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Effect of heat treatment on the structure and properties of magnesium alloy MA20 subjected to severe plastic deformation

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ABSTRACT

Introduction. One of the most promising fields for the application of magnesium alloys is medicine. Their key advantages are bioresorbability and a low elastic modulus, comparable to that of human cortical bone (up to 30 GPa). Biocompatible *Mg-Zn-Zr-Ce* (MA20) system alloys are among the most promising for medical applications. Due to their relatively low mechanical properties, the development of severe plastic deformation (SPD) techniques for forming an ultrafine-grained (UFG) state in bulk billets of the *Mg-Zn-Zr-Ce* alloy to achieve optimal functional properties requires further research. Analyzing the conditions for forming a high-strength UFG state necessitates considering various strengthening mechanisms, including well-known ones related to the effect of UFG structures. Identifying the deformation and strain hardening mechanisms in magnesium alloys subjected to SPD is also highly relevant. The **purpose of this work** is to establish the mechanisms of strain hardening and to investigate the influence of heat treatment on the structure and properties of the MA20 magnesium alloy after combined SPD. **Research methods.** The study object was the MA20 alloy in a UFG state (wt. %: Mg – 98.0; Zn – 1.3; Ce – 0.1; Zr – 0.1; O – 0.5). The UFG state was achieved via a combined SPD process involving ABC-pressing followed by multi-pass rolling in grooved rolls. To study the effect of annealing on the microstructure and mechanical tensile properties, samples were annealed in air at temperatures of 200, 250, 300, and 500 °C for 24 hours. The microstructure and phase composition of the samples were investigated using optical and transmission electron microscopy. **Results and discussion.** It was established that applying a combined SPD method (ABC-pressing and multi-pass rolling) to the MA20 alloy results in the formation of an ultrafine-grained structure with an average grain size of about 1 μm. This leads to a significant increase in yield strength ($\sigma_{0.2}$) to 250 MPa and ultimate tensile strength (σ_u) to 270 MPa, while simultaneously reducing ductility to 3%. Annealing at 200 °C was found to preserve the UFG state in the MA20 alloy and to lead to a 100% increase in ductility, with an 8% decrease in $\sigma_{0.2}$ and a 4% decrease in σ_u compared to the initial UFG state (non-annealed). **Conclusions.** It was revealed that the grain boundary ($\sigma_{grain} = 202$ MPa) and dislocation ($\sigma_{dis} = 69$ MPa) strengthening contributions provide the most significant increase in the strength of the UFG MA20 magnesium alloy. For the magnesium alloy in the UFG and fine-grained (FG) states, a critical grain size interval of (1–7) μm was identified, corresponding to a sharp increase in the intensity of change for the calculated contributions of dislocation ($d\sigma_{dis}/dd$), grain boundary ($d\sigma_{grain}/dd$), overall strengthening ($d\sigma_{total}/dd$), and dislocation density (dp/dd). For the coarse-grained (CG) state of the alloy in the grain size range (7–40) μm, these parameters stabilize.

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Introduction

One of the most promising areas for the use of magnesium alloys is considered to be medicine [1]. Their key advantages are bioresorbability and a relatively low elastic modulus, comparable to that of human cortical bone (up to 30 GPa). The matching of the elastic moduli of bone tissue and the magnesium alloy eliminates high stresses at the bone-implant interface [2]. Magnesium and its alloys have the ability to undergo bioresorption, making them useful for certain types of orthopedic and vascular surgeries. The resorption of a magnesium implant and its replacement by bone tissue in the body during treatment avoids the need for repeated surgical intervention. The disadvantages of magnesium alloys include low corrosion resistance and the release of hydrogen during metal corrosion [3]. Furthermore, for some implants subjected to load-bearing applications, the level of strength properties does not meet the necessary requirements. Alloying magnesium with specific elements can reduce the resorption rate of the implanted device, thereby increasing corrosion resistance, as well as enhance mechanical strength while maintaining satisfactory ultimate plasticity.

Elements considered favorable for medical applications include Ca, Mn, Zn, Sn, Sr, and Ce [4]. The most promising for medical applications are alloys based on the Mg-Zn-Zr system. The addition of Ce up to 0.3 wt. % to the Mg-Zn-Zr system improves plasticity [5]. Microalloying with Ce leads to the formation of finer and more spherical intermetallic compounds, which promote the nucleation of crystallization sites and refine the average grain size [6].

In magnesium alloys, an enhancement of mechanical properties can be achieved by refining the grain structure using methods of severe plastic deformation (SPD) [7]. This approach allows for a 2 to 2.5-fold increase in strength properties without the introduction of additional alloying elements, due to the formation of an ultrafine-grained (UFG) structure.

To date, there are publications presenting research results on the structure [5] and mechanical properties [8] of Mg-Zn-Zr system alloys with additions of Ce and Ca in various structural states [9]. However, despite a number of publications [1,3,4,10-12] dedicated to achieving an ultrafine-grained (UFG) state in magnesium alloys via SPD methods, the problem of obtaining an average grain size of less than 1 μm still remains. Furthermore, there is a need to identify regimes for the subsequent thermal treatment of magnesium alloy products to relieve residual internal stresses and enhance plasticity while simultaneously preserving the UFG structure of the alloy. UFG and fine-grained (FG) states in magnesium alloys are characterized by relatively low plasticity and limited fatigue endurance. This is associated with the peculiarities of their hexagonal close-packed (HCP) lattice, in which deformation occurs primarily through slip on basal planes, significantly reducing the workability of products and semi-finished workpieces made from such alloys.

At room temperature, two main deformation mechanisms are realized in magnesium alloys: basal slip and twinning [13]. An increase in temperature during deformation leads to the activation of several slip planes: basal $\{0001\}$, prismatic $\{1010\}$, pyramidal $\{1122\}$, and twinning $\{1012\}$, and consequently, to an increase in the plasticity of magnesium after deformation processing [14]. Therefore, the pressure treatment of magnesium and its alloys is conducted at temperatures of 250-430 $^{\circ}\text{C}$, which allows for the activation of prismatic and pyramidal slip systems [15], as well as secondary twinning [16]. A study of the deformation behavior of magnesium and its alloys in [17] showed that at temperatures below 225 $^{\circ}\text{C}$, the primary deformation mechanism is twinning, which usually leads to a sharp drop in plasticity.

It is known that the UFG structure formed by SPD methods in metals and alloys has its own specific features associated with the small grain size, high lattice curvature, extensive non-equilibrium grain boundaries, etc., which leads to a significant increase in the strength of materials [18]. Furthermore, the use of SPD methods promotes the segregation of alloying elements at grain boundaries and the formation of fine dispersoids of secondary phases [19]. In combination with the ultrafine-grained structure, this provides an additional contribution to the enhancement of the strength characteristics of metals. In this regard, research aimed at analyzing the influence of various strengthening mechanisms on strength properties, including UFG alloys, is of particular relevance.

For magnesium alloys, strengthening mechanisms have been studied in works [12,20]. Study [12] established that in the Mg-1Zn-0.2Ca alloy, microalloying with Zn and Ca promotes the realization of the

grain boundary strengthening mechanism by refining the structure to an FG state during multi-directional isothermal forging. This made it possible to significantly increase the mechanical properties in tensile tests, raising the yield strength to 210 MPa, the ultimate tensile strength to 260 MPa, and the elongation to failure to 20 %.

