

1 **Ultralow-temperature superplasticity and its novel mechanism in ultrafine-**
2 **grained Al alloys**

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15 The important benefits of ultrafine-grained (UFG) alloys for various applications stem from
16 their enhanced superplastic properties. However, decreasing the temperature of superplasticity
17 and providing superplastic forming at lower temperatures and higher strain rates is still a
18 priority. Here, we disclose the mechanism by which grain boundary sliding and rotation are
19 enhanced, when UFG materials have grain boundary segregation of specific alloying elements.
20 We present for the first time that such approach makes it possible to achieve superplasticity in
21 conventional Al alloys at ultralow homologous temperatures below 0.5 (i.e., below 200 °C),
22 which is important for developing new efficient technologies for manufacturing complex-
23 shaped metallic parts with enhanced service properties, which are key factors for their
24 applications.

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26 **1. Introduction**

27 Superplasticity of materials is an important field of scientific research both because it
28 presents significant challenges in the areas of flow mechanisms and because it forms the
29 underlying basis for the commercial superplastic forming industry in which complex shapes
30 and curved parts are formed from superplastic metals^{1,2}.

31 It is well established that two basic requirements must be fulfilled in order to achieve
32 superplastic flow. First, superplasticity requires a very small grain size, typically smaller than
33 ~10 μm. Second, superplasticity is a diffusion-controlled process operating with grain
34 boundary sliding – as the main flow mechanisms - and therefore it requires a relatively high
35 testing temperature typically at or above ~0.7 – 0.8 × T_m , where T_m is the absolute melting
36 temperature of the material. At the same time, the developments of metallic materials during
37 the last two decades with ultrafine grains of nanosized range by means of severe plastic
38 deformation (SPD) processing paved the way towards new discoveries in the field of
39 superplasticity^{3,4}. Actually, the basic relationship for superplasticity has the form:

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$$\dot{\epsilon} = \frac{ADGb}{kT} \left(\frac{b}{d}\right)^q \left(\frac{\sigma}{G}\right)^{1/m}, \quad (1)$$

41 where $\dot{\epsilon}$ is the strain rate of the deformation process, D is the appropriate diffusion coefficient,
42 G is the shear modulus, b is the magnitude of the Burgers vector, k is Boltzmann's constant, T
43 is the absolute temperature, d is the grain size, σ is the applied stress, q is the exponent of the
44 inverse grain size, m is the strain rate sensitivity, and A is a dimensionless constant^{1,2,5}. The
45 temperature-dependence of the superplastic deformation is mainly determined by the
46 diffusion coefficient, based on the formula

47
$$D = D_0 \exp\left(\frac{-Q}{RT}\right), \quad (2)$$

48 where D_0 is a frequency factor, Q is the activation energy, and R is the universal gas constant.
49 Based on equation (1), the formation of ultrafine grains in the nanosized range provides an
50 opportunity to control the temperature and the rate of superplastic flow in materials, which are

51 quite attractive for the practical application of their superplastic forming. In recent years, this
52 problem was actively covered in literature⁶⁻⁹. Meanwhile, according to equations (1) and (2)
53 the superplastic flow regimes may also be essentially controlled by diffusion. For UFG
54 materials, it is the grain boundary diffusion associated with the development of grain
55 boundary sliding (GBS) and hence dependent on the structure of grain boundaries. In their
56 turn, the recent precision studies of intergranular boundaries in UFG metals and alloys reveal
57 that their grain boundaries have different defect structures and chemical compositions,
58 depending on the SPD processing regimes^{3,10,11}. This opens new opportunities in controlling
59 the properties of superplastic materials.

