## SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

# Manufacturing of Complex Diamond-Based Composite Structures via Laser Powder-Bed Fusion 

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## 1. Powders used for LPBF of $\mathrm{Cu} / \mathrm{D}$ composite

Fig. S1a shows a scanning electron microscopy (SEM) micrograph of the original diamond (D) particles. As mentioned in the manuscript, the D particles were coated with a graded titanium oxide -carbide $\left(\mathrm{TiO}_{2}-\mathrm{TiC}\right)$ layer to improve the wettability with molten copper $(\mathrm{Cu})$, as displayed in $\mathbf{F i g}$. S1b. Then, Cu and coated -D powders (Fig. S1c - d) were mixed at a concentration of $5 \mathrm{vol} . \%$ of the coated -D, as presented in Fig. S1e - f. Finally, the powder mixture was loaded into the SLM ${ }^{\circledR}$ 125 printer for laser powder-bed fusion (LPBF) manufacturing.


Fig. S1. (a) SEM micrographs of the original D powder, (b) coated -D powder with a $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ - TiC layer, (c) Cu powder, (d) coated -D powder, and (e, f) Cu/coated -D mixture.

## 2. The single-melting strategy

The common printing strategy is a single-melting one involving three-steps. Fig. S2 illustrates the steps in a single-melting strategy. First, the recoater blade passes on the build plate to depose a composite powder ( Cu and coated -D powders). Next, the laser selectively melts the powder into the desired shape. Finally, the build plate is lowered for the deposition of a new layer. By repeating the process, 3D structures are printed.


Fig. S2. Illustration of the steps involved in a single-melting strategy during LPBF.

## 3. Spatter ejection: Pure Cu vs. $\mathrm{Cu} / \mathrm{D}$ powder beds

Fig. S3a is a photograph of the laser applied to a pure Cu powder bed. The laser power, scan speed, hatch distance, and layer thickness are $400 \mathrm{~W}, 400 \mathrm{~mm} / \mathrm{s}, 0.12 \mathrm{~mm}$, and 0.03 mm , respectively. As can be seen, a bright spot appears at the bed surface due to the metal evaporation and spatter ejection. Fig. S3b is a photograph of the laser matter-interaction on a Cu and D powder bed with the same printing parameters as used for the pure Cu bed. A significant difference in the metal vapor and spatter ejection is observed.


Fig. S3. (a) Photographs of the laser shining on a Cu powder bed, and (b) $\mathrm{Cu} / \mathrm{D}$ powder bed for the same printing parameters $(\mathrm{P}=400 \mathrm{~W}, \mathrm{~s}=400 \mathrm{~mm} / \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{h}=0.10 \mathrm{~mm}, \mathrm{LT}=0.03 \mathrm{~mm})$.

## 4. Pictures of samples printed using the single-melting strategy

Fig. S4 shows photographs of the samples printed using the single-melting strategy. These photographs were used to create the two-dimensional (2D) maps in the manuscript (Fig. 2e).

## Melting



Fig. S4. Photographs of building $\mathrm{Cu} / \mathrm{D}$ composites for scan speeds and hatch distances ranging from 200 to $400 \mathrm{~mm} / \mathrm{s}$ and 0.06 to 0.12 mm , respectively, using the single-melting strategy.

## 5. Recoating and remelting strategies

The recoating strategy was employed to print $\mathrm{Cu} / \mathrm{D}$ composites. This approach adds two steps to the process compared to the conventional single-melting one, as presented in Fig. S5. After the deposition of the first layer and laser melting, a second layer is deposited on the build plate without lowering the plate. Next, the laser is applied a second time to densify the powder. Finally, the plate is lowered, and the steps are then repeated to print a 3D structure.


Figure S5. Illustration of the steps involved in the recoating strategy during LPBF.

The third approach studied in this work, involves remelting. As shown before, a layer is deposited on the build plate, and the laser melts the powder. Next, the laser is applied on the same layer a
second time. The build plate is then lowered. By repeating the process, the three-dimensional (3D) structure is printed via a remelting strategy, as shown in Fig. S6.


Figure S6. Illustration of the steps involves in a remelting strategy during LPBF.

## 6. Pictures of samples printed using the recoating and remelting strategies

Figs. S7 and S8 consist of the photographs of samples printed using the recoating and remelting printing strategies. These photographs were used to create the 2D maps in the manuscript in Fig. 3a-b.


Fig. S7. Photographs of building $\mathrm{Cu} / \mathrm{D}$ composites for scan speeds and hatch distances ranging from 200 to $400 \mathrm{~mm} / \mathrm{s}$ and 0.06 to 0.12 mm , respectively, using the recoating strategy.

