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Interactions between high temperature deformation and crystallization in zirconium based bulk metallic glasses

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Abstract

High temperature deformation of a ZrTiCuNiBe bulk metallic glass (BMG) is investigated by compression tests in the supercooled liquid region. When temperature is decreased or strain rate is increased, the amorphous alloy exhibits the usual Newtonian – non Newtonian behavior transition. Owing to appropriate heat treatments, partially crystallized alloys are produced, the associated microstructures are characterized and the volume fractions of crystal are measured. The interaction between high temperature deformation and crystallization is investigated by appropriate mechanical tests. According to the mechanical measurements, partial crystallization is responsible for an important increase of the flow stress and a promotion of the non-Newtonian behaviour. The deformation does not change significantly the volume fraction of crystal, the crystal composition neither the size. The flow stress increase with crystallization is analyzed under different hypotheses. It comes out that the flow stress increase can not be interpreted through a composition change in the residual amorphous matrix neither by the reinforcement due to hard crystallites nor by connections between crystals. It finally seems that the effect is rather due to the nanometric size of the crystals.

Keywords

Bulk metallic glass; high temperature deformation; crystallization; viscosity; nanocrystal

1. Introduction

In the last decade, bulk metallic glasses (BMG) have been extensively studied since it is now possible to produce them with relatively large dimensions. In particular, the mechanical properties at room temperature of BMG have focused interest since these materials generally exhibit high value of the fracture stress with a particularly large elastic domain [1]. BMG also exhibit a superplastic–like behavior in the supercooled liquid region (SLR) [2,3]. It has been shown that the homogeneous viscous flow behavior of BMGs in SLR can be Newtonian or non-Newtonian, depending on testing temperature and strain rate [4,5]. The Newtonian flow (i.e. flow stress linearly dependent on the applied strain rate or viscosity independent on strain rate) is typically obtained at high temperature and low strain rates. The transition from Newtonian to non-Newtonian flow behavior when the strain rate is increased or when the temperature is reduced, has been attributed to stress-induced formation of defects in the bulk glassy alloy [6], which limits the increase of the flow stress.

However, since their elaboration requires relatively rapid solidification from the melt, BMG structures are out of equilibrium with respect to crystalline state. While reheated into the SLR, crystallization and/or transformation into other metastable phases may occur, leading to changes of the mechanical behavior at ambient as well as high temperatures. The effect of crystallization on the fracture stress at room temperature depends mainly on the volume fraction and the size of the crystals. When the crystallite size is no more than few tens of nanometers, the fracture stress often increases slightly until a critical content in crystallites and then falls significantly [7-9]. At high temperature, the effect of nanocrystallization on deformation remains poorly analyzed. On the Vit1 alloy $(Zr_{41.2}Ti_{13.8}Cu_{12.5}Ni_{10}Be_{22.5}, at. %)$, Waniuk et *al.* [10] carried out bending tests in the SLR and detected after an incubation time, a huge increase of the viscosity. This hardening was attributed to several causes: the formation of nanocrystals in the viscous matrix but also a phase decomposition which may occur in this alloy before crystallization or a change in the composition of the residual glass as far as crystallization occurs. Similar reinforcement due to nanocrystallization were also observed on different BMGs bases [11, 12].

The coupling between deformation and crystallization was also partially studied recently and some studies have shown that high temperature deformation can accelerate crystallization kinetics [13,14, 15]: for instance, after tensile tests on a Zr based BMG, nanocrystals were observed in the sample gauge length whereas the alloy was still amorphous in the non deformed region. Conversely, in the case of the formation of quasicrystals, it was observed that deformation in the non Newtonian regime could slow down the quasi-crystallization kinetics while the deformation in the Newtonian regime had no detectable influence [16]. Quasicrystallization requiring an icosahedral local structure in the glass, if viscous flow strongly increases structural disorder, this may hinder quasi-crystallization.

The aim of this paper is thus to get experimental information about the influence of the crystallization on the high temperature deformation and more precisely to investigate the interactions between high temperature deformation and crystallization in the Vit1 BMG.

