

Does Shear Thickening Occur in Semisolid Metals?

Helen V. Atkinson^{a*} and Veronique Favier^b

^a Department of Engineering, University of Leicester, University Rd., Leicester, LE1 7RH, UK, hva2@le.ac.uk

^b Arts et Métiers Paris Tech, PIMM UMR CNRS 8006, 151 Bd de l'Hôpital, 75013 Paris, France, veronique.favier@ensam.eu

*Corresponding author : Tel : 0044-116-2522547

Abstract

In the various forms of semi-solid processing such as thixoforming and thixoforging, the entry into the die occurs in a fraction of a second so it is the transient rheological behaviour which governs the initial stages of flow. In experiments in the literature, this rheological behaviour is probed through applying rapid transitions in shear rate under isothermal conditions. There is contradictory evidence as to whether the behaviour during these transitions is shear thinning or shear thickening, although it is clear that once in the die the material is thinning. Here the data in the literature is reanalysed to obtain a rationalisation of the contradictions which has not previously been available. It is argued that if a suspension is initially in a disagglomerated state (i.e. one which is initially sheared) the instantaneous behaviour with a jump-up in shear rate is shear thickening (even if the long term steady state behaviour is shear thinning) provided the fraction solid is greater than about 0.36 and the final shear rate at the end of the jump is greater than about 100 s^{-1} . If the jump-up in shear rate is made from rest then yield masks the shear thickening.

Keywords: Shear thickening; Semisolid; Thixotropy; Rheology; Yield; Transient behaviour.

1. Introduction and Background

Processing of metals in the semisolid state is a widely established technology [e.g.1].

Thixoforming, thixocasting, thixoforging, thixomolding, rheocasting and rheoforming are all semisolid processing methods. They rely on the *thixotropic* property of metallic alloys in the semisolid state which have a spheroidal rather than dendritic microstructure; when sheared the material thins but when allowed to stand it thickens again [2,3]. This behaviour is exploited to drive the material into a die and obtain a near net shape component in one shot. Although the technology is established the modelling of such complex systems still needs further development. In particular, the entry into the die occurs in a fraction of a second so it is the transient rheological behaviour which governs the initial flow. In the literature, this rheological behaviour is probed experimentally through applying rapid transitions in shear rate under isothermal conditions.

In this section the scene will be set for the reanalysis by outlining: the basic nature of thixotropy in semisolid metallic alloy systems; the distinction between steady state behaviour and that associated with a transient; the connection between discontinuous shear thickening as encountered for dense suspensions of cornstarch in water and the potential for shear thickening to be masked by shear stress. In addition, the interplays between yield stress and thixotropy and the distinction between the existence of a yielded zone and shear banding/shear localisation are described. All these issues are relevant to the reanalysis here of the experimental data in the literature to arrive at a rationalisation of the contradictory evidence as to whether shear thickening does occur in semisolid metals. Finally, in this section, the concept of ‘isostructure’ with rapid transitions in shear rate is highlighted along

with the issues around the timescale for rapid shear rate jump experiments before the aim of the paper is summarised.

Basic Nature of Thixotropy in Semisolid Metallic Alloy Systems

The particles here are spheroids of solid metal in a Newtonian liquid metal matrix and there is the potential for particle aggregation by the formation of minute ‘welds’ at the points where the spheroids contact by a mechanism very akin to sintering. The particles therefore show some *cohesion* in the terminology of soil mechanics. However, many of the mechanisms of interaction which apply in non-metallic suspension systems (e.g. electrostatic, steric, induced electric or magnetic dipoles) do not apply here. When the material is allowed to stand, or is sheared at a relatively low shear rate, the particles gradually agglomerate, with the average size of the agglomerates related to the shear rate [3]. If the solid fraction is fairly high (in the region of 0.4 or above), when the material is still, the spheroids develop a solid ‘skeleton’ that provides some rigidity. The authors have recently shown that the skeleton introduces an elastic-type response into the behaviour during rapid compression from rest [4]. When the shear rate increases, the agglomerates are broken up and, for a constant shear rate, a new characteristic agglomerate size is established. Therefore, in the steady state at a given shear rate, there is an equilibrium between agglomeration and disagglomeration.

Distinction between Steady State Behaviour and Transients

It is important to distinguish here between steady state behaviour and that associated with a transient. So for alloys in the partially solid state, if the material is sheared for a substantial period at a particular shear rate, a steady state will be established (although this may be a quasi-steady state because some particle coarsening will be occurring by Ostwald ripening). If a series of such steady states are established and the viscosity for each calculated, a plot of

viscosity versus shear rate can be derived. When the viscosity decreases with increasing shear rate, the material is termed shear thinning and, if it increases, shear thickening [5]. For alloys with spheroidal microstructure in the semisolid state, the behaviour in the steady state is always shear thinning.

Connection with Discontinuous Shear Thickening in Dense Suspensions of Cornstarch in Water: The Masking of Shear Thickening by a Yield Stress

A particularly dramatic form of shear thickening is that termed *discontinuous shear thickening* where the viscosity increases by many orders of magnitude for a small increase in shear rate. This is the phenomenon observed with dense suspensions of cornstarch in water, which allows someone to run across the surface of the suspension in a swimming bath for example (but when they stand still they sink in). Brown et al. [6] have argued that all suspensions should show shear thickening under certain conditions because the underlying mechanisms (hydrodynamics [7,8], dilatation [9-11]) are general but they demonstrate that shear thickening can be masked by a yield stress. They attribute discontinuous shear thickening to frictional particle contacts that form when dense particle arrangements begin to dilate and push against boundaries [12]. The shear thickening could be enhanced to give a discontinuous effect if the hydroclusters (giving rise to continuous shear thickening) eventually become so large that they span the system and jam. Brown and Jaeger [13] have recently identified for cornstarch in water that shear thickening can occur because of the confining stress at boundaries frustrating dilatation.

Micromechanical modelling applied on a Representative Volume Element containing solid globules, solid bonds, entrapped and free liquid has been developed and used to predict the strain rate sensitivity of the overall viscous material (Favier et al.[14]). The solid phases were

considered non-Newtonian with a strain rate sensitivity index lower than one, as for hot-deformed alloys, while the liquid phases were considered as Newtonian. The modelling, considering viscous interactions, was not able to produce a shear thickening behaviour. This result is consistent with the fact that the shear thickening response is not an intrinsic bulk material response but is related to interaction with the boundaries which confine the suspension (Brown and Jaeger [15]).

Existence of a Yielded Zone; Distinction between a Yielded Zone and Shear Banding/Shear Localisation

The interplay between yield stress and thixotropy is discussed in Møller et al. [16]. They argue that below a critical shear rate, all the flow is localized in a region near the shearing wall and *‘if the globally imposed shear rate is increased it is not the shear rate in the sheared region that increases but rather the extent of the sheared region which grows – to fill the entire gap of the shear cell exactly at the critical shear rate’*. (Note that this localization is distinct from wall slip). The Møller et al. [16] paper is concerned with the steady state rather than transients, and is supported by experimental data for semisolid metal alloys [17].

