As shown in Figure
228 7 (e), a large number of small particles and dust from the specimen splash away, whereas some
229 larger pieces of CFOAM320 are shown in Figure 4 (e). The damage mode of CFOAM480 is
230 similar to CFOAM320 under 10 m/s crushing, with the cracks initiated at the base end and
231 propagating upwards, resulting in larger pieces of fragments from the specimen. Furthermore,
232 more damages are located near the bottom base end instead of the top impacting end as
233 compared to the case under 0.2 m/s crushing. The generated larger pieces of fragments under
234 10 m/s result in a quicker reduction of stress as compared to the lower crushing speed as shown
235 in Figure 10.



236

237 Figure 7. Damage process of carbon foam 480 at different stages under (a, c, e) 0.2 m/s and
238 (b, d, f) 10 m/s crushing

239 The change of damage location for the specimens crushed under 0.2 and 10 m/s can be
 240 explained by the stress evolution theory [34, 35] as shown in Figure 8. The stress evolution in
 241 the cylinder specimen is based on the difference of the speeds of elastic and plastic stress wave,
 242 c_0 and c_1 [36]. Both speeds are calculated using equation (3), the speed of elastic wave c_0 is
 243 calculated using the elastic modulus E and the speed of plastic wave c_1 is calculated using the
 244 plastic modulus E_p . σ_y is the yield stress and it is estimated as compressive strength under quasi-
 245 static loading condition in this study, as the carbon foams show brittle failure mode with
 246 maximum compressive stress reached at small strain. V is the crushing speed of the cross-head.
 247 L is the height of specimen, t is the time since impacting and x is the distance from the bottom
 248 of the specimen. Yield stress, density, elastic and plastic modulus, and compressive strength
 249 under the respective crushing speeds are from the test data. The calculated values are given in
 250 Figure 8 (c, d).



251

252 Figure 8. Schematic diagram of (a) impact on specimen; (b) stress evolution diagram under
 253 impact; (c) stress evolution of CFOAM480 under 0.2 m/s impacting; (d) stress evolution of
 254 CFOAM480 under 10 m/s impacting

255 As shown, the compressive strength of CFOAM480 at 0.2 and 10 m/s is different (11.31 and
256 14.99 MPa) due to the strain rate effect. At the instant of impact, the stresses in zone 1 of both
257 specimens are smaller than their compressive strength, and no damage is caused at the instant
258 of impact on the top of the specimens. The stresses of both specimens in zone 2 exceed (15.41
259 MPa at both speeds) the corresponding compressive strength of CFOAM480, therefore,
260 resulting in the damage at the bottom ends for both loading cases of CFOAM480. However,
261 the stresses at zone 3 of two loading cases are different due to different impacting velocities.
262 The increase of stress in zone 3 compared to zone 2, indicates the vulnerability of the top
263 portion of the specimen to damage after the damage occurs at the bottom [35]. Thus, the smaller
264 increase in stress between zone 2 and 3 leads to a higher chance of damage initiated on the top
265 portion of the specimen. Therefore, the damage occurs on top side of CFOAM480 under 0.2
266 m/s as the stress in zone 2 and 3 are similar (15.41 and 15.48 MPa) and no damage is presented
267 on top side of CFOAM480 under 10 m/s as stress in zone 2 and 3 are quite different (15.41 and
268 18.74 MPa). A similar change in damage locations was observed for a type of single-phase
269 syntactic foam under drop weight test [35]. According to this stress evolution theory, with the
270 further increase of the impacting speed V (e.g. higher than 10 m/s), stress in zone 1 increases
271 and may exceed the material compressive strength, and therefore may lead to the damage
272 initiates only from the top, at the instant of impacting. Similar top propagating damage has
273 been observed for aluminium foam material under high speed impacting [37].

274 4.2 Engineering stress-strain curves

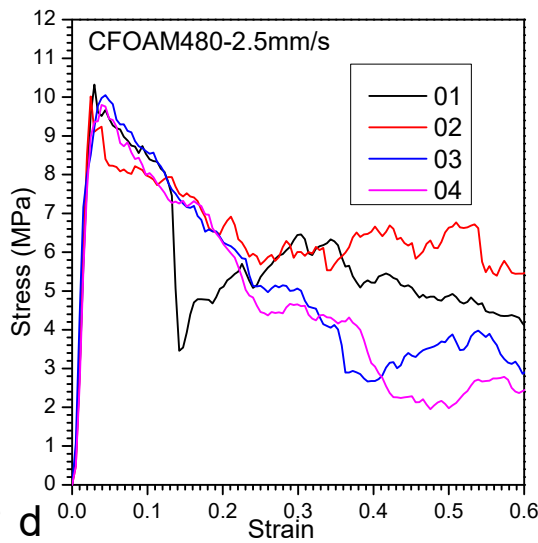
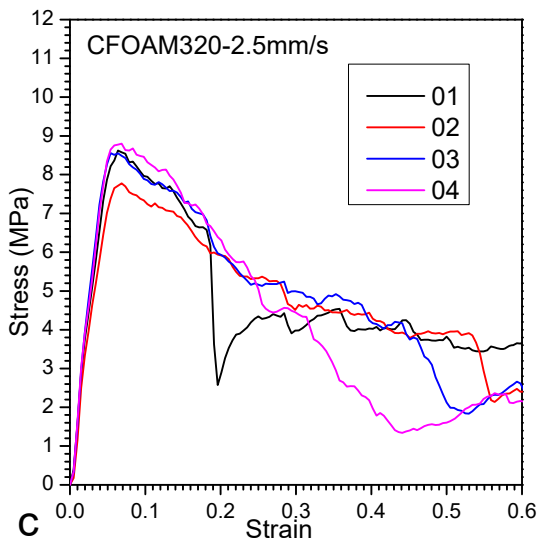
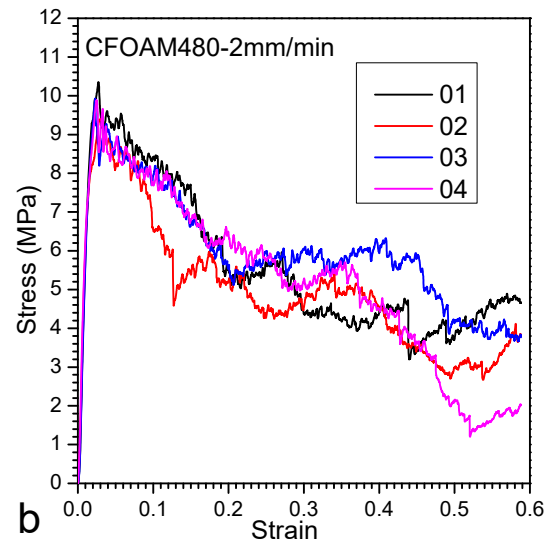
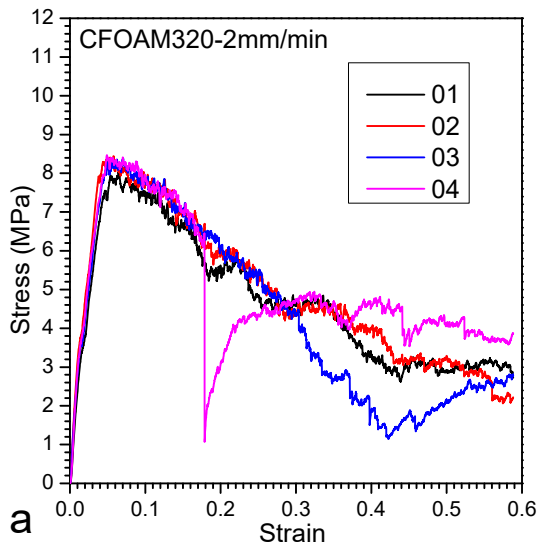
275 4.2.1 Quasi-static and low speed crushing

