



Synergistic strengthening mechanisms of rhenium in nickel-based single crystal superalloys

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ABSTRACT

A loading-unloading-reloading strategy via atomistic simulations is proposed to reveal the strengthening mechanisms of rhenium in nickel-based superalloys at ambient temperature. Simulations reproduce the experimentally observed increased flow stress with addition of rhenium. Besides the usual solid solution strengthening, two novel mechanisms are uncovered. One is that rhenium facilitates the dislocation nucleation and, thus, increases the propensity of forest dislocation interactions. The other involves a critical role of rhenium in promoting accumulation of sessile stair-rod dislocations, served as obstacles for the glissile dislocations. The three mechanisms synergistically render a stronger alloy, which is heuristic to design advanced superalloys in extreme environments.

1. Introduction

Nickel (Ni)-based single crystal (SC) superalloys are of unique structure consisting of a disordered solid solution γ -Ni matrix (face-centered cubic) and an ordered γ' -Ni₃Al (L1₂) precipitate. They are widely used in turbine blades of advanced aircraft engines [1–3], owing to their outstanding mechanical strength and, in particular, the enhanced creep resistance at elevated temperature. This superalloy usually contains more than ten alloying elements. Among them, the element rhenium (Re) plays an extremely important role in their high-temperature mechanics and creep performance [4–7]. As such the superalloys are usually categorized into a first (0 wt.% Re), second (2–4 wt.% Re) and third (5–7 wt.% Re) generation [8,9], respectively, according to the concentration of this element.

The enhancement in mechanical properties of Ni-based superalloys due to Re addition has been attributed to several mechanisms. First, as expected for the doping atom with large diameter, Re provides a high degree of solid solution strengthening and increases the flow stress of alloys [10]. Next, due to a sluggish diffusion of Re in Ni matrix [11–14], it can also slow down the motion of dislocations [15] and retard the

coarsening of γ' phase [16,17]. Then the segregation of Re at the γ/γ' interfacial dislocation networks can further strengthen the interface and make the dislocation networks strong against the shear from mobile dislocations [18]. Finally, Re can reduce the creep rate in Ni-based SC superalloys by being enriched around the dislocation core and imposing a drag effect on the movement of dislocations [19]. However, a comprehensive atomic-scale strengthening mechanism of Re is rarely reported in Ni-based superalloys due to the difficulty of *in situ* characterization at microscopic of bulk materials.

Instead, atomistic simulations via molecular dynamics (MD) provide a complementary tool to survey the atomic-scale resolution dislocation behaviors under proper conditions of deformation. The deformation and fracture of the nanostructured Ni, Ni₃Al and model superalloys have been analyzed by MD down to the level of dislocation nucleation and evolution from surface or crack tip [20–24]. However, such simulations starting with a defect-free model usually suffer from the artificial stress overshoot at yielding which hinders a rational understanding of the mechanical performance from an atomistic perspective. To settle the issue, here we propose a loading-unloading-reloading technique based on MD, to mimic an experimentally relevant deformation condition, which extracts synergistic strengthening mechanisms of Re in Ni-based

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superalloys, with combined roles of solid solution strengthening, extra dislocation proliferation, as well as the existence of sessile stair-rod dislocations.

2. Methodology

The MD simulations are performed by LAMMPS code [25] based on a 3D superalloy model including both γ phase and γ' phase, to mimic a real superalloy. Our recently developed multi-component Ni–Al–Re empirical potential in the embedded atom method (EAM) framework is adopted to describe the force field [26]. It has been widely used to study the segregation of Re [18,19], the interface crack propagation [27,28], as well as lattice trapping of Ni-based superalloys [29]. Note that the accuracy of all classical MD simulations depends on the reliability of an empirical potential. The present simulations are not exceptional. Therefore, the used Ni–Al–Re potential has been widely benchmarked by either experimental, or first-principles data, in terms of point and planar defect formation energies, stacking fault energy, anti-phase boundary, complex stacking fault and superlattice intrinsic stacking fault energies in both FCC-Ni, FCC-Al and HCP-Re, and $L1_2$ -Ni₃Al. All the features are quite relevant to the dislocation and mechanical behavior of the Ni-based alloys. The atomic structure visualization and dislocation analysis are conducted by software OVITO [30]. The dislocation density is calculated as the length of dislocations in unit volume.

