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# Dynamic mechanical response of ZrCu-based bulk metallic glasses

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## Abstract

The thermal stability and the dynamic mechanical relaxation behavior of  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{100-x}\text{Dy}_x$  (at.%) ( $x=0$  or  $2$ ) metallic glasses were investigated by differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) and dynamic mechanical analysis (DMA). In the case of the  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{100-x}\text{Dy}_x$  ( $x=0$  or  $2$ ) metallic glasses, atomic mobility increases by introduction of the Dy element. The activation energy of the the main  $\alpha$  relaxation process and fragility index were discussed according to the DMA measurements. With the help of the time-temperature superposition (TTS) principle, the master curves of the model alloys were established, the Kohlrausch-Williams-Watts (KWW) function and quasi-point defects (QPD) theory were used to describe the master curves of the metallic glasses. The characteristic parameters related to microstructural heterogeneity in the KWW equation and the QPD model, Kohlrausch exponent  $\beta_{\text{KWW}}$  and the correlation factor  $\chi$  were evaluated. In parallel, the elastic, viscoelastic and viscoplastic responses of the model alloys have been analyzed based on the DMA results. Our investigations demonstrated that introduction of the Dy increases the structure heterogeneity of the  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{100-x}\text{Dy}_x$  ( $x=0$  or  $2$ ) glassy system, which plays an important role in tailoring the dynamic relaxation behavior and mechanical properties of the metallic glasses.

**Keywords:** Metallic glass; Mechanical relaxation process; Microstructure heterogeneity; Quasi-point theory; Physical aging

## 1. Introduction

As a new class of metallic materials, metallic glasses (MGs) are well accepted to have potential for wide application as engineering and functional materials due to their unique physical/mechanical properties, such as the high strength and large elastic limit [1-8]. The physical properties of MGs strongly depending on its internal structural state at atomic level. It is well accepted that the metallic glasses are often stay in out of equilibrium (more disorderly) and always evolve very slowly to a more equilibrium state (more orderly) at ambient temperature in a rugged and tortuous

energy landscape due to the random long range atomic structure [9-11]. Compared with the traditional metallic alloys, metallic glasses are absence of defects in metals, i.e. voids, dislocations as well as grain boundaries. How to establish the correlation between the “defects” and mechanical/physical properties is one of challenging issues of metallic glasses [12, 13]. Many experiments and simulations have demonstrated that metallic glasses are heterogeneous structure at micro-nano scale regions [2, 14-16]. Typically, the microstructure of the metallic glasses can be regarded as liquid-like region and solid-like region [17-19]. Mechanical and physical properties of metallic glass were inherited from the supercooled glass-forming liquid. Especially, it is well documented that dynamic mechanical relaxation behavior is a key topic to understand the the structural heterogeneity of metallic glasses [20, 21].

Dynamic mechanical analysis (DMA) (also called mechanical spectroscopy) is an powerful technique to obtain the informations on the atomic or molecular movements of glassy materials during the deformation process under a sinusoidal stress [22, 23]. According to the amplitudes of the stress, strain and phase lag, one can obtain some fundamental parameters, such as storage modulus, loss modulus and internal friction factor, et al. [24-26]. Benefitting from the advantages, DMA was widely used to probe the  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  relaxation processes of the galssy solids. Importantly, as proposed by Johari and Goldstein, the dynamic behaviour of metallic glasses is characterized by two phenomenons: (i) JG relaxation or  $\beta$  relaxation process, which is linked to the local movement of the atoms/molecules. The  $\beta$  relaxiaton is areversible process, and (ii) the mian  $\alpha$  relaxation, which is related to large scale irreversible arrangement of atoms or molecules [27]. The dynamic relaxation modes provide an important route to probe “defects” and to understand the corresponding the relation between structure and property of metallic glass [12, 13]. Additionally, the glass main  $\alpha$  relaxation process corresponds to the dynamic glass transition phenomenon [5, 28]. It should be stressed that  $\beta$  relaxation process is the main relaxation mode of the glassy solids. [29]. It has been proposed that the  $\beta$  relaxation should be explained by the translational motion of atoms localized in loosely packed regions. This description certainly assumes that  $\beta$  relaxation intrinsically correlates with and structurally

originates from structural heterogeneity of metallic glasses [18, 19, 30].

Potential energy landscape (PEL) theory proposed by Debenedetti and Stillinger, the  $\beta$  relaxation behavior has been interpreted as stochastically activated hopping events through “subbasins”, while the  $\alpha$  relaxation corresponds to the irreversible hopping across various landscape megabasins [31]. As initially proposed by Argon the deformation of MGs results from the cooperative shear motion of local arrangements involving tens of hundred atoms, namely shear transformation zones (STZs) [32, 33]. In addition, it has been observed that the activation energy of the  $\beta$  relaxation is nearly the same as the potential energy barriers of STZs [34]. Therefore, the dynamic relaxation behavior is intrinsic linked to the deformation mechanism of glassy solids. Johnson and Samwer proposed that isolated events of the STZs confined within the elastic matrix are linked to the  $\beta$  relaxation process, while percolation of these STZs leads to the collapse of the confining matrix and breakdown of elasticity are associated with the  $\alpha$  relaxation [10, 35]. Therefore, understanding of dynamic relaxation behavior is important issue for probing the nature of metallic glass, microscopic structural heterogeneity, physical aging, deformation mechanism and the mechanical properties. It is well known that physical properties of these dynamic relaxation modes depend on the chemical composition of the metallic glasses. According to previous researches, micro-alloying is an effective way to tune the mechanical behavior and relaxation process [25, 36-40]. For instance, Yu et al. reported that the intensity of  $\beta$  relaxation is suppressed by the introduction of aluminum in a  $\text{Cu}_{45}\text{Zr}_{45}\text{Al}_{10}$  metallic glasses [29]. The relaxation behavior of ZrCu-based metallic glasses can also be modified by introducing hydrogen:  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  relaxation shift to higher temperature region with a lower intensity, and a  $\beta'$  relaxation occurs with relative higher intensity [38]. These samples with minor addition of hydrogen element exhibit a higher density of “soft spots”, which promotes the nucleation and occurrence of multiple shear bands. As a consequence, plasticity of the metallic glasses could be ameliorated. It is widely known that “soft spots” of the metallic glasses correspond to the loose-packed zones, which are easily to initiate local arrangements. Previous literatures have pointed out that  $\beta$  relaxation

process is connected with these loose-packed zones [2, 41, 42]. Furthermore, it has been demonstrated that by the addition of Dysprosium (Dy) of  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$  glassy system, the  $\beta$  relaxation process becomes more evident and the compressive plasticity is enhanced to some extent, which is ascribed to the improvement of concentration of the “defects” of metallic glasses [25].

Many theoretical models have been developed to probe the deformation mechanism and physical properties of amorphous materials i.e. free volume theory [43-45], flow units model [46, 47] as well as interstitialcy theory [48, 49]. Free volume is defined as the excess volume compared to an ideal disordered atomic configuration of maximum density. Different from the free volume model, the interstitialcy theory was originally proposed by Granato [48, 49]. It is widely accepted that interstitials reside in a split configuration and sharing a lattice site with another atom. In addition, flow units can be regarded as nanoscale regions which correspond to pseudo “defects” in metallic glasses [21, 47]. Unlike the elastic matrix, the nanoscale flow units show lower elastic moduli, higher energy state and lower hardness. In parallel, Perez et al. assumed that the glass structure consists of packed atoms with regions of enthalpy or entropy fluctuations [50-52]. These regions are called quasi point defects (QPD). Compared to the crystals, a lower density region can be seen as a vacancy, while a higher density region is comparable to an interstitial. The QPD determine the atomic or molecular mobility through hierarchically correlated atoms arrangements. The QPD theory refers to a conceptual scenario for the atomic rearrangements occurring in favoured sites (defects) that are rich of free volume and responsible for the non-elastic deformation. These movements can be dissociated in anelastic (reversible) and viscoplastic (permanent) contribution [53]. Focusing on the oxide glass and amorphous polymers, tremendous researches have been devoted to the non-linear mechanical response to mechanical loading [22, 53, 54]. In principle, their non-linear mechanical response is associated with the processes characterized by a strong dependence on the temperature, strain rate and the intrinsic internal heterogeneous atomic structure [19, 22, 54]. Therefore, modelling approaches are needed to describe the feature behavior in order to allow us to predict or design the

function of metallic glass under the current circumstance of poor plasticity.

Micro-alloying is an important way to tune the mechanical properties of the metallic glasses [25, 38, 39]. Furthermore, it has been demonstrated that by the addition of dysprosium (Dy) of  $\text{Cu}_{46}\text{Zr}_{43}\text{Al}_7\text{Dy}_4$  glassy system, the  $\beta$  relaxation process becomes more evident and the compressive plasticity was enhanced to some extent, which is ascribed to the improvement of concentration of the “defects” of metallic glasses [25]. In the present study, the dynamic mechanical relaxation processes of  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{100-x}\text{Dy}_x$  ( $x=0$  or  $2$ ) metallic glasses were investigated by DMA. In the framework of the QPD theory, dynamic mechanical behavior of the model alloys were described. The experimental results suggested that introduction of the Dy increases the structure heterogeneity of the  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{100-x}\text{Dy}_x$  ( $x=0$  or  $2$ ) metallic glasses. It should be emphasized that micro-alloying is an important technique to tailor the dynamic relaxation modes of metallic glasses.

## 2. Experiment procedure

The samples with nominal composition  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{100-x}\text{Dy}_x$  ( $x=0$  or  $2$ ) were prepared by the arc-melting technique. Master-alloy ingots were first prepared using a mixture of high purity (99.99%) Zr, Cu, Al and Dy elements in an argon atmosphere. The master alloy was re-melted at least five times to ensure the chemical homogeneity of the model alloys. Metallic glass plates with a thickness of 2 mm were prepared by copper mould casting technique.