276 Engineering stress-strain curves of two types of carbon foams under quasi-static and low speed
277 crushing are shown in Figure 9. Elastic modulus of two carbon foams are measured using the
278 initial slope of the stress-strain curves and are listed in Table 2. Similar trends are observed for
279 both types of carbon foams, with a quick rise in stress at the initial stage, followed by a gradual
280 reduction in compressive stress. The stress-strain curves are quite different from other foam
281 materials such as EPS, PU and aluminium foams, where a rather smooth plateau stage can be
282 observed until reaching densification with sharp rises in compressive stress [10, 11, 16, 31]. It
283 is also different from a type of low density open-cell vitreous carbon foams which have large
284 plateau stage in stress-strain responses [23]. The carbon foams tested in this study are brittle,
285 with little elastic deformation and fractures occurring at the early stage near the impact end
286 or/and the base support. The energy is mainly dissipated in the form of foam fracture and
287 kinetic energy of flying fragments. After reaching the maximum stress, two types of stress-

288 strain curves are shown for some test specimens. After reaching the peak stress, a gradual
 289 reduction in stress along with strain is observed for some cases while a sudden drop is presented
 290 for other cases. For instance, very similar stress-strain curves at the initial stage are shown for
 291 all specimens of CFOAM320 under 2 mm/min quasi-static crushing. However, for test 04 in
 292 Figure 9 (a), a sudden drop in stress can be observed at around 0.17 strain, which is caused by
 293 one or multiple large longitudinal cracks propagating throughout the specimen.

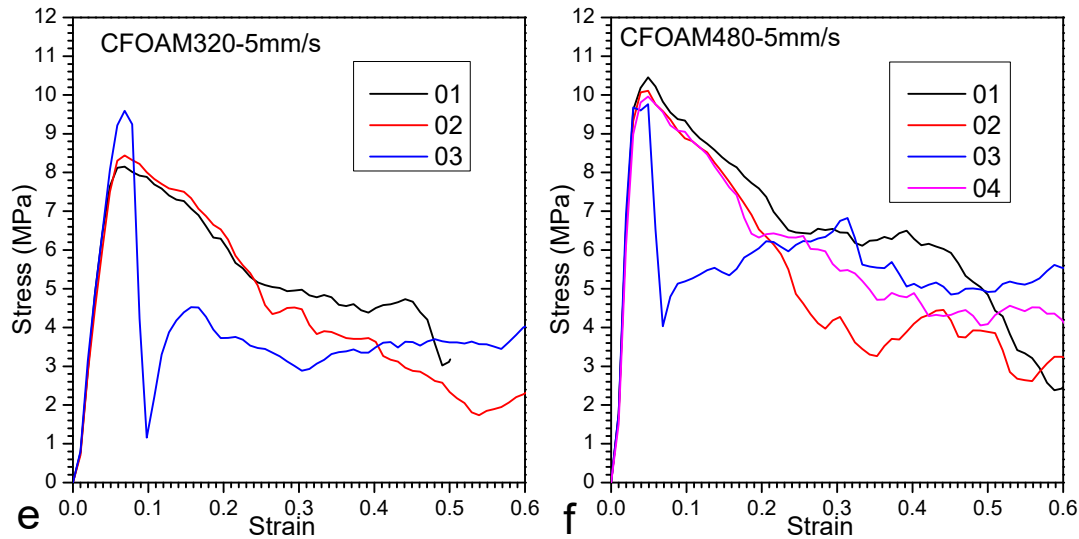
Foam type	CFOAM320					CFOAM480				
Test number	1	2	3	4	Ave	1	2	3	4	Ave
Elastic modulus (MPa)	333.3	432.7	392.0	394.7	388.2	807.5	832.4	801.3	855.3	824.1

294 Table 2. The measured elastic modulus of carbon foams under quasi-static loading condition
 295 (2 mm/min)



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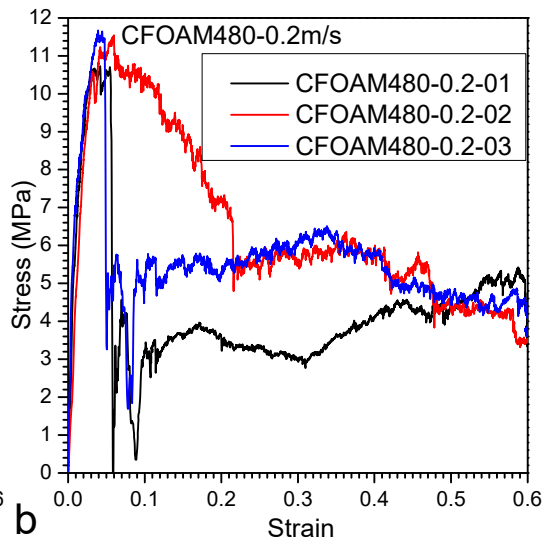
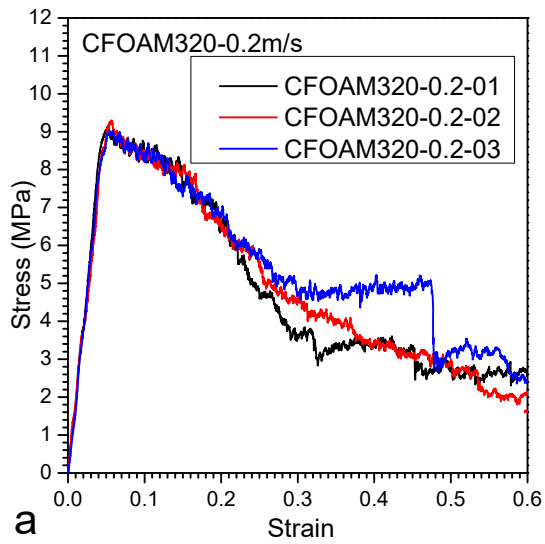