2. Experimental procedure

The investigated alloy was supplied by Howmet Corp. (USA). Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) at a heating rate of 10 K/min. was used to determine the characteristic temperatures and to get information about the crystallization energies. From DSC measurements, a temperature of 628 K was found for the onset of the glass transition temperature T_g^{on} in agreement with previously published data [10]. High temperature deformation was studied by compression tests in air. For the compression experiments, cylindrical samples of 3 mm in

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diameter and 5 mm in height were machined from a plate of about 3 mm thickness. The samples were heated to the testing temperatures at a heating rate of 20 K/min and held at the testing temperature for about 300 s to homogenize temperature before starting compression. During testing, the temperature is stabilized to ± 1 K. A thin superficial oxidized layer appears during testing but to thin to affect the macroscopic behavior. The temperature range of interest was between 623 K and 683 K. In this range, the glass was expected to be fully relaxed when deformation started. Indeed, structural relaxation has been studied in detail for the Vit1 alloy [6,17,18]: at 643 K, a relaxation time of about 20 s has been reported whereas a relaxation time close to 300 s is expected only for temperatures close to 623 K. X-Ray Diffraction (XRD) with Cu K α radiation was used to investigate the microstructure evolution after static and dynamic annealing at the given temperatures. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was also carried out, the observations being performed at 300kV in a JEOL 3010 microscope. An ion beam milling method was used to prepare the thin foils.

3. Mechanical behaviours in the SLR

In order to get information about the rheology of the glass, strain rate jump tests were carried out for temperatures between 623 K (i.e. $T_g^{on} - 5$ K) and 683 K (i.e. $T_g^{on} + 55$ K) and using the experimental data from the strain rate increase tests, the apparent viscosity η_{app} was calculated and the evolution of η_{app} with the applied strain rate is shown in figure 1 for the investigated temperatures. Depending on the temperature, the strain rate interval was more or less extended in order to avoid crystallization during the tests. To check that, a strain rate applied during the first jumps was repeated at the end of each test and the resulting stress was compared to the value initially obtained. These comparisons confirmed that in the studied experimental conditions, no significant hardening occurred during the strain rate jump tests.

[Insert figure 1 here: Viscosity vs. strain rate in compression for the amorphous alloy at various temperatures]

For the investigated conditions, the apparent viscosity varies roughly from 10^9 Pa.s to 10^{12} Pa.s. Since the glass is expected to be fully relaxed when the test starts, the Newtonian viscosity which is measured corresponds to an equilibrium viscosity. For the same glass deformed in compression, a Newtonian viscosity close to $4x10^{10}$ Pa.s was reported at 643 K [6] which is in good agreement with the value of about $4x10^{10}$ Pa.s measured in the present work at 646 K and for strain rates slightly lower than $5x10^{-4}$ s⁻¹. Apparent viscosities equal approximately to $3x10^{10}$ Pa.s for bending tests at 643 K in the first 20 minutes of testing were also reported for the same alloy [10].

As usually obtained during high temperature deformation of bulk metallic glasses, a Newtonian domain is detected for high temperature and/or low strain rates. At a given temperature, the viscosity tends to decrease for high strain rates, the mechanical behavior becoming then non Newtonian. In the studied experimental domain, the critical strain rates corresponding to the transition from Newtonian to non-Newtonian regimes at a given temperature are in good agreement with previously published results [6]. For the lowest temperatures (T \leq 633 K), it becomes more difficult to obtain direct experimental measurements of the Newtonian viscosity. In such conditions, it is fruitful to use a master curve in order to get an estimation of the Newtonian viscosity as performed by Bletry et *al.* [19]. This extrapolation confirms that the Newtonian viscosity is very sensitive to temperature since under the assumption of an Arrhenius law $\eta_N = \eta_0 \exp(Q_{app}/kT)$, a value of an apparent activation energy Q_{app} of about 4.5 eV can be measured, in agreement with previously reported values of Q_{app} for Zr-based BMG deformed in the SLR [5,20,21].

From these data, two temperatures were selected: 646 K and 683 K. This choice was motivated by the ability to have information about the thermal stability of the Vit1 during the mechanical tests. Figure 2a displays the evolution of the flow stress with strain for the following rates $(1.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}, 2 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ and } 3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1})$ at 646 K. For all the applied strain rates, at least two domains can be detected for all curves: a first region in which the stress is roughly constant followed by a region where the stress significantly increases. In the first region (up to a strain of about 0.2), a quasi-Newtonian behavior is measured, in agreement with the results coming from the strain rate jump tests (see figure 1). The situation is more unusual for larger strains. For a strain close to 0.5, similar flow stresses are obtained for the three investigated strain rates and for larger strains ($\varepsilon > 0.5$), apparent negative strain rate sensitivity parameters are measured. For instance, at $\varepsilon = 1.0$, the flow stress is reduced from 130 MPa to 70 MPa when the strain rate is multiplied by a factor 2. Since hardening is attributed to crystallization which may occur at this temperature, this result confirms the idea that care must be taken in the choice of the conditions of forming of BMG in the SLR if partial crystallization cannot be avoided.