X-ray diffraction (XRD) was conducted to confirm the glassy nature by  $\text{Cu K}\alpha$  radiation produced by a Bruker D8 advance X-ray diffractometer at room temperature. The specimens were checked by Transmission electron microscopy (TEM, FEI Titan G3) with probe and image Cs correctors. TEM specimens were cut from the samples and ion milled using a Gatan 695 device. Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) experiments were performed through a commercial instrument (DSC, PerkinElmer) at a heating rate of 10 K/min in a high purity dry nitrogen atmosphere. The glass transition temperature and the onset crystallization temperature were determined based on the DSC curve.

Plate samples were cut with approximate dimensions 30 (length)  $\times$  2.0 (width)  $\times$  1.0 mm (thickness) by an electric discharge machine, then polished by 2000 grit SiC paper. Finally, the samples were sonicated in a methanol bath to remove surface contaminants. The dynamic relaxation behavior of metallic glasses was investigated using two different DMA devices, i.e. a commercial device (DMA, Q800, TA, USA) and a home-made inverted torsion instrument with a vacuum environment in INSA de Lyon [55]. The first one uses tensile stress, leading to the determination of the Young modulus ( $E$ ), while in the second one a shear stress is applied and the shear modulus ( $G$ ) is deduced. A periodic stress is applied  $\sigma = \sigma_0 \sin(\omega t)$ , where  $\omega$  is the angular frequency. The complex modulus  $E^*$ , which can be defined as  $E' + iE''$ , and shear modulus,  $G^* = G' + iG''$ , can be deduced from  $\sigma/\varepsilon$ , where  $E'$  and  $G'$  are the storage modulus,  $E''$  and  $G''$  are the loss modulus. Consequently, the loss factor, also termed as internal friction,  $\tan \delta = E''/E'$  or  $\tan \delta = G''/G'$  can be determined. It should be noted here that  $\tan \delta$  is related to the energy loss per load cycle:  $\tan \delta = 1/2\pi(\Delta W/W)$ , where the energy loss  $\Delta W$  is caused by the movement of atoms during relaxation process. Two different kinds of experiments were performed: (i) Isochronal tests were conducted with a single cantilever mode at a heating rate of 3 K/min and a driving frequency of 1 Hz on the DMA Q800. (ii) Isothermal experiments were carried on the home-made inverted torsion instrument with various frequency from 0.01 to 2 Hz (the temperature interval is 5 K).

### 3. Experimental results and discussions

#### 3.1 Structural and thermal properties of the $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{100-x}\text{Dy}_x$ ( $x=0$ or 2) metallic glasses

XRD were performed to check the amorphous nature of the  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{100-x}\text{Dy}_x$  ( $x=0$  or 2) (as-cast state) metallic glasses. As shown in **Fig.1 (a)**, the XRD patterns exhibit a broad maximum with no detectable crystalline Bragg peaks, which suggests that the model alloys are fully amorphous.

The glass transition and crystallization events were determined by DSC, which is shown in **Fig.1 (b)**. In the case of the  $\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10}$  and  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$  bulk



metallic glasses, the glass transition temperature  $T_g$  is 691 K and 683 K, respectively. At the same time, the crystallization temperature of  $Zr_{50}Cu_{40}Al_{10}$  and  $(Zr_{50}Cu_{40}Al_{10})_{98}Dy_2$  is 763 K and 756 K, respectively. It is evident that  $T_g$  is decreased by the addition of Dy. In parallel, in good agreement with other Zr-based metallic glasses, the  $(Zr_{50}Cu_{40}Al_{10})_{100-x}Dy_x$  ( $x=0$  or  $2$ ) bulk metallic glasses show broad super-cooled liquid regions (SLRs) [24, 25]. In addition, as shown in **Fig.2**, the glassy structure was confirmed by the featureless TEM microstructures and the high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) images, of which the corresponding fast Fourier transformation (FFT) patterns only present a diffuse halo, further confirming that the amorphous structure of the model alloys in the current investigations. It should be emphasized that there is no formation of oxide inclusions in the introduction of the rare earth metals of  $(Zr_{50}Cu_{40}Al_{10})_{100-x}Dy_x$  ( $x=0$  or  $2$ ) bulk metallic glasses.

### 3.2 Dynamic mechanical analysis

#### 3.2.1 Isochronal analysis

In order to probe the dynamic mechanical behavior of the  $(Zr_{50}Cu_{40}Al_{10})_{100-x}Dy_x$  ( $x=0$  or  $2$ ) metallic glasses, the samples were heated in the isochronal mode by DMA. **Fig.3 (a)** shows the normalized storage modulus  $E'/E_u$  and the normalized loss modulus  $E''/E_u$  of  $(Zr_{50}Cu_{40}Al_{10})_{98}Dy_2$  metallic glass. Herein, it should be stressed that  $E_u$  is the unrelaxed modulus at the room temperature, which is assumed as the value of the storage modulus at ambient temperature. Evidently, compared with the storage modulus, the contribution of loss modulus during the deformation process at the ambient temperature could be neglected. There are three temperature regions can be observed based on the temperature-heating process of the model alloy (as shown in **Fig.3 (a)**), which is similar to other typical metallic glasses [25, 56]. (I) When the temperature below 630 K, the normalized storage modulus  $E'$  is high and nearly remains constant, while the normalized loss modulus around zero. It suggests that the elastic deformation dominates the deformation process in this temperature domain. As we mentioned in the Introduction section, unlike the La-based metallic glasses [26], there is no pronounced  $\beta$  relaxation peak was observed of the ZrCu-based metallic

glass. (II) When the temperature ranges from 630 K to 740 K, it can be seen that the storage modulus  $E'$  decreases drastically. On the other hand, the loss modulus  $E''$  increases, which reaches the maximum value around 725 K, which corresponds to the  $\alpha$  relaxation of glassy materials. Generally speaking, the  $\alpha$  relaxation process of glasses, which is closely associated with the cooperative movements of the atoms or molecules [23, 25]. (III) When the temperature above 740 K, it is found that the storage modulus  $E'$  and the loss modulus  $E''$  increase sharply, which corresponds to the precipitation of the crystalline phases.

In parallel, dynamic mechanical relaxation processes of metallic glasses is very sensitive to the driving frequency. **Fig.3 (b)** shows the normalized loss modulus of  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$  metallic glass *versus* the temperature at different frequencies (1, 2, 4 and 8 Hz) with a constant heating rate of 3 K/min. The  $\alpha$  relaxation peak shifts to a higher temperature by increasing the driving frequency. The activation energy can be deduced from the correlation between the driving frequency and the characteristic temperature by the Arrhenius equation [52]:

$$f = f_0 \exp\left(-\frac{E_\alpha}{k_B T_p}\right) \quad (1)$$

where  $f$  is the driving frequency,  $f_0$  is a pre-exponential factor,  $E_\alpha$  is the activation energy of the main  $\alpha$  relaxation and  $T_\alpha$  is the characteristic temperature of  $\alpha$  relaxation. As a consequence, the activation energy of the  $\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10}$  and  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$  metallic glasses is 5.73 eV and 5.57 eV, respectively. The results in the current research are in good agreement with the other typical ZrCu-based metallic glasses [56, 57].

In the case of metallic glasses, the dynamic relaxation behavior is closely linked to the fragility parameter [58]. Angell proposed the kinetic fragility  $m$ , which is connected to the slow down of glass transition dynamics and proposed to characterize the deviation from the Arrhenius relationship in the characteristic relaxation time *versus* temperature curve [12, 59]. It is accepted that the concept of fragility has been used to classify the viscosity or the relaxation time of glass forming liquid with temperature approaching the glass transition temperature  $T_g$ , and can be defined by

[59, 60]:

$$m = d \log_{10} \tau_{\alpha} / d(T_g/T) = E_{\alpha} / (RT_g \ln 10) \quad (2)$$

From the  $m$  value we can learn how fast the viscosity decreases near the glass transition temperature  $T_g$  [59]. Typically, the fragility parameter  $m$  of the glassy materials ranges from 16 to 200 [59]. In the current study, the fragility parameter  $m$  is = 41 for  $Zr_{50}Cu_{40}Al_{10}$  metallic glass. Compared with other metallic glasses, four fragile metallic glass formers were chosen:  $Zr_{41.2}Ti_{13.8}Cu_{12.5}Ni_{10}Be_{22.5}$  ( $m=50$ ),  $La_{60}Ni_{15}Al_{25}$  ( $m=51$ ),  $Al_{88}Y_7Fe_5$  ( $m=55$ ) and  $Gd_{55}Co_{25}Al_{20}$  ( $m=74$ ) [9]. It indicates that the current ZrCu-based metallic glass is a stronger glassy system due to the value of fragility parameter  $m$  is lower. We will discuss the information of fragility of glassy solids in the next section. Therefore, following the criteria defined in the reference [50], it is reasonable to believe that ZrCu-based metallic glasses have a dense-packed structure and a high glass-forming ability.

The temperature dependence of the normalized loss modulus  $E''/E_u$  for the  $(Zr_{50}Cu_{40}Al_{10})_{100-x}Dy_x$  ( $x=0$  or  $2$ ) metallic glasses is shown in **Fig.4**. The peak temperature of the normalized loss modulus moves to the lower temperature by the addition of Dy, which is in accordance with the results of glass transition temperature obtained by DSC (which was shown in **Fig.1 (b)**).

