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# Theoretical model for yield strength of monocrystalline Ni<sub>3</sub>Al by simultaneously considering size and strain rate

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Abstract: To comprehensively describe the size and strain rate dependent yield strength of monocrystalline ductile materials, a theoretical model was established based on the dislocation nucleation mechanism. Taking Ni<sub>3</sub>Al as an example, the model firstly fits results of molecular dynamics simulations to extract material dependent parameters. Then, a theoretical surface of yield strength is constructed, which is finally verified by available experimental data. The model is further checked by available third part molecular dynamics and experimental data of monocrystalline copper and gold. It is shown that this model can successfully leap over the huge spatial and temporal scale gaps between molecular dynamics and experimental conditions to get the reliable mechanical properties of monocrystalline Ni<sub>3</sub>Al, copper and gold.

Key words: yield strength; size; strain rate; monocrystalline Ni<sub>3</sub>Al

# **1** Introduction

The yield strength of ductile materials such as copper [1], silicon [2], nickel [3] and graphene [4] can be associated with the activation of their preexisting defects such as dislocations. It can also depend on the nucleation of new dislocations in the monocrystalline metals and alloys without pre-existing dislocations. Over recent decades, molecular dynamics (MD) simulations and in-site experiments have been recognized as two effective tools for probing the mechanical properties of metal nanolayered composites [5], high-entropy alloys [6], ceramic composites [7,8], graphene/polymer [9], polycrystalline copper [10], zirconium [11] and titanium alloy [12] materials at the nanoscale. It is shown that the sample size and strain rate effects on yield strength are universal in both the MD simulations [13,14] and experimental tests [15,16]. For example, size and strain rate dependences on the yield strength have been clarified in nanoporous gold [13] and nickel nanowires [14] through MD simulations, and in nanostructured copper [15] and nanocrystalline gold films [16] by experimental tests. However, due to limitation of force and time resolutions, the yield strength of a material with a small size at an ultra-high strain rate cannot be accurately obtained by experimental measurements. Although this can be fulfilled by numerical techniques such as MD simulations, the size and strain rate, of which MD simulations deal with, are far from those of experiments. Therefore, it is necessary for a theoretical model that can play a

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bridge to leap over such a spatial and temporal scale gap.

As an intermetallic ordered alloy with the L1<sub>2</sub> structure, Ni<sub>3</sub>Al has been widely applied in aerospace industries due to its excellent corrosion and creep resistance and high-temperature strength properties [17,18]. Extensive experimental and MD simulation efforts have been made to elucidate the structural and mechanical properties of monocrystalline Ni<sub>3</sub>Al. The sample size [19,20] and strain rate [21] effects on yield strength have also been explored. Specifically, LI et al [19] indicated that the yield strength of dislocation-free Ni<sub>3</sub>Al nanocubes increases from ~2.10 to ~4.50 GPa as the size reduces from  $\sim 625$  to  $\sim 175$  nm, with up to 1-2 orders of magnitude higher than that of bulk Ni<sub>3</sub>Al [20]. YU et al [21] investigated the strain rate effect on deformation mechanism of Ni<sub>3</sub>Al. To the best of our knowledge, however, there is still lack of a theoretical model that can comprehensively consider the sample size and strain rate effects on yield strength of Ni<sub>3</sub>Al [22,23] and its alloys such as GH4037 [24], 55Ni-23Cr-13Co [25] and Ti-Zr-Cu-Ni-Fe-Co-Mo [26].

Taking the monocrystalline Ni<sub>3</sub>Al as an example, in this work, a theoretical model was proposed, which involved the sample size and strain rate effects on yield strength of ductile materials. By using MD simulations, yield strengths of monocrystalline Ni<sub>3</sub>Al nanowires were obtained under various sizes (3–12 nm) and strain rates  $(5\times10^{6}-5\times10^{10} \text{ s}^{-1})$ , which can be applied to verifying the theoretical model, together with experimental data under a sample size over 175 nm and strain rates of  $3.2\times10^{-3}-1.1\times10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  [19]. Meanwhile, the nature of sample size and strain rate dependence of yield strength was discussed.