The scheme and geometry of the model setup are demonstrated in

Fig. 1, which contains 2,475,820 atoms described by periodic boundary conditions along x[100], y[010] and z[001] directions, respectively. Due to the difference in lattice parameters between γ and γ' phases, proper lattice misfit is inevitable on the γ/γ' interface. The lattice misfit δ is defined as [31]:

$$\delta = \frac{2(a_{\gamma'} - a_{\gamma})}{a_{\gamma'} + a_{\gamma}} \quad (1)$$

where $a_{\gamma} = 3.520 \text{ \AA}$ and $a_{\gamma'} = 3.567 \text{ \AA}$ are the lattice parameters of γ -Ni and γ' -Ni₃Al phases, respectively, determined by the present EAM potential. Thus, the largest interface lattice misfit of the system is $\delta = 1.33\%$ under the condition of one-to-one unit cell of Ni and Ni₃Al. The interface strain can be optimized by changing the size of the model. For a superalloy model containing n Ni₃Al unit cells, and $n + 1$ Ni unit cells, an optimal model satisfies the following relationship:

$$na_{\gamma'} = (n + 1)a_{\gamma} \quad (2)$$

which yields $n \approx 75$. In this context we build a γ/γ' model with the dimension of $(86a_{\gamma})^3$, the inner part of which is of $(75a_{\gamma'})^3$ γ' block. The volume fraction of γ' phase in the superalloy model is $(75a_{\gamma'}/86a_{\gamma})^3 \approx 69\%$, which is comparable to experiment $\sim 70\%$ [32]. The total width of the model is 30.3 nm, in which the width of γ' phase is 26.8 nm, as shown in Fig. 1(a). Note that the present atomic model is

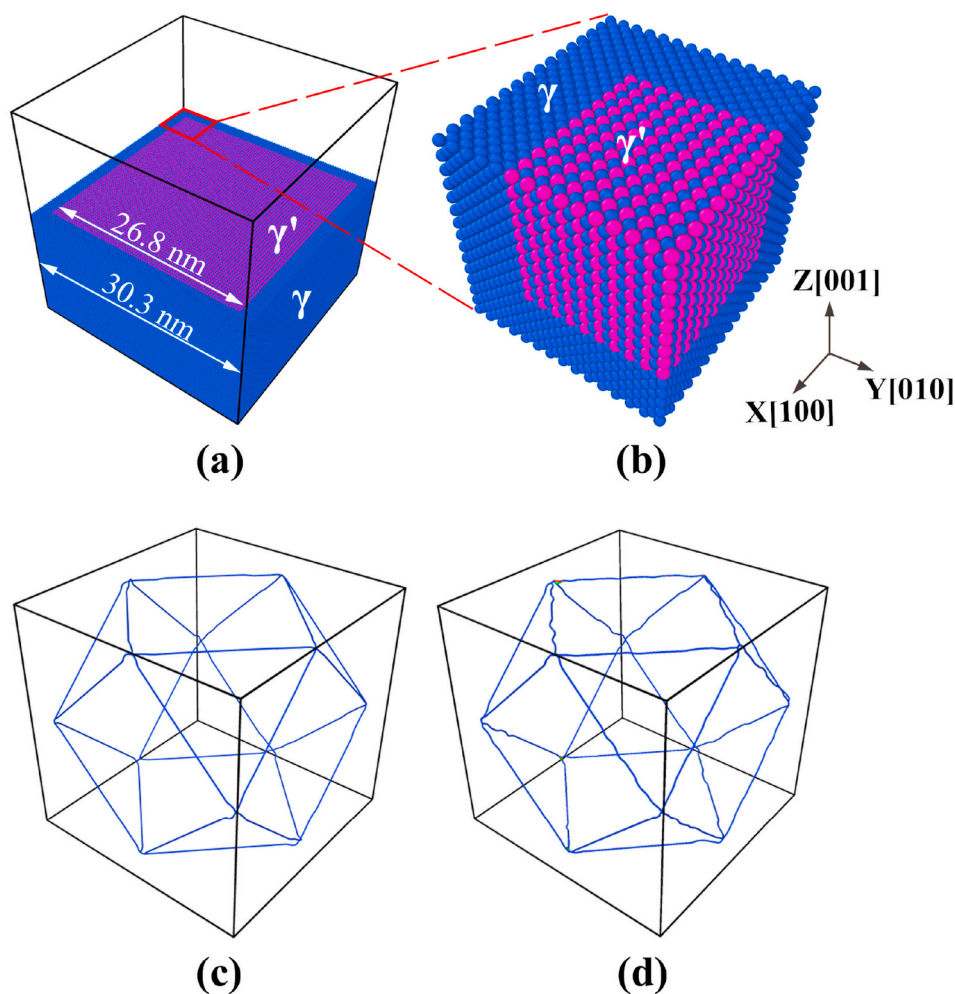


Fig. 1. Geometry of the atomic model for the Ni-based SC superalloy. (a) 3D view of the γ/γ' model with upper half being removed for clarity. (b) Enlarged local atomic environment of the γ/γ' interface, from the red box shown in (a). Ni and Al atoms are colored in blue and pink, respectively. Misfit dislocation networks formed on the γ/γ' interface after energy minimization of (c) pristine system and (d) 1 at.% Re system.

relatively smaller than the dimensions of γ and γ' phases in an experimental sample, which may affect quantitatively the magnitude of flow stress. However, the surveyed dislocation mechanisms are expected to be robust against variation in sample size. Fig. 1(b) shows the local atomic structure of γ/γ' interface. After energy minimization via conjugate gradient algorithm, 3D interfacial $1/2\langle 110 \rangle$ perfect dislocation networks appear in Fig. 1(c).