It should be noted that the JG relaxation is not clearly observed at the low temperature region [25, 40] (**Fig. 4**). However, there is only broad hump (sometimes referred as excess wings) can be observed around 560-650 K and 575-660 K for  $Zr_{50}Cu_{40}Al_{10}$  and  $(Zr_{50}Cu_{40}Al_{10})_{98}Dy_2$  bulk metallic glasses, respectively [58]. These humps may be considered as large and diffuse JG relaxations (Excess wing). The magnitude of the excess wing is increased by increasing the Dy content. The influence of micro-alloying on the JG relaxation in the  $(Zr_{50}Cu_{40}Al_{10})_{100-x}Dy_x$  ( $x=0$  or  $2$ ) glassy system needs to be addressed from a perspective of mixing enthalpy in metallic glass systems. The JG relaxation is linked to dynamic heterogeneity in metallic glasses, especially a local diffusion in loose-packed isolated regions which are often referred as defects and flow units [9, 18, 23]. The mixing enthalpy of Zr-Cu, Zr-Al, Zr-Dy are

-23, -44 and 8 kJ/mol, while the mixing enthalpy of Cu-Al, Cu-Dy and Al-Dy are -1, -22 and -38 kJ/mol, respectively [61, 62]. According to the empirical rules to determine  $\Delta H_{mix}$ , the mixing enthalpy of the  $(Zr_{50}Cu_{40}Al_{10})_{100-x}Dy_x$  ( $x=0$  or  $2$ ) metallic glasses is -30.88 ( $x=0$ ) and -31.55 ( $x=2$ ), respectively. Therefore, the addition of Dy decreases the mixing enthalpy, which explains the increase in the intensity of the  $\beta$  relaxation, or at least the value of the loss modulus at low temperature. Similar conclusions have been obtained in previous studies [25, 29]. In addition, the peak of the loss factor moves to lower temperature, which agrees with the phenomena observed on the DSC curve, moving to lower temperature in **Fig.1 (b)**.

Perez and his coworkers proposed the quasi-point defect theory, which can be used to describe the mechanical properties of amorphous materials with respect to its microstructure [51, 52, 63, 64]. The atomic rearrangement will preferentially occur at these defect sites, whether in the process of thermal activation or stress activation. **Fig.5 (a)** shows a symbolic scheme of an amorphous solids with the associated defect sites. The effect of a mechanical stimulus such as a shear stress is applied. At the first stage of the deformation, these sites are thermomechanical activated under the mechanical stimulus (as seen in **Fig.5 (b)**), which bring the localized elementary motions of several atoms or molecules, preferentially oriented along the maximum shear plane. It should be noted that these atomic rearrangements are responsible to the second  $\beta$  relaxation process of amorphous solids [29]. The nucleation and growth from these sheared micro domains are responsible to the onset of the inelastic response of the glassy materials (as shown in **Fig.5 (c)**). When the applied stress is long enough, new sheared micro domains are nucleated (as seen in **Fig.5 (d)**), which causes plastic deformation by the coalescence of shear micro domains. The dynamic relaxation behavior is generally related to atomic or molecular motions and the relaxation time is temperature dependence. As described in earlier reports [65, 66], the hierarchical correlation of dynamic relaxation leads to the following expression for the mean time  $\tau_{mol}$ , which characterizes the atomic mobility as:

$$\tau_{mol} = t_0 \left( \frac{\tau_\beta}{t_0} \right)^{1/\chi} \quad (3)$$

where  $\tau_{mol}$  corresponds to the mean duration of the movement of a structural unit over distance equal to its dimension.  $\tau_\beta$  is the mean time of the thermally activated jump of structural units and follows an Arrhenius law:

$$\tau_\beta = \tau_{0\beta} \exp\left(\frac{U_\beta}{kT}\right) \quad (4)$$

where  $U_\beta$  is the apparent activation energy for the movements of structural units and is then related to the  $\beta$  relaxation mode of glassy solids.  $t_0$  is a scaling factor and  $\chi$  is a correlation factor range from 0 to 1:

(I)  $\chi = 0$ : any movement of a structural units requires the motion of all other units (maximum order, corresponding to a perfect crystal).

(II)  $\chi = 1$ : all the movements are independent on each other (maximum disorder, corresponding to a perfect gas). Should note that, **Eq.(4)** only express the thermal activation process, so it can be modified to characterize the mechanical activation [65]:

$$\tau_\beta = \tau_{0\beta} \exp\left(\frac{(U_\beta + \Omega p)\left(1 - \frac{\sigma_{max}}{\sigma_0}\right)^{3/2}}{kT}\right) \quad (5)$$

where  $p$  is the hydrostatic pressure,  $\Omega$  is the shear stress which enables the energy cross-over at 0 K.  $\sigma_{max}$  is the activation shear stress or the maximum shear stress.

Because the correlation parameters are connected to the disordered state, it is reasonable to be related to the microstructure evolution. If one neglects the aging effect and without any external stimulus, the disorder is assumed constant in a “frozen” glass state, whereas it increases linearly with temperature when the temperature rises to the glass transition temperature  $T_g$ . In addition, taking the scenario proposed for atoms rearrangements under an external mechanical stimulus, the disorder parameter must be related to the state of non-elastic strain within the sample. Besides, an increase of the anelastic component corresponds to an increase of the number/size of QPD, i.e., an increase of the disorder. However, the viscoplastic process may provoke the decrease of the disorder due to it leads to the larger scale atomic rearrangements. So, in a frozen or iso-configurational state,  $\chi$  has a constant value, while in a metastable thermodynamic equilibrium,  $\chi$  increases with the temperature

$T$ . The variation of the correlation factor  $\chi$  with the temperature can be expressed by [67]:

$$\chi(T, \gamma) = \chi(T) + a_{ve}\gamma_{ve} - a_{vp}\gamma_{vp} \quad (6-1)$$

$$\chi(T) = \chi(T_g), \quad T < T_g \quad (6-2)$$

$$\chi(T) = \chi(T_g) + a(T - T_g), \quad T > T_g \quad (6-3)$$

where  $a_{ve}$ ,  $a_{vp}$  and  $a$  depend on the material.

The atomic mobility is assisted by the microscopic structure heterogeneity in metallic glass, from the point of the potential energy landscape theory, i.e., nanoscale fluctuations of the entropy or enthalpy. These fluctuations can be described as quasi-point defects (QPD), Their concentration  $C_d$  is temperature dependence and can be evaluated from the Boltzmann statistics [51]:

$$C_d = \left( 1 + \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta S_F}{k}\right) \exp\left(\frac{\Delta H_F}{kT}\right) \right)^{-1} \quad (7)$$

where  $\Delta S_F$  and  $\Delta H_F$  is the function entropy and enthalpy of a QPD, respectively.

According to the concepts mentioned above, the compliance  $J(t)$  is the combination of elastic, anelastic and viscoplastic components of the deformation. In amorphous solids,  $J(t)$  can be described as [54]:

$$J(t) = \frac{1}{G_{el}} + A \left\{ 1 - \exp\left[-\left(\frac{t}{\tau_{mol}}\right)^\chi\right] \right\} + A' \left(\frac{t}{\tau_{mol}}\right) \quad (8)$$

where  $G_{el}$  is the elastic modulus at infinite frequency,  $A$  and  $A'$  are parameters proportional to quasi-point concentration  $C_d$ , thus, also proportional to the anelastic component of the deformation. The description of the dynamic modulus and the frequency can be simply given by the Fourier transform of **Eq.8**, and considering the residual component of the modulus, i.e.,  $G_r = G(\infty)$ :

$$G^*(i\omega) = G_r + \frac{G_{el} - G_r}{1 + \eta(i\omega\tau_{mol})^{-\chi} + (i\omega\tau_{mol})^{-1}} \quad (9)$$

where  $G_u$  is the unrelaxed modulus,  $\eta$  is a numerical factor, near unity, but depending on  $C_d$ ,  $\omega$  is the angular frequency.

Furthermore, Perez et al. [64] have given the expression of the internal friction  $\tan \delta = G''/G'$ :

$$\ln(\tan \delta) = \frac{U_\beta}{kT} - \chi \ln \omega - \chi \ln \tau^* + \ln \eta \quad (10)$$

with:

$$\tau^* = t_0 \left( \frac{\tau_{0\beta}}{t_0} \right)^{1/\chi} \quad (11)$$

When the temperature below the glass transition temperature  $T_g$ , the material is in an iso-configurational state and  $\chi$  is constant. On the other hand, when the temperature above the glass transition temperature  $T_g$  the concentration of defect increases due to a faster diffusion, and therefore  $\chi$  increases. Consequently, one can plots  $\ln(\tan \delta)$  *versus* the reciprocal of the temperature  $1/T$  at a fixed frequency and then get the value of  $U_\beta$ . In a similar method,  $\chi$  can be deduced from the plot of  $\ln(\tan \delta)$  *versus*  $\ln(\omega)$  at a fixed temperature.

**Fig.6** shows the logarithm of internal friction  $\ln(\tan \delta)$  *versus* the reciprocal of the temperature  $1/T$  for the  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{100-x}\text{Dy}_x$  ( $x=0$  or  $2$ ) bulk metallic glasses. Such a plot can be used to determine the glass transition temperature  $T_g$  and crystalline temperature  $T_x$ . In fact, the aforementioned theory has been successfully used by previous researches to analyze viscoelasticity and viscoplasticity behavior in Zr- and Pd-based bulk metallic glasses [68, 69]. The characteristic parameters for both alloys obtained from mechanical spectroscopy analysis based upon the physical model are summarized in the **Table 1**.

**Table1** The characteristic parameters determined by mechanical spectroscopy analysis

Metallic glasses	$T_g$ (K)	$T_x$ (K)	$T_x - T_g$ (K)	$U_\beta$ (eV)
$\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10}$	693	752	59	0.628
$(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$	681	738	57	0.578

As shown in **Table 1**, glass transition temperature  $T_g$ , temperature corresponding to the onset of crystallization  $T_x$  and the range of super-cooled liquid  $\Delta T_x = T_x - T_g$  decrease with Dy element addition, which is consistent with the results of calorimetric analysis. It should be noted that the values of the characteristic temperatures deduced from the dynamic mechanical spectroscopy analysis are very close to that obtained through the DSC curves. It can be clearly seen that the activation energy  $U_\beta$ , which is the height of the energy barrier for the elementary movement related to the  $\beta$

relaxation for the  $\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10}$  and the  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$  metallic glasses is 0.628 and 0.578 eV, respectively. The experimental results demonstrates that the addition of Dy element enhances the atomic mobility, thus decreases the mean time  $\tau_\beta$  and the relaxation time of related  $\beta$  relaxation. Based on the cooperative shear model, the activation energy  $E_\beta$  is equivalent to the potential energy barrier for operating of STZs, a lower activation energy  $E_\beta$  linking to a compliant matrix confinement [10, 70, 71]. Besides, the  $\beta$  relaxation closely relates to the plasticity in metallic glass, which is believed as a thermal-driven percolation process of STZs [34]. It is reported that the STZs prefer to nucleating in the liquid like region [29, 72]. Thus, we can assumed that the lower the activation energy, the more the STZs could be triggered. This in turn will promote the nucleation and propagation of shear bands and potentially improve the plasticity in metallic glasses [38].