298

299 Figure 9. Engineering stress-strain curves of two carbon foams under quasi-static and low
 300 speed impact

301 4.2.2 Intermediate speed crushing

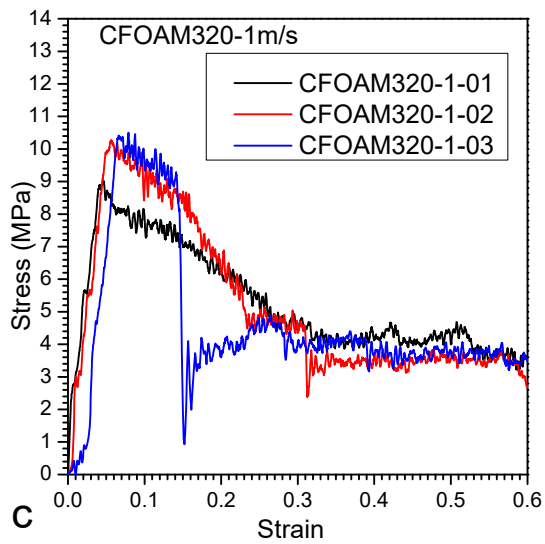
302 The engineering stress-strain curves of the two carbon foams under dynamic loading are shown
 303 in Figure 10 with the impacting speed varying from 0.2 m/s and 10 m/s. The general trends of
 304 stress-strain curves of these two carbon foams under dynamic loading are similar to those under
 305 quasi-static and low speed crushing. The stress rises sharply at the beginning, followed by
 306 either gradual reduction or a sudden drop in stress, after reaching the peak stress. With the
 307 increasing crushing speed, the occurrence of failure becomes earlier, as the strain at peak stress
 308 reduces with the higher crushing speeds. This leads to the increases in initial slopes of the
 309 stress-strain curves as well as the modulus under higher crushing speeds. Furthermore, under
 310 the higher impacting speed of 10 m/s, the gradual reduction in stress becomes faster after
 311 reaching the peak stress. For instance, under 2 mm/min crushing, the stress reduces to half of
 312 the maximum stress at strain about 0.2 and 0.3 as shown Figure 9 (b), whereas the stress reduces
 313 to half of the maximum stress at strain about 0.1 and 0.2 under 10 m/s crushing as shown in
 314 Figure 10 (d) for CFOAM480-10-02. This quicker reduction in stress under higher speed is
 315 caused by the changed damage mode, where more cracks propagate from the bottom and the
 316 larger portion of the specimen is damaged under higher impacting speed as shown in Figure 5
 317 from section 4.1.



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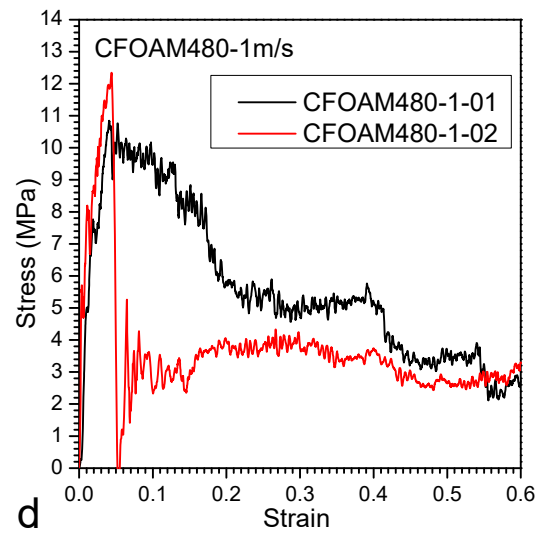
a