Alexandrou et al. [18,19] focus on the early stages of breakdown by applying finite element modelling to the fluid in the rheometer gap, presenting graphs which show, for shear rates below a critical shear rate, the yielded zone initially expands but then the boundary between yielded and unyielded material reaches a stationary position (and if the gap is relatively narrow this will be equivalent to the whole gap having yielded). In addition, the boundary can in fact retract.

There is a distinction between the existence of a yielded zone and issues of shear banding and shear localisation. Essentially, once shear localisation starts to occur it becomes a self-

exacerbating phenomenon with shear being increasingly concentrated in that band. Gourlay and Dahle have discussed this in a paper in Nature [20] with illustrations of banding from a vane rheometer (Fig. 1a). However, in the quenched samples from concentric cylinder rheometers (e.g. Liu's thesis [21]) there is no evidence of such banding (Fig. 1b). This may well be because the number of particles spanning the gap is much smaller than in the Gourlay and Dahle experiments [20]. Also the Gourlay and Dahle hypothesis is essentially based around dilatation. In contrast with Gourlay and Dahle, in the concentric cylinder rheometer experiments reviewed here, there are relatively few particles spanning a gap which is long and narrow, giving severe restriction on dilatation. This is consistent with the argument in Brown and Jaeger [12] about the confining stress of boundaries frustrating dilatation.

The Concept of 'Isostructure' and the Timescale for Rapid Shear Rate Jump Experiments

The behaviour during such transient conditions of shear rate for semisolid alloys has been represented by Quaak [22] as shown in Fig. 2. When a rapid jump-up in shear rate occurs (the upper part of Fig. 2), immediately after the jump (in that *instant*), the material is 'isostructure' with the starting material. A fast process of deagglomeration (breaking of bonds between spheroids) then occurs. Subsequently, a much slower diffusion controlled process of coarsening and spheroidisation takes place (note the change in *shape* of particles). For a jump-down in shear rate (the lower part of Fig. 2), the processes after 'isostructure' are 'fast' agglomeration followed by a slow growth of necks between spheroids and coarsening (although it should be noted that the agglomeration in the jump-down in the lower half of Fig. 2 is significantly slower than the deagglomeration in the upper half with the jump-up).

A rapid jump up in shear rate then has to be fast enough to ensure isostructure i.e. it has to be faster than the characteristic disagglomeration time. Kumar et al. [23] evaluate this to be of

the order of seconds but Liu et al. [24] find it to be in the region of ~ 0.16 s (their Table 1). The time for the transient in shear rate is of the order of 10 ms in Kumar et al. [23] and 100 ms in Liu et al. [24] thus satisfying this requirement. The timescale for the transient in Koke and Modigell [25] is not stated but is short. Peng and Wang [26] have a transient time of 0.1s. In practice, a purely isostructural jump will be impossible to achieve because some microstructural processes will always start to occur during the jump.

Aim of the Paper

There is contradictory evidence in the literature [22-29] as to whether the behaviour during rapid increases in shear rate is shear thinning or shear thickening, although it is clear that once in the die the material is thinning [30]. Kumar et al. [23,27] and Koke and Modigell [25,28] (with further analysis of Ref [28] by Burgos et al. [29]) find their material to be shear thickening during the transient, Quak [22] and Liu et al. [24] observe the material is shear thinning. Peng and Wang [26] study the behaviour but do not state a conclusion. Here the data in the literature is reanalysed, aiming to answer the question ‘Does shear thickening occur in semisolid metals?’. This paper does not present new experimental results but rather a new, consistent, objective, analysis to rationalise apparent contradictions. The experimental results from the literature have never been compared and contrasted in this systematic way before. The analysis is not dependent on the constitutive equation assumed by the authors of the experimental papers but rather takes their experimental data and deduces whether the behaviour is shear thickening or shear thinning, using classical rheological understanding of the definitions of shear thickening and shear thinning. It is assumed that deformation is homogeneous but the potential existence of a yielded zone is discussed to identify where this is relevant.

2. Analysis

In this section, firstly the experimental results in the literature for rapid shear rate jumps are summarised and then the method is given for the new analysis of those results.

Experimental Results in the Literature for Rapid Shear Rate Jumps

The experimental details for experiments on Sn15%Pb (which are concentrated on here as it is the ‘model system’ for the rheology of semisolid alloys) are summarised in detail in Table 1 as a series of experimental factors might explain the contradictions. All the results in Table 1 involve applying jumps in shear rate in cylindrical rheometers over very short time periods and measuring the consequent shear stress response. Table 1 identifies how each research work has reached its conclusion about whether the behaviour is shear thinning or shear thickening as this is critical for what follows. The deliberate strategy here is to keep the extensive detail about the experiments in the literature, and how those authors analyse their data, in the Table so that the flow of the argument in the main part of the paper is clear.

Method of Analysis in this Paper

Classical rheological understanding of the definitions of shear thickening and shear thinning means that absolute peak shear stress during the jump should be plotted against the shear rate the jump finishes on (Fig. 3). Here experimental data from the literature papers is used and the analysis is not dependent on any constitutive equation. The deformation is however assumed to be homogeneous. The right hand column in Table 1 identifies how the data for this figure has been obtained from the data in the literature. If the curve has an increasing slope with increasing shear rate it represents shear thickening behaviour and a decreasing slope with increasing shear rate is shear thinning. To obtain results which can be compared a conditioning shear rate (i.e. the shear rate before the jump) has been identified which is

common between the results of Koke and Modigell [25] (their Fig. 18 (b)) and the results of Liu et al. [24] (their Table IV). The only common shear rate is 100 s^{-1} . There are no results where the fraction solid is the same. The plot for Koke and Modigell [25] with a fraction solid 0.41 curves upwards and hence is shear thickening. For Liu et al. [24] at a fraction of solid of 0.5 there is a slight trend upwards, again indicating shear thickening. For a lower fraction of solid of 0.36 from Liu et al. the curve is clearly shear thinning (see Fig. 3 B). Results from Kumar et al. [27] have also been plotted. Although these are not from the common starting shear rate of 100 s^{-1} (they are based on Fig. 2 in Ref [27] paper I) they do allow some examination of trends and again show shear thickening. The Liu et al. [24] result for a fraction of solid of 0.36 is therefore the unusual result. This might be explained if there is some transition between 0.36 and 0.41. The Peng and Wang [26] results then support the hypothesis that there is a transition. Their results are for a conditioning shear rate of 200 s^{-1} . For fractions solid of 0.2 and 0.36 there is little or no evidence of shear thickening but at fractions solid of 0.46 and 0.5 there is. The other observation from Fig. 3 B is that, for jumps to a shear rate of 100 s^{-1} or less, where the fraction solid is less than or equal to ~ 0.36 , shear thickening is not apparent and for the higher fractions solid is hardly discernible. Most of the results for Liu et al. [24] are in this regime which helps to explain their thinking that they do not observe shear thickening.