### 3.2.2 Physical aging of metallic glass

Kinetics of the structural relaxation in  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$  bulk metallic glass was investigated by performing isothermal DMA measurements with a driving frequency of 1 Hz. **Fig.7** (blue line) shows the loss factor  $\tan \delta$  evolution *versus* annealing time at 625 K in the  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$  bulk metallic glass. The loss factor  $\tan \delta$  decreases sharply with the annealing time, while the storage modulus  $E'$  increases slightly.

Dynamic mechanical relaxation process in amorphous materials presents non-exponential, non-Arrhenius and nonlinear characteristics. It is believed that physical aging below the glass transition temperature can tune the physical and mechanical behaviors of glassy materials [24, 73, 74]. From the perspective of the kinetics, the Kohlrausch-Williams-Watts (KWW) equation was widely used to describe the kinetics of physical aging of amorphous materials based on DSC experimental results as well as DMA experiments [12, 13, 56]. The KWW function is defined as follows [75]:

$$\tan \delta(t = 0) - \tan \delta(t) = A\{1 - \exp[-(t_a/\tau)^{\beta_{aging}}]\} \quad (12)$$



where  $A = \tan \delta(t) - \tan \delta(t \rightarrow \infty)$  is the maximum magnitude of the relaxation.  $t_a$  stands for the aging time,  $\tau$  is characteristic relaxation time and  $\beta_{aging}$  is the Kohlrausch exponent, which ranges from 0 to 1, which is related to the dynamic inhomogeneity [47].

The solid lines in **Fig.6** represents the fitted curve using **Eq. (12)**. The Kohlrausch exponent  $\beta_{aging}$  is around 0.50 when the physical aging temperature is close to the glass transition temperature  $T_g$  of  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$  metallic glass, which is in accordance with previous reported experimental results [24].

The annealed sample has been reheated after the process of physical aging. The inset of **Fig.8 (b)** shows the schematic illustration of the temperature history during the *in-situ* heating process. As shown in **Fig.8 (a)**, the storage modulus of annealed sample is higher than that of the as-cast state. But there is an interesting phenomenon in **Fig.8 (b)**, an evident peak which is like the  $\beta$  relaxation process can be noticed in the annealed metallic glasses [29, 40]. We speculate that it could be due to phase separation during the physical aging process. However, a more detailed scrutinize is required, and it will be reported in the other work. **Fig.9** is the HRTEM image of the annealed sample of  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$  metallic glass. It is evident that there is no formation of nucleation or crystalline phase during the physical aging process of the model alloy. As we discussed in the previous section, it should be noted that the glassy materials are in a non-equilibrium state below the glass transition temperature  $T_g$ . For metallic glasses or other amorphous materials, when the annealing temperature  $T_a$  is below  $T_g$ , the structure of the glassy materials tends towards more stable state [4]. As shown in **Fig.10**, the difference in specific heat capacity,  $\Delta c_p$ , induced by physical aging and as-cast state of  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$  metallic glass. It should be emphasized that the as-cast state shows a noticeable signal of relaxation enthalpy  $\Delta H = (1.61 \pm 0.06) \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  near  $T_g$ , which indicating that the specimen has certain free volume content after suction mold casting. It is reported that the sub- $T_g$  physical aging of glassy materials is accompanied by reduction of free volume, which is closely connected with topological short-range ordering and chemical

short-range ordering [76]. The decrease of the free volume is accompanied by a decrease of the enthalpy of the metallic glass. As a consequence, isothermal annealing below the glass transition temperature leads to a reduction of the free volume up to  $\Delta H = (0.35 \pm 0.04) \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ . Besides, noted that, an increase of the endothermic effect can be observed, which is ascribed to more free volume generation takes place in a relaxed specimen [76].

### 3.2.3 Isothermal frequency scanning analysis

In order to further study the dynamic mechanical relaxation behavior, isothermal frequency scanning experiments were carried out in the  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{100-x}\text{Dy}_x$  ( $x=0$  or 2) metallic glasses (as shown in **Fig.11**). The experimental results could be summarized as follows: (i) At the lower frequency, the storage modulus  $G'$  is low. (ii) The loss modulus  $G''$  shows a peak corresponding to the  $\alpha$  relaxation at high temperature, and it shifts toward to a lower frequency when temperature decreases. (iii) There is no evident JG relaxation behavior according to the loss modulus.

From the prespective of the frequency window, the pronounced peaks wereobserved at high temperature, which corresponds to the main  $\alpha$  relaxation of metallic glasses. This is in line with the results obtained in **Fig.3 (a)**. The characteristic time of the  $\alpha$  relaxation  $\tau_\alpha$  of metallic glass can be obtained from the general relation:  $2\pi f\tau_\alpha = 1$ .

On the basis of the time-temperature superposition (TTS) principle, master curve may be plotted with a reference temperature. The initial curves are shifted by the frequency shift factor  $a_T$  [77, 78]:

$$\ln a_T = \ln \tau - \ln \tau_r \quad (13)$$

where  $\tau$  and  $\tau_r$  are the relaxation times at temperatures  $T$  and the reference temperature  $T_r$ , respectively. The variation of the relaxation time  $\tau$  with temperature may be described using the following equation [78]:

$$\ln a_T = \frac{E_\alpha}{R} \left( \frac{1}{T} - \frac{1}{T_r} \right) \quad (14)$$

where  $R$  is the gas constant and  $E_\alpha$  is the activation energy of the  $\alpha$  relaxation.

**Fig.12** shows the master curves of  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{100-x}\text{Dy}_x$  ( $x=0$  or 2) metallic

glasses. As proposed by Williams et al., the Kohlrausch-Williams-Watts (KWW) relaxation relation can be used to well describe the  $\alpha$  relaxation process of the loss modulus spectra of glassy solids [79]:

$$G''(\omega) = \Delta G_\alpha L_{i\omega} \left[ -\frac{d\varphi_\alpha(t, \tau_\alpha)}{dt} \right] \quad (15)$$

With:

$$\varphi_\alpha(t, \tau_\alpha) = \exp \left[ -(t/\tau_\alpha)^{\beta_{KWW}} \right] \quad (16)$$

where  $\Delta G_\alpha$  is the relaxation strength, which is equal to the difference between the unrelaxed modulus  $G_u$  and the well relaxed modulus  $G_r$ .  $L_{i\omega}$  indicates the Laplace tranform, and  $\beta_{KWW}$  stands for the Kohlrausch exponent, which ranges from 0 to 1 and can be obtained from the isothermal spectra.

Based on the previous investigations, Bergman derived a relaxation equation, which can be used to the main relaxation process of the amorphous materials (i.e. metallic glasses as well as amorphous polymers) [80]:

$$G'' = G_p / \left\{ 1 - \beta_{KWW} + \frac{\beta_{KWW}}{1 + \beta_{KWW}} \left[ \beta_{KWW} (\omega_p / \omega) + (\omega / \omega_p)^{\beta_{KWW}} \right] \right\} \quad (17)$$

where  $G_p$  is the normalized loss modulus and  $\omega_p$  indicates the peak frequency.

As shown in **Fig.12 (a)**, the master curves of  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{100-x}\text{Dy}_x$  ( $x=0$  or  $2$ ) metallic glasses can be well described by **Eq.(17)**. The value of  $\beta_{KWW}$  in  $\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10}$  and  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$  metallic glasses is 0.49 and 0.48, respectively, which indicates a slight increase of dynamic heterogeneity by introducing the element Dy. **Fig.12 (b)** displays the master curves fitted by **Eq.(9)** in the QPD model. The correlation factor  $\chi$  values of  $\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10}$  and  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$  metallic glasses is 0.334 and 0.381, respectively. The results demonstrated that the increase of dynamic heterogeneity induced by introducing the Dy element, which is in good accordance with the discussion in the previous section.

The shift factor  $a_T$  versus various isothermal temperature for  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$  metallic glasses is presented in **Fig.13**. According to the **Eq.(17)**, the apparent activation of  $\alpha$  relaxation can be obtained. When the temperature increases, the viscosity increases sharply in the glass system, and the activation energy  $E_\alpha$  is 6.08 and 5.96 eV for  $\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10}$  and  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$ , respectively.

Noted that the activation energy  $E_\alpha$  calculated here are nearly equal to the values obtained in the previous section, this indicates that the activation energy of  $\alpha$  relaxation is an intrinsically properties which does not change with the testing driven frequency.

As we mentioned in the previous section, the correlation factor  $\chi$  can be determined by a plot of  $\ln(\tan \delta)$  versus  $\ln(\omega)$ . As shown in **Fig.14**, all the experimental results could be well described by the QPD model. It should be mentioned that the correlation factor  $\chi$  remains constant below the glass transition temperature  $T_g$ , which is consistently with the prediction of QPD model. Based on the QPD model, the microstructure of the glass materials is staying in an iso-configuration state when the temperature below  $T_g$ . It implied that the concentration of the “defects” concentration of glassy materials is nearly constant. When the temperature surpasses the glass transition temperature  $T_g$ , the glassy materials are no longer stay in an iso-configuration state. Consequently, the correlation factor  $\chi$  increases as a function of temperature. By increasing the temperature, the atomic diffusion is accelerated in the case of metallic glasses or molecules. It is expected that the correlation factor  $\chi$  provides an indicator of short-range order as well as the concentration of the quasi-point defects, which reflects the atomic or molecular mobility in glassy solids [18, 25, 33].