b

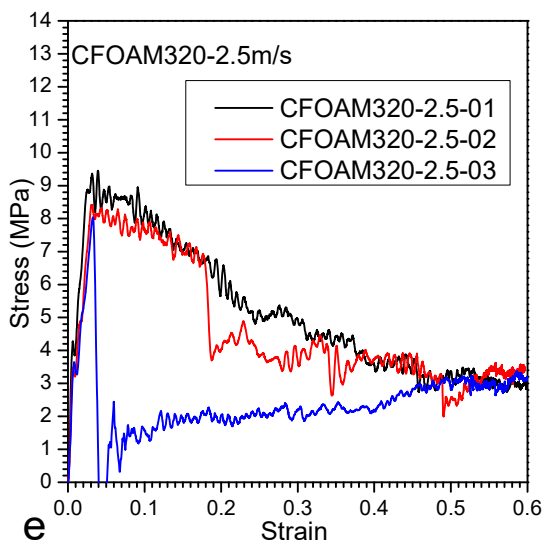


319

c

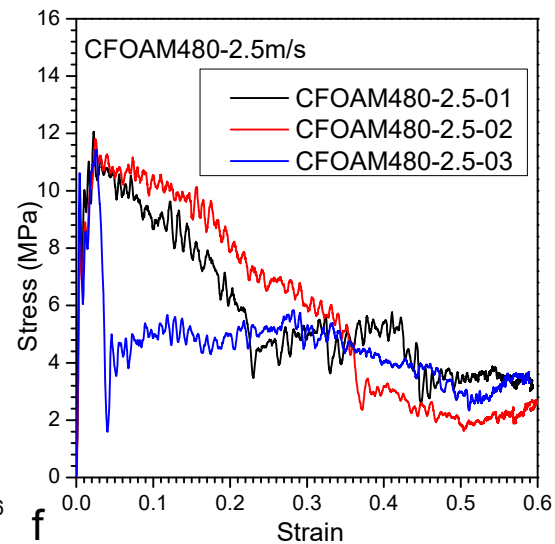


d

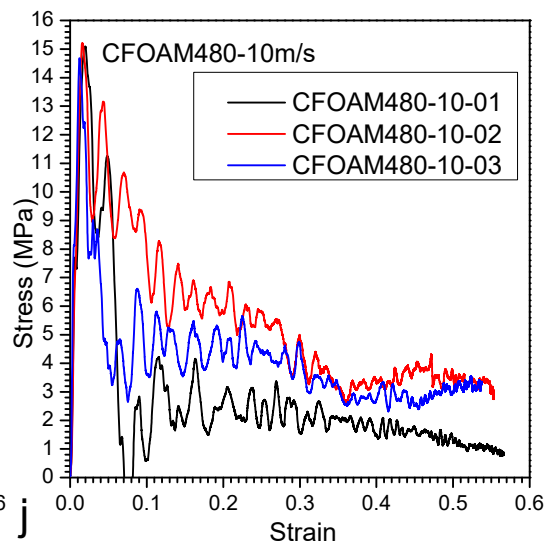
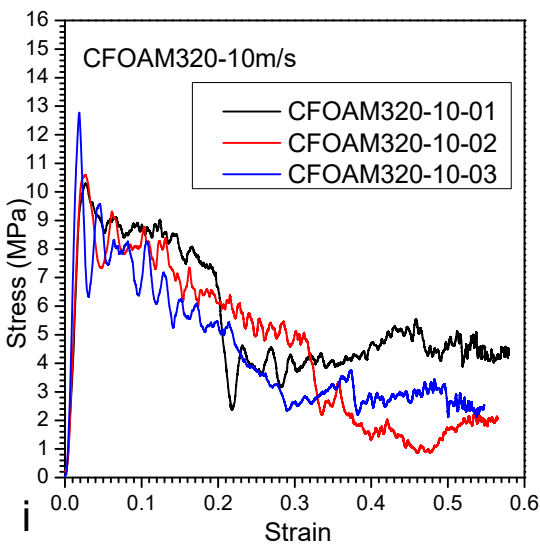
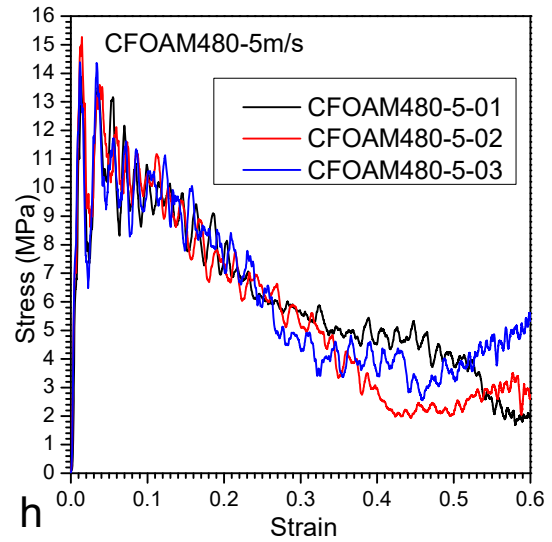
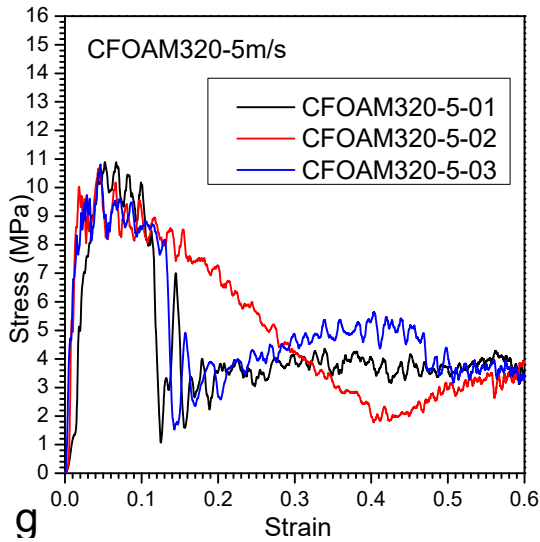


320

e



f



321

322

323 Figure 10. Engineering stress-strain curves of two carbon foams under 0.2, 1, 2.5, 5 and 10 m/s
 324 crushing

325 4.2.3 Stress equilibrium check for dynamic loading

326 As discussed in section 3.3, the stress equilibrium should be checked for material tests under
 327 dynamic loadings. The measured initial elastic modulus is 388.2 MPa for CFOAM320, which
 328 is averaged from four tests of quasi-static loading case, and 824.1 MPa for CFOAM480. The
 329 measured densities of these two carbon foams are 371 and 432 kg/m³. The stress wave
 330 travelling speed inside carbon foam specimens can be estimated by substituting these two
 331 parameters in equation (3). The calculated travelling speeds of stress wave are 1023 and 1381
 332 m/s for CFOAM320 and CFOAM480, respectively. As reported, three full back and forth
 333 reflections of stress wave before failure are required to reach dynamic stress equilibrium in the
 334 Split Hopkinson Pressure Bar (SHPB) test [32, 33]. Therefore, the calculated time for ensuring
 335 stress wave equilibrium is 0.293 ms and 0.217 ms for CFOAM320 and CFOAM480

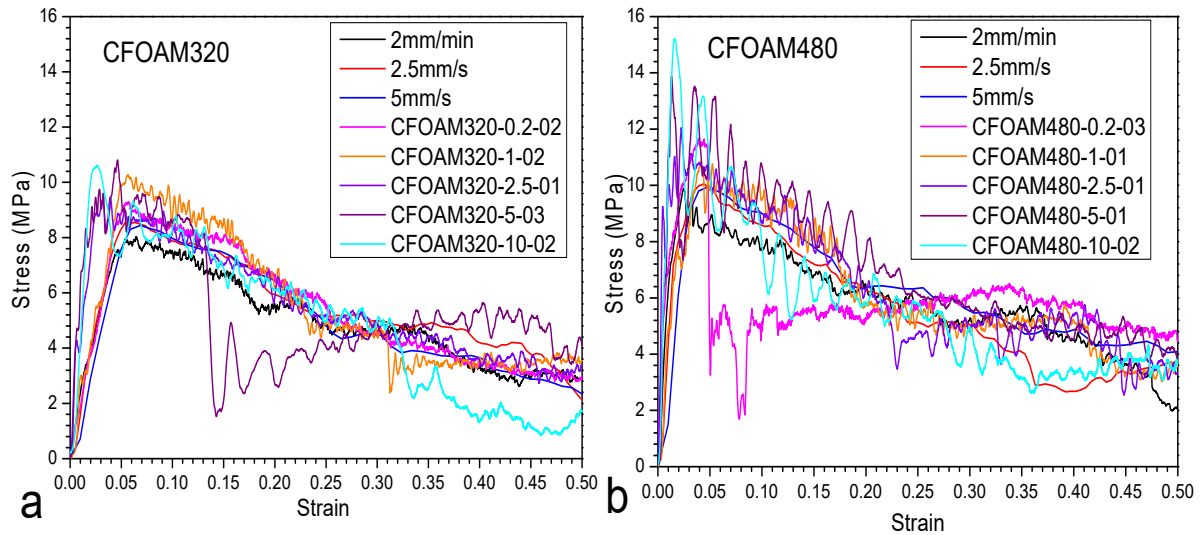
336 respectively, giving three full back and forth traveling of stress wave within the 50 mm-high
 337 specimens. The calculated time for achieving stress wave equilibrium is then compared with
 338 the time of reaching peak stress from dynamic experiments, as listed in Table 3. Stress
 339 equilibrium is achieved for both types of specimens under quasi-static and low speed crushing
 340 tests. Under 5 m/s crushing, stress equilibrium is achieved for all three tests of CFOAM320 but
 341 not for CFOAM480. Under 10 m/s crushing, the peak stress occurs slightly earlier than three
 342 full cycles of stress wave propagation inside the specimen, therefore, stress equilibrium is not
 343 achieved for both carbon foams. However, the data under 10 m/s is also incorporated into the
 344 analysis.