The loading-unloading-reloading uniaxial tensile deformations are conducted along [100] direction at 300 K, with a constant strain rate of 10^8 s^{-1} . Isothermal-isobaric MD is performed within the Nosé-Hoover [33,34] and Parrinello-Rahman barostat [35]. The time step is 2 fs. Before deformation, the system has been relaxed to the thermodynamic equilibrium state. Because Re atoms mainly distribute into the γ phase in Ni-based SC superalloys [36,37], here 1 at.% Re atoms are randomly added into the γ phase as substitutions to replace the host Ni atoms. The concentration of Re is within the range of experimental superalloys [38]. Fig. 1(d) further shows the 3D pattern of the interfacial $1/2\langle 110 \rangle$ perfect dislocation networks of the 1 at.% Re system after energy minimization. Compared with the pristine system, it can be seen that the local dislocation lines are slightly bent to be rough in the 1 at.% Re system, but the overall structure of the initial dislocation networks remains unchanged. Then the mechanical responses of the pristine and 1 at.% Re systems are compared to examine the alloying effect.

3. Results

MD simulations usually start with a defect-free atomic model which inevitably induces artificial mechanical response in contrast with experimental conditions. One of the drawbacks of a perfect model is the

obscure stress overshoot and the following brute-force stress drop at yielding, which has something to do with unnecessary dislocation nucleation. While in experimental samples, the stress is a reflection of the resistance of pre-existing mobile dislocations. In this context, the artificial dislocation nucleation from a defect-free MD model bothers a correct understanding of the mechanical properties of materials from a simulation perspective. To create a relatively more experimentally relevant simulation model, we first perform a loading-unloading process to introduce a certain number of pre-existing dislocations for further reloading. During the loading process, the evolution of the interfacial dislocation networks is shown in Fig. 2. Fig. 2(a) shows the morphology of the dislocation networks just after the thermodynamic equilibrium at 300 K. Compared with athermal energy minimization, the dislocation networks have the tendency to change to cubic shape, and the dislocations in the γ channel begin to accumulate near the dislocation networks. At the strain of 1.2% in Fig. 2(b), the interfacial dislocation networks in the lower right corner have also evolved into a right-angle shape. The interfacial dislocation networks effectively prevent the dislocations in γ phase from shearing into γ' phase. At the strain of 2.0% in Fig. 2(c), the dislocation networks in the lower left corner have been damaged to a certain extent. As the loading continues, e.g., at the strain of 2.4% in Fig. 2(d), some dislocations in γ phase have bypassed the dislocation networks and sheared into the γ' phase. Moreover, in order to increase the reliability of the simulations, three independent samples with random 1 at.% Re substitution are considered. Fig. 3(a) shows the stress-strain curves of the pristine system and the three 1 at.% Re systems during the loading-unloading process at 300 K with strain rate of 10^8 s^{-1} . As shown in Fig. 3(a), after initial elastic stage, both of the two types of samples yield at around strain magnitude of $\sim 3\%$, then stress evolves