Discussion

Factors which Might Explain the Discrepancies and Contradictions

Factors which might explain the discrepancies include:

- 1) Differences in the shear rate ranges and fractions solid considered;
- 2) Whether inertia (both of the measuring head and of the semisolid fluid itself) has been appropriately considered;

- 3) The size of the particles in relation to the size of the gap between the inner bob and outer cup of the rheometer;
- 4) The existence of a yield stress masking the shear thickening phenomenon as argued by Brown et al. [6].

Shear Rate Range and Fraction Solid

The shear rate range for the experiments by Kumar and co-workers [23,27] is higher than that for the experiments by Koke and Modigell [25,28] and Liu et al. [24] (and higher shear rate ranges would be expected to exacerbate shear rate thickening if it is due to hydrodynamics or dilatation). However, the latter two sets of experiments overlap in their shear rate ranges but are still apparently contradictory according to their authors. In terms of fraction solid, Kumar et al. [23,27] give results for 0.45 and above, Peng and Wang [26] for 0.2 through to 0.5, Koke and Modigell [25] for 0.41 and above, and Liu et al. [24] for 0.36 and 0.5. For fractions solid of 0.36 and less, the spheroids are quite widely separated and may well be less susceptible to clustering and jamming than for the higher fractions of solid.

Inertia

There are two types of inertia to consider; that of the measuring head and that of the semisolid fluid itself. Kumar considers inertia in the semisolid fluid in detail in his thesis [32], looking at microscopic Reynolds number (i.e. on the scale of the particle) and the Bagnold number. He concludes it is safe to ignore the inertial effects in the analysis and confirms this by carrying out shear rate transients at different rates and obtaining results which are essentially unchanged. There is no mention in the papers by Kumar et al. [23,27] or the Kumar thesis [32] of any consideration of the inertia of the measuring head although the experiments with shear rate transients at varying rates suggest that this is not an issue. Peng and Wang [26]

consider that the peaks observed in their work are due to the inertia of the fluid but do not then correct for the effect. Koke and Modigell [25] state ‘inertia effects were excluded from the data evaluation’. A subsequent private communication from Modigell [34] identifies that calculation and tests suggest that inertia may be dominant in tin-lead systems for 1 to 1.5 s. Since the sampling rate is 60 Hz, the first 60 to 100 values in the shear stress response were therefore disregarded for the evaluation of the ‘isostructure’ effect. The rheometer is the same type as in the experiments by Liu et al. [24] (i.e. Searle-type with a rotating bob and static cup) and the plot of shear stress against time in their Fig. 7 suggests that the decay in the shear stress after the transient occurs in less than about 0.2 s. In disregarding the first 1 to 1.5 s of values, the effect of any inertia from the measuring head will also have been dealt with, as the results of Liu et al. [24] suggest that the peak due to this in air (their Fig. 5) is dissipated well within 0.2 s. Liu et al. [24] deal with inertia of the measuring head by carrying out an identical test in air to that with the semisolid fluid. A peak in shear stress, immediately after the transient in shear rate is initiated, suggests that inertia is occurring. This is corrected for subsequently, subtracting results for an experiment in air from those for the equivalent shear rate jump with the semisolid fluid. Liu, in his thesis [21], calculates the Reynolds number for the fluid moving in the gap and concludes that the inertia of the fluid is not an issue. Since inertia of the fluid will increase as the height of the shear rate jump increases, if inertia does exist, and is not corrected for, it will tend to increase the tendency for there to be apparently shear thickening behaviour. However, it can be concluded that inertia has been appropriately dealt with via the various approaches the experimentalists have applied in the literature.

Particle Size and Rheometer Gap Size

The particle size in the Kumar et al. experiments is stated to be $\sim 150\ \mu\text{m}$ but it is not clear either in the papers [23,27] or in the original thesis by Kumar [32] that there has been any

check for coarsening during the experiments. The gap size is 3 mm (assumed to mean between the closest surfaces of the cup and the bob i.e. not including the grooves). For Koke and Modigell [25], the gap size is 4 mm and the paper itself is focussed on analysing particle coarsening during shearing and correcting rheological data for the effects of that. At 198°C (fraction solid, $f_s \sim 0.41$), the particle size after 1 hr. stirring at 100 s^{-1} (the ‘conditioning’ phase prior to the jump) is about 550 μm . This is significant in relation to the gap size. They observe that, if they continuously shear over a long period of time, some instabilities occur in the viscosity versus time curve. They attribute these to ‘blocking of huge agglomerates in the measuring gap’ and therefore limit their experiments to shorter time periods where these instabilities are not observed. This is mentioned here because clearly Koke and Modigell have set out to ensure their rapid shear rate jump results are not interfered with by discontinuous shear rate thickening (the instabilities) but they have found it can occur intermittently even under steady state conditions if the particles are large enough in relation to the gap size. Kumar et al. [23,27] limit their volume fraction solid to 0.45 and less because, above 0.45, they observed large ‘spikes’ in torque which they attribute to the formation of particulate ‘bridges’ between the cup and the bob. The gap size is smallest in the experiments by Liu et al. [24], at 1.45 mm. Particle sizes are $\sim 150 \mu\text{m}$ prior to a shear rate jump for $f_s \sim 0.36$ and $\sim 210 \mu\text{m}$ for $f_s \sim 0.5$. Liu et al. argue that for accurate measurements the particle size must be less than 1/3 of the gap width and that their experiments satisfy this requirement. Their results in Fig. 3B show that there is evidence of shear thickening for a fraction of solid of 0.5 (i.e. the lines curve upwards) but not for the lower fraction of solid of 0.36 (where the lines do not show such an upward trend), where the particle size is smaller. Fundamentally, there is an interrelationship between the particle size, the fraction solid and the gap size with jamming more likely to occur with large particles at high fractions of solid in small gaps.

Yield Stress Masking Shear Thickening?

Fig. 3 also shows the results for Liu et al. [24] where the material has been allowed to rest before the jump. Liu et al. [24] identify that there is a clear increase in peak stress with rest time prior to the jump and attribute this to the evolving degree of particle agglomeration. The longer the rest period in the semisolid state prior to semisolid processing the greater the resistance to deagglomeration in the initial stages of flow. Brown et al. [6] have argued that yield masks shear thickening. This is consistent with the argument in Alexandrou et al. [18,19] about the existence of a yielded zone for low shear rates. However, the evidence suggests that where a conditioning shear rate has been applied (in this case 100s^{-1} or above) such yielded zones are not relevant. They only influence the results for shear rate transients if the jump is from rest to a low shear rate with a relatively large gap size.