The authors of [21] investigated the effect of extrusion on the microstructure of an Mg-Y-Gd-Zr alloy, which was additionally alloyed with Sm and Gd. It was found that the reduction in grain size is related to the magnitude of accumulated strain. The study also investigated the influence of the Sm addition on the kinetics of the decomposition of the magnesium solid solution in the Mg-Y-Gd-Zr alloy in the deformed state. It was shown that after deformation, the Mg-Y-Gd-Zr and Mg-Y-Gd-Sm-Zr alloys were additionally strengthened by the solid solution mechanism.

In work [20], a significant contribution of strain hardening to the overall strength of an alloy from the Mg-Zn-Ca system was identified. It is shown that the application of a combined SPD method allows for a reduction of the average grain size from 220 to 20 μm , thereby increasing the ultimate strength of the alloy from 144 to 233 MPa.

To analyze the conditions for the formation of a high-strength state in UFG alloys, it is necessary to account for various strengthening mechanisms, including well-known ones associated with the influence of UFG structures. Therefore, the issues of identifying the deformation and strain hardening mechanisms of magnesium alloys formed under severe deformation conditions require further investigation.

The aim of this work was to establish the mechanisms of strain hardening in MA20 alloy subjected to combined SPD and to determine the influence of heat treatment on its structure and properties. To achieve this aim, the following **research tasks** were set:

1. To evaluate the grain size in MA20 alloy after the application of the SPD method.
2. To perform mechanical testing of alloy samples in various states to assess the strength and plasticity of the alloy.
3. To evaluate the contributions of various strengthening mechanisms (grain boundary, dislocation, etc.) to the yield strength of the alloy under different thermal treatments.
4. To determine the grain size interval at which a change in the strain hardening mechanisms of MA20 magnesium alloy occurs.

Research methodology

The object of the study was the commercial magnesium alloy (MA20) of the Mg-Zn-Zr-Ce system, developed at the All-Russian Scientific Research Institute of Aviation Materials (Moscow, Russia). The magnesium alloy billet was produced by remelting at the All-Russian Institute of Light Alloys (Moscow, Russia, JSC VILS) followed by hot rolling to a plate thickness of 30 mm. The alloy had the following composition (wt. %): Mg – 98.0; Zn – 1.3; Ce – 0.1; Zr – 0.1; O – 0.5.

The UFG state in MA20 magnesium alloy was achieved using a combined SPD method, consisting of 3abc pressing and multi-pass rolling [22]. At the 3abc pressing stage, the billet was pressed in a die at a temperature of 250 °C, being rotated by 90° after each pressing cycle. The total logarithmic strain for all pressing stages amounted to 1.1. Rolling of the samples, preheated to 250 °C, was carried out at room temperature to a total logarithmic strain of 1.5.

To investigate the influence of the final heat treatment temperature on the mechanical properties of the magnesium alloy, samples in the UFG state were annealed at temperatures of 200, 250, and 300 °C for 24 hours in a SNOL 10/11 muffle furnace and cooled in air. The selected temperature-time regimes of thermal treatment ensured a low rate of diffusion processes in the magnesium alloys [23]. For the complete relaxation of stresses, the initial alloy was annealed at a temperature of 500 °C for 8 hours in a SNOL 10/11 muffle furnace followed by cooling in air.

The microstructure of the obtained billets was studied using an optical microscope (Altami MET 1 MT, St. Petersburg, Russia) and a transmission electron microscope (TEM) (JEOL JEM 2100 electron microscope, Tokyo Boeki Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) equipped with an energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy

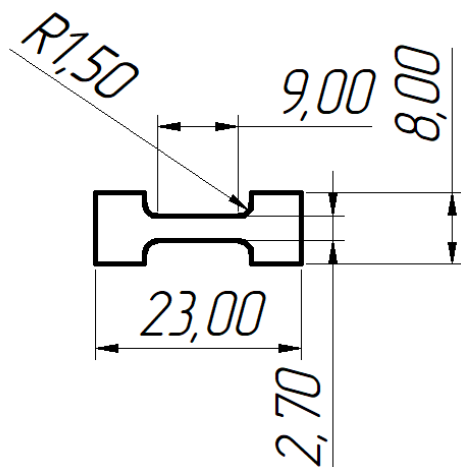


Fig. 1. Schematic representation of specimens for mechanical tensile testing

(EDS) attachment. The elemental composition of the samples prior to deformation was determined using a Niton XL3t X-ray fluorescence analyzer (Thermo Scientific, Massachusetts, USA).

Microhardness measurements were conducted using the Vickers method on a Duramin-5 tester (Struers, Ballerup, Denmark). The yield strength, ultimate tensile strength, and maximum elongation were determined during tensile tests using a UTS-110M-100 testing machine (Test-Sistemy, Ivanovo, Russia). For these tests, flat “dog-bone” shaped specimens with the following working dimensions were used: thickness – 3.0 mm, width – 2.7 mm, length – 9.0 mm. A diagram of the specimens for mechanical testing is presented in Figure 1. The specimens were manufactured using the wire electrical discharge machining (EDM) method.

Sample preparation for transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was performed by cutting the billets into 0.3 mm thick plates using electrical discharge machining (EDM), which were then mechanically thinned to a thickness of 0.1 mm on P2500 grit sandpaper. Further sample preparation was carried out by ion milling using an ion mill (JEOL Ion Slicer EM-09100IS, Tokyo Boeki Ltd., Tokyo, Japan). Interplanar spacing data were calculated from microdiffraction patterns using the Crystallography Open Database (COD) as of 21.01.2025. The average size (of grains, subgrains, fragments) was determined by the linear intercept method. The scalar dislocation density was determined by the linear intercept method using bright-field TEM images and the following formula [24]:

$$\langle \rho \rangle = \frac{1}{t} \cdot \left(\frac{N_1}{L_1} + \frac{N_2}{L_2} \right), \quad (1)$$

where $t = 150$ nm is the foil thickness; N_1 and N_2 are the total numbers of intersections of dislocations with the horizontal and vertical lines, respectively, drawn on the bright-field TEM image; L_1 and L_2 are the total lengths of all horizontal and vertical lines, respectively, drawn on the bright-field TEM image, nm.

Additionally, the types of dislocation substructures were determined based on the corresponding values of scalar dislocation density and electron microscopy images of the regions of the studied samples. The assessment of the contributions of various mechanisms to the strain hardening of the alloy for the investigated structural states was performed according to the methodology presented in [19].

Subsequently, dependencies of dislocation density and the contributions of strengthening mechanisms on the average grain size were plotted. The obtained dependencies were differentiated, and the derivatives were plotted, characterizing the intensity of change in the contributions of the strengthening mechanisms, the total stress, and the dislocation density with respect to the grain size.

Results and Discussion

Figure 2a shows an optical image of the microstructure of MA20 magnesium alloy in the initial coarse-grained (CG) state. The alloy's microstructure consists of equiaxed grains based on an α -solid solution of alloying elements in magnesium. The average grain size, determined by the linear intercept method, was 25.0 ± 10.0 μm . A large number of predominantly spherical particles and regions of particle accumulation are observed inside the grains, which are uniformly distributed within the grains.

According to literature data, in alloys of the Mg-Zn-Zr-Ce system, these particles are identified as nanoscale intermetallic compounds MgZn_2 , CeZn_3 , and $\text{Ce}_3\text{Zn}_{11}$ [25]. Furthermore, the alloys contain larger particles ranging from 2 to 10 μm , which are zirconium and cerium hydrides (ZrH_2 and Ce_2H_5) [22].