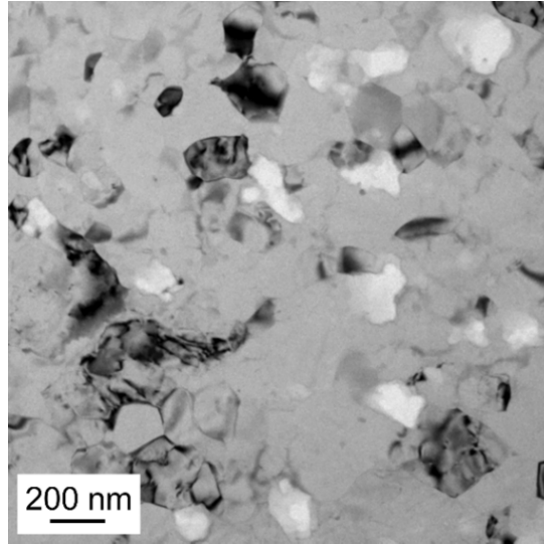
60 In the present paper, this approach is for the first time investigated and demonstrated
61 for an Al-Zn-Mg-Zr aluminum alloy. This widely used age-hardenable alloy of the Al-Zn-Mg
62 (7xxx) series with multi-alloying elements was chosen due to fact that, it is the one of the
63 basic materials in the aluminum industry. These alloys are generally used after conventional
64 treatments and, as having an average grain size of 5-10 μm , they can be deformed
65 superplastically for a total elongation of 300–500%, but only at high temperature of about 500
66 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($\sim 0.8 \times T_m$)^{1,5}. The work presented here reports a unique grain boundary behavior
67 controlled by relatively fast diffusion in an ultrafine-grained Al-Zn-Mg-Zr alloy, which can be
68 deformed superplastically with a record total elongation of 500% in a temperature region
69 lower than 170 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($0.47 \times T_m$).

70 **2. Results and discussion**

71 The alloy with a composition of Al-2.04at%Zn-1.37at%Mg-0.04at%Zr (or well-
72 known as Al-4.8wt%Zn-1.2wt%Mg-0.14wt%Zr) was processed by casting. The as-cast
73 material was homogenized in air at 470 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 8 h, and then hot extruded at 380 $^{\circ}\text{C}$. Then,
74 disks with a diameter of 20 mm and a thickness of 1.4 mm were cut from the extruded rods
75 for processing by high-pressure torsion (HPT). The HPT process is described in detail
76 elsewhere¹². Before HPT processing, the alloy was homogenized at 470 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 1 h and then

77 water-quenched to room temperature (RT). The disks were subjected to 10 revolutions of
78 HPT at RT under a pressure of 6 GPa and at a rotation speed of 1 rpm.

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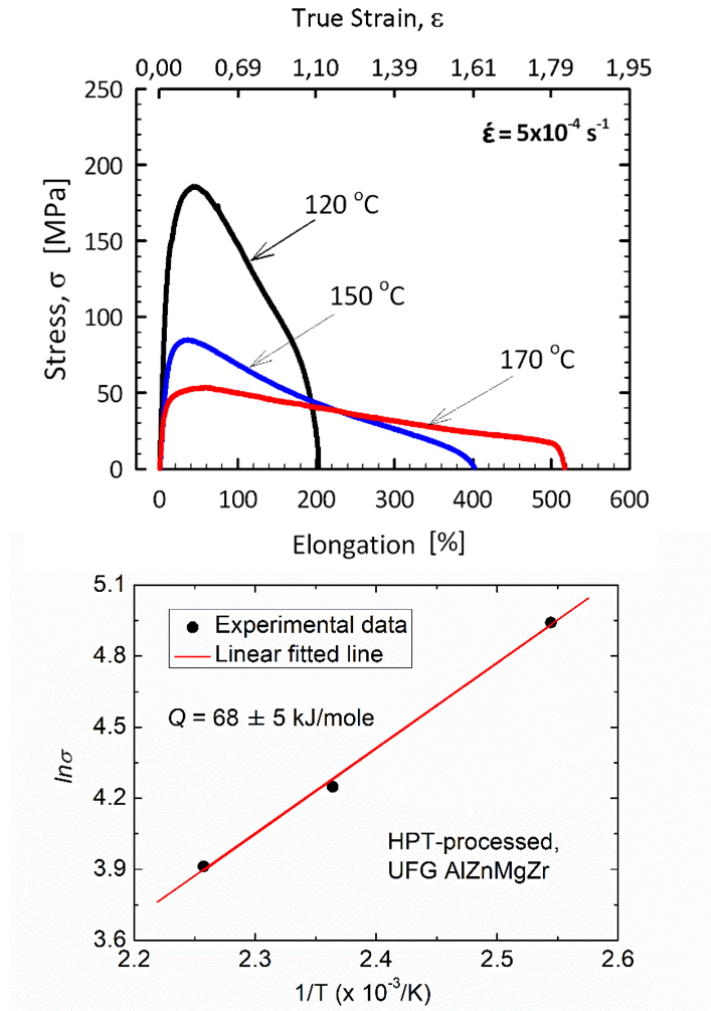


87 **Fig. 1 Microstructure of the HPT-processed UFG Al-Zn-Mg-Zr alloy having an average**
88 **grain size of ~ 200 nm.**

89 As a result of HPT, a saturated UFG microstructure having an average grain size of
90 200 nm was produced, as shown in Fig. 1. Before performing tensile tests, the thermal
91 stability and the strain rate sensitivity of the HPT-processed sample were studied in order to
92 predict its ductility in the low temperature region between 120 and 170 °C. After annealing
93 the HPT-processed sample for 2 hours at 120 °C, the average grain size was practically
94 unchanged, and it increased only to about 300 nm at 170 °C, showing a stable UFG structure
95 in this sample¹³. An unusually high strain rate sensitivity, m , of 0.43 ± 0.02 was obtained by
96 using nanoindentation creep test in the same temperature region, indicating that
97 superplasticity can be expected at low temperatures.