Rationalisation

From these findings, three conclusions are identified in terms of what determines whether shear rate thickening is observed for the transient in shear rate:

- 1) Shear rate thickening is not observed if the fraction solid is ~ 0.36 or less;
- 2) Shear rate thickening is barely discernible if the final shear rate of the jump is in the region of 100 s^{-1} or less and then only if the fraction solid is above ~ 0.36 .
- 3) Shear rate thickening is not observed if the material has been at rest prior to the jump in shear rate because the yield phenomenon masks any shear thickening tendency;

This analysis can rationalize the apparently contradictory results from Kumar et al. [23,27], Peng and Wang [26], Koke and Modigell [25] and Liu et al. [24]. The reanalysis shows that Liu et al. [24] do have results (for a fraction solid of 0.5) which display shear thickening but only when the shear rate jump is occurring from a finite shear rate. If it takes place from rest

then the yield stress masks any underlying behavior as discussed by Brown et al. [6] where it is argued that yield can mask shear thickening. For the jumps from a finite shear rate for fractions solid of greater than about 0.36, an instantaneous shear thickening response is occurring (even if the steady state behavior is shear thinning) almost certainly for the reasons identified by Brown and Jaeger [12] i.e. the confining stress at boundaries frustrating dilatation.

Figure 3 in Brown and Jaeger [12] is very similar to the Fig. 3 in this paper when plotted using a log-log scale. This strengthens the argument for our conclusions below. Also in Jiang et al. [35], a suspension of cornstarch was found to exhibit discontinuous shear thickening (such as that we have observed for semi-solid metals) for a volume fraction above 0.34, which is close to the 0.36 value we have been referencing for semi-solid metals. As mentioned by Brown and Jaeger [15], shear thickening starts to gradually appear at a packing fraction of typically around 0.3-0.4 and the slope on shear stress-shear rate curve increases with increasing volume fraction [15,35].

Jorstad et al. [36] indicates that in thin sections, solid particles cannot migrate away from the deformation area, so solid-solid interactions increase, resulting in increase in viscosity and so the possibility to have laminar flow at very high velocities. The mechanisms described are very similar to those related to jamming and discontinuous shear thickening. From a practical point of view, shear thickening is therefore potentially relevant for thixoforming at high velocities because it might contribute to ensure laminar flow.

3. Conclusions

There is contradictory evidence in the literature as to whether the behaviour during transitions in shear rate for semisolid metals with non-dendritic (i.e. spheroidal) microstructures is shear thinning or shear thickening. Here the data in the literature have been systematically reanalysed to rationalise the apparent contradictions. It is argued that if the suspension is disagglomerated before the shear rate jump (i.e. it has been initially sheared rather than the jump being from rest) the instantaneous behaviour with a jump-up in shear rate is shear thickening (even if the long term steady state behaviour is shear thinning) provided the fraction solid is greater than about 0.36 and the final shear rate at the end of the jump is greater than about 100 s^{-1} . If the jump-up in shear rate is made from rest then yield masks the shear thickening.

Acknowledgements

Professor Atkinson would like to thank Arts et Métiers Paris Tech for their invitation to be a Visiting Professor to carry out this work in collaboration with Professor Favier, and the University of Leicester for permission to visit.

References

1. H.V. Atkinson: Progress in Materials Science, 2005, vol. 50, pp. 341-412.
2. D.B. Spencer, R. Mehrabian and M.C. Flemings: Metallurgical Transactions, 1972, vol. 3, pp. 1925-32.
3. M.C. Flemings: Metallurgical Transactions A, 1991, vol. 22A, pp. 957-81.
4. V. Favier and H.V. Atkinson: Acta Materialia, 2011, vol. 59, pp. 1271-80.
5. H.A. Barnes: Journal of Rheology, 1989, vol. 33 (Issue 2), pp. 329-66.
6. E. Brown, N.A. Forman, C.S. Orellana, H. Zhang, B.W. Maynor, D.E. Betts, J.M. DeSimone and H.M. Jaeger: Nature Materials Letters, 2010, vol. 9, pp. 220-224.
7. J.F. Brady and G. Bossis: Journal of Fluid Mechanics, 1985, vol. 155, pp. 105-129.
8. B.J. Maranzano and N.J. Wagner: J. Chem. Phys., 2001, vol. 114, pp. 10514-10527.
9. R.L. Hoffmann: Adv. Colloid Interface Sci., 1982, vol. 17, pp. 161-84.
10. D. Lootens, H. van Damme, Y. Hémar and P. Hébraud: Phys. Rev. Lett., 2005, vol. 95, Article No. 268302 (4 pages).
11. A. Fall, N. Huang, F. Bertrand, G. Ovarlez and D. Bonn: Phys. Rev. Lett., 2008, vol. 100, Article No. 018301 (4 pages).
12. E. Brown and H.M. Jaeger: Science, 2011, vol. 333, pp. 1230-31.
13. E. Brown and H.M. Jaeger: J. Rheol., 2012, vol. 56, pp. 875-923.
14. V. Favier, P. Cezard and R. Bigot, Mater. Sci.Eng. A, 2009, vol. 517, pp.8-16.
15. E. Brown and H.M. Jaeger: Rep. Prog. Phys. 2014, vol. 77, Article number 046602.
16. P.C.F. Møller, J. Mewis and D. Bonn: Soft Matter, 2006, vol. 2, pp. 274-83.
17. A.R.A. McLelland, N.G. Henderson, H.V. Atkinson and D.H. Kirkwood: Materials Science and Engineering A, 1997, vol. A232, pp. 110-18.
18. A.N. Alexandrou and G. Georgiou: J. Non-Newtonian Fluid Mech., 2007, vol. 142, pp. 199-206.