# 2 Methods

#### 2.1 Potential energy function

An embedded-atom potential function for the Ni–Al system developed by MISHIN [27] was taken to describe the atomic interaction in Ni<sub>3</sub>Al. In the function, the total energy, U, of a system can be represented as

$$U = \sum_{\substack{i,j\\i\neq j}} V_{\text{EAM}}(r_{ij}) + \sum_{i} F(\overline{\rho}_i)$$
(1)

where the pair potential,  $V_{\text{EAM}}(r_{ij})$ , is a function of the distance  $r_{ij}$  between atoms *i* and *j*. Moreover, *F* 

is the embedding energy of atom *i*, and  $\overline{\rho}_i$  is the electron density, which is written as

$$\overline{\rho}_i = \sum_{i \neq j} g_j(r_{ij}) \tag{2}$$

where  $g_i(r_{ij})$  is the electron density of atom *j*.

Here, it is worth noting that such a potential is built up by fitting the data from both experiments and first principles calculations. It can depict the accurate lattice, mechanical properties, and especially energetics of point defects (vacancies), line defects (dislocations), and planar faults (twin boundaries). It is also essential to study the dislocation nucleation dominated mechanical properties of Ni<sub>3</sub>Al [28].

#### 2.2 Simulation details

The monocrystalline Ni<sub>3</sub>Al nanowires were created in a cylindrical lateral shape with an aspect ratio of length to diameter (3-12 nm) being 3.0. In order to show the changing tendency of yield strength versus the sample size and strain rates, five simulations were performed under each condition. The periodic boundary conditions were introduced in the axial-[111] crystalline direction. Simulations were performed by integrating Newton's equations of motion for all atoms with a time step of 1 fs. At the beginning of simulation, Ni<sub>3</sub>Al nanowires were energetically minimized by relaxing them for 100 ps at 300 K. To obtain the mechanical properties, a uniaxial tensile load along the [111] direction was applied with a strain rate ranging from  $5.0 \times 10^6$  to  $5.0 \times 10^{10}$  s<sup>-1</sup>. The stress in a stress-strain relationship was calculated by the Virial scheme [29,30]. During uniaxial loading, transverse directions were permitted to relax and remain in a stress-free condition [10,31]. Deformation and defects of Ni<sub>3</sub>Al nanowires were recognized by dislocation analysis and then visualized by the OVITO software [32].

#### **3 Results**

As shown in Fig. 1, stress linearly rises with the increase of strain until it reaches the yield strength. Then, a sudden drop of stress occurs with further increase of strain. The initial configuration of a monocrystalline Ni<sub>3</sub>Al nanowire consists of perfect face-centered cubic (FCC) structural and surface atoms (see the left inset in Fig. 1). As strain is less than 7.15% (marked as a blue circle in Fig. 1), there are no dislocations in the Ni<sub>3</sub>Al nanowire, implying an elastic deformation. With strain beyond 7.15%, a  $1/6[\overline{112}]$  Shockley dislocation nucleates on the surface of nanowire (see the right inset in Fig. 1). Meanwhile, the nanowire yields as stress reaches 16.88 GPa. This indicates that the yield strength of Ni<sub>3</sub>Al nanowire is dominated by the nucleation of dislocations.



Fig. 1 Stress-strain curve of monocrystalline  $Ni_3Al$  nanowire (Left and right insets show snapshots of  $Ni_3Al$  nanowire cross-section with initial atomic configuration and Shockley dislocation nucleating at the yielding point, respectively)

According to ZHU et al [33], the dislocation nucleation dominated yield strength can be expressed as

$$\sigma = \frac{Q^*}{\overline{Q}} - \frac{k_{\rm B}T}{\overline{Q}} \ln\left(\frac{k_{\rm B}TN\nu_0}{E\dot{\varepsilon}\overline{Q}}\right) \tag{3}$$

where the first term,  $Q^*/\overline{Q}$ , is the athermal nucleation stress with Q and  $\overline{Q}$  the activation free energy and activation volume, respectively. The pre-factor of the second term,  $k_{\rm B}T/\overline{Q}$ , draws the scale of nucleation stress reduction due to thermal fluctuation, with  $k_{\rm B}$  and T the Boltzmann constant and thermodynamic temperature, respectively. In the logarithmic function,  $k_{\rm B}TNv_0$  is the energy exchange rate of candidate nucleation sites with the thermal bath, with  $v_0$  the attempt frequency and Nthe number of equivalent surface nucleation sites, respectively.  $E\dot{\varepsilon}\overline{Q}$  is the rate of activation energy reduction by the mechanical work, where  $\dot{\varepsilon}$  and E are the strain rate and Young's modulus, respectively. Here, it is worth noting that, due to thermal fluctuation, the ratio of two terms in the logarithmic function in Eq. (3) determines the competition of thermal and mechanical effects in mediating the nucleation stress reduction [33]. At ambient temperature, the number of equivalent surface nucleation points N is proportional to the surface area of a three-dimensional material as its size changes. Here, the surface area of a nanowire can be expressed as  $3\pi d^2$  since it has an aspect ratio of length to diameter (d) of 3.0, that is,  $N \propto d^2$ . Therefore, Eq. (3) can be simplified as