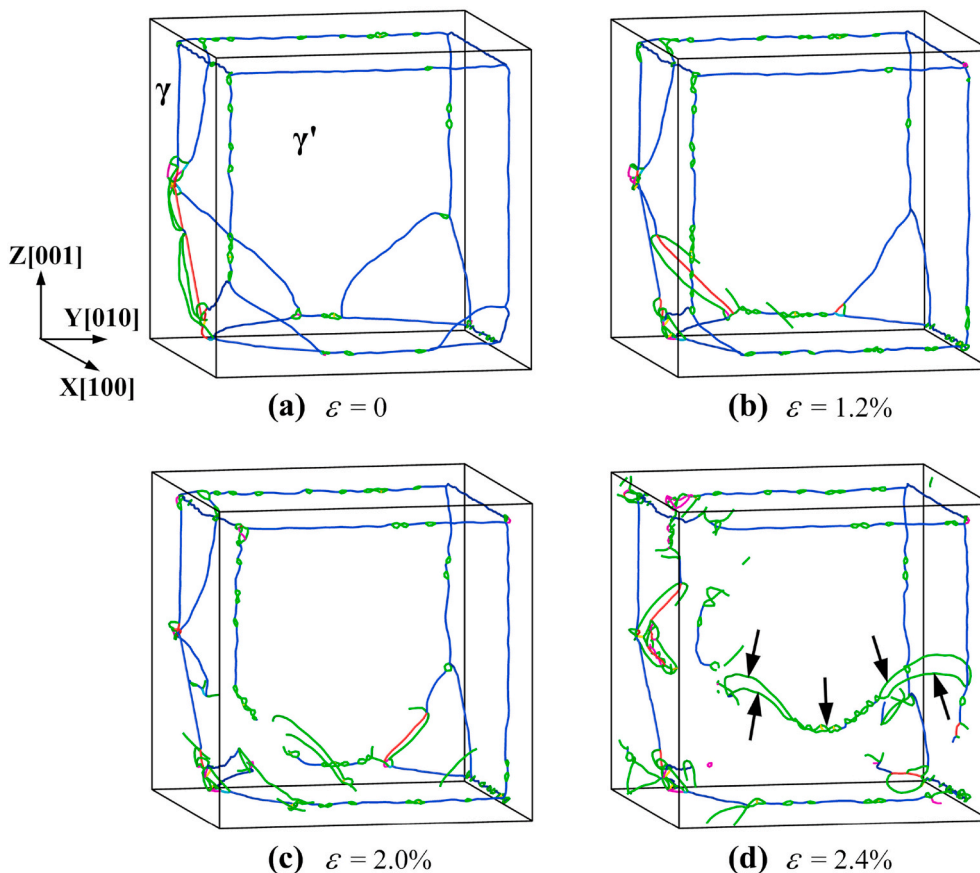


Fig. 2. The dislocation network morphologies of the pristine system at the strains of (a) 0, (b) 1.2%, (c) 2.0%, and (d) 2.4%, respectively, under a strain rate of 10^8 s^{-1} at 300 K. The dislocations indicated by the black arrows in (d) have sheared into γ' phase from γ phase. The color coding scheme: $1/2\langle 110 \rangle$ Perfect (blue), $1/6\langle 112 \rangle$ Shockley (green), $1/6\langle 110 \rangle$ Stair-rod (pink), $1/3\langle 001 \rangle$ Hirth (yellow), $1/3\langle 111 \rangle$ Frank (light blue), and Others (red).

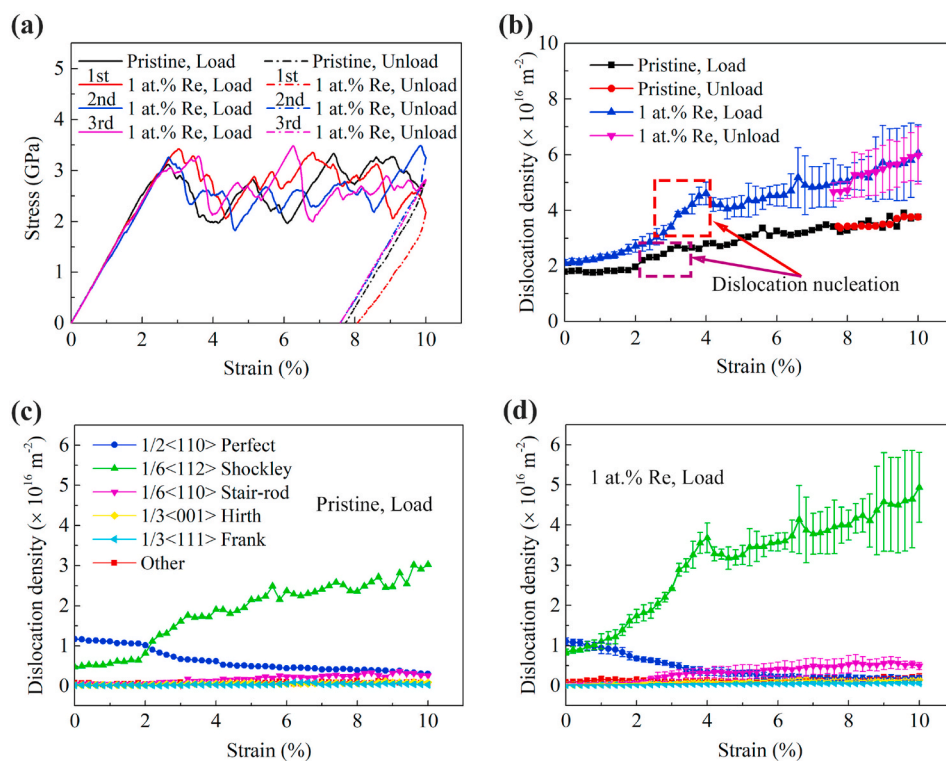


Fig. 3. Loading-unloading process of the pristine and 1 at.% Re systems, respectively, under a strain rate of 10^8 s^{-1} at 300 K. (a) The stress-strain curves. 1st, 2nd and 3rd indicate the three independent systems with random 1 at.% Re substitution. (b) Evolution of total dislocation densities versus strain. Evolution of densities of different types of dislocations in the loading process of (c) pristine system, and (d) 1 at.% Re system, respectively. The dislocation density of the 1 at.% Re system is the statistical average of three independent systems with random 1 at.% Re substitution. The error bars indicate standard deviation.

into steady state with pronounced fluctuations.