During deformation, hydride particles can acquire additional mobility, which, in turn, leads to their further agglomeration in the process of deformation, affecting the level of mechanical properties. Thus, the authors of [26] established the role of the influence of hydrides and dissolved hydrogen in the magnesium

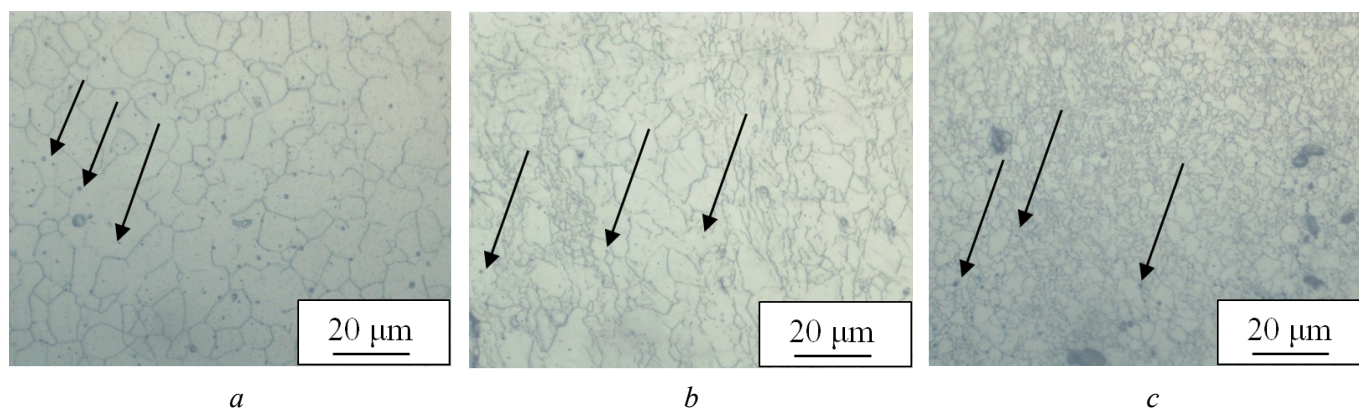


Fig. 2. Optical images of the microstructure of the MA20 alloy in different states:
a – CG; *b* – FG; *c* – UFG. Particles of hydrides and intermetallics are indicated by arrows

matrix on the mechanical properties of Mg-Al, Mg-Zn, Mg-Ca, and Mg-RE alloy systems. It was shown that hydrides reduce the mechanical properties of magnesium alloys because they act as sinks for dislocations, leading to crack formation. Hydrides also agglomerate during deformation. This reduces the material's plasticity and is a significant drawback that limits the practical application of magnesium alloys [27]. A more detailed description of the microstructure of the MA20 alloy was provided by the authors of this study in work [22].

The average grain size decreases after deformation by 3abc pressing. After 3abc pressing, a fine-grained (FG) state is formed with an average grain size of $3.0 \pm 1.5 \mu\text{m}$ (Figure 2b). The fraction of hydride and intermetallic particles remains unchanged after the deformation processing. Most grains are non-equiaxed and have an irregular shape. Subsequent deformation by rolling promoted additional refinement of the primary phase microstructure to $1.0 \pm 0.7 \mu\text{m}$ (Figure 2c), which corresponds to an ultrafine-grained (UFG) state. According to optical metallography data (Figure 2), deformation by rolling leads to the agglomeration of particles and hydrides, which may indicate their high mobility during SPD [28].

The results of TEM studies of the alloy's microstructure in the CG state are presented in Figure 3. Bright-field TEM images show equiaxed grains of the primary phase based on an α -solid solution of alloying elements in magnesium (HCP lattice) and particle inclusions (Figure 3a, d). As a result of microdiffraction analysis, the intermetallic compounds MgZn_2 , CeZn_3 , and $\text{Ce}_3\text{Zn}_{11}$ were identified in the CG alloy (Figure 3b, e). Figure 3a, c, d, e present dark-field and bright-field images of MgZn_2 , CeZn_3 , and $\text{Ce}_3\text{Zn}_{11}$ particles.

Additionally, EDS analysis was performed, which showed that in MgZn_2 particles, the ratio of magnesium to zinc (at. %) is 1.5:2, which corresponds to the stoichiometric composition of the intermetallic compound, since magnesium is the primary phase in the alloy. For the CeZn_3 and $\text{Ce}_3\text{Zn}_{11}$ intermetallics, the element ratios (at. %) are 1:3.5 and 1:4, respectively, which are close to the stoichiometric compositions of the particles.

According to the Mg-Zn [29] and Zn-Ce [30] phase diagrams, the indicated intermetallic compounds are stable and exist at room temperature. It should be noted that intermetallic compounds can significantly influence deformation processes by inhibiting grain boundary motion [19].

After *abc*-pressing, subgrains form inside the matrix grains (Figure 4a). A network dislocation substructure forms inside the subgrains (Figure 4b, c) with a scalar dislocation density of $5 \cdot 10^9 \text{ cm}^{-2}$. The phase composition of the alloy in the FG state corresponds to that of the alloy in the CG state. The alloy contains intermetallic compounds MgZn_2 , CeZn_3 , and $\text{Ce}_3\text{Zn}_{11}$, as well as a certain amount of zirconium hydride ZrH_2 and cerium hydride Ce_2H_5 , which was confirmed by SEM studies and X-ray phase analysis by the authors in a previous work [22].

Combined SPD (*abc*-pressing + rolling) leads to the formation of a UFG structure with an average grain size of $1.0 \pm 0.7 \mu\text{m}$. TEM images reveal a cellular-network dislocation substructure (Figure 5b, c) with a scalar dislocation density of $2 \cdot 10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-2}$. The phase composition of the alloy did not change qualitatively after the combined SPD.