98 Samples were deformed by tension at different strain rates and different temperatures
99 lower than $0.5 \times T_m$. Figure 2a shows the typical stress-strain curves of superplastic
100 deformation taken at a strain rate of $\dot{\epsilon} = 5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at 120, 150 and 170 °C. It can be seen
101 that a total elongation of almost 200% is obtained at a very low temperature of 120 °C (~ 0.42
102 $\times T_m$), and a record deformation higher than 500% was observed at 170 °C ($\sim 0.47 \times T_m$).

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117 **Fig. 2 Characteristics of low-temperature superplasticity in the UFG Al-Zn-Mg-Zr alloy.**
118 (a) Stress-strain ($\sigma - \epsilon$) curves, showing a total elongation higher than 500%, (b) Logarithm
119 of the stress ($\ln \sigma$) obtained at elongation of 100% versus the reciprocal of testing temperature
120 ($1/T$) for the determination of the activation energy (Q) of the deformation process.

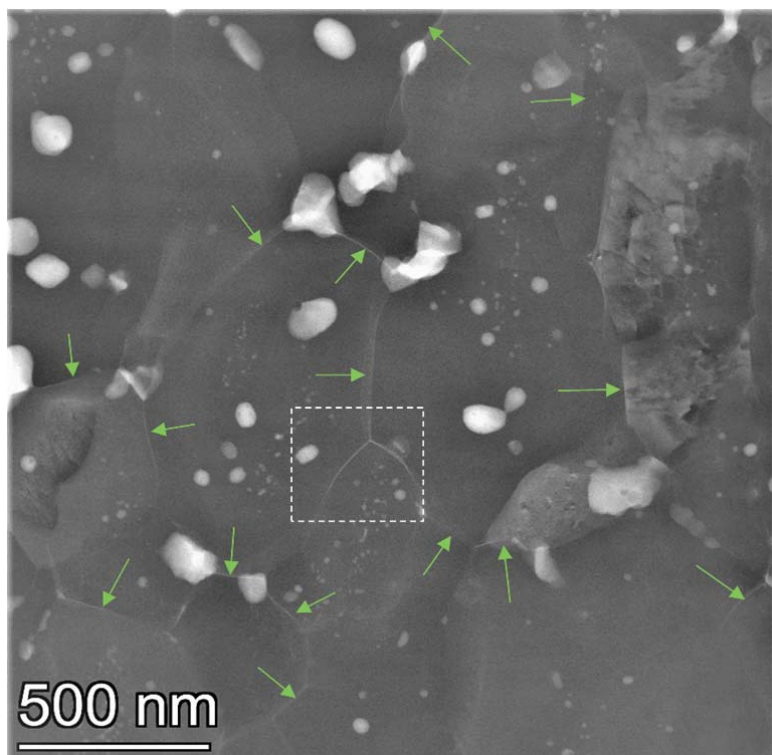
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To analyze the experimental results, the activation energy, Q , of the deformation process, characterizing the superplastic flow can be determined by using equations (1-2) in another form:

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$$\dot{\epsilon} = B \cdot \sigma^{1/m} \cdot \exp\left(\frac{-Q}{RT}\right), \quad (3)$$

126 which describes the stress- and temperature-dependence of the strain rate. In equation (3), B is
127 a constant depending on the properties of material. Taking the stress values at the same

128 elongation of 100% ($\epsilon = 0.69$) for different testing temperatures, using the value of 0.43 for m
129 obtained by indentation creep, from the slope of the $\ln\sigma - 1/T$ line, a value of 68 kJ/mole can
130 be estimated for the activation energy, Q (see Fig. 2b). Considering both the high strain rate
131 sensitivity and the relative stability of the microstructure of the sample during deformation,
132 the basic mechanism of the superplastic deformation of the investigated UFG alloy should
133 certainly be grain boundary sliding. The experimentally determined activation energy of 68
134 kJ/mole is lower than the values for self-diffusion in Al (142 kJ/mole)¹⁴ or grain boundary
135 diffusion in Al (84 kJ/mole)¹⁴. In order to explain the occurrence and significance of the
136 experimentally obtained activation energy, let us examine the microstructure of the
137 superplastically deformed samples.