As illustrated by red and purple boxes in Fig. 3(b), the huge stress overshoots at yielding are corresponding to the remarkable dislocation nucleation which obviously increases dislocation density. Here, the dislocation density of the 1 at.% Re system is given by statistically averaging the dislocation densities of the three independent samples with random 1 at.% Re substitution. The error bars denote the fluctuating flow stress due to random Re substitution. During loading, the dislocation density of the 1 at.% Re system is greater than that of the pristine system. In other words, addition of Re facilitates the dislocation nucleation and increases the dislocation density, which would later increase the possibility of forest dislocation strengthening and extra work hardening ability of the Ni-Al-Re superalloy. Once we break down the total dislocation density to different categories in Fig. 3(c and d), it is found the Re addition mainly promotes extra $1/6\langle 112 \rangle$ partial dislocations which are mobile under loading. More interestingly, the $1/6\langle 110 \rangle$ stair-rod dislocations are invoked more with Re addition which will definitely affect the mechanics since its sessile nature. Table 1 lists the densities of different types of dislocations at the strain of 10% in the loading process for the pristine and 1 at.% Re systems, respectively. Except the type of $1/2\langle 110 \rangle$ perfect, it can be seen that the dislocation densities of the remaining types in 1 at.% Re system are greater than those in pristine system. Note that the samples after loading-unloading

Table 1

Densities of different types of dislocations at the strain of 10% in the loading process for the pristine and 1 at.% Re systems, respectively, under a strain rate of 10^8 s^{-1} at 300 K.

	Dislocation density ($\times 10^{16} \text{ m}^{-2}$)	
	Pristine system	1 at.% Re system
$1/2\langle 110 \rangle$ Perfect	0.31	0.20
$1/6\langle 112 \rangle$ Shockley	3.02	4.94
$1/6\langle 110 \rangle$ Stair-rod	0.26	0.49
$1/3\langle 001 \rangle$ Hirth	0.09	0.15
$1/3\langle 111 \rangle$ Frank	0.03	0.06
Other	0.06	0.21

process have dislocation density of the order of $\sim 10^{16} \text{ m}^{-2}$, which is two or three orders of magnitude higher than the experimental samples with dislocation density of $10^{13}\text{--}10^{14} \text{ m}^{-2}$ [39]. Yet the pre-existing dislocation samples in simulations are more experimentally relevant than the defect-free samples, which is expected to deduce more meaningful mechanical behaviors.

Then we perform reloading on the models with pre-existing dislocations after loading-unloading operation. The mechanical information and dislocation information are displayed in Fig. 4. Fig. 4(a) shows the stress-strain curves of the pristine and the three independent 1 at.% Re systems, respectively. From the flow stress window between the yielding point and 20% strain, we estimate the values of flow stresses and show the data in the inset of Fig. 4(a), where the flow stress of the 1 at.% Re system is estimated by statistics on all the flow stress data between the yielding point and 20% strain for all the three independent 1 at.% Re systems. It is found that an addition of 1 at.% Re effectively increases the flow stress from 2.7 GPa to 2.8 GPa, taking account the stress fluctuation as indicated by the error bars, which is in accordance with the common sense that Re strengthens nickel-based superalloys from experimental observations [10].

Looking at the total and the decomposed dislocation densities (in which the dislocation density of 1 at.% Re system is given by statistical value of the three independent 1 at.% Re systems) as shown in Fig. 4 (b-d), it is concluded that Re addition also promotes dislocation multiplication during reloading process and therefore increases the possibility of work hardening owing to the mechanism of forest dislocation strengthening. For example, after reloading to strain 20%, the 1 at.% Re sample has dislocation density of $1.28 \times 10^{17} \text{ m}^{-2}$, which is greater than that of Re-free sample with dislocation density $1.11 \times 10^{17} \text{ m}^{-2}$. Table 2 lists the densities of different types of dislocations at the strain of 20% in the reloading process for the pristine and 1 at.% Re systems, respectively. Except the types of $1/3\langle 001 \rangle$ Hirth and others, the dislocation densities of the remaining types in 1 at.% Re system are greater than those in pristine system. Specifically, the $1/6\langle 112 \rangle$ partials increase by 18.99%, and $1/6\langle 110 \rangle$ stair-rod dislocations increase by 6.88% with 1 at.% Re addition, respectively. In both systems, $1/6\langle 112 \rangle$ partials and