19. A.N. Alexandrou, N. Constantinou and G. Georgiou: *J. Non-Newtonian Fluid Mech.*, 2009, vol. 158, pp. 6-17.
20. C.M. Gourlay and A.K. Dahle: *Nature*, 4 Jan 2007, vol. 445, pp. 70-73.
21. T.Y. Liu: *Rheology of semi-solid alloys under rapid change in shear rates*, PhD Thesis, University of Sheffield, 2002.
22. C.J. Quaak: *Rheology of partially solidified alloys and composites*, PhD Thesis, Technische Universiteit Delft, 1996, ISBN 90-5651-019-3.
23. P. Kumar, C.L. Martin, S. Brown: *Metallurgical Transactions A*, 1993, vol. 24A, pp. 1107-16.
24. T.Y. Liu, H.V. Atkinson, P.J. Ward and D.H. Kirkwood: *Metallurgical and Materials Transactions A*, 2003, vol. 34A, pp. 409-17.
25. J. Koke and M. Modigell: *Journal of Non-Newtonian Fluid Mechanics*, 2003, vol. 112, pp. 141-60.
26. H. Peng and K.K. Wang: *Steady-state and transient rheological behaviour of a semi-solid tin-lead alloy in simple shear flow*, in: D.H. Kirkwood and P. Kapranos (Eds.), *Proc. 4th Int. Conf. on Semi-Solid Processing of Alloys and Composites*, Sheffield, UK, June 1996, Publ. University of Sheffield, Sheffield, UK, 1996, pp. 2-9.
27. P. Kumar, C.L. Martin and S. Brown: *Acta Metallurgica et Materialia*, 1994, vol. 42 (No. 11), pp. 3595-3602 and 3603-3614.
28. M. Modigell, J. Koke and J. Petera: *Two phase model for metal alloys in the semi-solid state*, in: A.K. Bhasin, J.J. Moore, K.P. Young and S. Midson (Eds.), *Proc. 5th Int. Conf. on Semi-Solid Processing of Alloys and Composites*, Golden, Colorado, USA, June 1998, Publ. Colorado School of Mines, USA, 1998, pp. 317-326.
29. G.R. Burgos, A.N. Alexandrou and V. Entov: *Journal of Materials Processing Technology*, 2001, vol. 110, pp. 164-76.

30. H.V. Atkinson and P.J. Ward: JOM, 2006, vol. 58 (Issue 6), pp. 21-23.
31. P.A. Joly: Rheological properties and structure of a semi-solid tin-lead alloy, PhD Thesis, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA, 1974.
32. P. Kumar: Constitutive modeling and characterization of the flow behavior of semi-solid metal alloy slurries, PhD Thesis, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA, 1994.
33. L.S. Turng and K.K. Wang: J Mater Sci., 1991, vol. 26, pp. 2173-83.
34. M. Modigell: AVT at RWTH Aachen University, Germany, and German University of Technology in Oman (GUTech), Private communication, July 2011.
35. W. Jiang, S. Xuan and X. Gong: Applied Physics Letters, 2015, vol. 106, Article number 151902.
36. J.L. Jorstad, A.N. Alexandrou and E. Mitsoulis: Semi-solid metal processing: 'Unlimited' flow velocity without turbulence in thin cast sections, Solid State Phenomena, 2015, Vols 217-218, pp. 159-165

Reference	Rheometer	Material/Volume Fraction Solid	Particle Size, Morphology and Size Distribution	Time Scale of Transient, Data Acquisition Rate, Conditions	Shear Rate Jumps	Comments (including how we derive our data in Fig. 3 from the data in the literature)
Kumar et al. [23,27]	Couette (constructed at MIT). Cup and bob grooved. $T \pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$ axially and radially. Argon atmosphere. Gap 3 mm. Characteristic time for fully developed flow across gap calculated as ms.	Sn-15wt%Pb. Volume fractions estimated using temperature-volume fraction curve from Joly PhD Thesis MIT 1974 [31]. $202^\circ\text{C} \sim 0.3$, $198.6^\circ\text{C} \sim 0.4$, $196^\circ\text{C} \sim 0.45$.	Particle size stated as 50-100 μm in [23]. Fig. 1 in [27] consistent with this but paper states average diameter of 150 μm in experiments. Fig. 1 (a) in [27] suggests spheroids almost perfectly spheroidal but with extensive inter-particle bonding.	~ 10 ms, 100 Hz [23], 200 Hz [27]. In fact Kumar thesis [32] identifies 100 Hz for shear rate ramp and 200 Hz for jump experiments. Starting from the steady state, the temperature is lowered from liquid to the desired temperature while stirring at $\dot{\gamma}_0$. Fluid sheared at $\dot{\gamma}_0$ for 25 min.	$\dot{\gamma}_0 = 300 \text{ s}^{-1}$ to a range of shear rates up to 800 s^{-1} .	Kumar in his PhD thesis [32] (p.96) calculates the microscopic Reynolds number $R_e^{micro} = \frac{\rho d^2 \dot{\gamma}}{\mu_{eff}}$ where ρ is density, d is particle diameter, $\dot{\gamma}$ is average shear rate and μ_{eff} the effective viscosity of the slurry. This is of the order of 10^{-1} for Sn15%Pb (using a typical particle size of 100 μm , a minimum effective viscosity of 0.5 Pa.s and a maximum average shear rate of 800 s^{-1}). He double checks the magnitude of the inertial effects with the Bagnolds number and concludes there are no significant inertial effects. He then looks at macroscopic R_e and shows (using gap as length parameter) that R_e is about 200 i.e. well below the level where inertial effects would occur. There is no mention in the papers by Kumar et al. [23,27] or in the Kumar thesis [32] of any consideration of the inertia of the measuring head but inspection of the experiments with shear rate transients at varying shear rates suggests this is not an issue. $f_s > 0.45$ produced large ‘spikes’ in torque that are attributed to the formation of particulate ‘bridges’ between the cup and the bob (also seen by Turng and Wang [33] in semisolid metal slurries and Brady and Bossis [7] in hard sphere suspensions). Kumar et al. conclude shear thickening is occurring because the graph of shear stress versus shear rate for shear rate transients has an upward curve. The Kumar et al. results in our Fig. 3 are based on Fig. 2 in paper I Ref [27] which shows peak shear stress versus final shear rate for a series of jumps from an initial, conditioning shear rate of 300 s^{-1} .
Peng and Wang [26]	Couette	Sn-15wt%Pb. Volume fraction 0.2, 0.35, 0.46, 0.54		‘The start-up time for the rotating cup to reach its steady state velocity is less than 0.1 s	200 s^{-1} up to 400 and 800 s^{-1} . 50 and 100 s^{-1} up to 200 s^{-1} . 200 s^{-1} down	One of the Peng and Wang conclusions is ‘The shear-stress response with a sudden increase in the shear rate shows an overshoot before it decreases to the final steady state, while that of a molten metal shows no overshoot. The overshoot usually increases with fraction solid, step size in shear rate change and rest time’.