149 **Fig. 3 Microstructure of the deformed samples.** Low magnification STEM-HAADF image
150 for the sample superplastically deformed at 170 °C and a strain rate of $5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$, showing
151 the existence of Zn-containing particles (bright ones) and Zn-rich Al/Al grain boundaries
152 (indicated by the green arrows).

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154 Figure 3 shows a HAADF image obtained by STEM on the sample deformed
155 superplastically for a total elongation higher than 500% at 170 °C. Besides the MgZn₂ phase
156 particles, which appear as bright areas on the image since the atomic number of Zn is much
157 higher than that of Al, Zn-rich Al/Al grain boundaries indicated by small green arrows can
158 also be observed. A small area of the image marked with a white dashed square is shown with
159 a higher magnification in Fig. 4a and analyzed by using energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy
160 (EDS) mapping in Figs. 4b-e.

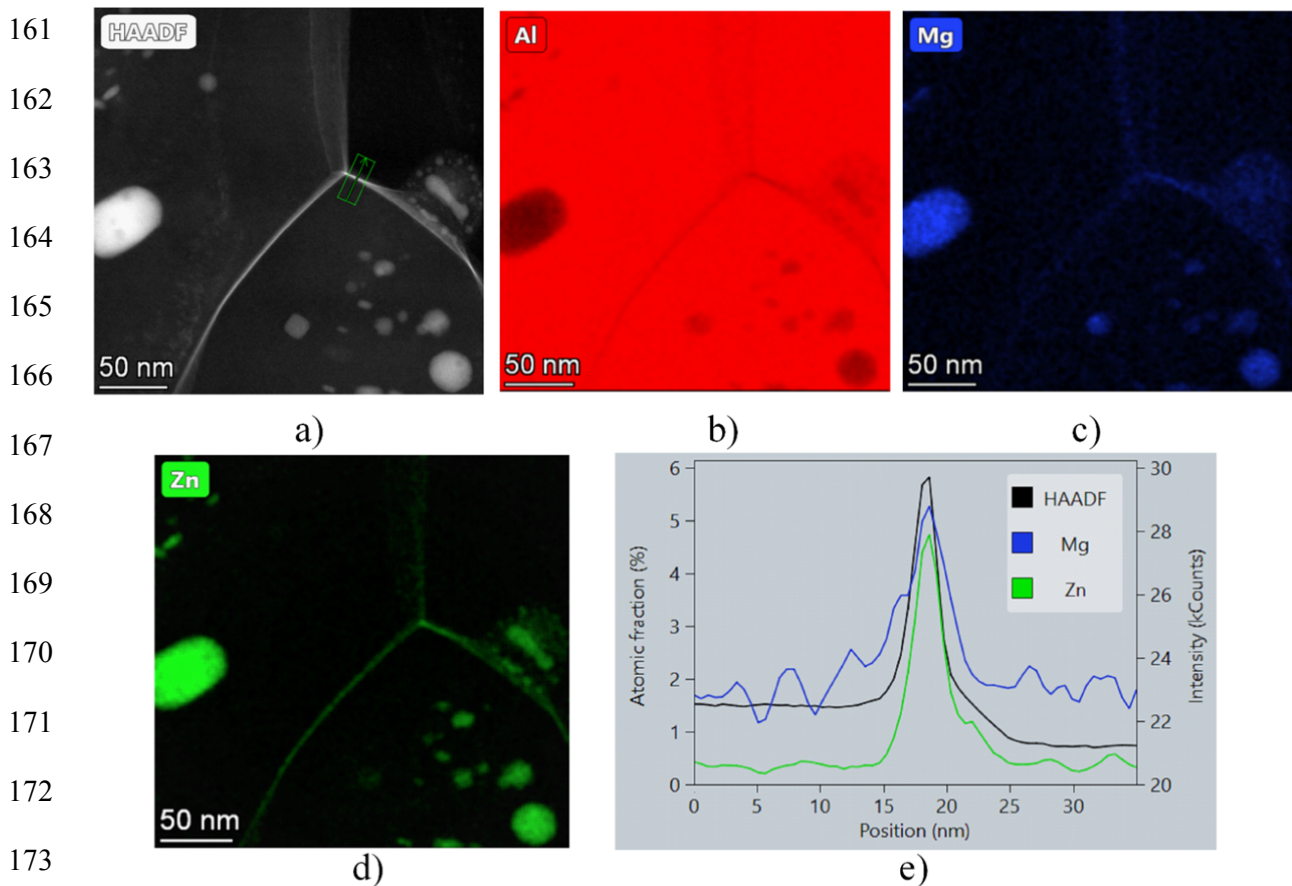


Fig. 4 High magnification STEM results. (a) HAADF image showing Zn-rich grain boundaries (forming a brightly imaged triple junction, (b-d) corresponding EDS maps for Al, Mg and Zn, respectively, (e) EDS line profile analysis along a boundary, marked by arrows in the HAADF image, showing the segregation of Zn and Mg atoms into Al/Al grain boundaries in the HPT-processed UFG sample.

180 The EDS results reveal clearly the depletion of Al (see Fig. 4b), and the excess of Mg
181 and Zn atoms (shown in Figs. 4c and 4d, respectively) in the Al/Al grain boundaries of this
182 HPT-processed UFG sample. EDS measurements at different locations also show that the
183 fractions of Zn and Mg change along the grain boundaries and there are places where Zn
184 atoms are the main contributors to the excess solute atoms in the Al/Al grain boundaries,
185 while in other locations the concentration of Mg is higher than that of Zn. Nevertheless, the
186 matrix grain boundaries of this UFG sample can be regarded as Zn/Mg-rich boundaries. For