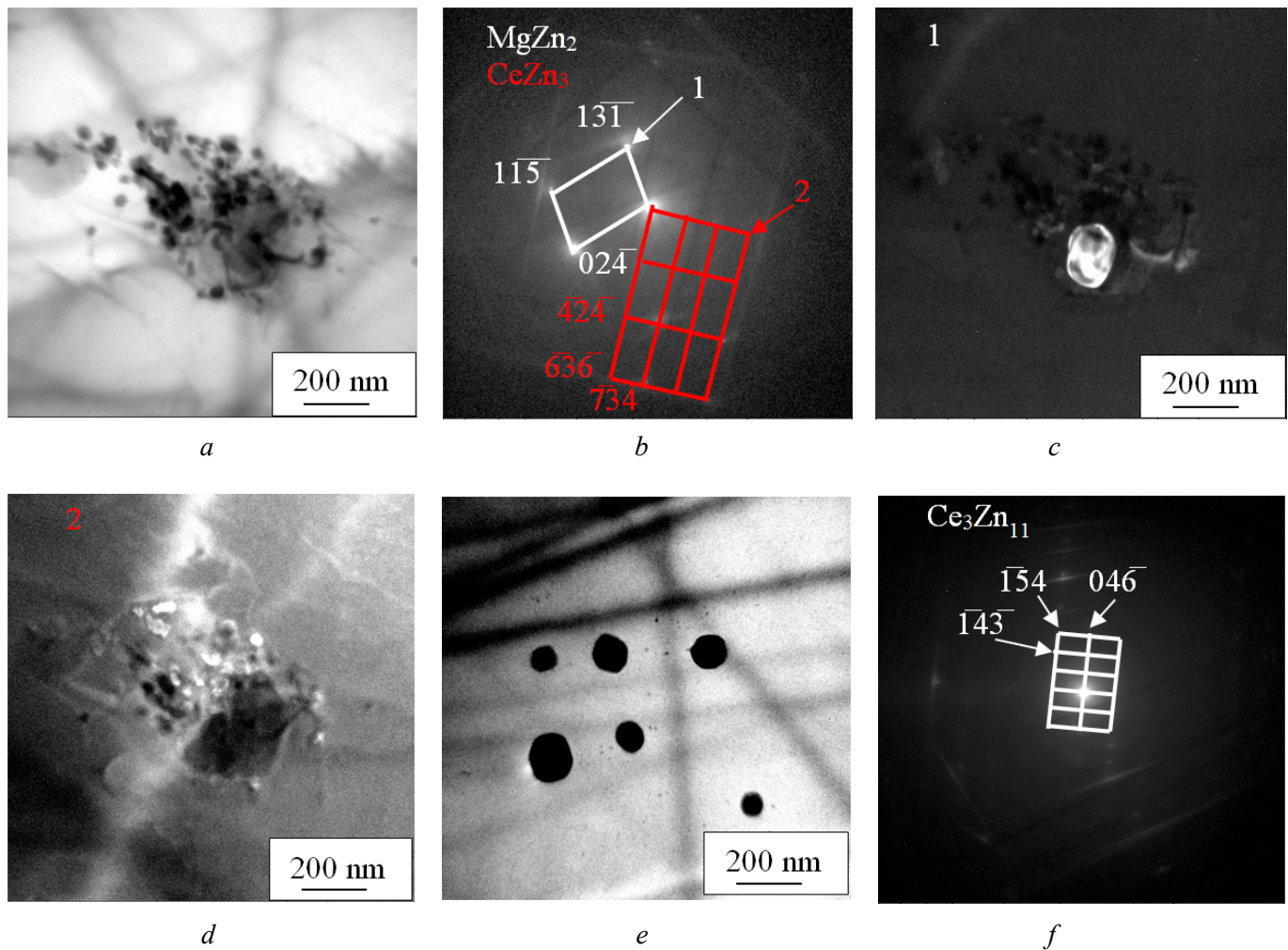


Fig. 3. TEM images of the microstructure of the magnesium alloy in the CG state:

a, e – bright-field image of particles $MgZn_2$, $CeZn_3$ and Ce_3Zn_{11} ; *b, f* – microdiffraction pattern from intermetallic compounds $MgZn_2$, $CeZn_3$ and Ce_3Zn_{11} ; *c, d* – dark-field image of particles $MgZn_2$ and $CeZn_3$

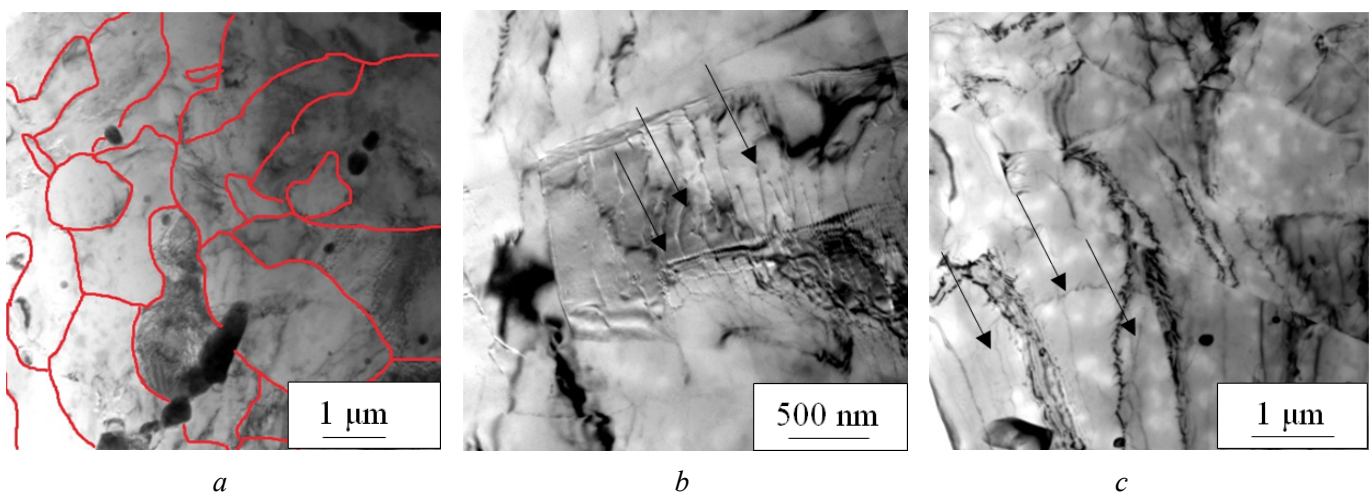


Fig. 4. TEM images of MA20 alloy in the FG state:

a – bright-field image of the alloy grain structure; *b, c* – bright-field image of the dislocation substructure. Network dislocation structure is indicated by arrows

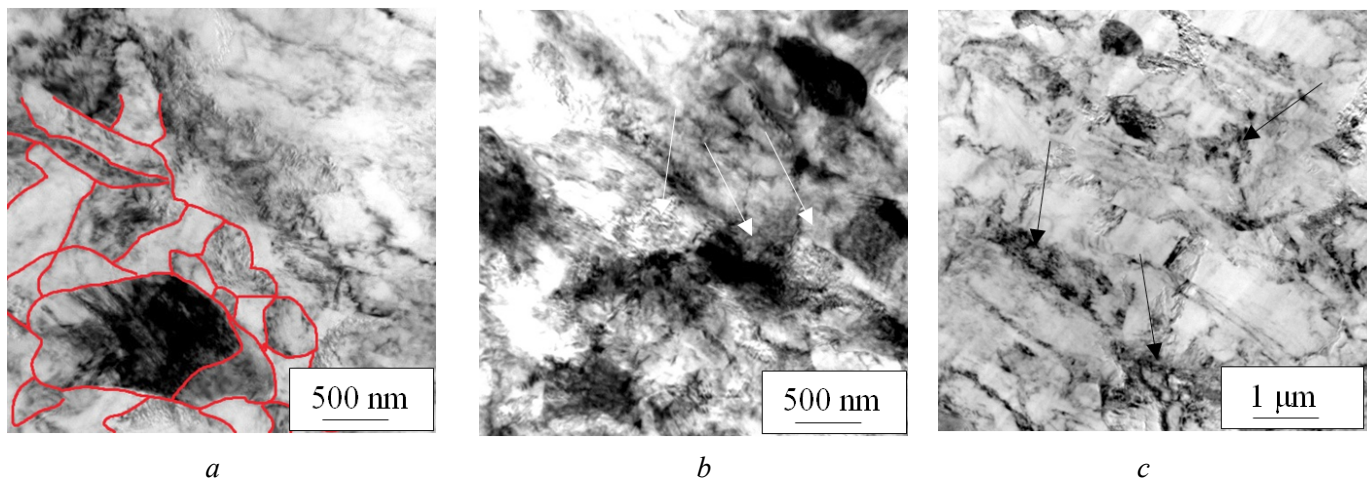


Fig. 5. Bright-field TEM images of MA20 alloy in the UFG state:

a – subgrain structure; *b*, *c* – cellular-network dislocation substructure. Arrows indicate the dislocation substructure

At the next stage, microstructural studies were conducted for the UFG alloy samples after annealing for 24 hours at temperatures of 200, 250, and 300 °C. Optical images of the microstructure of the UFG alloy subjected to heat treatment at various temperatures are presented in Figure 6.