				and the maximum data-sampling rate is 200 Hz. The time needed for molten metal to reach the new shear stress after a shear rate change jump is corresponding to the inertial time scale of the molten metal which depends on the viscous diffusion of the material. Therefore the peaks observed are mainly caused by the slurry system rather than the viscometer itself.’	to 50 and 100 s ⁻¹ . 400 and 800 down to 200 s ⁻¹ .	To obtain the Peng and Wang data in our Fig. 3 we use the data from their Tables 2 and 4 which have 200 s ⁻¹ as the starting shear rate. The data is given in terms of $\frac{\tau_{peak}}{\tau_{steady state}}$ and for the analysis in this paper τ_{peak} is needed. τ_{peak} is obtained by deducing $\tau_{steady state}$ using Peng and Wang’s equation (2) and their parameters as in the text just below equation (2).
Modigell et al. [28]	Couette	Sn-15wt%Pb. Volume fraction 0.35, 0.45, 0.5.		Step changes both up and down between a series of different shear rates.	Variety of jumps. Lowest shear rate 11.2 s ⁻¹ . Highest 179 s ⁻¹ .	
Koke and Modigell [25]	Searle (Physica UDS 200). Axial temperature difference kept within range 0.2-0.5°C. Hot	Sn-14.2wt%Pb. 195°C~0.53, 198°C~0.48, 200°C~0.44. It is no clear whether the Joly Thesis curve [31] has also been	Particle size versus time is measured and a method is presented for correcting the rheology data for particle coarsening during the	The temperature is lowered from liquid to the desired temperature while stirring. Fluid is stirred	Variety of shear rate jumps. Max. shear rate 400 s ⁻¹ .	‘Inertia is dominant for 1 to 1.5 s after the jump so the first 60 to 100 values are disregarded.’ (Private communication [34]). Koke and Modigell conclude ‘after a shear rate change an overshoot was observed that resulted from short-time shear-thickening behaviour’. In the first set of experiments (their Fig. 4), the particle diameter is ~600 µm (see their Fig. 8). This is relatively

	nitrogen atmosphere. Gap 4 mm with grooved inner cylinder.	used here). For their Fig. 18 isostructural flow curve the conditions are Sn-15.8%Pb, T 198°C, $f_s=0.41$ and shear rate of 100 s^{-1} as the equilibrium shear rate.	experiment. Micrographs in Fig. 7 suggest a significant degree of agglomeration over time (even after 1 hour shearing). The particle size after 1 hr. shearing is $\sim 550 \mu\text{m}$ and after 3 hours $\sim 600 \mu\text{m}$ (Fig. 8).	for 60 min at 100 s^{-1} and then the shear rate is dropped to 25 s^{-1} before step-wise changes up to 400 s^{-1} and then decreases to 100 s^{-1} . In the second set of experiments, after each shear rate jump, semisolid is sheared again at 100 s^{-1} to re-establish equilibrium before the next jump (in contrast to results in [28]). The isostructural flow curve is then obtained as shown in Fig. 18, plotting the peak at the instant of the jump on the shear stress axis and the absolute value of the shear rate after the jump on the shear rate axis.		<p>large in comparison with the gap size (4mm) and consequently shear thickening could be likely via a ‘particle bridging’ effect. Continuous shearing over a long period of time shows some instabilities in the viscosity versus time curve, which Koke and Modigell attribute to ‘blocking of huge agglomerates in the measuring gap’. They therefore limited their experiments to $<180 \text{ min}$ to avoid these instabilities. Their Fig. 18 (b) is an isostructural curve which fits a Herschel-Bulkley model with a shear thickening exponent of 2.07 for a fraction solid of 0.41 i.e.</p> $\tau = \tau_y + k\dot{\gamma}^n$ <p>where $n = 2.07$. To illustrate how they have obtained this figure, using Fig. 4 in Koke and Modigell, focus on the curve for fraction solid 0.44 and the jump between 100 s^{-1} and 200 s^{-1} at 6300 s on the time axis. The peak stress at the instant of the jump is $\sim 300 \text{ Pa}$. This is then the value that would be plotted on the vertical axis in the equivalent of Fig. 18 (b) (which is only shown for a fraction solid of 0.41) with 200 s^{-1} as the absolute value of the shear rate at the end of the jump plotted on the horizontal axis. This procedure is repeated for a series of jumps to obtain the isostructural flow curve. It should be noted that the initial ‘conditioning’ shear rate (i.e. the shear rate before the jump) should be the same for each jump so Fig. 4 cannot be used to obtain an overall equivalent of Fig. 18 (b) for each of the fractions solid other than 0.41. To obtain the points shown in the analysis in Fig. 3 in the current paper for Koke and Modigell, the data has been taken directly from Fig. 18 (b) for the fraction solid 0.41.</p>
Liu et al.	Searle (Haake	Sn15wt%Pb. F_s 0.2,	Figs. 9 and 10	$\sim 100 \text{ ms}$. 1 kHz.	Variety of	Several sources of error are examined: 1) Effects of

[24]	ME500). Temperature accuracy within 1°C. Nitrogen or argon used to prevent oxidation. Gap 1.45 mm. Cup and bob grooved.	0.36, 0.5.	suggest a typical size of ~150 μm when at rest for f_s 0.36 and ~210 μm for f_s 0.5. The average particle size grows considerably with standing time (~400 μm after 2 hours for f_s of 0.5). There is some evidence of agglomeration although not quite as much as in Ref [25], examining the number of particle-particle bonds.	Stirring occurs from the liquid state until the desired semisolid temperature is reached and continued until an apparent steady state is established. Some tests are carried out from rest and after standing at rest.	jumps. Maximum shear rate 200 s^{-1} .	momentum diffusion through slurry; 2) Inertia effects of measuring head; 3) Electronic switching during the step change in shear rate. Calculation suggests that, in Sn15wt%Pb, momentum diffusion will be significantly faster than the jump time. The inertia effect of the measuring head is dealt with by carrying out a test in air and subtracting the resulting curve from the test result. (None of the other workers mention correcting for inertia of the measuring head.) Electronic switching in the viscometer's controller is allowed for by only taking results after the shear rate has reached 90% of the specified final shear rate. On the effect of particle size, 'For accurate measurements the particle size must be less than 1/3 of the gap width. For the system here, it was found that the largest particle size measured is less than one third of the gap width.' Liu in his thesis [21] has considered the inertia of the fluid by calculating the macroscopic Reynolds number. He obtains a value of 36 (which is roughly consistent with Kumar given different gap sizes). The experimental results were thought to show only shear thinning. For the current paper, the Liu et al. points in Fig. 3 have been obtained using their Table IV and assuming that to translate from 'Initial or Peak Stress Viscosity' to 'Peak Stress' involves multiplying the peak stress viscosity by the final shear rate at the end of the jump. The rest time data points are obtained from Table II multiplying the viscosity at the peak by the final shear rate to obtain the peak stress.
------	---	------------	---	--	---	--