[Insert figure 2a here: Flow stress vs. strain at 646 K for various strain rates] [Insert figure 2b here: Apparent viscosity vs. time at 646 K for various strain rates]

These data can be rationalized if curves (η,t) (with η the apparent viscosity) are drawn instead of (σ,ϵ) (see Figure 2b). For the three investigated strain rates, similar curves are observed. Up to an incubation time t_{inc} of about 1800 s (t_{inc} appears independent on the applied strain rate), viscosities close to 4×10^{10} Pa.s are measured. For $t > t_{inc}$ (keeping in mind that the compression tests start after 300 s of temperature stabilization), the viscosities increase similarly whatever the strain rate is. The mechanical test at the highest strain rate ($3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$) had to be stopped after a total annealing time of 5000 s due to maximum load considerations. These results are in agreement with Waniuk et *al.* [10], who reported also apparent viscosities equal approximately to 3×10^{10} Pa.s at 643 K in the first 20 minutes of testing followed by a huge increase of viscosity. This increase in viscosity can be measured by a reinforcement factor R defined as the ratio of the viscosity after a given time by the viscosity of the glass before crystallization.

Figure 2-c shows the effect on the R factor of heat treatments at the same temperature before compression when the glass is deformed at 1.5×10^{-4} s⁻¹, it is worth noting that when the strain rate is fixed, plotting an evolution against stress or against viscosity is similar. Two more heat treatment time before compression were selected: 3600 s and 7200 s. In both cases, when the glass is deformed, the R curve superposes with the one corresponding to the alloy deformed continuously. This behavior supports the idea that deforming the sample does not modify significantly mechanical properties and consequently suggests that crystallization is probably not strongly affected by deformation.

[Insert figure 2c here: Reinforcement factor vs. time at 646 K and $1.5 \times 10^{-4} \ s^{-1}$ for various incubation times at 646 K: 300 s, 3600 s and 7200 s]

Similar mechanical characterizations were carried out for compression tests at 683 K at a strain rate of 5×10^{-4} s⁻¹. Figure 3 shows the effect on R of the duration of the heat treatment before compression. Compared to what was observed at 646 K, there is a relatively short steady state before the increase of the flow stress. Two hardening domains (before and after about 2200 s) can be distinguished where the slopes are different. Hardening can be very important since a value of R \approx 300 can be measured between 300 s and 3000 s. The curves in figure 3 confirms that strain is not the parameter which controls the variation of the mechanical properties of the alloy since various annealing times before deformation (300 s, 900 s 1500 s and 2050 s) were

performed without changing neither the reinforcement factor nor the change in the variation with time of this factor. In other words, the reinforcement factor after a given time appears to be controlled by the total time spent at 683 K and not by the strain level.

[Insert figure 3 here: Reinforcement factor vs. time at 683 K and $5 x 10^{-4}~s^{-1}$ for various incubation times at 683 K: 300 s, 900 s, 1500 s and 2050 s]

4. Discussion

4.1. Crystallization at 683 K and 646 K

4.1.1. Nature and size of the crystallites. As previously mentioned, important strain hardening has been already reported in the case of BMG and particularly for the Vit1 alloy [10]. Such stress hardening was mainly attributed to crystallization and phase separation effects. To get information about the crystallization kinetics at the investigated temperatures, DSC analyses at a heating rate of 10 K/min. were carried out on the as cast sample and on two samples heat treated at 646 K for 1800 s (corresponding to the time for which strain hardening starts when the glass is deformed at this temperature) and 7200 s respectively. The resulting DSC curves are shown in figure 4a. In the amorphous state, three exothermic peaks respectively at 710 K, 729 K and 777 K are observed after the SLR. These peaks are associated to three distinct crystallization events, knowing that the first one can also include phase separation [22,23]. After the holding time of 1800 s at 646 K, the first crystallization peak has been shifted to a lower temperature and has also been reduced whereas after 7200 s the first peak has totally disappeared. One can note that despite some slight variations in characteristic temperatures of the two other peaks with the holding time at 646 K, the associated crystallization energies remains roughly unchanged. Similar analyses were carried out after treatments performed at 683 K and the results are shown in figure 4b for two durations of treatments: 1200 s and 3600 s. After 1200 s, the first crystallization peak has disappeared while the crystallization energies for the two other ones remain roughly unchanged. Finally, after 3600 s, only the third peak is present. A longer heat treatment at this temperature has no major effect on the third crystallization peak. These observations confirm the idea that the increase of viscosity which has been detected during compression tests is due to the microstructural changes in the Vit1 during isothermal annealing at 646 K and 683K, including phase separation and nanocristallyzation.