187 instance, Fig. 4e reveals that the sum of Zn and Mg concentrations in the boundary reached
188 about 10 at.%.

189 The segregation of solute atoms to the grain boundaries in an HPT-processed supersaturated
190 solid solution was recently interpreted by numerical and analytical calculations¹⁵. During the
191 SPD process, after reaching a saturated UFG microstructure, the role of the grain boundaries
192 is enhanced in subsequent deformation processes due to the significance of grain boundary
193 sliding^{3,9,16}. It was shown in the mentioned numerical calculations that GBS can relax the
194 external shear stress during SPD, forming an inhomogeneous stress field around the sliding
195 grain boundaries¹⁵. The hydrostatic component (p) of this stress field may induce up-hill
196 diffusion currents, leading to accumulation sites for both vacancies and solute atoms at the
197 grain boundaries. It should be noted that the mentioned hydrostatic component causes
198 different currents for different volume-size solute atoms. According to the theoretical
199 calculation, Fig. 5 shows an example demonstrating the trapping effect of a sliding boundary
200 for larger (e.g., Mg) and smaller (e.g., Zn) solute atoms (compared to the Al matrix) at the
201 opposite sides of the sliding grain boundary. Considering the EDS line profiles for Zn and Mg
202 shown in Fig. 4e, the segregation of the solute atoms with different sizes along the grain
203 boundary seems to be experimentally confirmed.

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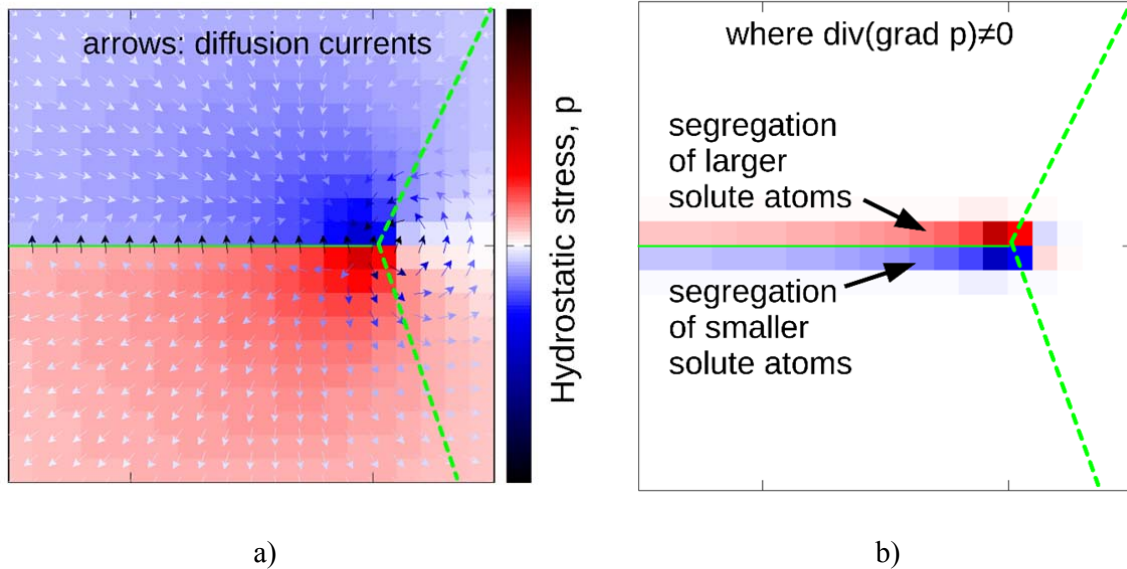
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Fig. 5 Trapping effect of sliding grain boundary. (a) Calculated hydrostatic stress component (p) around a slipped grain boundary (the arrows show the direction of the negative stress gradient, and then the diffusion currents), (b) Accumulation points for solute atoms smaller (red) and larger (blue) than the matrix atoms (Al). The green dashed lines represent the grain boundaries.

