

using a Babinet–Soleil compensator and by Postava et al. [18,19] using numerical linear combinations of measured signals. Recently, this approach is often generalized to selectivity from different materials in nanostructures [20].

The magnetization processes can be better understood by studying the magnetic domain structure yielding substantial information on magnetization and anisotropy distributions. Indeed, the magnetic domain pattern on the ribbon surface can be a key parameter predicting the microstructural inhomogeneities, crystalline inclusions and/or partial crystallization. In addition, the amorphous ribbons usually carry an induced anisotropy that is, in the as-prepared state, more or less random oriented. This induced anisotropy is based on small deviations from random pair orientations of the components of the material, and it is induced either by the magnetization pattern existing during cooling through the Curie temperature and possibly also by the flow pattern during quenching. Both contributions embody a random nature and therefore they are difficult to separate.

A unique possibility of studying, to a certain extent and resolution, local physical properties of iron-containing materials is offered by two nondestructive surface sensitive techniques, namely, Integral Low-Energy Electrons Mössbauer Spectroscopy (ILEEMS) [21] and Conversion Electrons Mössbauer Spectroscopy (CEMS) [22]. Both methods benefit from the fact that electrons emitted from a Mössbauer event in the sample (Mössbauer absorber) have a certain probability of reaching the surface and being detected as a function of Mössbauer source velocity. In such a way a Mössbauer spectrum can be obtained and its analysis yields information on the local atomic ordering, hyperfine magnetic and electrical interactions, chemical environment, etc. An important parameter determining the depth from which information concerning the electronic and atomic surrounding of the ^{57}Fe Mössbauer nucleus can be obtained is energy of the electrons. While the ILEEMS technique is based on detection of electrons of energy less than 15 eV, the CEMS uses the 7.3 keV K-shell internal conversion electrons. This energy difference indicates that the probing surface depth differs as well. At ILEEMS it is 10 up to 15 nm while at CEMS it is approximately 200 nm. Both Mössbauer techniques were used for micro-magnetic investigations of ribbon surfaces in this study but it is to note that the results obtained by ILEEMS support better the MOKE measurements due to their similar depth sensitivity.

It should be emphasized here that experimental methods like Transmission Mössbauer Spectroscopy, Vibrating Sample Magnetometer or SQUID made it possible to measure mainly bulk magnetic properties that are often completely different from the surface ones [23,24]. The combination of MOKE and ILEEMS methods was originally used for FeNiMoCuB ribbons [25].

The main objective of this paper is to bring new insight into the phenomena called nanoscale phase separation at the surfaces of amorphous alloys [26,27]. For this purpose the mentioned surface sensitive methods have been combined in systematic investigations of surface magnetic anisotropy, microstructure, magnetization reversal, and eventually surface crystallization. As a case study, the $\text{Fe}_{80}\text{Si}_x\text{B}_{20-x}$, $x=4, 6, 8$, and 10 at.%, amorphous alloys were chosen because they attract ongoing interest for themselves [28,29] and they constitute a basis of a broad class of FINEMET-type nanocrystalline materials [30].

2. Experimental

2.1. Sample preparation

The conventional planar flow casting (PFC) method in air was used for preparation of amorphous ribbon samples with the composition of $\text{Fe}_{80}\text{Si}_x\text{B}_{20-x}$, where $x=4, 6, 8$, and 10 at.%. The ribbons were 10 mm wide and 20 μm thick. Square samples

10 $\times$ 10 mm were cut out from the ribbons for subsequent experiments. Due to the technology used, the ribbon sides visually differ from each other. The side which is in contact with the quenching wheel is matt and is usually denoted as the wheel side, the opposite free one is generally shiny and is denoted as the air side, respectively. Both surfaces differ, as exposed the different cooling rate, often in their structural morphology, surface roughness and consequently physical properties as well, as it was shown many times at various ribbons prepared by PFC [31–33].

2.2. Surface magneto-optical methods

The surface magnetic properties were investigated by application of two magneto-optical methods. The first experimental arrangement is based on hysteresis loop measurements using the laser box schematically illustrated in Fig. 1. Two laser sources, red laser diode (wavelength $\lambda = 670$ nm) and the blue laser diode ($\lambda = 405$ nm), are situated perpendicularly to each other and their light incidents on the dichroic mirror/beam splitter that reflects beams in the range of 380–490 nm and transmits the light of wavelengths 520–700 nm. Due to precise micrometric stages at the output of M/BS both beams overlap and therefore impinge on the same place of the sample at an identical incidence angle. Minimal beam trace on the surface is ensured by a focusing lens that decreases the beam diameter down to 100 μm for blue and 200 μm for red light. The advantage of the blue laser to detect the magnetic properties from a smaller surface area is, on the other hand, compensated by approximately 10 times lower value of intensity in comparison to the red light source. Even though the magneto-optic effect at the wavelength of 405 nm is higher than for 670 nm, the measured “blue” hysteresis loops are more susceptible to be influenced by noise.

The amplitude of light outcoming from the laser box is modulated using photo-elastic modulator at frequency of 50 kHz and additionally linearly polarized (s or p polarization). The beam is then reflected from the ribbon surface, whereas its penetration depth (PD) being defined as $\lambda/(2\pi n_z)$, where λ denotes wavelength of incident light and n_z is normalized wavevector in the surface normal direction expressed using the refractive indices of sample N and air N_a , and light incident angle ϕ as $n_z = \sqrt{N^2 - (N_a \sin(\phi))^2}$. The PD values for pure Fe, the refractive index of which is close to the investigated ribbons [34], and for $\phi = 60^\circ$ were estimated to be 33.47 nm and 23.91 nm for red and blue light, respectively. In the case of metals the influence of incident angle on PD is, however, almost negligible. In reality, the light directs both into and out of the sample and therefore MOKE PD is exactly half value of PD. The same incident angles were used for all investigated samples and a very similar depth of penetration for both lights can be expected. After reflection the light is generally elliptically polarized carrying information about the magnetization behavior from the inspected surface area. By transmitting through the Wollaston prism, we

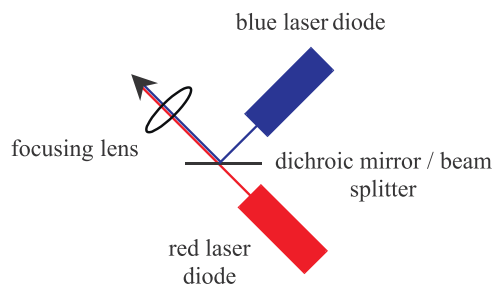


Fig. 1. Schematic illustration of laser box in the MOKE differential intensity method.

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