Based on the results of optical microscopy, it was established that annealing the magnesium alloy in the UFG state at a temperature of 200 °C preserves the UFG state of the alloy. Annealing at 250 and 300 °C increases the average grain size to $1.5 \pm 0.8 \mu\text{m}$ and $7.0 \pm 5.0 \mu\text{m}$, respectively, transitioning the alloy into the FG state.

TEM images of the alloy's microstructure after thermal treatment are presented in Figure 7. The results of TEM studies confirm the optical microscopy data. Annealing at 200 °C leads to a decrease in dislocation density in the alloy from $2 \cdot 10^{10}$ to $9 \cdot 10^9 \text{ cm}^{-2}$; however, the dislocation substructure remains largely unchanged – cellular-network (Figure 7a). An increase in the annealing temperature to 250 °C leads to an increase in grain size and a further decrease in the scalar dislocation density to $6 \cdot 10^9 \text{ cm}^{-2}$; the dislocation structure becomes a network with a chaotic distribution of dislocations within it (Figure 7b). The TEM images show that the alloy's structure becomes more homogeneous throughout the volume, which indicates the onset of recrystallization processes. A further increase in the annealing temperature to 300 °C leads to more intense recrystallization processes in the alloy and a substantial increase in grain size. The network dislocation structure transforms into individual dislocation clusters. The dislocation density decreases to $4 \cdot 10^9 \text{ cm}^{-2}$ (Figure 7c).

After annealing at 200 °C, the dislocation density was found to be $9 \cdot 10^9 \text{ cm}^{-2}$, which is lower than that of the UFG state ($2 \cdot 10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-2}$). An increase in the annealing temperature to 250 and 300 °C reduces the

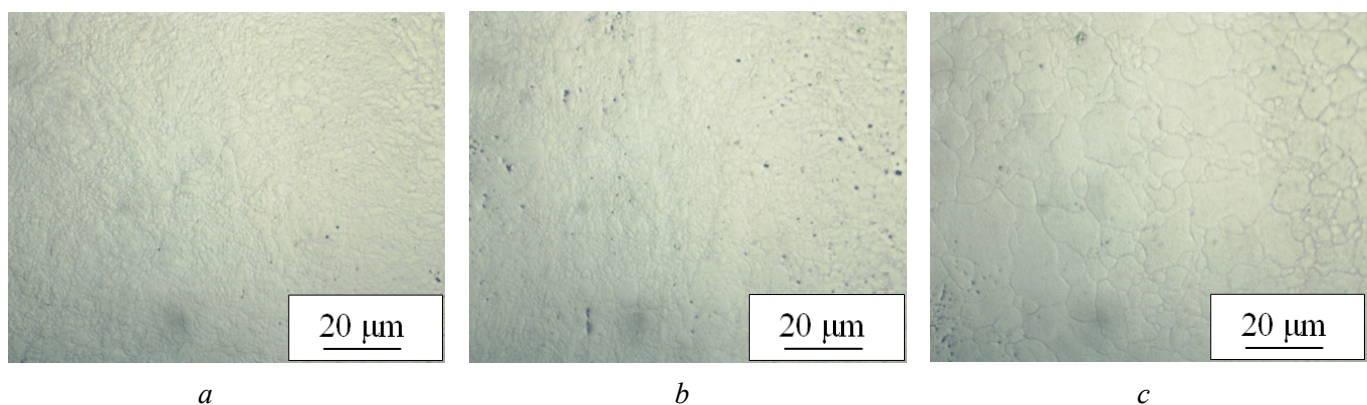


Fig. 6. Optical images of the structure of the UFG alloy after heat treatment:

a – 200 °C; *b* – 250 °C; *c* – 300 °C

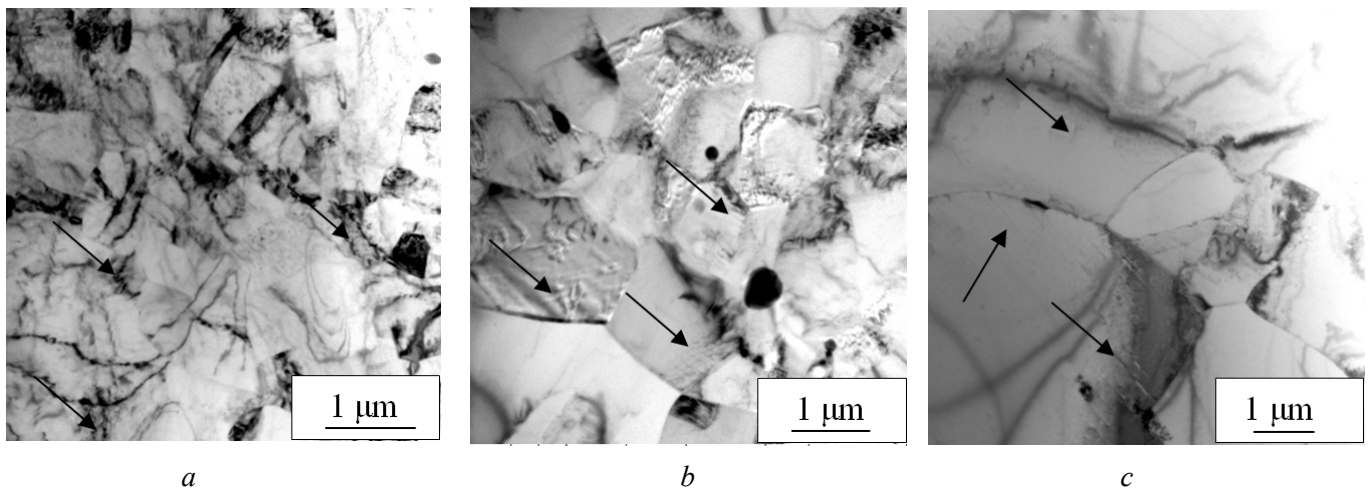


Fig. 7. Bright-field TEM images of the microstructure of the UFG alloy after heat treatment:

a – 200 °C, cellular-network dislocation structure; *b* – 250 °C, network dislocation structure; *c* – 300 °C, dislocation clusters and tangles. Arrows indicate the dislocation substructure

scalar dislocation density to $6 \cdot 10^9 \text{ cm}^{-2}$ (annealing at 250 °C) and further to $4 \cdot 10^9 \text{ cm}^{-2}$ (annealing at 300 °C), respectively, due to the activation of the recovery process [31].

Figure 8 shows the microstructure of the coarse-grained (initial) alloy after annealing at 500 °C. In this state, the structure has a distinct granular character and consists of equiaxed α -grains based on a magnesium solid solution (Figure 8a). The average grain size was $40.0 \pm 15.0 \text{ μm}$. Furthermore, a small number of intermetallic particles of secondary phases, which did not dissolve during the annealing process, are observed along the grain boundaries.