Crushing speed (m/s)	CFOAM320					CFOAM480				
	Time required (ms)	Time at maximum stress (ms)			Stress equilibrium satisfied (Y/N)	Time required (ms)	Time at maximum stress (ms)			Stress equilibrium satisfied (Y/N)
		Test 1	Test 2	Test 3			Test 1	Test 2	Test 3	
2.5	0.293	1.058	0.906	0.704	Y	0.217	0.802	0.845	0.872	Y
5		0.547	0.462	0.468	Y		0.125	0.130	0.112	N
10		0.174	0.161	0.159	N		0.109	0.111	0.092	N

345 Table 3. Comparisons for stress equilibrium in dynamic testings

346 4.2.4 Summary of stress-strain curves

347 Engineering stress-strain curves are compared as shown in Figure 11, with one representative
 348 curve selected from each loading case. All curves have similar trend and a brittle failure
 349 response with a sharp increase in stress at the initial stage and reduction after reaching peak
 350 stress. In some cases, a sudden drop in crushing resistance is shown due to long crack initiating
 351 and propagating through the specimen. With the higher crushing speed, the slope increases for
 352 both carbon foams, indicating strain rate sensitivity of modulus. The peak stress increases with
 353 the rising crushing speeds, and CFOAM480 shows a higher strain rate sensitivity of strength
 354 as a larger increment of peak stress can be observed. Overall, the mechanical properties of
 355 carbon foams tested in this study demonstrate a clear strain rate effect, where the increases in
 356 modulus and peak stress are shown with the rising crushing speeds. The DIF values of carbon
 357 foams are calculated and discussed in section 4.3.



358

359 Figure 11. Representative engineering stress-strain curves of (a) CFOAM320; (b)
 360 CFOAM480 under various impacting speeds

361 4.3 Strain rate effect

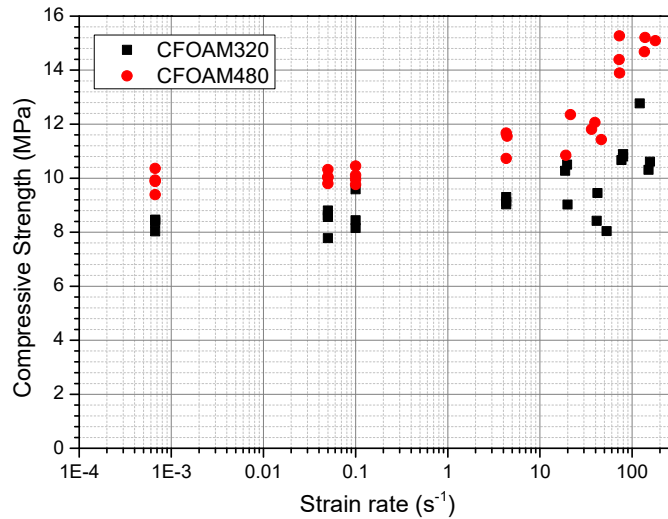
362 4.3.1 Strain rate effect on compressive strength

363 Compressive strength of the two carbon foams under various strain rates is summarized in
 364 Table 4 and Figure 12. The compressive strength is defined as the maximum stress during the
 365 crushing. As discussed in section 3.2, the crushing speeds are not necessarily constant
 366 throughout crushing under high crushing speeds. The strain rate associated with compressive
 367 strength is therefore measured at the moment of reaching the peak stress. It is calculated using
 368 the measured instant travelling speed of cross-head at the moment of peak stress divided by the
 369 specimen height of 50 mm. It is noted that the actual strain rates are very consistent and close
 370 to the expected strain rate at the impact speeds of 2 mm/min, 2.5 mm/s, 5 mm/s, 0.2 m/s and 1
 371 m/s. For the higher impact speeds, the average actual strain rates are less than the desired strain
 372 rates.

Carbon foam	Speed setting	Test number	Desired strain rate (s ⁻¹)	Actual strain rate at peak stress (s ⁻¹)	Compressive strength (MPa)	Secant modulus (MPa)
CFOAM320	2mm/min	01	6.67e ⁻⁴	6.67e ⁻⁴	8.03	128.1
		02		6.67e ⁻⁴	8.44	147.6
		03		6.67e ⁻⁴	8.37	136.1
		04		6.67e ⁻⁴	8.47	178.8
	2.5mm/s	01	0.05	0.05	8.62	144.3
		02		0.05	7.78	121.3
		03		0.05	8.56	171.5
		04		0.05	8.80	136.2
	5mm/s	01	0.1	0.1	8.15	130.2

	0.2m/s	02	4	0.1	8.44	135.9
		03		0.1	9.59	154.4
		01		4.3	9.13	180.6
	1m/s	02	20	4.3	9.30	167.7
		03		4.3	9.03	157.0
		01		19.9	9.02	194.0
	2.5m/s	02	50	18.7	10.27	202.2
		03		19.7	10.5	206.5
		01		42.0	9.45	250.5
	5m/s	02	100	41.2	8.42	286.5
		03		52.9	8.04	262.7
		01		79.9	10.89	293.6
	10m/s	02	200	76.9	10.67	277.5
		03		79.8	10.80	244.2
		01		150.7	10.31	421.4
CFOAM480	2mm/min	02	$6.67e^{-4}$	156.2	10.61	462.7
		03		121.1	12.77	793.7
		01		$6.67e^{-4}$	10.36	411.9
		02		$6.67e^{-4}$	9.39	343.8
	2.5mm/s	03	0.05	$6.67e^{-4}$	9.93	478.9
		04		$6.67e^{-4}$	9.88	419.9
		01		0.05	10.32	398.3
		02		0.05	10.02	415.6
	5mm/s	03	0.1	0.05	10.05	247.4
		04		0.05	9.80	278.3
		01		0.1	10.45	319.4
		02		0.1	10.11	310.9
	0.2m/s	03	4	0.1	9.76	298.3
		04		0.1	9.96	306.3
		01		4.3	10.73	341.2
1m/s	02	20	4.4	11.55	281.4	
	03		4.3	11.67	298.6	
	01		19.1	10.85	293.8	
2.5m/s	02	50	21.4	12.35	288.7	
	03		-	-	-	
	01		39.4	12.06	581.1	
5m/s	02	100	36.3	11.81	517.4	
	03		46.3	11.43	467.8	
	01		73.0	13.89	1344.8	
10m/s	02	200	72.7	15.27	1174.7	
	03		72.3	14.39	1358.45	
	01		178.2	15.09	844.6	
	0.2m/s	02	4	138.1	15.21	1110.2
				135.8	14.68	1355.5