[Insert figure 4a here: DSC curves at a heating rate of 10K/mn of the as cast sample and of samples annealed 1800 s and 7200 s at 646K] [Insert figure 4b here: DSC curves at a heating rate of 10K/mn of the as cast sample and of samples annealed 1200 s and 3600 s at 683 K]]

Figure 5ab display bright field TEM observations after isothermal treatment for 600 s and 2700 s at 683 K. After 600 s, dispersed crystals can already be observed with an average size of 30 nm (the particle size distribution appearing relatively narrow) whereas after a holding time of 2700 s, the number of crystals increases but without significant change of the average size. Figure 5b suggests that even after a holding time of 2700 s at 683 K, the crystal volume fraction is high but the alloy is not fully crystallized. Figure 5c displays a dark field TEM observation of a sample annealed 7200 s at 646 K, suggesting the presence of nanocrystals with a mean size less than 10 nm in the amorphous matrix. This size is in agreement with measurements carried out by Löffler et *al.* [23], who concluded that the size was constant up to about 6 hours of maintain at this temperature.

[Insert figure 5a here: Bright field TEM observations of a sample heat treated at 683 K for 600 s]

[Insert figure 5b here: Bright field TEM observations of a sample heat treated at 683 K for 2700 s] [Insert figure 5c here: Dark Field TEM observation of a sample annealed 7200 s at 646 K]

Figure 6 shows the variations of the XRD profiles with the isothermal holding time at 683 K. After 600 s, some small peaks can be detected suggesting that crystallization process has started, which is in agreement with the TEM observation (figure 5.a) and with the hardening observed during the compression tests carried out at this temperature. After 1200 s, crystallization is more obvious since three significant peaks can be identified. These peaks are attributed to an icosahedral phase [22]. For longer holding times (t \geq 1800 s), additional peaks are detected, revealing in particular the presence of Be₂Zr and Zr₂Cu crystals [22,24,25]. One can note that the icosahedral phase is still present after 3600 s, as confirmed by the high resolution TEM observation coupled with its Fourier transform shown in figure 7ab, where the typical five field symmetry of I-structure can be observed.

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[Insert figure 6 here: XRD spectra after various maintains at 683K]
[Insert figure 7a here: High resolution TEM observation of a crystallite
after a holding time of 3600 s at 683 K]
[Insert figure 7b here: Associated Fast Fourier Transform showing an
icosahedral structure of the crystallite after a holding time of 3600 s at
683 K]
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4.1.2. Volume fraction of crystallites. In order to achieve a quantitative analysis of the reinforcement induced by the presence of nanocrystallites in the studied metallic glass, it is necessary to measure as accurately as possible the volume fraction of nanocrystals. Usually, this fraction is calculated by differential scanning calorimetry analyses [7,26,27] according to:

$$f_{v} = \int_{0}^{t} H(t)dt / \int_{0}^{\infty} H(t)dt$$
⁽¹⁾

where H(t) is the released heat flux. This equation assumes that the enthalpy of crystallization does not change with the degree of crystallization and that only one kind of crystals dominates the crystallization process. It also assumes that the alloy is fully crystallized at the end of the transformation, those assumptions being often experimentally not satisfied.

Other techniques like for instance density or resistivity measurements can be used but they require to know associated characteristics of the crystallites, which are frequently unknown [28]. One fruitful way to obtain information about the volume fraction of crystallites in partially crystallized metallic glasses is based on the integrated intensity of the X-ray diffraction pattern, as shown by Wesseling et *al.* [29]. This technique of quantification was performed in the present investigation and despite the small size of the crystallites, the deduced values were validated by a comparison with the values derived from TEM dark field observations of the partially crystallized samples [30]. The corresponding values of the volume fraction f_v of crystals are given in table 1 for the XRD patterns of figure 6 and for an annealing time of 7200 s at 646 K.