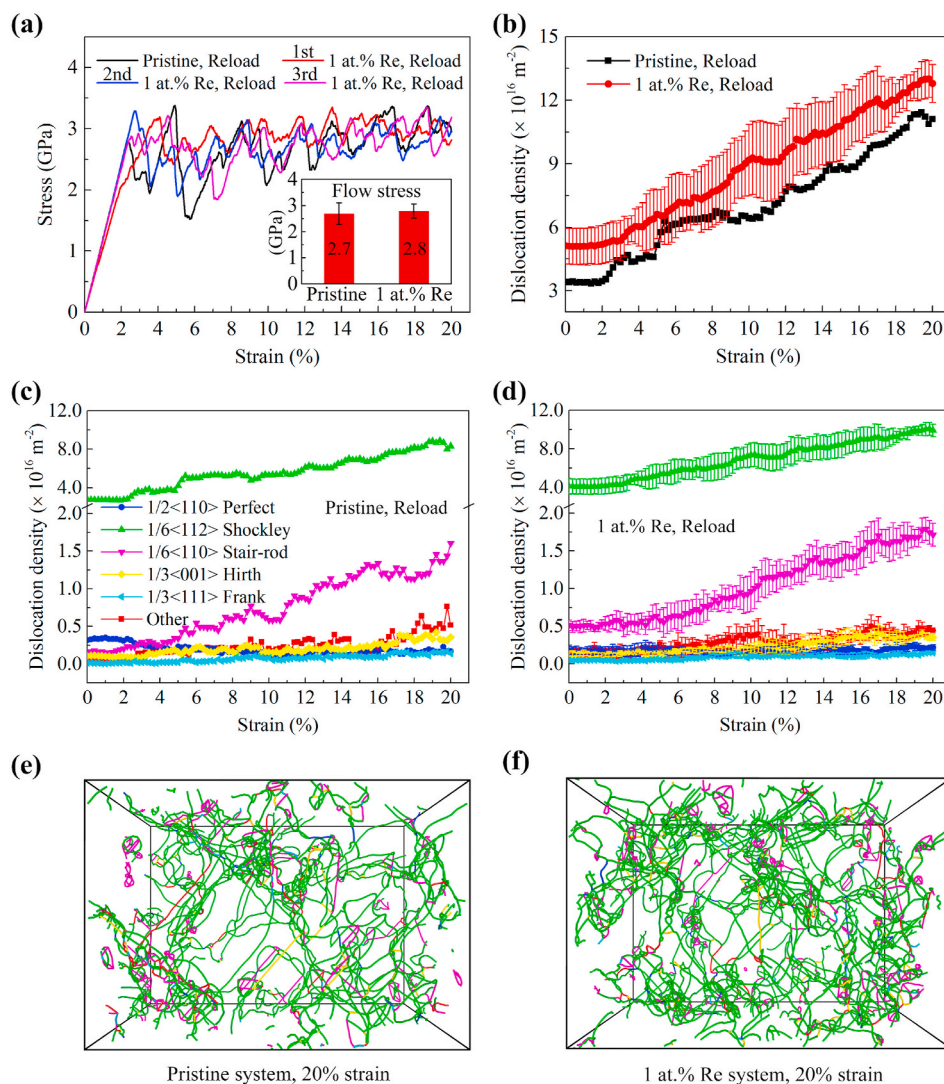


Fig. 4. Reloading process of the pristine and 1 at.% Re systems, respectively. (a) The stress-strain curves. 1st, 2nd and 3rd indicate the three independent systems with random 1 at.% Re substitution. The inset shows the average flow stresses of the pristine and 1 at.% Re systems, respectively, determined from the flow stress window between the yielding point and 20% strain. (b–d) Evolution of total dislocation densities and those of different types of dislocations in both pristine and 1 at.% Re systems, respectively. The dislocation patterns after 20% strain are shown in (e) pristine system, and (f) 1 at.% Re system, respectively. The error bars in (b) and (d) denote standard deviation. The color coding scheme in (e, f): $1/2\langle 110 \rangle$ Perfect (blue), $1/6\langle 112 \rangle$ Shockley (green), $1/6\langle 110 \rangle$ Stair-rod (pink), $1/3\langle 001 \rangle$ Hirth (yellow), $1/3\langle 111 \rangle$ Frank (light blue), and Others (red).

Table 2
Densities of different types of dislocations at the strain of 20% in the reloading process for the pristine and 1 at.% Re systems, respectively, under a strain rate of 10^8 s^{-1} at 300 K.