Figure 9a presents the tensile stress-strain curves of the alloy samples. Mechanical testing showed that the UFG sample has the maximum values of yield strength and ultimate tensile strength ($\sigma_{0.2} = 250 \text{ MPa}$ and $\sigma_{\text{UTS}} = 270 \text{ MPa}$) compared to the FG ($\sigma_{0.2} = 40 \text{ MPa}$ and $\sigma_{\text{UTS}} = 220 \text{ MPa}$) and CG ($\sigma_{0.2} = 250 \text{ MPa}$ and $\sigma_{\text{UTS}} = 190 \text{ MPa}$) states. The ultimate plasticity of the alloy for the UFG, FG, and CG states was 3%, 9%, and 13%, respectively.

Heat treatment of the alloy in the UFG state leads to a decrease in strength properties and an increase in the plasticity of the alloy (Figure 9b). Annealing at a temperature of 200 °C results in a 100% increase in plasticity and the achievement of high strength without changing the grain size. In this case, $\sigma_{0.2}$ and σ_{UTS} decrease slightly – by 8% and 4%, respectively – compared to the UFG state (without annealing). Fur-

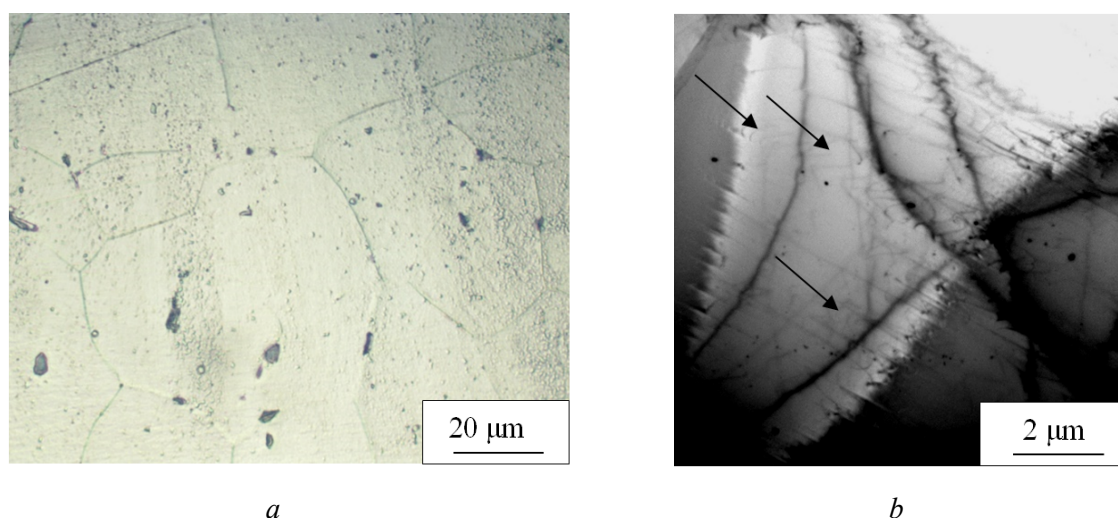


Fig. 8. Optical (*a*) and bright-field TEM (*b*) images of the alloy microstructure after annealing at 500 °C. Arrows indicate the dislocation substructure

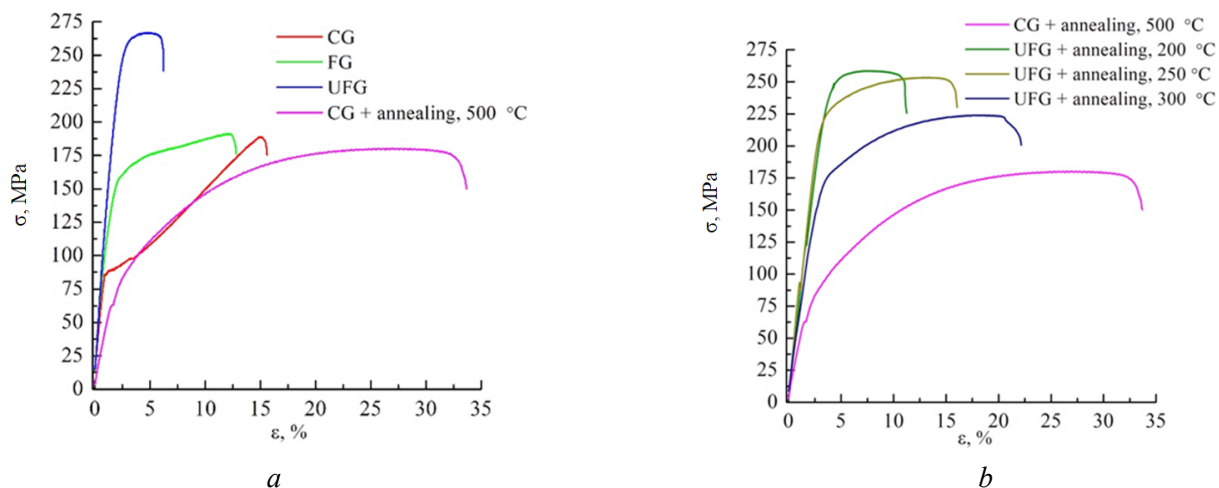


Fig. 9. Stress-strain curves in different structural states (a) and after annealing at 500, 300, 250 and 200 °C (b)

ther annealing of the alloy at 250 °C leads to an increase in ultimate plasticity and a decrease in the yield strength. Subsequently, annealing at 300 °C also results in a decrease in strength properties and an increase in ultimate plasticity due to a reduction in defect density and recrystallization.

High-temperature annealing (500 °C) of the alloy in the CG state, which was applied for the complete relaxation of internal stresses, is characterized by active recrystallization, which leads to a sharp decrease in strength and the achievement of the highest plasticity.

Table 1 presents data on the influence of grain size on the mechanical properties of the alloy. To identify the main strengthening mechanisms in the magnesium alloy, an assessment of the contributions of the active

Table 1

Mechanical and structural properties of MA20 alloy

Number	Alloy state	Average grain size, μm	$\sigma_{0.2}$, MPa	σ_{UTS} , MPa	δ , %	Scalar dislocation density, $\langle\rho\rangle$, cm^{-2} Dislocation substructure type
1	CG + annealing, 500 °C	$40,0 \pm 15,0$	60	180	25	$8 \cdot 10^8$ Individual dislocations and dislocation clusters
2	CG	$25,0 \pm 10,0$	90	190	13	$4 \cdot 10^9$ Dislocation clusters
3	UFG + annealing, 300 °C	$7,0 \pm 5,0$	150	220	17	$4 \cdot 10^9$ Dislocation clusters and tangles
4	FG	$3,0 \pm 2,0$	140	220	9	$5 \cdot 10^9$ Network dislocation substructure
5	UFG + annealing, 250 °C	$1,5 \pm 0,8$	210	250	11	$6 \cdot 10^9$ Network dislocation substructure and dislocation clusters
6	UFG + annealing, 200 °C	$1,0 \pm 0,7$	230	260	6	$9 \cdot 10^9$ Network dislocation substructure
7	UFG	$1,0 \pm 0,7$	250	270	3	$2 \cdot 10^{10}$ Cellular-network dislocation substructure

Note: $\sigma_{0.2}$ – yield strength, σ_{UTS} – ultimate tensile strength, δ – elongation to failure.

strengthening mechanisms to the yield strength of the magnesium alloy was carried out [19,32]. This work involved the calculation of the additive contributions of strengthening mechanisms, such as the lattice friction stress, dislocation strengthening, and grain boundary strengthening, to the yield strength of the alloy:

$$\sigma_{total} = \sigma_0 + \sigma_{dis} + \sigma_{gb}, \quad (2)$$

where σ_{total} is the calculated yield strength of the alloy; σ_0 is the stress due to dislocation slip in a single crystal, as well as solid solution and dispersion strengthening; σ_{dis} is dislocation strengthening; σ_{gb} is grain boundary strengthening.