$$\sigma = \sigma_0 - \alpha \ln \left(\frac{Ad^2}{\dot{\varepsilon}}\right) \tag{4}$$

where  $\sigma_0$ ,  $\alpha$  and A are constants because we are interested in the size and strain rate effects. Let us assume that

$$\sigma_0 = \alpha \ln B \tag{5}$$

where *B* is a constant dependent on  $\sigma_0$  and  $\alpha$ . Equation (4) can be rewritten as

$$\sigma = \alpha \ln \left( \frac{B\dot{\varepsilon}}{Ad^2} \right) \tag{6}$$

Further, introducing  $\beta = B/A$ , we have

$$\sigma = \alpha \ln \left(\frac{\beta \dot{\varepsilon}}{d^2}\right) \tag{7}$$

where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are the material dependent parameters that can be determined by fitting MD simulation results (see Table 1). In the case of Ni<sub>3</sub>Al, they are 0.44 GPa and  $1.06 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m}^2 \cdot \text{s}$ , respectively. Therefore, Eq. (7) explicitly indicates that the yield strength is dependent on the size and strain rate.

As shown in Fig. 2(a), at a given strain rate of  $5 \times 10^8$  s<sup>-1</sup>, as the diameter of a Ni<sub>3</sub>Al nanowire increases from 3 to 12 nm, its yield strength decreases from 19.01 to 16.06 GPa, which is well consistent with the theoretical prediction of Eq. (7). In addition, for a Ni<sub>3</sub>Al nanowire with the diameter of 6 nm, the yield strength rises from 15.55 to 21.13 GPa as strain rate increases from  $5 \times 10^6$  to  $5 \times 10^{10}$  s<sup>-1</sup> (see Fig. 2(b)). The changing trend is also in accordance with the theoretical curve. Hence, it is seen that the size and strain rate effects on the yield strength obtained by MD simulations can be well described by the theoretical model.

Given that the parameters in Eq. (7) are determined through fitting MD simulation results, a theoretical  $\sigma(d, \dot{e})$  surface can be constructed by

 Table 1 MD and experimental results of yield strengths

 for monocrystalline Ni<sub>3</sub>Al samples

Method	Sample size,	Strain	Yield strength,
	<i>d</i> /nm	rate, $\dot{arepsilon}$ /s <sup>-1</sup>	σ/GPa
MD	3.0	$5.0  imes 10^8$	19.01
	6.0	$5.0  imes 10^8$	16.88
	8.0	$5.0  imes 10^8$	16.55
	10.0	$5.0  imes 10^8$	16.27
	12.0	$5.0  imes 10^8$	16.06
	6.0	$5.0  imes 10^6$	15.55
	6.0	$5.0 \times 10^7$	16.18
	6.0	$5.0  imes 10^9$	18.43
	6.0	$5.0  imes 10^{10}$	21.13
Experiment	175	$1.1 \times 10^{-2}$	4.50
	180	$1.1 \times 10^{-2}$	3.75
	325	$6.2 \times 10^{-3}$	2.50
[19]	350	$350 \qquad 5.7 \times 10^{-3}$	2.40
	625	$3.2 \times 10^{-3}$	2.20



**Fig. 2** Size (a) and strain rate (b) effects on yield strength of Ni<sub>3</sub>Al nanowire

extending the size and time scales to that of experiments. Then, the effectiveness of such a model can be checked by available experimental data. As shown in Fig. 3, the  $\sigma(d, \dot{\varepsilon})$  surface offers the yield strength of Ni<sub>3</sub>Al with a size of 1–700 nm at a strain rate of  $10^{-3}-10^{10}$  s<sup>-1</sup>. It is

obvious that the experimental data from 2.20–4.50 GPa (see Table 1) with a strain rate of  $3.2 \times 10^{-3} - 1.1 \times 10^{-2}$  s<sup>-1</sup> and a size of 175–625 nm [19] are consistent with the theoretical data. This directly confirms the reliability of the model.