The strong segregation of Zn to the matrix grain boundaries is already a known phenomenon in high-Zn concentrated binary Al-Zn alloys with a UFG structure¹⁷⁻¹⁹, but it has not been reported yet for the 7xxx series Al alloys. This is a key point in the observed low-temperature superplasticity for the present UFG Al-Zn-Mg-Zr alloy. Since superplasticity is based on grain boundary diffusion, it is worth to calculate the diffusion coefficient, D , using the formula (2). For grain boundary diffusion in both pure Al and Zn, the values of D_0 are similar and lie between $\sim 1.3 \times 10^{-14}$ and $\sim 5 \times 10^{-14} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ as shown in a previous study¹⁴. Using the activation energy of $Q = 84 \text{ kJ/mole}$ for grain boundary diffusion of Al at $T = 443 \text{ K}$ (corresponding to $170 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$)¹⁴, it follows that the diffusion coefficient, D , may be estimated to be between 1.60×10^{-24} and $6.16 \times 10^{-24} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$. Applying the experimentally determined

232 activation energy of 68 kJ/mole, the value of D can be found between 1.23×10^{-22} and $4.74 \times$
233 $10^{-22} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ at 170 °C, which is almost two orders of magnitude higher than the
234 aforementioned values calculated for grain boundary diffusion in Al.

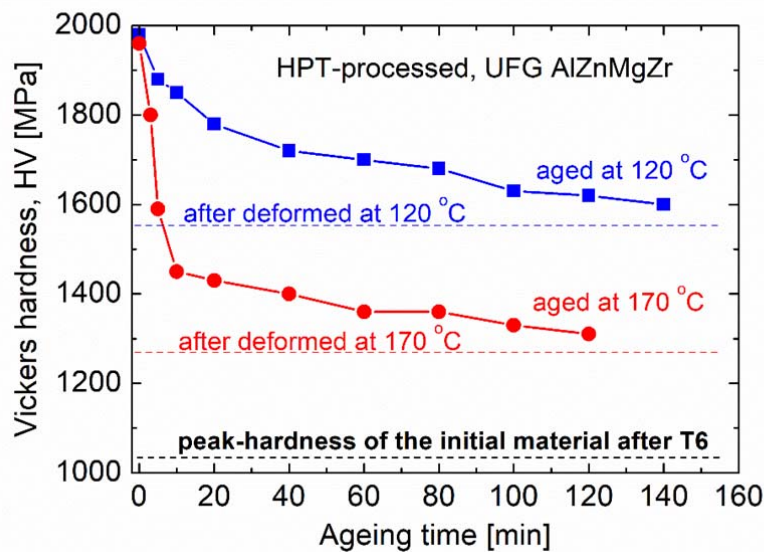
235 We can claim that it is Zn segregation at the grain boundaries that contributes to the
236 enhanced diffusion at grain boundaries. Indeed, according to both experimental and
237 simulation results shown in Figures 3, 4 and 5, respectively, the HPT-processed Al-Zn-Mg-Zr
238 sample can be regarded as a two-phase system comprising a grain interior phase and a thin
239 layer grain boundary phase enriched in Zn and Mg. Considering the Al-Zn binary phase
240 diagram, the addition of Zn to Al yields a lower temperature of melting. Similar effect can be
241 observed when Mg is added to Al. For relatively low Zn and Mg concentrations, 1 at.% solute
242 addition results in a reduction of the solidus temperature with 8.3 and 13 K, respectively. The
243 solidus temperature can be considered as a quasi-melting point of the grain boundary phase.
244 Thus, for the grain boundary composition shown in Fig. 4e, the concentrations of Zn and Mg
245 (4 and 6 at.%, respectively) can cause more than 100 K reduction of the melting point. Due to
246 the lower melting point, the testing temperatures between 120 and 170 °C corresponded to an
247 elevated homologous temperature higher than 0.5 during deformation with GBS. Indeed, for
248 fcc crystals the activation energy of grain boundary diffusion is proportional with the melting
249 point and the proportionality constant is $0.078 \text{ kJ}/(\text{mole}\cdot\text{K})^{20}$. Using the estimated melting
250 point of the grain boundary phase (about 830 K), 65 kJ/mole is calculated for the activation
251 energy of grain boundary diffusion which agrees with the measured value within the
252 experimental error ($68 \pm 5 \text{ kJ/mole}$). The higher quasi-homologous temperature is certainly an
253 important factor which resulted in a higher activation of grain boundary sliding and thereby
254 contributed highly to the excellent superplasticity. As noted above, in the UFG Al-Zn alloy an
255 enhanced GBS and a high ductility are observed even during deformation at RT.