Specifically, it is interesting to note that the parameter  $a$  in the **Eq.(6-3)**, which indicates the slope of the curve  $\ln(\tau)$  versus  $1/T$  just above the glass transition temperature  $T_g$  and the fragility parameter  $m$  for the metallic glass system but is independent of the experimental condition (in opposition to the parameter  $m$ ) [67, 81]. It can be seen that the value of the parameter  $a$  is  $3.1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ K}^{-1}$  and  $3.8 \times 10^{-3} \text{ K}^{-1}$  for  $\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10}$  and  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$  metallic glasses, respectively. Based on the linear fit of the correlation factor  $\chi$  with the temperature above the  $T_g$  shown in **Fig.15**. The comparison between the prediction and experimental results of various glass forming systems is summarized in **Table 2**. It can be seen that the value of  $a$  of ZrCu-based metallic glass is intermediate between the reported oxide glasses and polymers. Thus, it demonstrates that the fragility for ZrCu-based metallic glass is

intermediate, meanwhile, close to the fragility of strong network glasses. It is in a good agreement with the fragility parameter  $m$  as mentioned in the previous section and the parameter  $a$ . As a consequence, the physical model could be used to successfully describe the internal friction around the glass transition temperature in metallic glasses.

**Table 2** Parameters of the typical glassy materials used in the physical model [67]

Type	Material	$T_g$ (K)	$U_\beta$ (eV)	$\chi(T_g)$	$a (\times 10^{-3} \text{ K}^{-1})$	Reference
Oxide	Silica	1493	-	0.47	-	[67]
	Silica-soda-lime	810	2.04	0.37	1	[67]
Metallic	Zr <sub>50</sub> Cu <sub>40</sub> Al <sub>10</sub>	691	0.628	0.383	3.1	Current work
	(Zr <sub>50</sub> Cu <sub>40</sub> Al <sub>10</sub> ) <sub>98</sub> Dy <sub>2</sub>	683	0.578	0.395	3.8	Current work
Polymeric	DGEBA-IPD	436	0.52	0.17	5.6	[67]
	PEEK	416	0.43/0.8	0.32	-	[67]
	PET	340	0.54	0.31	10	[67]
	PMABu	303	0.74	0.18	5	[67]
Molecular	Maltitol	310	0.61	0.34	5.3	[67]
	Sorbitol	268	0.61	0.32	5.8	[67]

### 3.2.3 Magnitude of the various components of the deformation

During the mechanical spectroscopy experiments of metallic glasses, three different components are involved in the mechanical response, i.e. elastic, viscoelastic and viscoplastic. With the set of constitutive equations recalled above, the QPD model allows a global description of the mechanical behaviour of an metallic glass from the linear to the non-linear range with account for the temperature, the loading conditions and the strain rate [53, 82]. Practically, this makes a strong correlations between the viscoelastic behavior of the metallic glass characterized by the dynamic mechanical analysis. Rinaldi et al. gave the expression of the general compliance [53]:

$$J(t) = J_{el} + \Delta J_\beta \sum_i W_\beta^i \left(1 - e^{(-t/\tau_\beta^i)}\right) + \Delta J_{ve} \sum_i W_{el}^i \left(1 - e^{(-t/\tau_\beta^i)}\right) + \Delta J_{vp} \sum_i W_{vp}^i \left(1 - e^{(-t/\tau_\beta^i)}\right) \quad (18)$$

where  $J_{el}$  is the initial elastic compliance, taken as the inverse of the unrelaxed shear

modulus,  $W_{\beta}^i$ ,  $W_{el}^i$  and  $W_{vp}^i$  are the relative weights of the Gumbel distribution law of the times  $\tau_{\beta}^i$ ,  $\tau_{el}^i$  and  $\tau_{vp}^i$ , respectively. Laplace-Carson transform of Eq.(18) directly gives the expression of the equivalent frequencial compliance  $J^*$  of the MGs:

$$J^*(\omega) = J_{el} + J_{\beta} \sum_i \frac{W_{\beta}^i}{1+i\omega\tau_{\beta}^i} + J_{ve} \sum_i \frac{W_{ve}^i}{1+i\omega\tau_{ve}^i} + J_{vp} \sum_i \frac{W_{vp}^i}{1+i\omega\tau_{vp}^i} \quad (19)$$

The real part of  $J^*$  is noted  $J'$  and the imaginary part  $J''$ . According to the previous research of Pelletier, the compliance can be deduced from the storage modulus and loss modulus ( $G'$  and  $G''$ ):  $J^* = J' - J'' = 1/G^* = 1/(G' + iG'') = J_{el} + J_{ve} + J_{vp}$  [22]. The imaginary parts is  $J'' = -(J_{ve} + J_{vp})$ .

**Fig.16 (a)** displays the evolution of  $J''$  with the frequency. Both the low and high frequency sides tend toward a linear dependence with a slope of -0.8 and -1/3, respectively. Assuming a Newtonian flow,  $J_{vp} = 1/\omega\eta$ , the shear viscosity  $\eta$  can be expressed by:  $\eta = G_u\tau_{mol}$ , where  $G_u$  the unrelaxed is about 24 GPa. As shown in **Fig.12**, the characteristic time at  $T_g$  is  $\tau_{mol} = 70$  s, so the shear viscosity  $\eta$  at this temperature is about  $1.68 \times 10^{12}$  Pa s. This is a reasonable value for the viscosity at  $T_g$  of metallic glasses. At the lower frequency, the visco-plasticity dominates the deformation process, this is because there is enough time for the atomic movements. By increasing of the frequency, visco-plasticity can not occur and the visco-elasticity becomes dominant. As proposed in a previous investigation [68], the elastic, visco-plastic and visco-elastic components over the whole frequency domain can be calculated as:

$$J_{el} = J' = \frac{G'}{G'^2 + G''^2} \quad (20-1)$$

$$J_{vp} = \frac{1}{\omega\eta} \quad (20-2)$$

$$J_{ve} = J'' - J_{vp} \quad (20-3)$$

The contribution of the elasticity, viscoelasticity and viscoplasticity during the deformation process of  $Zr_{50}Cu_{40}Al_{10}$  metallic glass were shown in **Fig.16 (b)**. As discussed above, the viscous flow is the main contribution at lower frequency domain,

while the viscoelasticity dominate the deformation behavior at the higher frequency.

#### 4. Conclusions

In conclusion, the dynamic mechanical relaxation behavior of  $\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10}$  and  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$  metallic glasses were investigated by DMA. Experimental results demonstrated that micro-alloying plays an important role in the dynamic mechanical behavior of the model alloys. Atomic mobility (i.e. concentration of the “quasi-point defects”) increases by increasing the concent of Dy of  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{100-x}\text{Dy}_x$  ( $x=0$  or 2) glassy system. The quasi-point defects theory was used to describe the atomic mobility and dynamic mechanical behavior of the  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{100-x}\text{Dy}_x$  ( $x=0$  or 2) metallic glasses. The elastic, viscoelastic and viscoplastic response of the model alloy was analyzed based on the deformation process. The correlation parameter  $\chi$  can be used to describe the concentration of the quasi-point defects, which is closely related to the microstructural heterogeneity of glassy solids. The experimental results of the ZrCu-based metallic glasses can be well described by the QPD theory. More importantly, our findings based on the dynamic mechanical behavior provides a route to understand the microstructural heterogeneity and physical properties of metallic glasses.