It is known that the primary strengthening mechanism in UFG metals and alloys is grain boundary strengthening, described by the Hall-Petch equation [18,19,33]. The mechanisms of strain hardening in magnesium alloys also include dislocation slip and twinning [34]. Study [35] demonstrated that the primary strengthening mechanism in samples of extruded AZ31 alloy under cyclic deformation according to a “compression-tension” scheme is twinning. Typically, active twinning in magnesium alloys promotes effective grain refinement even at low strains. Study [36] investigated a ZK60 alloy in the FG state (average grain size – 3 μm), produced by extrusion. It was established that the alloy deforms through twinning and basal slip at high strain rates ($\dot{\epsilon} = 10^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$); however, at lower rates ($\dot{\epsilon} = 10^1 \text{ s}^{-1}$), the twinning mechanism is suppressed, leading to a sharp decrease in the plasticity of the magnesium alloy.

In study [37], grain boundary strengthening for the magnesium alloy was determined using the Hall-Petch relationship:

$$\sigma_{gb} = Kd^{-1/2}, \quad (3)$$

where K is the Hall-Petch constant; d is the average grain size of the primary phase. Based on the obtained experimental data (Table 1), the dependence of the yield strength $\sigma_{0.2}$ on $d^{-1/2}$ was plotted (Figure 10). In the grain size interval of (1-40) μm , the dependence of $\sigma_{0.2}$ on $d^{-1/2}$ is linear ($K = 202 \text{ MPa} \cdot \mu\text{m}^{1/2}$). In accordance with the Hall-Petch relationship, for the studied alloy, the value of σ_{gb} is 40 MPa.

The contribution of the dislocation structure to the material's strengthening was calculated using the Taylor equation [38]:

$$\sigma_{dis} = b \cdot \chi \cdot G \cdot \sqrt{\rho}, \quad (4)$$

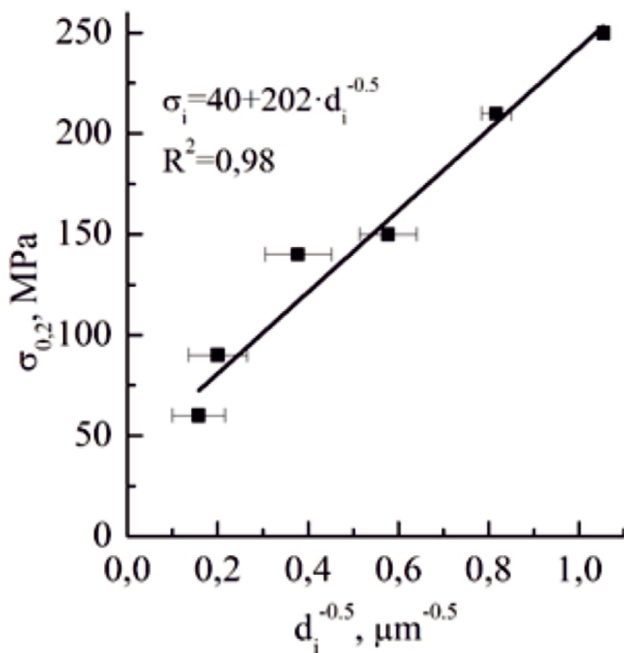


Fig. 10. Dependence of the yield strength $\sigma_{0.2}$ on the $d^{-1/2}$

where $\chi = 0.9$ is a constant characterizing the interaction between dislocations [38]; $b = 0.321 \text{ nm}$ is the magnitude of the Burgers vector for the most probable slip plane (the basal plane $\{0001\}$ was considered as the most probable in this work); $G = 17 \text{ GPa}$ is the shear modulus for magnesium [39]; and $\langle \rho \rangle$ is the scalar dislocation density. The dislocation density values for magnesium in various structural states are presented in Table 1.

The value of the friction stress σ_0 in a single crystal was taken as $\sigma_0 = 14 \text{ MPa}$, assuming that this value corresponds to the σ_0 for the equilibrium state of the CG alloy (annealed at 500 $^{\circ}\text{C}$). The value of σ_0 for the CG state of the alloy was estimated as: $\sigma_0 = \sigma_{0.2} - \sigma_{dis} - \sigma_{gb}$, where $\sigma_{0.2} = 60 \text{ MPa}$ (experimental data); $\sigma_{dis} = 14 \text{ MPa}$ and $\sigma_{gb} = 32 \text{ MPa}$ (calculated data, Table 2).

The calculated values of σ_{gb} and σ_{dis} are presented in Table 2. For the CG alloy, the contribution from grain boundary strengthening was

Contributions of different strain hardening mechanisms in MA20 alloy in various structural states

Alloy state	σ_{dis} , MPa	σ_{gb} , MPa	σ_0 , MPa	σ_{total} , MPa	$\sigma_{0.2}$, MPa
CG	16	40	14	96	90
FG	35	117	14	166	140
UFG	69	202	14	286	250
UFG + annealing at 200 °C	47	202	14	263	230
UFG + annealing at 250 °C	38	165	14	217	210
UFG + annealing at 300 °C	31	76	14	122	140
CG + annealing at 500 °C*	14	32	14	60	60

* Note: CG + annealing at 500 °C – annealing of the initial coarse-grained state of the alloy at 500 °C for 8 hours to achieve a large grain size and relaxation of internal stresses.

≈40 MPa. The transition of the alloy to the FG state is accompanied by a substantial increase in σ_{gb} – to 117 MPa, due to the significant refinement of the grain structure. The application of the combined SPD method, including abc press forging followed by rolling, forms a structure with a minimal grain size, which increases the value of grain boundary strengthening to 202 MPa. Annealing of the UFG alloy at 200 °C does not affect the value of σ_{gb} compared to the UFG state without annealing, while maintaining an average grain size of 1 μm . Annealing at 250 and 300 °C promotes grain growth to 1.5 and 7 μm , respectively, and thereby reduces the grain boundary strengthening of the alloy to 165 and 76 MPa.

Annealing the CG (initial) alloy at 500 °C leads to the formation of a coarse-grained structure, whereby the contribution of grain boundary strengthening decreases to 32 MPa.

For the alloy in the CG state, the contribution of the dislocation strengthening mechanism was 16 MPa. In the FG state, the dislocation density increases, and the contribution of dislocation strengthening reaches 35 MPa. The UFG state is characterized by a high dislocation density and the maximum contribution of dislocation strengthening – 69 MPa. Annealing at 200 °C causes microstructural relaxation, a significant reduction in dislocation density, and, consequently, a decrease in σ_{dis} to 47 MPa. Subsequent annealing at 250 and 300 °C leads to a reduction in σ_{dis} to 38 and 31 MPa, which can be attributed to the activation of recovery processes and a decrease in the scalar dislocation density in the magnesium alloy samples. These results are consistent with the TEM data, which show a reduction in scalar dislocation density accompanied by a decrease in the contribution of dislocation strengthening. Simultaneously, annealing increases the average grain size, which reduces strength due to the decrease in both dislocation and grain boundary strengthening. During recrystallization annealing of the CG alloy at 500 °C, the dislocation density is minimal, and the calculated contribution of dislocation strengthening decreases to 14 MPa. The calculated values of σ_{total} are in good agreement with the experimental data for $\sigma_{0.2}$ obtained from tensile mechanical tests.