256 Considering separately the segregation of Zn and Mg solutes to grain boundaries, it
257 should be noted that both the experimental results (see Fig. 4e) and recent simulations and

258 theoretical calculations reveal a significant difference between the profiles of these atoms
259 across the grain boundary²¹. While a relatively broad segregation having 5–6 nm half-width
260 can be observed for Mg, a much thinner Zn layer with 2–3 nm half-width formed at the
261 boundary shown in Figure 3. This is due to the extra effect of the electronic structure in the
262 case of Zn, as 3d element²¹. Because of the broad segregation, the promoting effect of Mg
263 addition on the deformation in the grain boundaries due to the reduction of the quasi-melting
264 point can be lowered or even suppressed by the hindering effect of the large Mg atoms on the
265 dislocation motion. Dislocation glide acts as a complementary mechanism beside grain
266 boundary diffusion during superplastic deformation since the change of the grain shape can
267 occur with the help of dislocation slip. Therefore, the broadly distributed Mg atoms with large
268 size hinder the dislocation motion effectively in the vicinity of grain boundaries, thereby
269 hindering the occurrence of superplastic deformation. Indeed, superplasticity has not been
270 observed in ultrafine-grained Al-Mg solid solutions without Zn addition. If the effect of Mg
271 on the melting point depression in the grain boundaries is neglected, the Zn segregation alone
272 yields a grain boundary activation energy of about 70 kJ/mole (see the previous paragraph for
273 the fundamentals of this calculation) which is also close to the experimentally determined
274 activation energy of the superplastic deformation for the present alloy (68 kJ/mole). Thus, it is
275 the grain boundary segregation of Zn, rather than Mg, that is responsible for the accelerated
276 diffusion and enhanced sliding, which are necessary conditions for the occurrence of
277 superplasticity at lower temperatures. It is also evident that the increased concentration of
278 defects (vacancies and grain boundary dislocations) at grain boundaries in UFG alloys may
279 also make a certain contribution to the acceleration of these processes^{15,22,23}. Furthermore, the
280 presence of Zn particles in triple junctions may contribute to the steadiness of the superplastic
281 flow process²⁴.

282 The significant advantage of low-temperature superplasticity is, on the one hand, the
283 potential energy savings during low temperature deformation, and on the other hand, the

284 preservation of the fine-grained microstructure. Experimental results have shown that, as it
 285 can be seen in Fig. 3, the microstructure of the sample after superplastic deformation at 170
 286 °C remains equiaxial and ultrafine with an average grain size of about 400 nm. Similarly to
 287 the effect of static annealing, MgZn₂ phase small precipitates with a size between 10 and 70
 288 nm were formed inside the grains during deformation at 170 °C. Owing to both the ultrafine
 289 grain size and the strengthening particles, the material retains its high strength even after
 290 superplastic deformation, as shown in Fig. 6, where the room temperature Vickers hardness
 291 (HV) of the HPT-processed and the superplastically deformed UFG samples can be seen and
 292 compared with the peak hardness of the initial coarse-grained sample.



304 **Fig. 6 Results on Vickers hardness.** The room temperature Vickers hardness (HV) of the
 305 samples after superplastic deformation at 120 °C (blue dashed line) and 170 °C (red dashed
 306 line), as well as the peak hardness obtained for the initial coarse-grained sample after the
 307 conventional T6 treatment (black dashed line). The hardness values of the HPT-processed
 308 UFG samples statically annealed for different times at 120 °C (blue solid square) and 170 °C
 309 (red solid circle) are also plotted to show the thermal stability of this sample.