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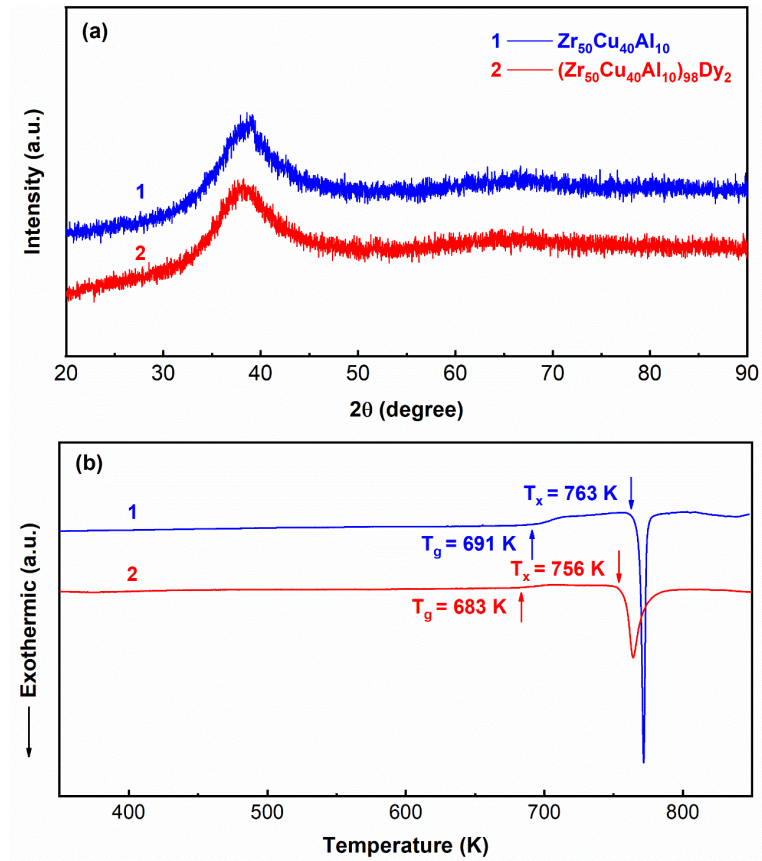
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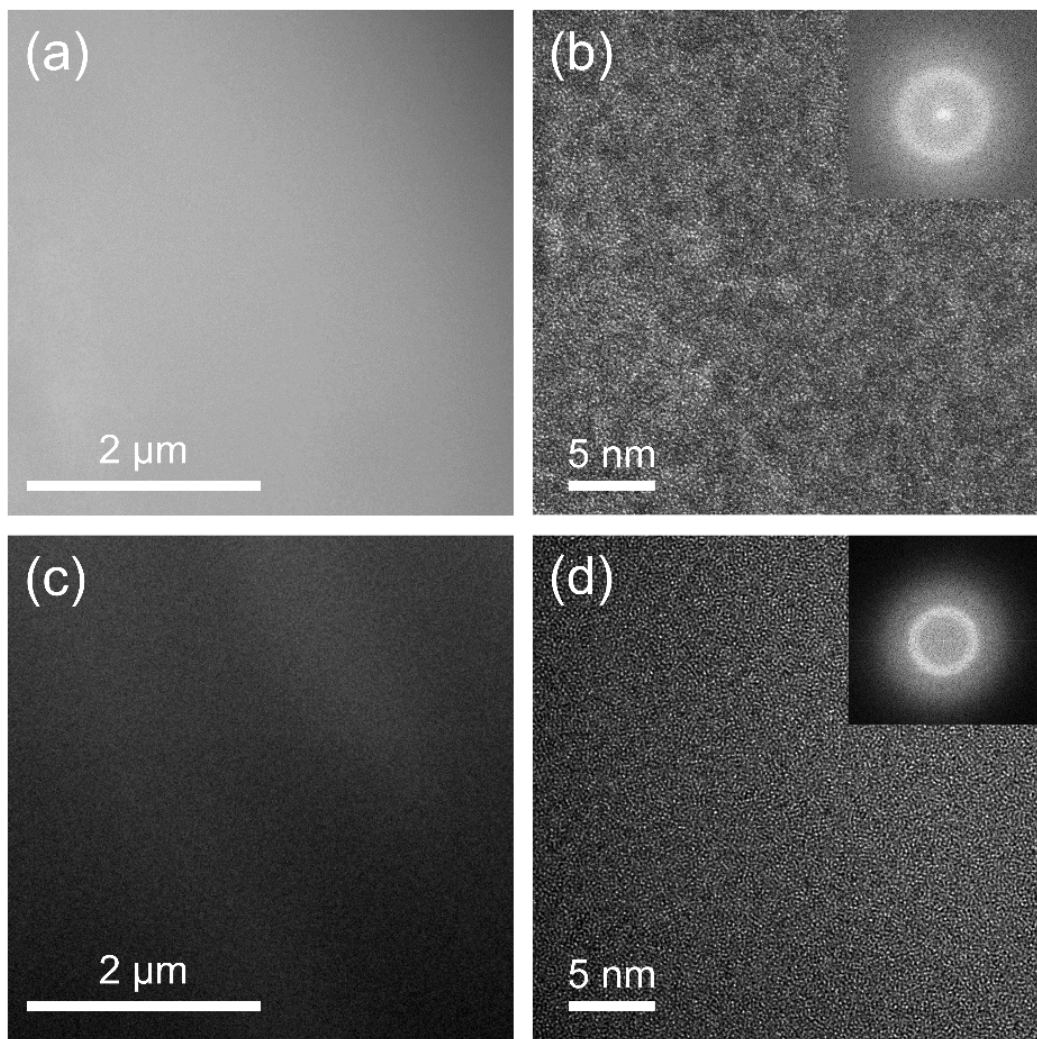
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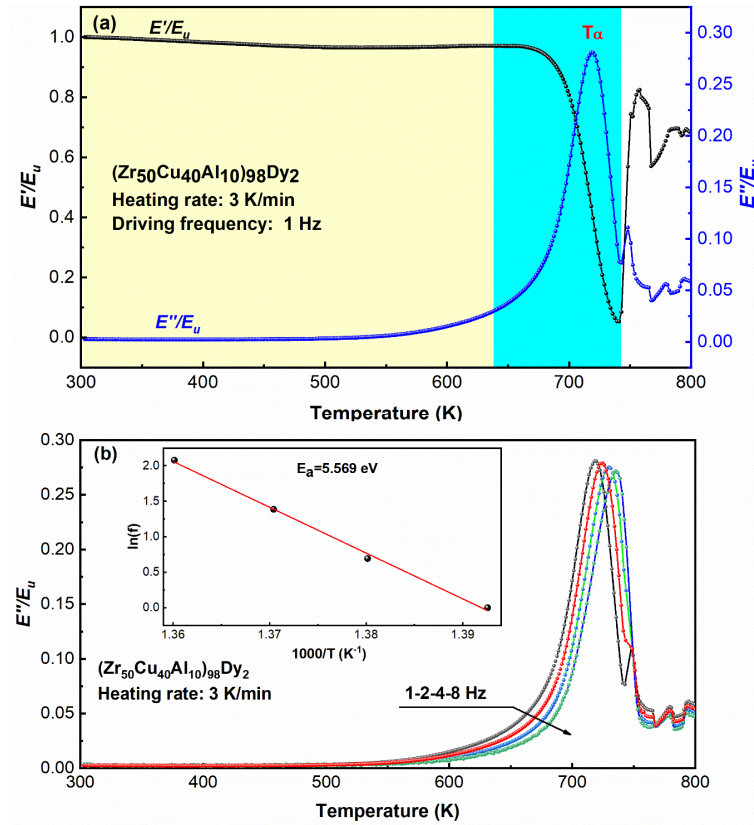


**Fig.1** (a) The typical XRD patterns and (b) DSC curves of  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{100-x}\text{Dy}_x$  ( $x=0$  or 2) bulk metallic glasses (heating rate is 10 K/min).

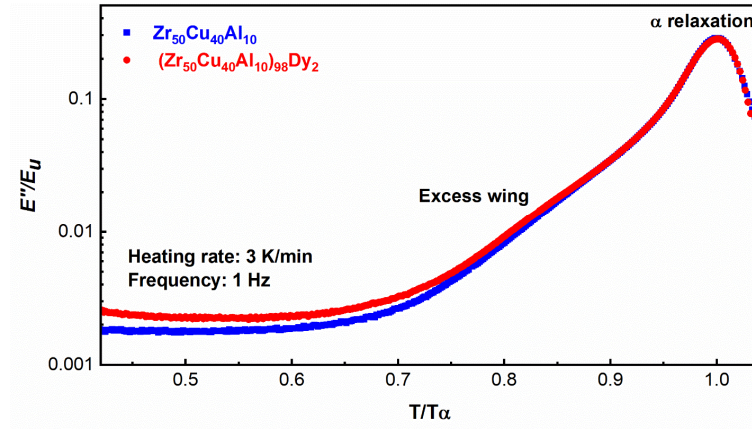




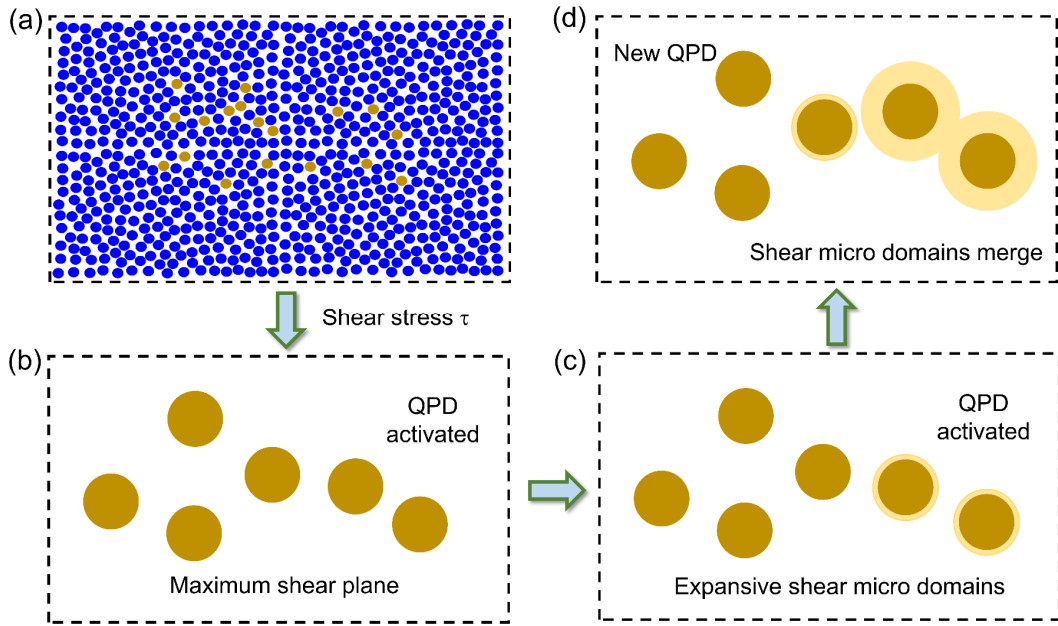
**Fig.2** (a) TEM micrograph and (b) HRTEM image of as-cast  $\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10}$  metallic glass. (c) TEM micrograph and (d) HRTEM image of  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$  metallic glass. Insets in (b) and (d) showing the corresponding FFT images.



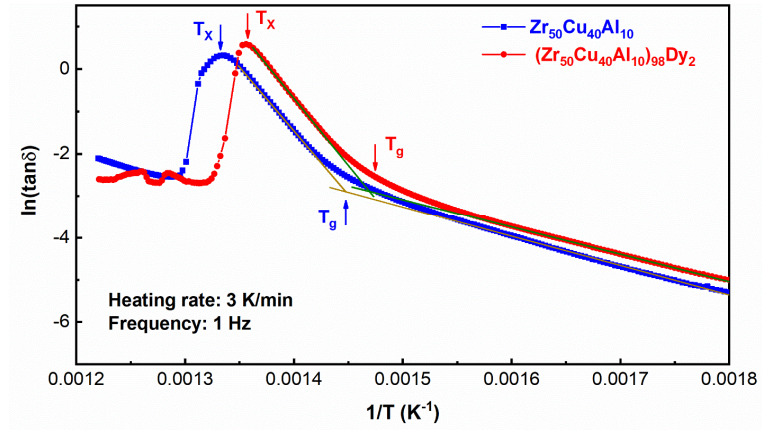
**Fig.3** (a) Normalized storage modulus and loss modulus of  $(Zr_{50}Cu_{40}Al_{10})_{98}Dy_2$  metallic glass as function of the temperature; (b) The normalized loss modulus as function of the temperature of  $(Zr_{50}Cu_{40}Al_{10})_{98}Dy_2$  metallic glass with different driving frequency. Inset is the Arrhenius relation of peak frequency of loss modulus *versus* the reciprocal of temperature.)