Thus, the greatest contribution to the increase in strength of the magnesium alloy during combined SPD is made by the grain boundary strengthening mechanism, whose contribution due to grain refinement to 1 μm is $\sigma_{\text{gb}} = 202$ MPa, and the dislocation strengthening mechanism with a contribution of $\sigma_{\text{dis}} = 69$ MPa.

The presented calculated data are estimates but allow for the identification of the most significant contributions to the overall strengthening, and thereby, the primary strengthening mechanisms of the magnesium alloy. The dependencies of dislocation density and the calculated strengthening contributions on the average grain size for alloy MA20 are presented in Figure 11.

On the presented dependencies, a range with grain sizes from 1 to 7 μm can be identified, where a decrease in grain size is accompanied by a decrease in the values of σ_{dis} , σ_{gb} , σ_{total} и $\langle\rho\rangle$. This specified grain size range corresponds to the following alloy states: UFG, UFG (annealed at 200, 250, 300 °C), and FG.

Figure 12 presents graphs of the change in the intensity of the contributions to the flow stress.

On the specified dependencies, two regions with different intensities of change in σ_{dis} , σ_{gb} , σ_{total} and $\langle\rho\rangle$ can be identified. In Region I, (1–7) μm , a sharp change in the contributions and dislocation density occurs

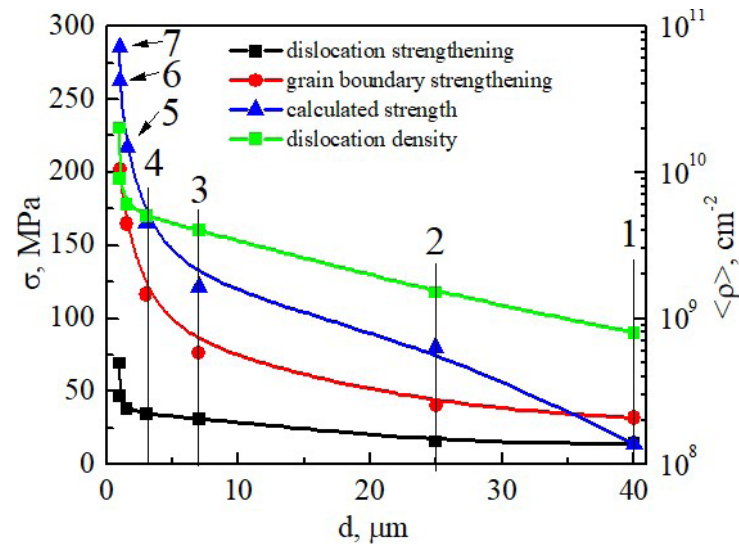


Fig. 11. Dependences of the contributions: σ_{dis} , σ_{grain} , σ_{total} , and dislocation density on the grain size (sample numbers are presented in Table 1)

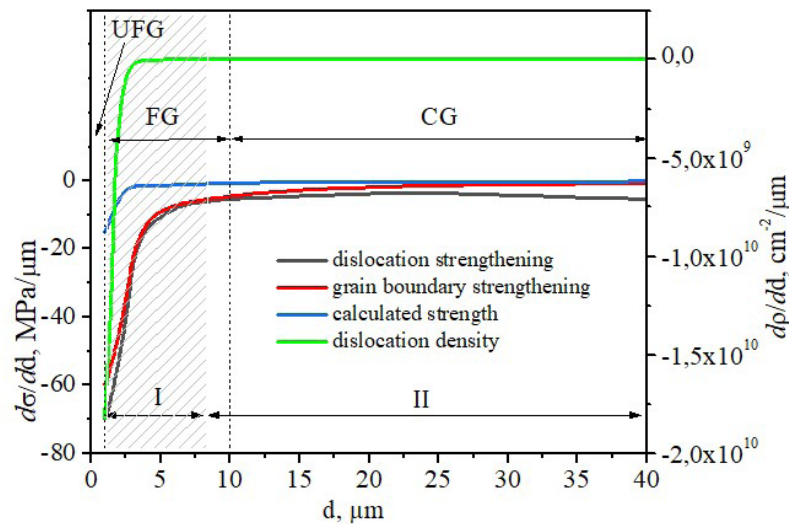


Fig. 12. Dependences of changes in the intensity of $d\sigma_{dis}/dd$, $d\sigma_{grain}/dd$, $d\sigma_{total}/dd$, dp/dd on the grain size

for the UFG and FG states of the alloy. Region II can be characterized by a small change in the values $d\sigma_{dis}/dd$, $d\sigma_{gb}/dd$, $d\sigma_{total}/dd$, dp/dd , which corresponds to the CG state.

The change in the character of the dependencies is associated with the structural relaxation of the alloy during the transition from the UFG to the FG state due to recovery and defect annihilation processes, transformations of the structure inside grains and at grain boundaries, and the reorganization of the dislocation substructure during annealing. It is assumed that non-equilibrium grain boundaries, unlike equilibrium ones, form long-range stress fields that remain significant even over considerable distances and are capable of influencing the motion of intragranular dislocations. The low intensity of change in the contributions $d\sigma_{dis}/dd$, $d\sigma_{gb}/dd$, $d\sigma_{total}/dd$, and the density dp/dd for the CG state of the alloy suggests the formation of an equilibrium “sub-lattice” of grain boundary defects [19].

Conclusion

1. The application of a combined SPD method, involving sequential abc press forging and multi-pass rolling of MA20 magnesium alloy, leads to the refinement of the grain structure to a UFG state (average

grain size: 1 μm), a substantial increase in yield and ultimate tensile strength ($\sigma_{0.2} = 250 \text{ MPa}$, $\sigma_{\text{UTS}} = 270 \text{ MPa}$) and a reduction in plasticity to 3%.

2. An assessment of the contributions from strain hardening mechanisms to the total yield strength σ_{total} during combined SPD was conducted. It was shown that the greatest contribution to the strengthening of the UFG MA20 magnesium alloy is made by the grain boundary ($\sigma_{\text{gb}} = 202 \text{ MPa}$) and dislocation ($\sigma_{\text{dis}} = 69 \text{ MPa}$) strengthening mechanisms.

3. Annealing at 200 °C preserves the UFG state in the MA20 magnesium alloy but, compared to the initial UFG state, promotes partial structural relaxation, a significant reduction in dislocation density, a 31% decrease in the σ_{dis} contribution, an 8% decrease in $\sigma_{0.2}$, a 4% decrease in σ_{UTS} , and a 100% increase in plasticity.

4. For the studied alloy in the UFG and FG states, an interval of grain sizes equal to (1–7) μm was identified, corresponding to an abrupt change in the intensities of the dislocation density derivative ($d\rho/dd$), the contributions of the dislocation and grain boundary mechanisms to strain hardening ($d\sigma_{\text{dis}}/dd$, $d\sigma_{\text{gb}}/dd$), and the value of the total strengthening derivative $d\sigma_{\text{total}}/dd$.

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Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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