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311 It is well established that the so-called T6 conventional heat treatment must be applied
312 to the 7xxx series alloys for producing the maximum strength^{25,26}. This treatment
313 conventionally includes the aging at 120 °C for 24 hours of quenched and supersaturated
314 samples, resulting in the maximum strengthening effect of precipitates. In the present case,
315 the peak hardness of the initial sample after the T6 treatment is ~1020 MPa. It can be seen
316 that the hardness values of the samples after superplastic deformation (1280 and 1560 MPa at
317 170 and 120 °C, respectively) are still 20-50% higher than the mentioned peak hardness of the
318 initial sample after the conventional T6 treatment. It should be noted that without annealing
319 the hardness of the HPT-processed UFG sample (~1960 MPa) is almost double the mentioned
320 peak hardness of the initial coarse-grained sample, unambiguously confirming the
321 significance of SPD processing. When annealing is implemented at temperatures not higher
322 than 170 °C, together with some activated effects decreasing the hardness, the microstructure
323 of the HPT-processed sample remains relatively stable, preserving the high strength.

324 Summarizing the above, the performed research demonstrates for the very first time
325 the possibility of extremely low-temperature superplasticity in traditional Al alloys of the
326 7xxx series. The origin of this effect is related to the formation, through SPD processing, of
327 an UFG structure where Zn segregations are present at grain boundaries, providing
328 accelerated diffusion and enhanced sliding at lower temperatures. The discovery of the low-
329 temperature superplasticity creates an opportunity for the development of new technologies
330 for the superplastic forming of complex-shaped products exhibiting a high structural strength
331 in operating conditions at room temperature.

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337 **Methods**

338 **HPT processing.** The HPT process is described in detail elsewhere¹².

339 **Microstructural studies.** The microstructure of the HPT-processed sample was investigated
340 by transmission electron microscopy (TEM). First, a thin foil was prepared by mechanical
341 polishing and then it was thinned till perforation at -20 °C by twin-jet electropolishing using a
342 chemical solution containing 33% HNO₃ and 67% CH₃OH. A Titan Themis G2 200 scanning
343 transmission electron microscope (STEM) was used for TEM and energy-disperse X-ray
344 spectroscopy (EDS) investigations. The microscope was equipped with a four-segment Super-
345 X EDS detector. A corrector for the spherical aberration (Cs) was applied at the imaging part,
346 while no probe-correction was present. The STEM images were taken by a Fishione high-
347 angle annular dark-field (HAADF) detector. The elemental maps were recorded by EDS in
348 spectrum-image mode.

349 **Strain rate sensitivity tests.** Strain rate sensitivity of the investigated samples were
350 determined by indentation creep carried out in the temperature range of 100÷170 °C using a
351 Nanoindenter G200 machine working with maximum load of 50 mN and a three-sided,
352 customized Berkovich pyramid. Elevated testing temperatures were realized using a
353 commercial heating stage (MTS Nanoinstrument). The procedure for determination of strain
354 rate sensitivity by using indentation creep can be found in Ref.²⁷.

355 **Tensile tests.** Samples with a gauge length of 2.0 mm and a cross section of 1.0 × 0.8 mm
356 were fabricated from the HPT-processed disk and deformed by tension at different strain rates
357 and different temperatures lower than 0.5 × T_m. Tensile tests were conducted at testing
358 temperature of 120, 150, 170 °C and strain rate $\dot{\epsilon}$ of 5 × 10⁻⁴ s⁻¹ by using the testing machine
359 Instron 5982. Vickers microhardness was measured using a Zwick Roell ZH μ hardness tester
360 with a load of 5 N for dwell time of 10 s.

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363 **Data availability**

364 The data that support the findings of this study are all own results of the authors, not available
365 anywhere.

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442 N.Q.C. and R.Z.V. conceived and guided the research. M.Y.M. and E.V.B. implemented the
443 HPT processing and tensile tests. J.L.L. and J.G. performed the structural studies. Zs.K.
444 carried out the simulation calculations. A.Q.A. and V.M.K. conducted the indentation and
445 hardness tests. N.Q.C., R.Z.V., M.Y.M., J.G. and Zs.K. interpreted and discussed the results,
446 and wrote the text of the paper.

447

448 **Competing interests**

449 The authors declare no competing interests.

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