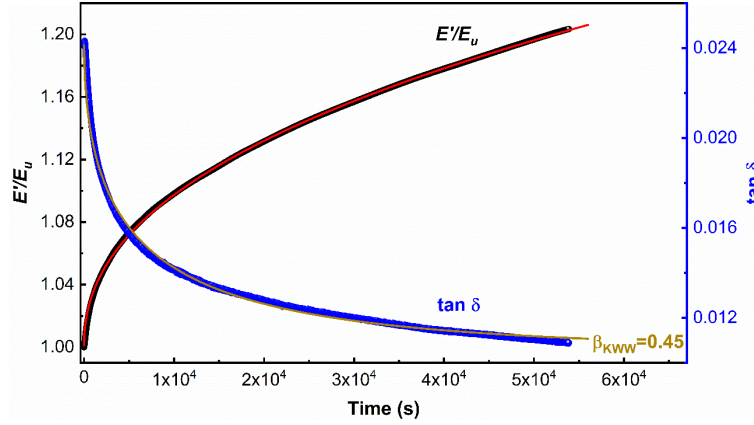
**Fig.4** Temperature dependence of the normalized loss modulus  $E''/E_u$  in the  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{100-x}\text{Dy}_x$  ( $x=0$  or  $2$ ) metallic glasses.



**Fig.5** Conceptual description of the microstructural arrangements within a glassy amorphous material as posted by the QPD model: (a) original configuration of the glassy state, the golden and blue balls represent quasi point defects and elastic matrix, respectively, (b,c,d) micro structural reorganization (activation of these QPD and growth of sheared micro domains) provoked by an external thermomechanical stimuli.

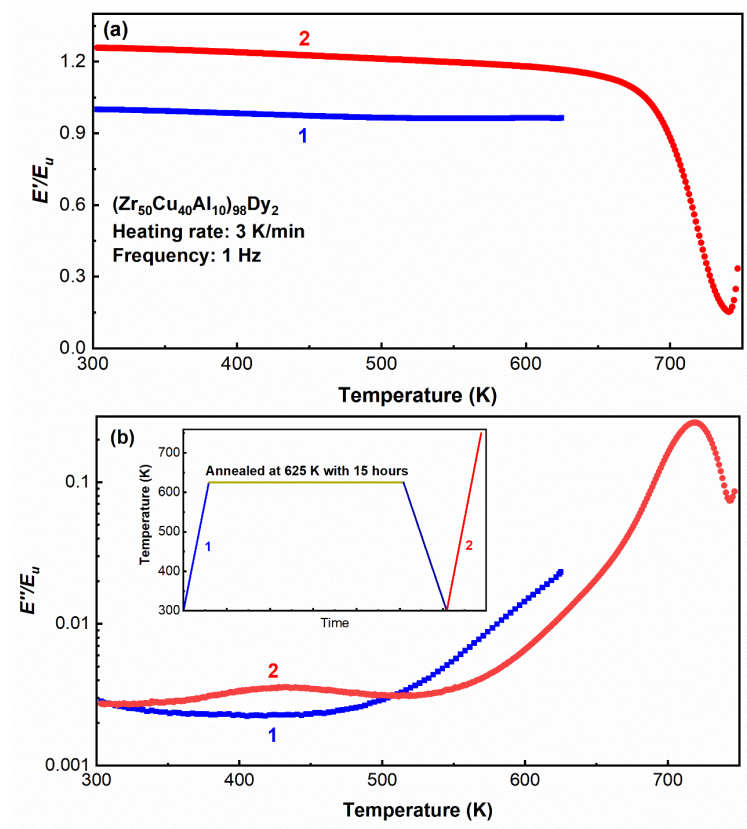


**Fig.6** Logarithm of the internal friction  $\ln(\tan \delta)$  versus reciprocal of the temperature  $1/T$  of the  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{100-x}\text{Dy}_x$  ( $x=0$  or  $2$ ) bulk metallic glasses.

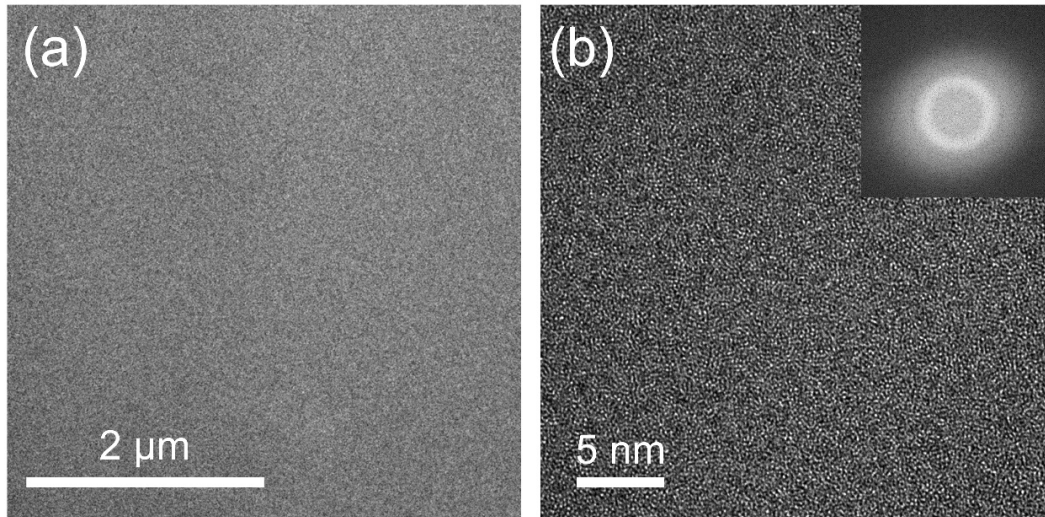


**Fig.7** Evolution of the storage modulus  $E'/E_u$  and the loss factor  $\tan \delta$  with the aging time at 625 K in the  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$  metallic glass. The solid lines are fitted by the KWW equation of the **Eq.(12)**.



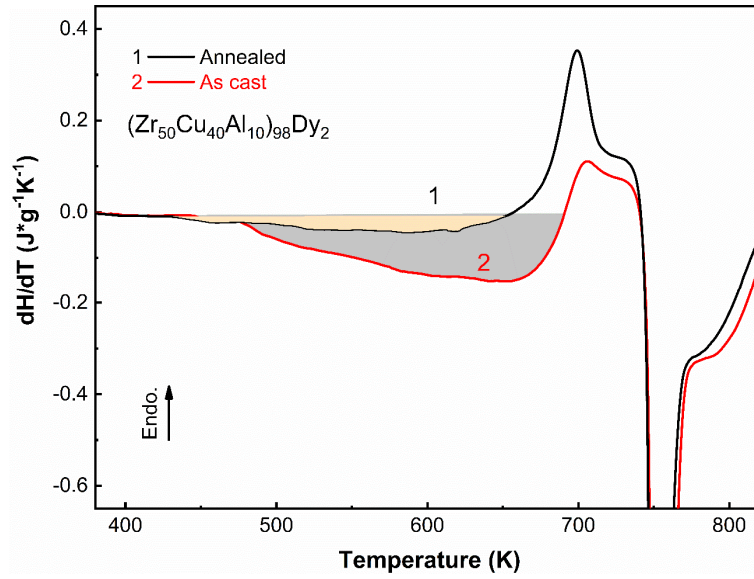


**Fig.8** Effect of the physical aging below the glass transition temperature on the dynamic mechanical behavior of the  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$  metallic glass. (a) Normalized storage modulus of  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$  metallic glass at as-cast state and annealed state. (b) Normalized loss modulus of  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$  metallic glass at as-cast state and annealed state.

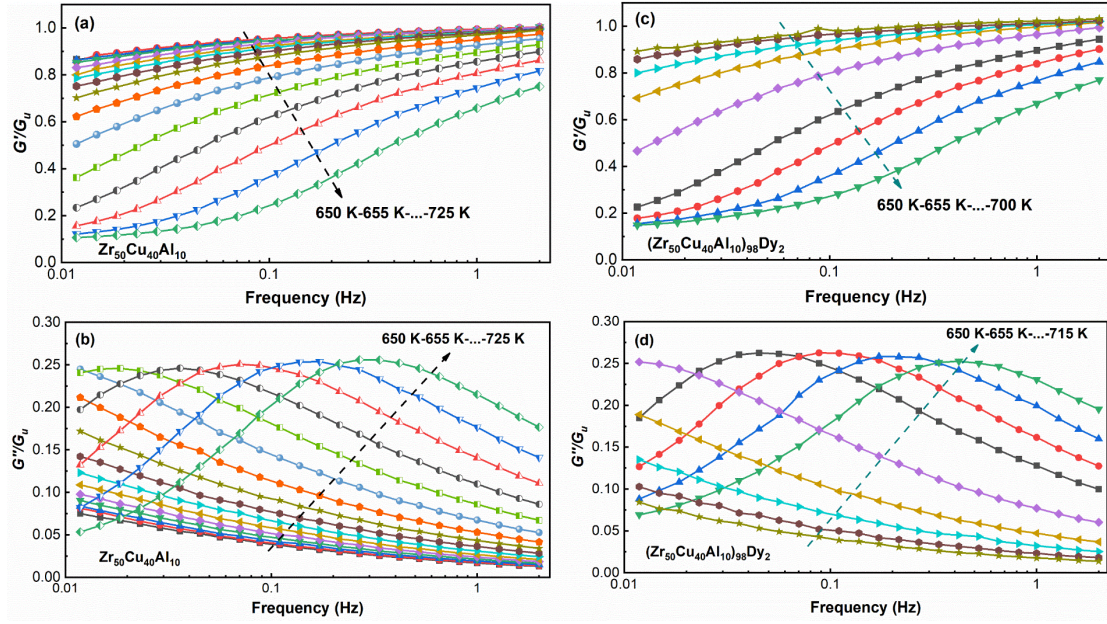


**Fig.9** (a) TEM micrograph and (b) HRTEM image of the annealed  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$  metallic glass with an inset in (b) showing the corresponding FFT image.