373 Table 4. Measured compressive strength and secant modulus of two carbon foams under
374 different impacting speeds



375

376 Figure 12. Compressive strength of two carbon foams at different strain rates

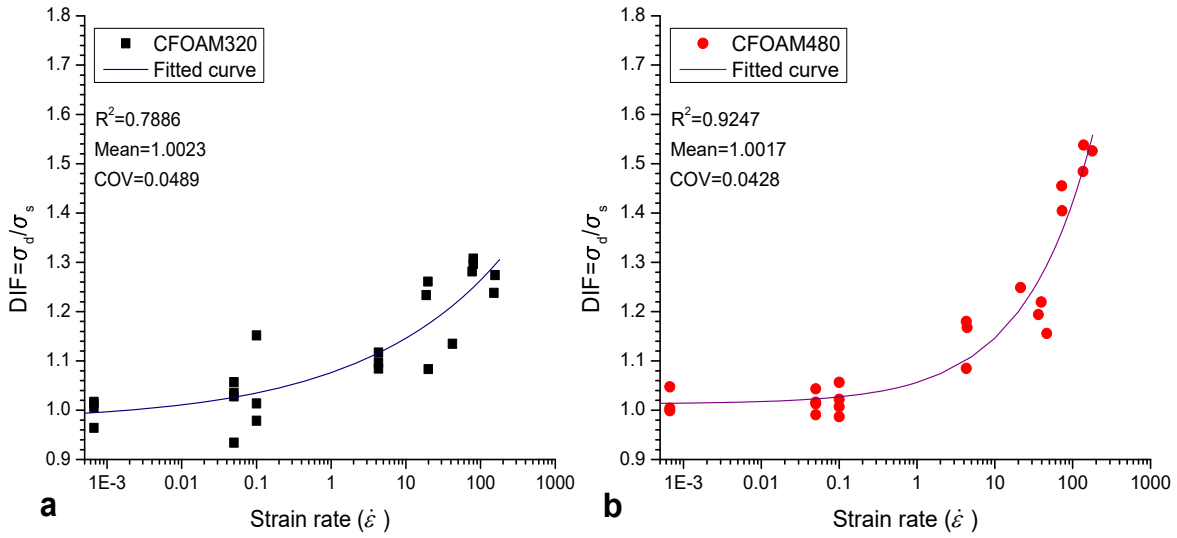
377 As shown in Figure 12, increasing trends of compressive strength with higher strain rate are
 378 shown for both carbon foams. At strain rates below 0.1 s^{-1} , a very minor increase in
 379 compressive strength is shown with the increase of strain rate. This is different from the
 380 previous study of closed-cell aluminium foam [20], in which the compressive strength (first
 381 peak) of aluminium foam increases linearly with $\log(\dot{\epsilon})$ at very low strain rate from 10^{-5} to 10^{-2}
 382 s^{-1} . Compressive strength of both tested carbon foams in this study increases significantly
 383 with the rising strain rate when the strain rate is over 4 s^{-1} as shown in Figure 12. It is also
 384 observed that the compressive strength of both carbon foams can be expressed in a power
 385 relationship with strain rate, as the increases in compressive strength at higher strain rates are
 386 much greater than that at lower strain rates.

387 Similar power laws are observed for strain rate effect of plateau stress of closed-cell aluminium
 388 foam in the previous study [16] as mentioned in section 2.1. Therefore, a similar relationship
 389 is used for modelling the strain rate effect on compressive strength of the carbon foams as
 390 below.

$$DIF = \frac{\sigma_d}{\sigma_s} = x \left(1 + y \left(\frac{\dot{\epsilon}}{\dot{\epsilon}_0} \right)^z \right) \quad (4)$$

391 where DIF is dynamic increase factor which is the ratio of compressive strength under dynamic
 392 loading (σ_d) to that under quasi-static loading (σ_s); x , y and z are coefficients and
 393 dimensionless and $\dot{\epsilon}_0$ (quasi-static strain rate) is $6.67 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ in this study for both foams. In
 394 this case, the compressive strength under static loading, σ_s is averaged from the quasi-static

395 testing for each type of carbon foam. Strain rate is calculated using the instant crushing speed
 396 at the peak stress divided by the specimen height.



397
 398 Figure 13. Dynamic increase factor of compressive strength with respect to strain rate for (a)
 399 CFOAM320; (b) CFOAM480

400 The measured compressive strength of carbon foams under various strain rates is fitted and
 401 shown in Figure 13. Three far-off points are removed from out of 27 tests for each type of
 402 carbon foam. The curves are well fitted with R^2 of 0.7886 and 0.9247 for CFOAM320 and
 403 CFOAM480, respectively. Values of mean and coefficient of variation (COV) are listed on the
 404 graph. Mean is the average of the ratios of the fitted DIF to the measured DIF under all strain
 405 rates, and the COV is the standard deviation of these ratios. The relationships between DIF of
 406 compressive strength and strain rate of the two carbon foams are given below.

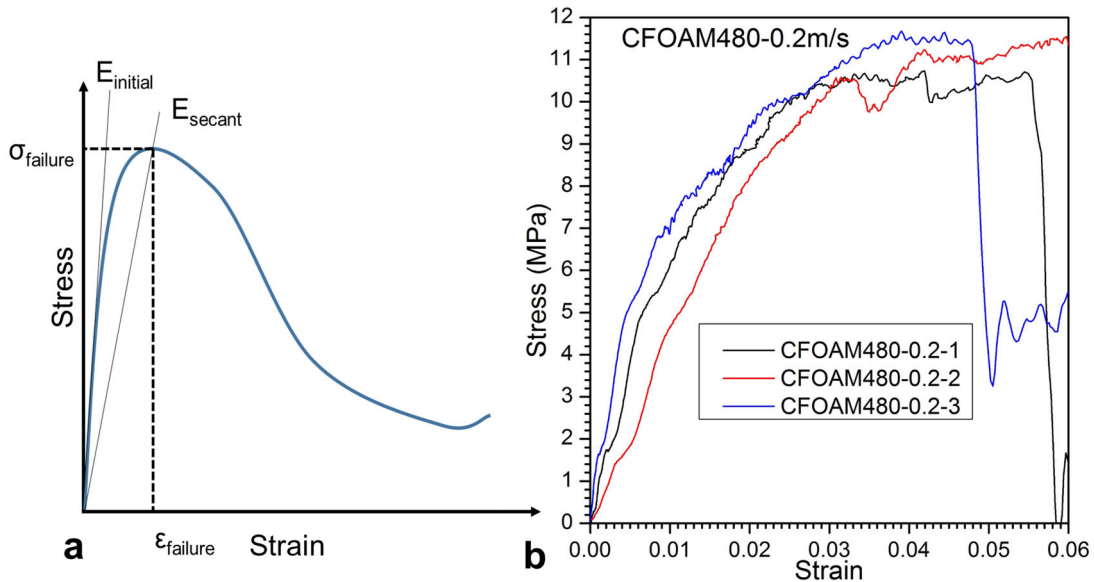
$$\text{DIF} = \frac{\sigma_d}{\sigma_s} = 0.9763 \left(1 + 0.01903 \left(\frac{\dot{\epsilon}}{\dot{\epsilon}_0} \right)^{0.2299} \right) \text{ for CFOAM320 } (10^{-4} < \dot{\epsilon} < 156 \text{ s}^{-1}) \quad (5)$$

$$\text{DIF} = \frac{\sigma_d}{\sigma_s} = 1.013 \left(1 + 0.001215 \left(\frac{\dot{\epsilon}}{\dot{\epsilon}_0} \right)^{0.4872} \right) \text{ for CFOAM480 } (10^{-4} < \dot{\epsilon} < 178 \text{ s}^{-1}) \quad (6)$$