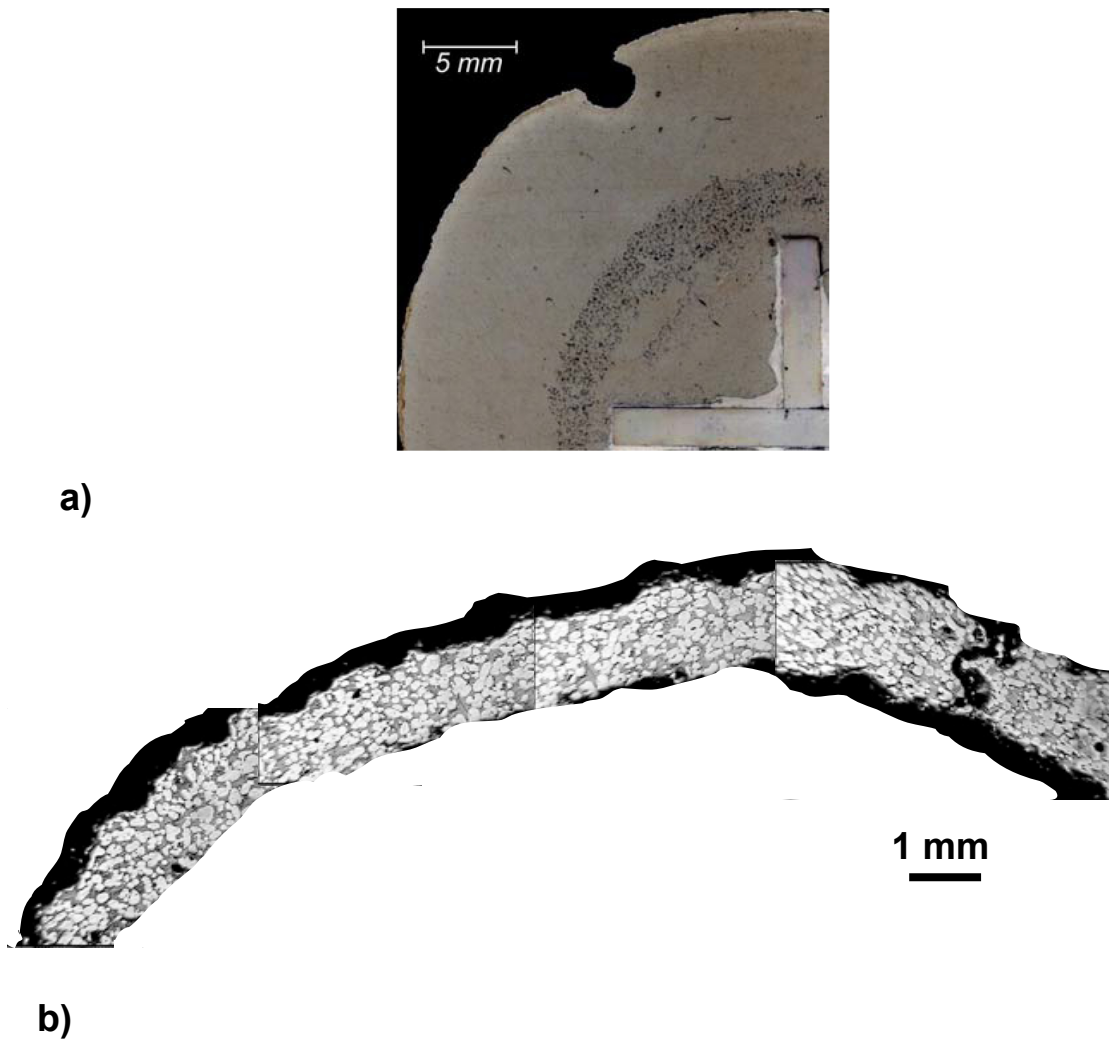


Fig. 1 a) Vane rheometry of partially solidified Mg alloy showing shear banding evidenced by a localized band of porosity approximately 11 grains wide, taken with permission from [20]. b) Sn 15pct Pb alloy quenched in a cylindrical rheometer gap showing that no shear banding or discontinuity across the microstructure in the gap is evident, taken with permission from [21].