[Insert table 1 here: Variation of crystal volume fraction calculated thanks to the XRD patterns with maintains time at 683 K and for 7200s at 646 K (errors are due to the area calculation in the XRD patterns)]

4.1.3. Effect of deformation on crystallization? Before analyzing the various causes of the viscosity increase during deformation, one must wonder about the effect of deformation on crystallization since, as already mentioned, such effects have been reported for various BMGs. Figure 8 displays XRD patterns of samples heat treated for 3600 s at 683 K, one under

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deformation carried out at 5×10^{-4} s⁻¹ and the other one in static conditions (i.e. no deformation). The two patterns are very similar with the same main peaks, suggesting no detectable effect of deformation on the nature of the crystallites. Moreover, the calculated volume fraction of crystallites corresponding to these XRD patterns show no significant differences since in both cases, a value of $f_{\nu} \approx 0.45$ is measured. This value is in agreement with the DSC scans (at 10 K/min) shown in figure 9. These scans correspond to four samples heat treated at 683 K for two durations (1800 s and 2500 s), in both static (i.e. no deformation) and dynamic (deformed at a strain rate of 5×10^{-4} s⁻¹) conditions. For the two durations, the curves associated with static and dynamic conditions appear quite similar: two peaks are systematically detected. The first peak corresponds to the remaining of the second crystallization event in the amorphous sample and the second one is due to the third crystallization peak in the amorphous sample. Some differences in the peak temperatures can be nevertheless detected for the samples annealed 1800 s. One can also note a slight difference between static and dynamic conditions in the remaining crystallization energy of the first remaining peak. For the two studied durations, the remaining energy of the non deformed sample is a little bit smaller suggesting that strain slightly reduces the crystallization kinetics. In the present study, the loss of the thermal stability of the glass is associated with the production of quasi-crystals. Since quasi-crystallization is expected to be promoted by the presence of an icosahedral short range order (ISRO), if viscous flow increases structural disorder, it may hinder this quasi-crystallization. Such effect has been previously reported in the case of Zr₆₅Al_{7.5}Ni₁₀Cu_{12.5}Pd₅ BMG deformed by compression in the SLR [16]. These analyses support the idea that deformation in the investigated experimental domain has only a marginal effect on crystallization in the studied alloy. It also confirms the results (figure 2c and 3) that stress (or viscosity) level after a given time appears to be controlled by the total spent time at the temperature of deformation and not by the strain level.

[Insert figure 8 here: XRD spectra of two samples deformed and undeformed during 3600 s at 683 K] [Insert figure 9 here: DSC scans of samples deformed at 5×10^{-4} s⁻¹ and undeformed at 683K during respectively 1800 s and 2500 s]

4.3. Reinforcement effects due to partial crystallization

Various mechanical models can be used to predict the reinforcement effect resulting from the increase of particle volume fraction in a viscous medium. However, these models generally require hypotheses related to the characteristics of both the particles and the matrix. Concerning particles, rounded shapes and rigidity are frequently assumed. In the present study, TEM observations of partially crystallized samples before and after large strains ($\varepsilon \approx 1.5$) at high temperature did not reveal any significant change in the morphology of the crystallites [30]. This suggests consequently that the crystallites can be considered as rigid particles for the studied conditions of deformation. Moreover, as previously mentioned, quite spherical crystallites are also observed by TEM. Concerning the matrix, it is generally assumed that its characteristics do not vary when the volume fraction of particles increases. In the present case, since the change in particle volume fraction results from crystallization processes, it is of prime importance to get information about a possible change of the composition of the residual amorphous phase. Indeed, such a change can contribute to harden the alloy. For instance, if Tg increases because of a change in the composition, it will induce a decrease of the ratio T/Tg at the given temperature of deformation. A change of the glass transition temperature can be associated to a progressive solute enrichment of the residual amorphous phase during crystallization. Some authors have suggested that beryllium could be rejected from the growing crystals in Vit1 [25,31], since beryllium enrichment tends to increase Tg in ZrTiCuNiBe BMG [32]. In the present investigation, as illustrated by the DSC curves (figures 4a and 4b), only very slight increases of T_g were measured after maintains at 646 K or 683 K, typically less than 3 or 4 K. One must however indicate that for long maintains at 683 K (typically longer than 1800 s, measuring T_g was no longer possible. If the measured apparent activation energy Q_{app} of the Newtonian viscosity for the amorphous alloy is taken into account, such a change of T_g would result in a reinforcement coefficient of about 1.3. It means that this matrix effect remains limited for the studied metallic glass in the selected conditions of deformation.