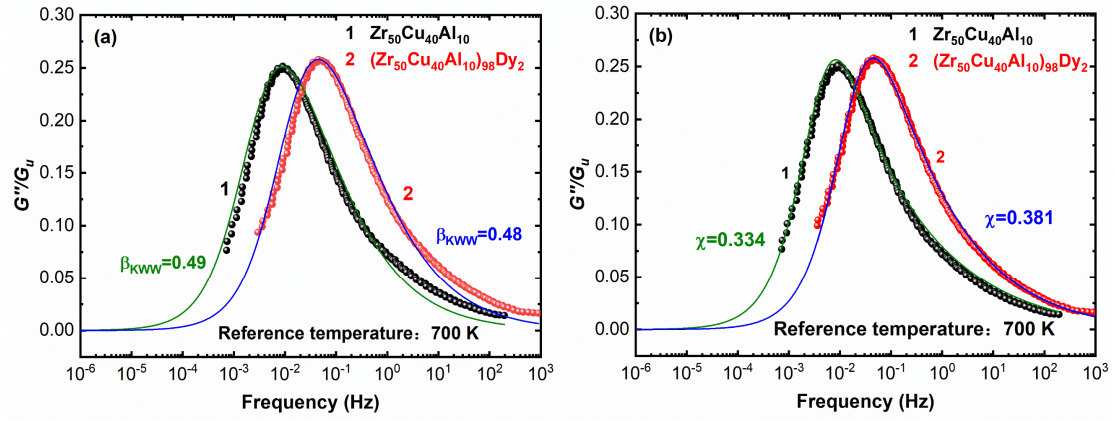




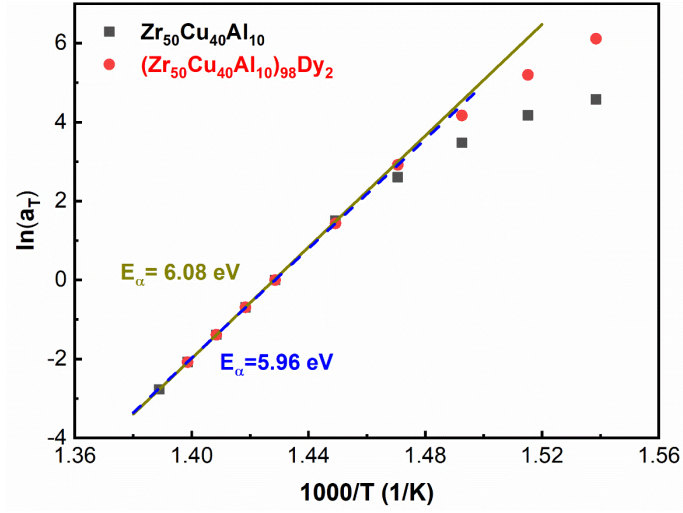
**Fig.10** Relaxation enthalpy from the differential scanning calorimetry traces of  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$  bulk metallic glass: as-cast state and annealed sample (annealing temperature  $T_a$  is 625 K with annealing time is 15 h). The relaxation enthalpy ( $\Delta H$ ) gradually decreases after annealing below the glass transition temperature  $T_g$ .



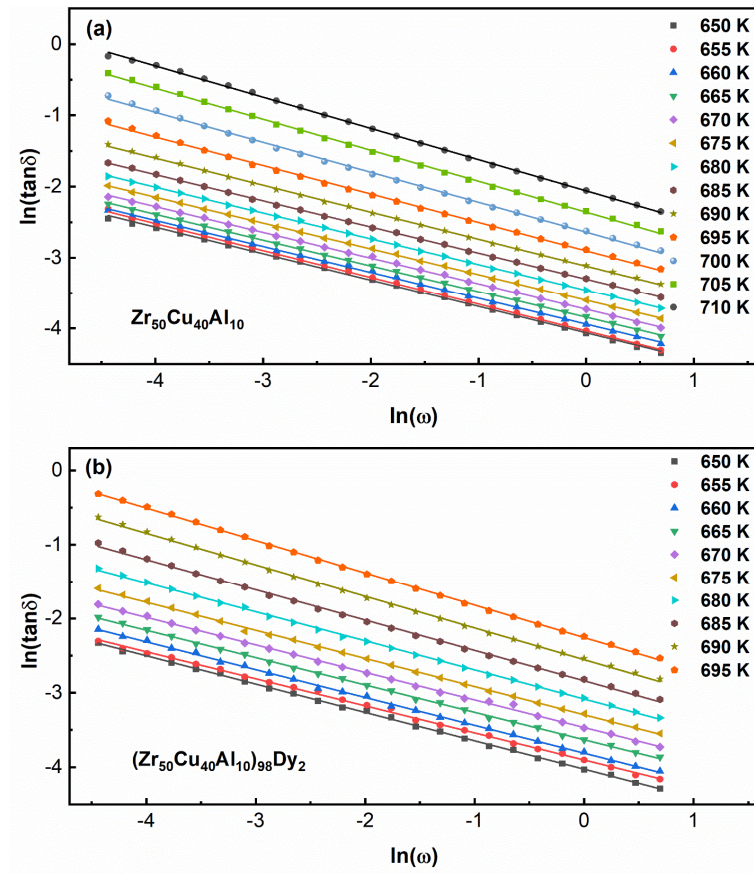
**Fig.11** Normalized shear modulus as a function of frequency at different temperature of  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{100-x}\text{Dy}_x$  ( $x=0$  or  $2$ ) bulk metallic glasses: (a) Storage modulus  $G'/G_u$  of  $\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10}$  metallic glass and (b) Loss modulus  $G''/G_u$  of  $\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10}$  metallic glass, (c) Storage modulus  $G'/G_u$  of  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$  metallic glass and (d) Loss modulus  $G''/G_u$  of  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$  metallic glass.



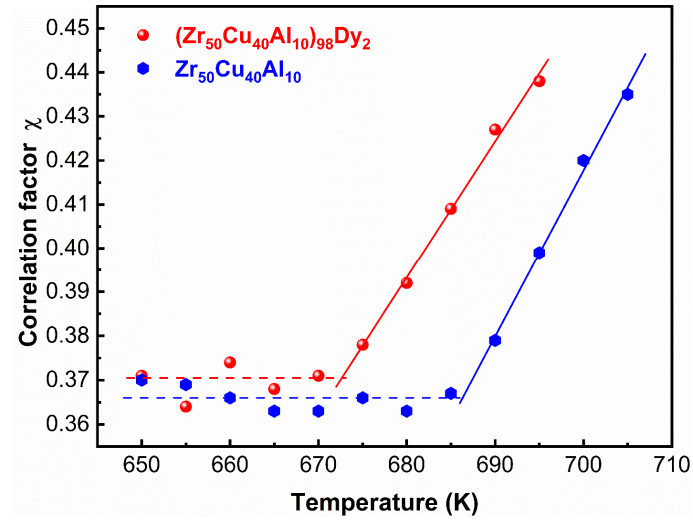
**Fig.12** The master curves of the normalized loss modulus  $G''/G_u$  of the  $(Zr_{50}Cu_{40}Al_{10})_{100-x}Dy_x$  ( $x=0$  or  $2$ ) bulk metallic glasses. The reference temperature is 700 K. (a) The solid lines are fitted by the Eq.(17) of KWW equation; (b) The solid lines are fitted by the Eq.(9) of QPD theory.



**Fig.13** Temperature dependence of the shift factor for the  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{100-x}\text{Dy}_x$  ( $x=0$  or 2) bulk metallic glasses. The apparent activation energy  $E_\alpha$  of the  $\alpha$  relaxation process was marked in the figure (the fitting lines are the Arrhenius plots).

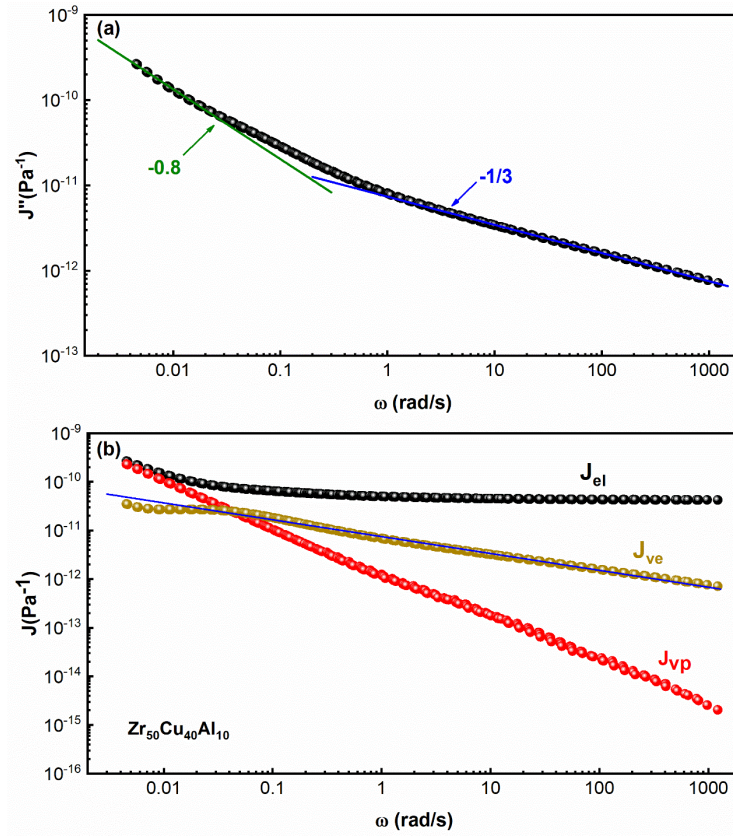


**Fig.14** Effect of the driving frequency on the loss factor  $\tan \delta$  at various temperature of  $\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10}$  metallic glass (a) and  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{98}\text{Dy}_2$  metallic glass (b). Solid lines are fitted by the **Eq.(10)**.



**Fig.15** The correlation factor  $\chi$  as a function of temperature of the  $(\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10})_{100-x}\text{Dy}_x$  ( $x=0$  or  $2$ ) bulk metallic glasses.





**Fig.16** (a) Imaginary compliance *versus* the angular frequency of  $\text{Zr}_{50}\text{Cu}_{40}\text{Al}_{10}$  metallic glass; (b) Different components of the compliance  $J$  as a function of the angular frequency  $\omega$ . The reference temperature is 700 K.

Graphical Abstract