	Dislocation density ($\times 10^{16} \text{ m}^{-2}$)	
	Pristine system	1 at.% Re system
$1/2\langle 110 \rangle$ Perfect	0.17	0.22
$1/6\langle 112 \rangle$ Shockley	8.32	9.90
$1/6\langle 110 \rangle$ Stair-rod	1.60	1.71
$1/3\langle 001 \rangle$ Hirth	0.36	0.36
$1/3\langle 111 \rangle$ Frank	0.14	0.15
Other	0.52	0.44

$1/6\langle 110 \rangle$ stair-rod dislocations play important roles in the deformation and strengthening. To stress the uniqueness of Re in strengthening Ni-based superalloys, we compare the mechanics and dislocation behaviors in the test Ni–Al–Re and Ni–Al–Co systems, as shown in the Fig. S1 and Table S1 in the supplementary material. It is concluded that, at the same strain rate and substitutional positions, Re provides extra strengthening with higher values of both mobile ($1/6\langle 112 \rangle$ Shockley) and sessile ($1/6\langle 110 \rangle$ Stair-rod) dislocation densities. Fig. 4(e and f) shows the spatial distribution of all the dislocations. One impressed feature of the dislocation patterns is that there are great opportunities to see the $1/6\langle 112 \rangle$ partials bundled with $1/6\langle 110 \rangle$ stair-rod

dislocations, which drives us to further uncover the strengthening mechanisms with the roles of either Re-dislocation interaction, or dislocation-dislocation interaction.

4. Discussion

Here we discuss the possible strengthening mechanisms of Re in superalloys. Further zoom in of the dislocation behaviors are summarized in Figs. 5 and 6. Fig. 5 shows one scenario of the interaction between the $1/6\langle 110 \rangle$ stair-rod dislocations and the $1/6\langle 112 \rangle$ Shockley partial dislocations during reloading. At the strain of 2.2%, the top mobile partial dislocations move toward the immobile stair-rod dislocations (see Fig. 5(a)). At the strain of 2.3%, the top mobile partial dislocations move closer to the immobile stair-rod dislocations, as shown in Fig. 5(b). At a later stage of strain magnitude of 2.4%, the stair-rod dislocations have trapped the top Shockley partials (see Fig. 5(c)). From the strain interval of 2.5%–2.7%, the motion of the Shockley partials has been effectively blocked by the stair-rod dislocations (see Fig. 5(d–f)). The pinning effect of the stair-rod dislocations on the mobile dislocations, to some extent, can strengthen the superalloys and improve the creep resistance.

Moreover, Fig. 6 displays a set of typical snapshots of the solid solution strengthening mechanism, with the role of dislocation motion interrupted by Re atoms, as is shown in Fig. 6(a and b). Even sometimes