407 4.3.2 Strain rate effect on modulus

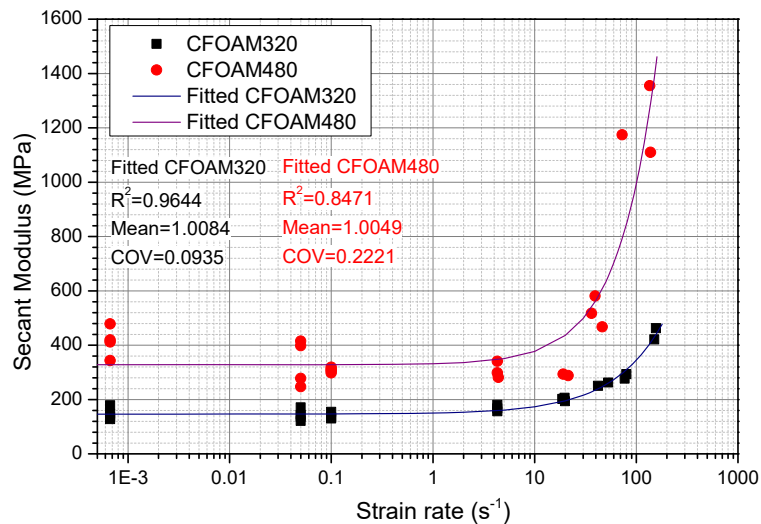
408 The modulus of the carbon foams under various loading rates is measured. The secant modulus
 409 instead of the initial modulus is selected for comparisons. As shown in Figure 14 (a), the initial
 410 modulus is the initial slope of the engineering stress versus strain of specimen, whereas the
 411 secant modulus is defined as the failure stress (maximum compressive stress) divided by the
 412 failure strain. The failure strain is taken as the strain at the failure stress. This is because in
 413 some cases, the initial slopes for the same carbon foam specimens can be different, even under

414 the same loading rate. One example is shown in Figure 14 (b), the initial slopes of three
 415 specimens are quite different, even though the failure stress and failure strain are similar among
 416 the three tests. These initial discrepancies in stress-strain curves could be caused by many
 417 factors, including slight differences in dimension, density, microstructure, and surface flatness
 418 among specimens.



419

420 Figure 14. (a) Definition of initial and secant modulus; (b) example of discrepancies of stress-
 421 strain curves in the initial stage for the same type of carbon foam under the same loading rate

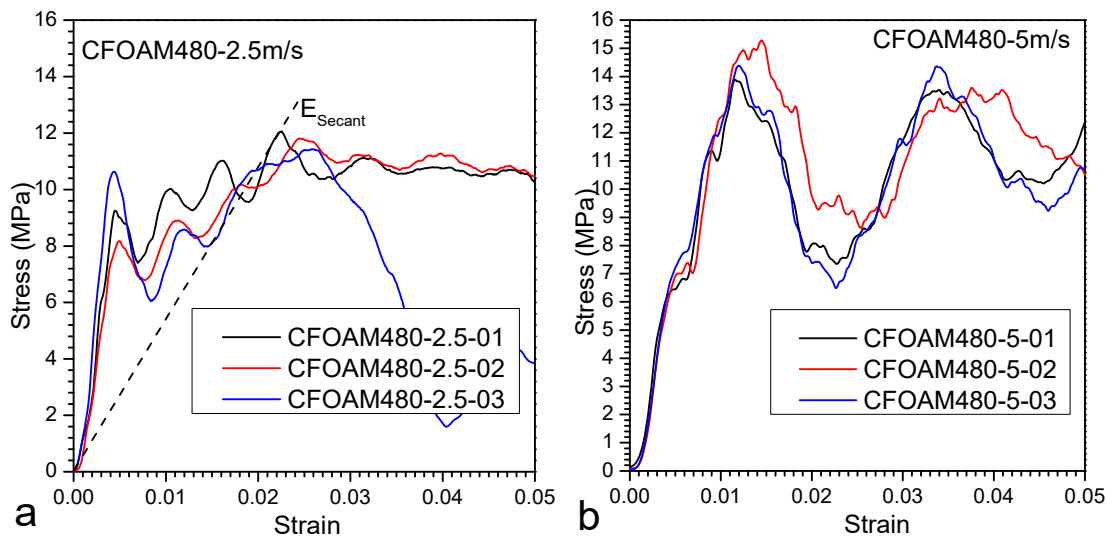


422

423 Figure 15. Secant modulus of two carbon foams under different strain rates

424 The secant modulus of the two carbon foams under various loading rates is listed in Table 4.
 425 The fitted curves of both carbon foams are shown in Figure 15 with three far-off points removed
 426 for each carbon foam. The secant modulus measured under the same loading rate varies,

427 especially for CFOAM480. It might be caused by the interaction of stress wave propagation
 428 inside specimen as stress equilibrium is not reached for several cases under high loading rates.
 429 In general, increasing trends can be observed for both carbon foams with the increase in strain
 430 rate. CFOAM480 has a larger increment of secant modulus than CFOAM320 with the increase
 431 in strain rate. This is consistent with aluminium foam materials [16, 38], as the material
 432 properties of foam materials are in power relationship with both strain rate and density. In other
 433 words, the denser foam shows more significant strain rate sensitivity on their compressive and
 434 plateau stresses.