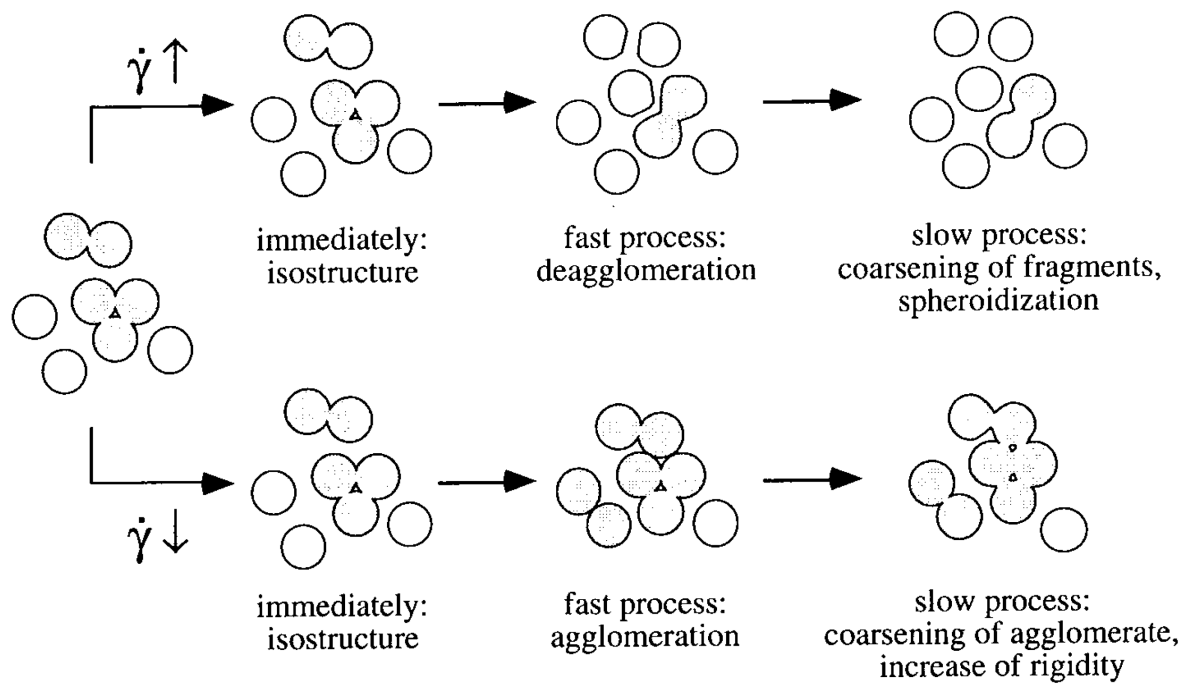
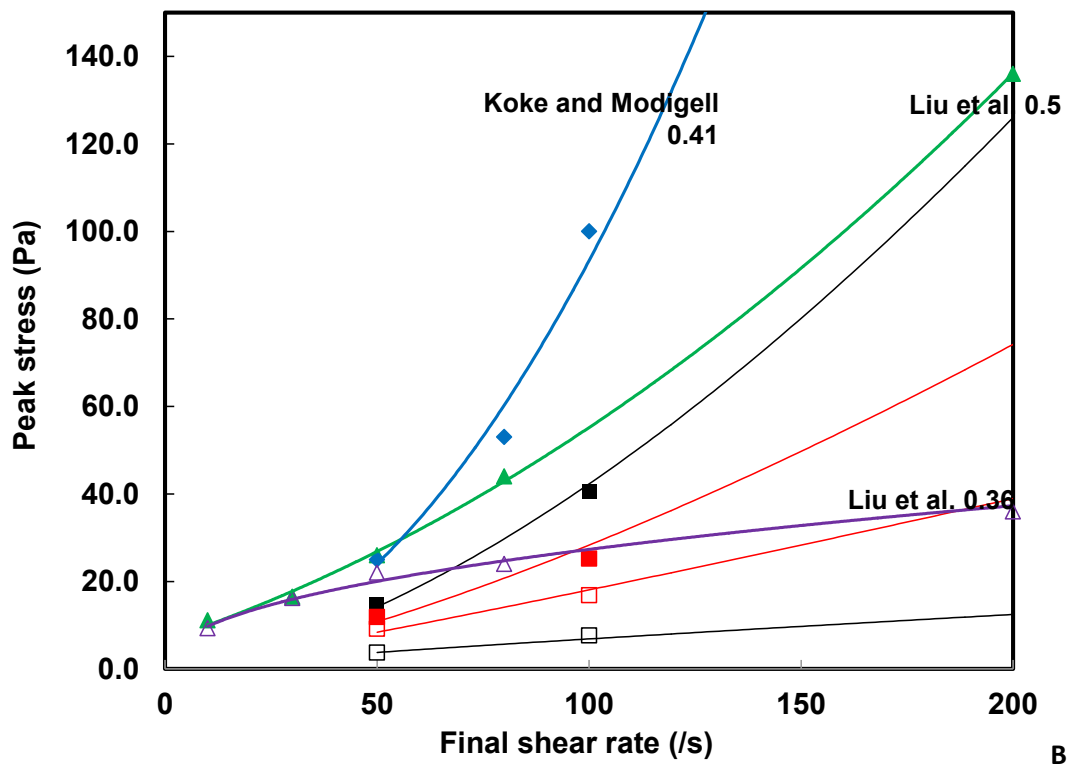
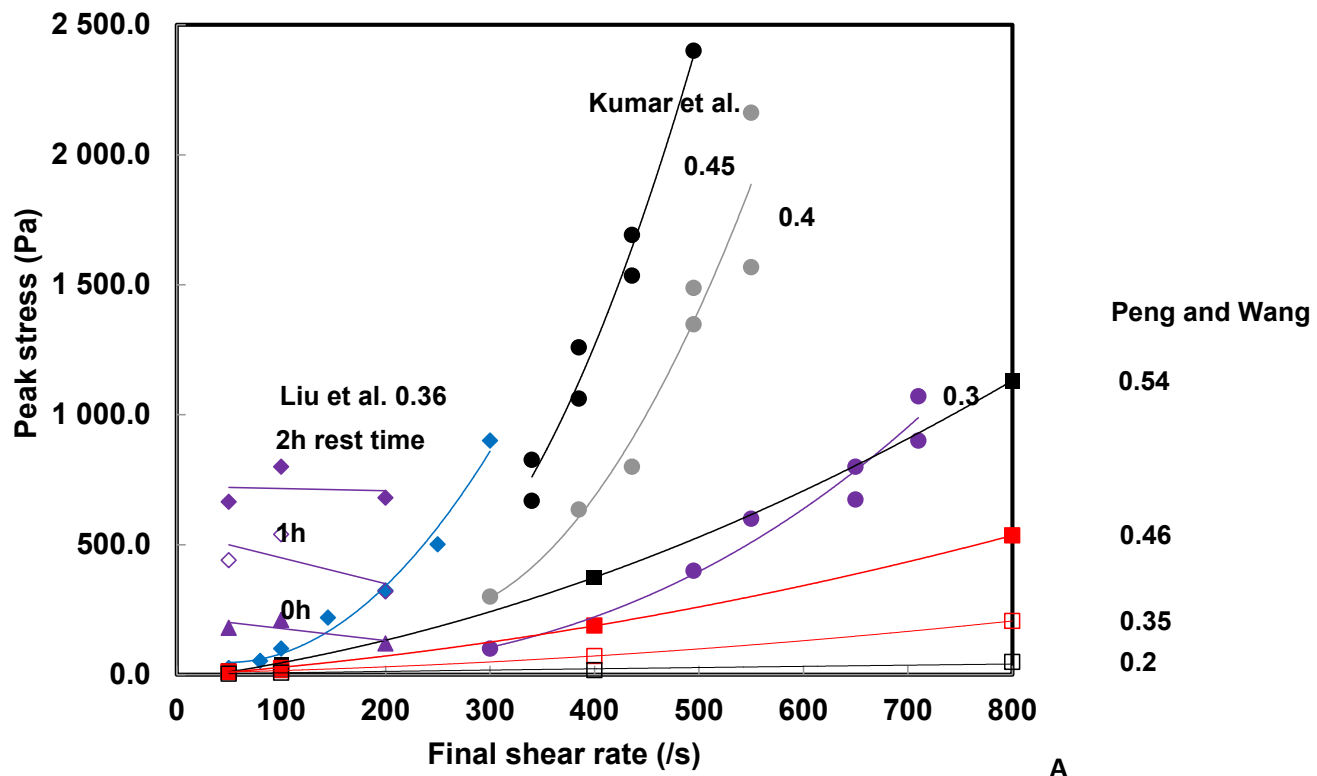


Figure 2 Schematic diagram [22] showing that when a rapid jump up in shear rate occurs, immediately after the jump, the materials is ‘isostructure’ with the starting material. A fast process of deagglomeration (breaking of bonds between spheroids) then occurs. Subsequently a much slower diffusion controlled process of coarsening and spheroidisation takes place (note the change in *shape* of particles). When the shear rate jump is down the processes are a fast process of agglomeration and a slow process of neck growth and coarsening.



- ◆ 100 /s ; fs=0.41 from Koke and Modigell [25]
- 300 /s ; fs=0.45 from Kumar et al. [27]
- 300 /s ; fs=0.4 from Kumar et al. [27]
- 300 /s ; fs=0.3 from Kumar et al. [27]
- ◆ Rest time 2h ; fs=0.36 from Liu et al. [24]
- ◇ Rest time 1h ; fs=0.36 from Liu et al. [24]
- ▲ Rest time 0h ; fs=0.36 from Liu et al. [24]
- 200 /s ; fs=0.54 from Peng and Wang [26]
- 200 /s ; fs=0.46 from Peng and Wang [26]
- 200 /s ; fs=0.35 from Peng and Wang [26]
- 200 /s ; fs=0.2 from Peng and Wang [26]
- ▲ 100 /s ; fs=0.5 from Liu et al. [24]
- ▲ 100 /s ; fs=0.36 from Liu et al. [24]

Fig. 3 Plot of the peak shear stress during a shear rate jump against the final shear rate after the jump. The shear rate in the legend is the initial, ‘conditioning’ shear rate. B is a magnified version of the bottom left hand corner of A.