Fig. 3 Comprehensive effects of size and strain rate on yield strengths of monocrystalline Ni<sub>3</sub>Al samples

#### **4** Discussion

As mentioned above, both MD simulations and experiments show that the yield strength of monocrystalline Ni<sub>3</sub>Al is related to the nucleation of dislocations, which is depicted in  $\ln(\beta \dot{\varepsilon}/d^2)$ of Eq. (7). That is, the size and strain rate affect the nucleation of dislocations and thus the yield strength of materials. Specifically, the number of equivalent surface nucleation points (N) increases with the increase of the sample size, i.e.,  $N \propto d^2$ . The increasing N increase the nucleation probability of dislocations from surface nucleation points with a lower stress and subsequently leads to the reduction of yield strength. This has been embodied in Eq. (7), as  $\ln(\beta \dot{\varepsilon}/d^2)$  reduces with the increase of size, resulting in a negative correlation between the yield strength and sample size. Moreover, it is known that the strain rate dependence of yield strength origins from the competition between the external loading rate and the thermal motion of atoms inside materials, and the yield of materials is related to the processes of atoms crossing the potential barrier to initiate a dislocation [33,34]. Such a competition leads to the raise of yield strength with the increase of external loading rate [34]. This is also reflected in Eq. (7), as  $\ln(\beta \dot{\varepsilon}/d^2)$  grows with the increase of strain rate,

and thus the rise of yield strength occurs. Taking sample size and strain rate effects together, it is seen that the nature of dislocation nucleation dominated yield strength of materials has been captured by our theoretical model. Therefore, it builds a connection between MD and experimental results with the size ranging from 3 to 700 nm (2 orders of magnitude) and the strain rate crossing 13 orders of magnitude from  $10^{-3}$  to  $10^{10}$  s<sup>-1</sup> for Ni<sub>3</sub>Al samples.

The size and strain rate dependent yield strength is also frequently confirmed in other monocrystalline ductile materials such as copper and gold. Specifically, MD simulations reveal that yield strength of copper nanowires decreases with the increase of sample size at a constant strain rate (Table 2) [35]. MD simulations also show that yield strength rises with the increase of strain rate as the sample size is fixed (Table 2) [36]. Although similar trend is seen from experimental data as the sample size changes [37], experimental data can hardly compare with MD results since at least 2 orders

 Table 2
 Yield strengths of monocrystalline copper nanowires

Method	Sample size,	Strain rate,	Yield strength,
	<i>d</i> /nm	$\dot{oldsymbol{arepsilon}}$ /s <sup>-1</sup>	σ/GPa
MD [35,36]	3.6	$2.0  imes 10^8$	7.60
	5.4	$2.0  imes 10^8$	7.50
	7.2	$2.0  imes 10^8$	7.40
	10.8	$2.0  imes 10^8$	7.10
	2.0	$1.0  imes 10^7$	7.11
	2.0	$5.0  imes 10^7$	7.16
	2.0	$1.0  imes 10^8$	7.17
	2.0	$2.0  imes 10^8$	7.28
	2.0	$5.0  imes 10^8$	7.38
	2.0	$1.0  imes 10^9$	7.44
	2.0	$2.0  imes 10^9$	7.47
Experiment [37]	90.0	$1.1 \times 10^{-2}$	1.25
	108.0	$9.3  imes 10^{-3}$	0.99
	132.0	$7.6  imes 10^{-3}$	0.75
	170.0	$5.9  imes 10^{-3}$	0.53
	223.0	$4.5  imes 10^{-3}$	0.39
	275.0	$3.6  imes 10^{-3}$	0.30
	492.0	$2.0  imes 10^{-3}$	0.27
	573.0	$1.7 \times 10^{-3}$	0.32
	775.0	$1.3 \times 10^{-3}$	0.14

discrepancy exists at the spatial scale between MD and experimental sizes, let alone the 10 orders temporal gap. Adopting  $\alpha$ =0.2 GPa and  $\beta$ = 2.48×10<sup>-10</sup> m<sup>2</sup>·s, Eq. (7) well describes the size and strain rate dependent yield strength of monocrystalline copper (Fig. 4(a)). Figure 4(b) further shows that Eq. (7) with  $\alpha$ =0.07 GPa and  $\beta$ = 3.49×10<sup>-9</sup> m<sup>2</sup>·s can also connect MD results [38,39] and experimental data [40–42] of monocrystalline gold (Table 3)