These comments suggest that simple mechanical models can be reasonably used to predict the reinforcement effect resulting from partial crystallization of the studied BMG. The simplest one is probably the Einstein relationship for which the reinforcement factor R associated to a composite with a crystal volume fraction f_y is given by:

$$R = \frac{\sigma}{\sigma_0} = (1 + 2.5f_V) \tag{2}$$

with σ the flow stress of the composite and σ_0 the flow stress corresponding to the as-provided glass. This relationship has been frequently used in the case of partially crystallized BMGs [10,14]. However, relation (2) leads to very limited reinforcement effect compared to those measured experimentally in this work. For instance, a reinforcement coefficient less than 1.5 is predicted by relation (2) when $f_v \approx 0.15$. Such a volume fraction of crystallites is roughly measured after 7200 s of maintain at 646 K (either in static conditions or during continuous straining) and results in a reinforcement factor close to 7. Similar conclusions can be also drawn for other values of f_v . Therefore the Einstein's relationship is probably not adapted to account for the reinforcement due to crystallization in the studied metallic glass, even for relatively small values of f_v (typically $f_v < 0.2$).

A more general (but less simple) relationship to describe the mechanical behavior of a suspension of particles in a viscous matrix, is given by [33,34], noting that for small crystal volume fraction, this equation is equal to the Einstein's relationship:

$$R = \left[1 - \frac{\phi_V^{eff}}{\phi_V^{max}}\right]^{-2.5\phi_V^{max}} \tag{3}$$

with ϕ_v^{eff} the effective volume fraction of particles and ϕ_v^{max} the maximum packing fraction. ϕ_v^{max} depends on the size and shape distribution of the particles. In the case of randomly dispersed spherical particles with the same diameter, ϕ_v^{max} corresponds to the random close packing (RCP) value, namely $\phi_v^{max} \approx 0.64$. Since in the present investigation, the crystallites are nearly spherical with a narrow size distribution, this assumption is expected to be satisfied. In the present work, as a first approximation, ϕ_v^{eff} is supposed to be equal to f_v . Under this assumption, figure 10 compares the variation with the crystallite volume fraction of both the experimental reinforcement factor (for testing carried out at 683 K) and the factor predicted by relation (3). Except for $f_v = 0.07$ for which the two values are in relatively good agreement, the experimental reinforcement factor is for instance nearly 90 times greater that what is predicted. <u>One must</u> noted that the simplicity of the model is not the cause for this large discrepancy since, as demonstrated by Wolff et al. [26] in a Mg based BMG, more sophisticated analyses lead to similar discrepancy.

[Insert figure 10 here: Curves represent the reinforcement factor versus the crystallized volume fraction according to the Krieger's model with or without modified matrix around the crystals. A modified matrix layer of 4 nm is assumed in the left case. The filled squares represent the lower bound of the reinforcement factor in Newtonian regime during the compression tests at 683K

with an incubation time of 300 s. Values are given for various annealing times: 600 s, 1200 s, 1800 s and 2700 s]

One must keep in mind that relations (2) and (3) are valid only for matrix displaying a Newtonian rheology (i.e. constant viscosity with various strain rates). One can wonder whether such a rheology still holds as far as the glass crystallizes. In order to get information about the rheology of the partially crystallized alloy, strain rate jump tests were carried out on pre-treated alloys. However, at 683 K, the continuous crystallization does not allow performing strain rate jumps after various annealing times with a constant microstructure. Consequently, only tests at 646 K were carried out. The variation of the apparent viscosity with the strain rate for an alloy pre-treated during 7200 s at 646 K is displayed by figure 11 and compared to the behaviour of the glass in as-provided conditions. The viscosities corresponding to the continuous deformation experiment at this temperature are also shown on figure 11 and suggest again that deformation does not affect significantly crystallization in the present studied conditions. The comparison between the as-provided and the pre-annealed alloy clearly shows that, whereas the behaviour is Newtonian for the as cast sample and for applied strain rates lower than 3×10^{-4} s⁻¹, the viscosity is no longer constant with strain rate when the glass is pre-annealed for 7200 s at 646 K. This change in rheology means that the reinforcement factor which is experimentally measured is probably lower than what would be measured if a Newtonian regime could be preserved despite the crystallization process. In other words, the underestimation of the reinforcement factors predicted by relation (3) compared to the experimental ones is probably even greater than what is displayed by figure 10.