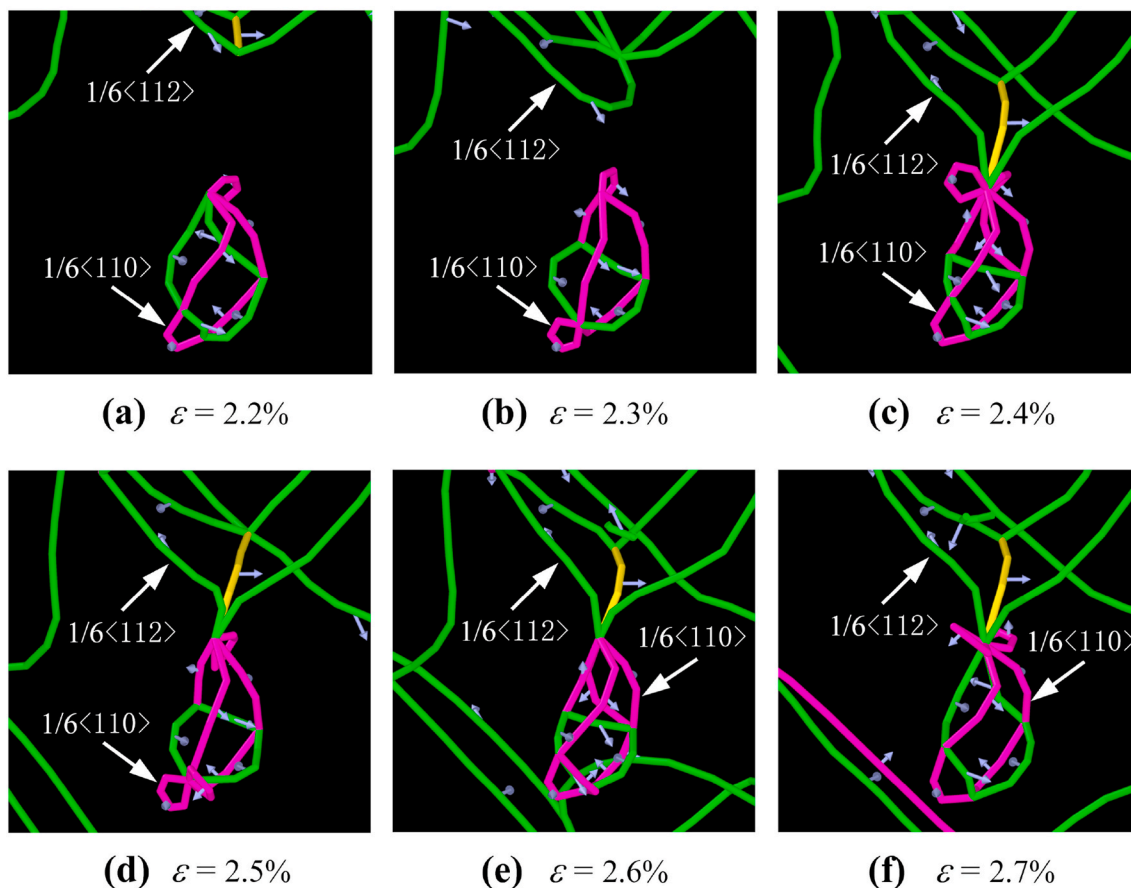


Fig. 5. The process of the interaction between the sessile $1/6\langle 110 \rangle$ (Stair-rod) and the glissile $1/6\langle 112 \rangle$ (Shockley) dislocations, in which the former blocks the motion and traps the latter dislocations. The dislocation color coding scheme is identical to those in Fig. 4 (e and f). A supplementary movie is accompanied with the snapshots (see Movie S1 in the supplementary material).

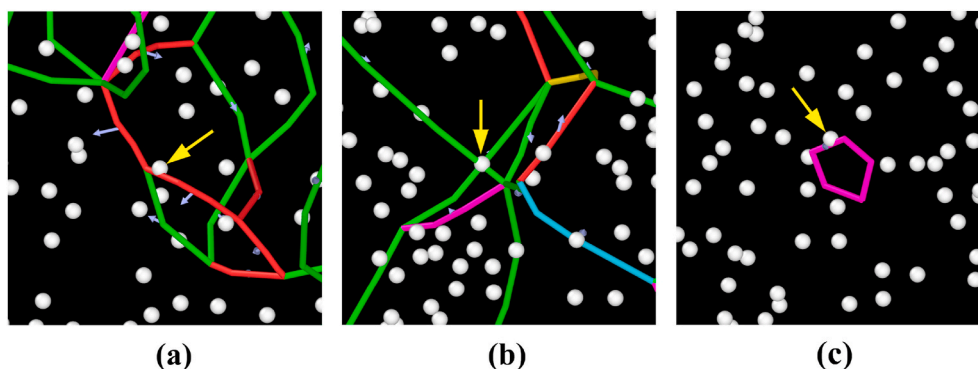


Fig. 6. Solid solution mechanism, in which Re impedes the motion of versatile mobile dislocations. The dislocation color coding scheme is identical to those in Fig. 4 (e and f). The white balls represent the Re atoms. Yellow arrows locate the exact Re atoms pinning the mobile dislocations.

dislocation loops are left after dislocation interaction with solid solution atom, as shown in Fig. 6(c), which is an evidence of the mechanism of solid solution strengthening.

5. Conclusion

In summary, through developing a loading-unloading-reloading protocol, we investigate the microscopic mechanism of Re strengthening in Ni-based superalloys by atomistic simulations. By analyzing the atomic-scale dislocation density evolution and the details of spatial nature of versatile dislocations, we put down the increased flow stress

with Re addition to three basic mechanisms. First comes the usual solid solution mechanism due to the interaction between Re and mobile dislocations. The second interesting mechanism unveiled is the extra work hardening due to Re-assisted rapid dislocation nucleation and increased density that encourages forest dislocation interaction. Finally, Re atoms promote more $1/6\langle 110 \rangle$ stair-rod dislocations upon loading which are sessile and, therefore, will act as obstacles for the glissile $1/6\langle 112 \rangle$ Shockley partial dislocations. The three mechanisms synergistically help Re addition improve the mechanical properties of the Ni-based superalloys. Finally, we note that the present simulations at ambient temperature and the short MD timescale miss diffusive mechanism that

accommodates the creep deformation of superalloys at the elevated temperature service condition, which also involves mechanism of dislocation climb driven by vacancy diffusion in the vicinity of dislocation core. Therefore, a further investigation of the role of Re addition in creep will move another step toward understanding the high-temperature strengthening mechanisms, which deserves a future study.

Data availability

The raw/processed data required to reproduce these findings cannot be shared at this time due to legal or ethical reasons.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

En-Lai Yue: Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Formal analysis, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. **Tao Yu:** Conceptualization, Writing - review & editing, Funding acquisition. **Yun-Jiang Wang:** Conceptualization, Writing - review & editing, Funding acquisition. **Chong-Yu Wang:** Project administration, Funding acquisition.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.intermet.2021.107133>.

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