**Fig. 4** Comprehensive effects of size and strain rate on yield strengths of monocrystalline copper (a) and gold (b) nanowires

Taking applications of the theoretical model to the size and strain rate dependent yield strength of monocrystalline Ni<sub>3</sub>Al, copper and gold together, it is found that the model can leap over at least 2 orders of spatial and 10 orders of temporal scale gaps between the MD and experimental results of monocrystalline ductile materials such as Ni<sub>3</sub>Al, copper and gold to get their reliable mechanical properties. It is also worth noting that the size effect on yield strength of a material is distinct as the sample size is below 1  $\mu$ m. Moreover, the loading condition with a strain rate below  $1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$  can be regarded as quasistatic case, indicating a negligible variation of yield strength with strain rates below this value. Therefore, the theoretical model applies to spatial scales below 1  $\mu$ m and temporal scales beyond  $1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ .

|--|

Mathad	Sample size,	Strain rate,	Yield strength,
Wiethod	<i>d</i> /nm	$\dot{\mathcal{E}}$ /s <sup>-1</sup>	σ/GPa
MD [38,39]	3.0	$1.9  imes 10^7$	2.11
	3.0	$9.0  imes 10^7$	2.14
	3.0	$1.9  imes 10^8$	2.14
	3.0	$8.6  imes 10^8$	2.34
	3.0	$1.7 \times 10^9$	2.45
	3.0	$7.6  imes 10^9$	2.90
	3.0	$1.5  imes 10^{10}$	3.04
	3.0	$5.5  imes 10^{10}$	3.41
	2.9	$1.4  imes 10^9$	2.90
	3.9	$1.4 \times 10^9$	2.95
	5.0	$1.4  imes 10^9$	3.05
	5.8	$1.4 \times 10^9$	3.20
Experiment [40–42]	266.7	$7.0  imes 10^{-1}$	0.28
	587.6	$3.0  imes 10^{-1}$	0.18
	951.7	$2.0  imes 10^{-1}$	0.09
	266.7	$4.0  imes 10^{-1}$	0.57
	587.6	$4.0  imes 10^{-1}$	0.35
	951.7	$4.0  imes 10^{-1}$	0.20
	875.1	$4.0  imes 10^{-1}$	0.13
	957.0	$4.0  imes 10^{-1}$	0.11
	148.1	$1.4 \times 10^{-2}$	0.54
	253.4	$7.9  imes 10^{-3}$	0.49
	290.8	$6.9  imes 10^{-3}$	0.39
	454.4	$4.4 \times 10^{-3}$	0.34

# **5** Conclusions

(1) A series of molecular dynamics simulations of monocrystalline  $Ni_3Al$  nanowires have been performed under uniaxial tension by considering the various sample sizes and strain rates. The theoretical model has been established by comprehensively considering the sample size and strain rate effects on the dislocation nucleation dominated yield strength of ductile materials.

(2) The model well describes the MD simulation results (15.55–21.13 GPa) with sample sizes of 3–12 nm at strain rates of  $5\times10^{6}-5\times10^{10}$  s<sup>-1</sup> and experimental data (2.20–4.50 GPa) with the sample sizes ranging from 175 to 625 nm and strain rates from  $3.2\times10^{-3}$  to  $1.1\times10^{-2}$  s<sup>-1</sup>.

(3) The theoretical model can also be applied to leaping over spatial and temporal scale gaps between the MD and experimental results of face-centered cubic metallic materials such as copper and gold nanowires.

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# 综合考虑尺寸和应变速率的单晶 Ni<sub>3</sub>Al 屈服强度的理论模型

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摘 要:为了综合考虑尺寸和应变率效应对单晶延性材料屈服强度的影响,建立基于位错形核机制的理论模型。以Ni<sub>3</sub>Al为例,首先,通过分子动力学模拟结果拟合出材料参数;然后,通过材料参数构建屈服强度的理论曲面;最后,用现有实验数据检验该理论模型。通过现有第三方单晶铜和金的分子动力学和实验数据对该模型进行检验。结果表明,该模型可以跨越分子动力学和实验条件之间巨大的空间和时间差异,从而得到单晶Ni<sub>3</sub>Al、铜和金的可靠力学性能。

关键词: 屈服强度; 尺寸; 应变速率; 单晶 Ni<sub>3</sub>Al

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