[Insert figure 11 here: Relation between viscosity and strain rate at 646K in compression for the as cast sample and for the samples annealed 7200s at 646K with and without deformation]

Such underestimation of the values predicted by relation (3) compared to the experimental reinforcement factors can be related to the hypothesis $\phi_{P}^{eff} = f_{v}$. For instance, it is known that geometrical percolation of particles can occur for particle volume fraction close to 0.16 in the case of spherical particles with the same diameter and randomly distributed in a given matrix. However, such a geometrical percolation does not systematically induce a "mechanical" percolation. Indeed, in order to get a "mechanical" percolation, interfacial bonds between the particles are needed and the effect on the mechanical behavior of the composites will be directly related to the strength of the interfaces. In the present investigation, if a geometrical percolation cannot be excluded (despite the fact that crystal clustering is not observed by TEM), it is not expected to result in a significant "mechanical" percolation because crystallites appear spherical and without well established grain- (or phase-) boundaries between them. Moreover, if a skeleton of crystallites is assumed, it is expected to induce apparent strain softening in the first strain steps resulting from its breakdown. Such behaviors were not observed for the partially crystallized samples in the studied experimental conditions as shown in figure 2c and 3.

 ϕ_{v}^{eff} may also differ from f_v if some volumes of matrix are triggered in particle agglomerates or if the matrix in the direct vicinity of the particles displays specific mechanical properties. Such concepts have been already pointed out in the case of particles agglomerates considering that the matrix which is triggered in such agglomerates cannot contribute efficiently to the macroscopic strain [34]. Changes in mechanical behavior of the glass located at the vicinity of the particles have been already reported to explain the unusual reinforcement observed for polymers reinforced by nanoparticles [35,36]. For such nanocomposites, it has been suggested that the macromolecular chains which are anchored on the particle surface could have a reduced mobility compared to the bulk matrix [37], an effect which can be huge in the case of nanometric particles. If a similar hypothesis is considered in the present work, the experimental

reinforcements can be described by relation (3) as illustrated by figure 10, which displays also the predicted reinforcement under the assumption of a thickness of non-deformable matrix around each nanocrystal equal to 4 nm. This curve supports the idea that such effect could account for the reinforcement observed in the partially crystallized BMG even if the origin of such an effect in metallic glasses remains an open question.

5. Conclusion

The interactions between deformation and crystallization were investigated in a bulk metallic glass (Vit1). In the studied conditions, it is shown that the effect of crystallization on the flow stress at high temperature depends mainly on the time spent at the given temperature without significant strain effect. The crystallization was studied by different techniques and the volume fraction of crystals was measured using the XRD patterns for various heat treatments. According to a cross analysis of data, we conclude that the deformation does not change significantly the volume fraction of crystal, the crystal composition neither the crystal size.

The crystallization (in static or dynamic annealing) leads to a strong reinforcement effect which cannot be explained by a dispersion of rigid particles in an amorphous matrix. Additional reinforcement possible origins were discussed: change in residual glass, contribution of the crystals to deformation, connection between particles and nanometer crystallites size effect were proposed. It finally seems that this effect is mainly due to the nanometric size of the crystals and could be taken into account by introducing a non deformable amorphous layer around each crystallite.

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TABLE

Temperature (K)		646			
Annealing time (s)	600	1200	1800	2700	7200
f_{v}	0.07 ± 0.03	0.17 ± 0.03	0.27 ± 0.03	0.32 ± 0.03	0.16 ± 0.04

Table I

Variation of crystal volume fraction calculated thanks to the XRD patterns with maintains time at 683 K and for 7200s at 646 K (errors are due to the area calculation in the XRD patterns).