435

436 Figure 16. Early stage of stress-strain curves of CFOAM480 under (a) 2.5 and (b) 5m/s
 437 crushing

438 The secant modulus measured from all tests is shown in Figure 15. CFOAM320 shows similar
 439 power relationship between modulus and strain rate as compared to the strain rate effect of
 440 compressive strength. CFOAM480, however, shows some inconsistent changes in modulus
 441 with respect to strain rate, even though the general trend of modulus increases with the strain
 442 rate as well. For instance, from quasi-static to low speed crushing up to around 20 s^{-1} , the secant
 443 modulus decreases slightly with the increase of strain rate and high value of secant modulus
 444 can be observed under the strain rate around 80 s^{-1} . These can be explained by the stress-strain
 445 curves at very early stages of CFOAM480 under dynamic loading. For instance, engineering
 446 stress-strain curves of CFOAM480 under 2.5 and 5 m/s crushing are compared in Figure 16.
 447 Under 2.5 m/s, the maximum stress is reached after the first peak, whereas for 5 m/s crushing,
 448 the maximum stress occurs at the first peak. Therefore, the strain at the peak stress of
 449 CFOAM480 under 5 m/s is almost half of that under 2.5 m/s, resulting in a significant increase

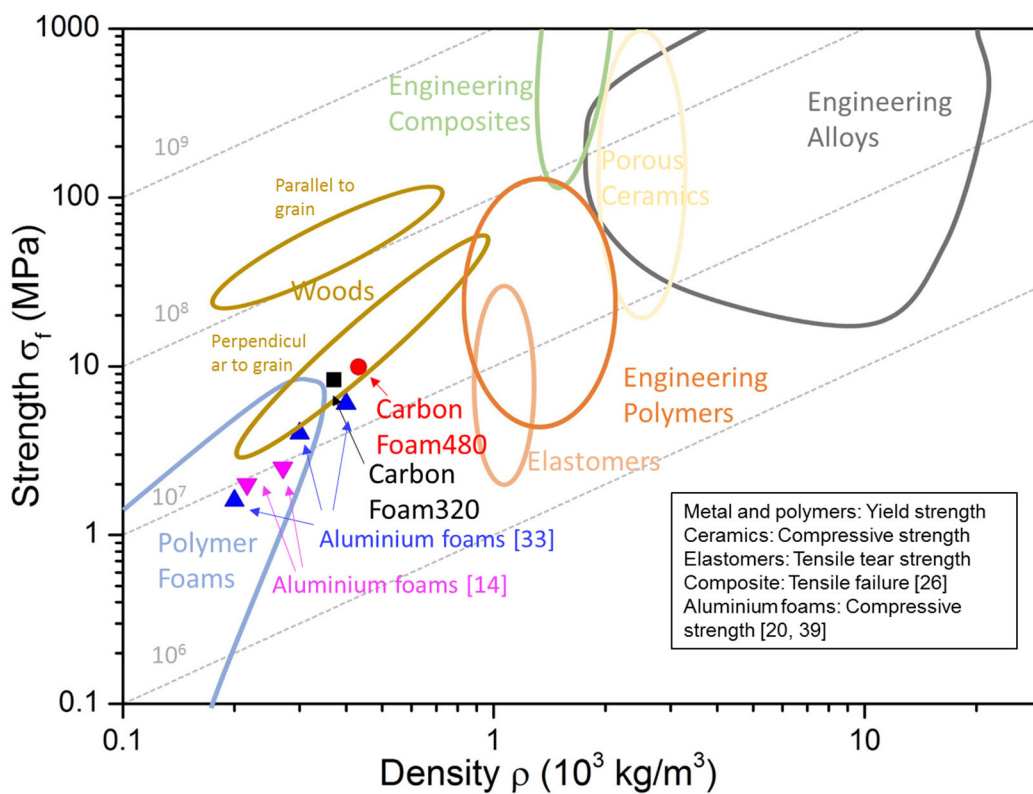
450 of secant modulus from around 500 MPa to more than 1300 MPa when crushing speed is
 451 increased from 2.5 to 5 m/s, although the failure stress is similar under the two loading rates.

$$E_{\text{secant}} = 146.8(1 + 3.95 \times 10^{-5} \left(\frac{\dot{\epsilon}}{\dot{\epsilon}_0} \right)^{0.8759}) \text{ for CFOAM320 } (10^{-4} < \dot{\epsilon} < 156 \text{ s}^{-1}) \quad (7)$$

$$E_{\text{secant}} = 328.3(1 + 2.841 \times 10^{-6} \left(\frac{\dot{\epsilon}}{\dot{\epsilon}_0} \right)^{1.131}) \text{ for CFOAM480 } (10^{-4} < \dot{\epsilon} < 178 \text{ s}^{-1}) \quad (8)$$

452 where E_{secant} is the secant modulus.

453 4.4 Comparison of mechanical properties



454

455 Figure 17. Ashby chart of density and strength of materials [20, 26, 39]; Note: for carbon
 456 foams strength refers to the measured compressive strength. Dash lines indicate the contours
 457 of constant strength-density ratio $c = \frac{\sigma_f}{\rho}$

458 The averaged compressive strength of carbon foams measured under quasi-static loading
 459 condition are 8.33 MPa and 9.89 MPa, for CFOAM320 and CFOAM480, respectively. Their
 460 averaged elastic moduli are 388.2 MPa and 824.1 MPa for CFOAM320 and CFOAM480 under
 461 the same quasi-static loading condition. The compressive strength of carbon foams is marked
 462 out against their densities in an Ashby chart and compared with other materials, as shown in
 463 Figure 17 [20, 26, 39]. With the averaged densities of 371 and 432 kg/m³, carbon foam has

464 similar mechanical properties to woods and wood products, in terms of compressive strength
465 and densities. As indicated by the contour lines, the strength-density ratio of carbon foams is
466 lower than many of the engineering alloys, ceramics and composites. However, the
467 compressive strength of carbon foam is higher than aluminium foams with similar densities.
468 Furthermore, due to the advantages such as low thermal conductivity, high operational
469 temperature and corrosion resistant [24], carbon foams can be used in these extreme conditions
470 where conventional engineering alloys and composite cannot withstand. The operational
471 temperature for composites and polymers is often less than 100 degree Celsius [40], whereas
472 the operational temperature for carbon foams can reach 600 degree Celsius in the air [24].

473 **5 Conclusion**

474 Mechanical properties of two densities of carbon foams, CFOAM320 and CFOAM480 are
475 tested and measured under various loading rates ranging from 6.67×10^{-4} to 178 s^{-1} . Different
476 from other foam materials such as aluminium foams, EPS foams and PU foams, two densities
477 of carbon foams experience brittle failure mode under various loading rates, with the maximum
478 stress achieved at small strain value of less than 0.05. Two types of stress-strain curves and
479 damage modes can be seen for both carbon foams. A gradual reduction in stress or a sudden
480 drop in stress can be observed after reaching the peak stress. This gradual reduction in stress is
481 caused by cracking near the interfaces of the specimen and flying-off pieces from the specimen,
482 whereas the sudden drop in stress is due to the large longitudinal cracks throughout the
483 specimens. Both damage modes occur randomly under all loading cases. Significant strain rate
484 effect is observed for both carbon foams. The increase in compressive strength is more
485 significant under higher strain rates and the carbon foam with higher density. The dynamic DIF
486 values are calculated and compared for the two carbon foams. Empirical formulae of the
487 mechanical properties such as compressive strength and modulus with respect to strain rate are
488 derived from the testing data.

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