## Remelting



Fig. S8. Photographs of building $\mathrm{Cu} / \mathrm{D}$ composites for scan speeds and hatch distances ranging
from 200 to $400 \mathrm{~mm} / \mathrm{s}$ and 0.06 to 0.12 mm , respectively, using the remelting strategy.

## 7. Surface roughness

The surface of the printed Cu-D cubes at a scan speed and hatch distance of $250 \mathrm{~mm} / \mathrm{s}$ and 0.1 mm , respectively, were analyzed using an optical surface profiler (Zygo NewView 8000). Fig S9a - c shows the printed cubes' surface using the melting, recoating, and remelting strategies. The average surface roughness is plotted in $\mathbf{F i g} \mathbf{S 9 d}$. It can be observed that the average roughness is $134 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ with a melting strategy. The roughness decreases to $85 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ and further decrease down to $25 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ with a remelting strategy.


Fig. S9. Surface mapping of $\mathrm{Cu} / \mathrm{D}$ composites printed with (a) melting, (b) recoating, and (c)
remelting strategies. (d) A plot of the surface roughness vs. printing strategies.

## 8. Molten pool profile

The molten pool profiles of different printing strategies were analyzed on the section of the printed cubes at a scan speed and hatch distance of $250 \mathrm{~mm} / \mathrm{s}$ and 0.1 mm , respectively. For that, the samples were etched into a nitric acid/ water solution (50:50) for 30 s . Fig S10 a-c show optical microscope images of the samples' section where the molten pool can be observed. Fig S10 d - f show SEM micrographs of the molten pool near the samples' surface.


Fig. S10. Optical images of molten pool profile for (a) melting, (b) recoating, and (c) remelting strategies. SEM micrographs of molten pool profile for (d) melting, (e) recoating, and (f) remelting strategies.

## 9. Thermal conductivity measurement

The periodic photothermal radiometry (PPTR) technique was used to measure the thermal diffusivity (TD) of the $\mathrm{Cu} / \mathrm{D}$ composite materials printed. The setup is equipped with an Nd: YAG
laser (Coherent MATRIX Q-switched diode-pumped laser, $\lambda=1064 \mathrm{~nm}$ ) that delivers a a finite pulse width excitation by emitting a $N_{p}$-pulse train at frequency $f_{p}=30 \mathrm{KHz}$ (maximum rms power of 10 W$)$. Each pulse duration is equal to 40 ns . The pulse width is thereby $\Delta \mathrm{t}_{\text {burst }}=N_{p} / f_{p}$. The pulse train is repeated with frequency $f_{\text {exc }}=4 \mathrm{~Hz}$ using a function generator. The laser beam (radius 0.55 mm ) is directly focused on the sample. An infrared (IR) detector (Teledyne Judson Technologies J 15 D 12 ) is used to monitor the temperature change at the rear face of the sample. Also, a photodiode is set to trigger the acquisition after each pulse train. An averaging process is performed throughout repetition period $T_{R}=1 / f_{p}$ considering $N_{s}$ cycles that allows the signal-to-noise ratio of the detector's response to be increased and to reduce the noise standard deviation of temperature values by $\sqrt{N_{s}}$. The TD of the sample is identified by minimizing the gap between the experimental response and the theoretical one calculated using an analytical solution of the heat transfer of material. The minimization is achieved by implementing a nonlinear least square algorithm (the Levenberg-Marquardt technique).

Fig S9a-c presents the experimental data of the TD measurement using the PPTR method. A close correlation between the experimental curve and the model can be observed in Fig. S9 with a low residual signal. The TDs measured for the melted, recoated and remelted samples were 68.48, 95.04 , and $101.331 \mathrm{~mm}^{2} / \mathrm{s}$. The thermal diffusivity was converted into thermal conductivity (TC) using the following equation:

$$
\begin{equation*}
k(T)=a(T) \times C_{p}(T) \times \rho(T) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $k$ is the $\mathrm{TC}(\mathrm{W} / \mathrm{m} . \mathrm{K}), a$ is the $\mathrm{TD}\left(\mathrm{mm}^{2} / \mathrm{s}\right), \rho$ is the density $\left(\mathrm{g} / \mathrm{cm}^{3}\right)$, and $C_{p}$ is the heat capacity of the sample (J/Kg.K). The $C_{p}$ of the diamond, TiC, and Cu used in this study are 630, 190, and $392 \mathrm{~J} / \mathrm{Kg} . \mathrm{K}$, respectively, leading to a thermal conductivity of 236 , 327 , and $349 \mathrm{~W} / \mathrm{m} . \mathrm{K}$, respectively, for the samples printed.



Fig. S11. (a) Plots of the measured and theoretical temperature with the identified thermal diffusivity vs. time and residuals vs. time for a $\mathrm{Cu} / \mathrm{D}$ printed with a single-melting strategy, (b) recoating, and (c) remelting.