<image>

FIGURES

Figure 1: Viscosity vs. strain rate in compression for the amorphous alloy at various temperatures

Figure 2a: Flow stress vs. strain at 646 K for various strain rates **Figure 2b:** Apparent viscosity vs. time at 646 K for various strain rates **Figure 2c:** Reinforcement factor vs. time curves at 646 K and $1.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for various incubation times at 646 K: 300 s, 3600 s and 7200 s

Figure 3: Reinforcement factor vs. time curves at 683 K and 5×10^{-4} s⁻¹ for various incubation times at 683 K: 300 s, 900 s, 1500 s and 2050 s

Figure 4a: DSC curves at a heating rate of 10K/mn of the as cast sample, and of samples annealed 1800 s and 7200 s at 646K.

Figure 4b: DSC curves at a heating rate of 10K/mn of the as cast sample, and of samples annealed 1200 s and 3600 s at 683 K.

Figure 5a: Bright field TEM observations of a sample heat treated at 683 K for 600 s **Figure 5b:** Bright field TEM observations of a sample heat treated at 683 K for 2700 s **Figure 5c:** Dark Field TEM observation of a sample annealed 7200 s at 646 K

Figure 6: XRD spectra after various holding times at 683K.

Figure 7a: High resolution TEM observation of a crystallite after a holding time of 3600 s at 683 K

Figure 7b: Associated Fast Fourier Transform showing an icosahedral structure of the crystallite after a holding time of 3600 s at 683 K

Figure 8: XRD spectra of two samples deformed and undeformed during 3600 s at 683 K

Figure 9: DSC scans of samples deformed at a strain rate of 5×10^{-4} s⁻¹ and undeformed at 683K during respectively 1800 s and 2500 s

Figure 10: Curves representing the reinforcement factor versus the crystallized volume fraction according to the Krieger's model with or without modified matrix around the crystals. A modified matrix layer of 4 nm is assumed in the left case.

The filled squares represent the lower bound of the reinforcement factor in Newtonian regime during the compression tests at 683K with an incubation time of 300s. Values are given for various annealing times: 600s, 1200s, 1800s and 2700s.

Figure 11: Relation between viscosity and strain rate at 646K in compression for the as cast sample and for the samples annealed 7200s at 646K with and without deformation.





Figure 1

Viscosity vs. strain rate in compression for the amorphous alloy at various temperatures

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Figure 2b :

Apparent viscosity vs. time at 646 K for various strain rates



Figure 2c:

d 1.5x10⁻⁴ s⁻¹ ft Reinforcement factor vs. time curves at 646 K and 1.5×10^{-4} s⁻¹ for various incubation times at 646 K: 300 s, 3600 s and 7200 s



Figure 3

.x10⁴ s¹ for Reinforcement factor vs. time curves at 683 K and 5x10⁻⁴ s⁻¹ for various incubation times at 683 K: 300 s, 900 s, 1500 s and 2050 s



Figure 4a

DSC curves at a heating rate of 10K/mn for the as cast sample, and for samples annealed 1800 s and 7200 s at 646K.



Figure 4b

DSC curves at a heating rate of 10K/mn of the as cast sample, and of samples annealed 1200 s .. and 3600 s at 683 K.



Figure 5a:

<image><image> Bright field TEM observations of a sample heat treated at 683 K for 600 s



Figure 5b:

Bright field TEM observations of a sample heat treated at 683 K for 2700 s

<text>





Figure 5c:

Dark Field TEM observation of a sample annealed 7200 s at 646 K





XRD spectra after various holding times at 683K.





<text> Figure 7a High resolution TEM observation of a crystallite after a holding time of 3600 s at 683 K



Figure 7b: Associated Fast Fourier Transform showing an icosahedral structure of the crystallite after a holding time of 3600 s at 683 K





XRD spectra of two samples deformed and undeformed during 3600 s at 683 K



Figure 9

DSC scans of samples deformed at a strain rate of 5x10⁻⁴ s⁻¹ and undeformed at 683K during respectively 1800 s and 2500 s

Page 29 of 30



Figure 10

Curves represent the reinforcement factor versus the crystallized volume fraction according to the Krieger's model with or without modified matrix around the crystals. A modified matrix layer of 4 nm is assumed in the left case.

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Figure 11

Relation between viscosity and strain rate at 646K in compression for the as cast sample and for the samples annealed 7200s at 646K with deformation (dynamic) and without deformation (static).