

Article

# The Effect of Void on the

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**Abstract:** Fracture processes of nanocrystalline metallic materia is affected by dislocation, nanovoid and other defects. Existing studies of defect evolution in titanium-aluminium alloy cover the case that voids located in single crystals, inside grain in poly crystals and at the grain boundaries. Molecular dynamics simulation was performed to study the evolution of a spherical nanovoid in  $\alpha+\gamma$  two-phase titanium-aluminium alloy under uniaxial tension. The results show that voids located at the  $\alpha/\gamma$  phase boundary have significant detract to strength of Ti-Al polycrystalline.

**Keywords:**  $\alpha + \gamma$  two phase TiAl alloy; void; molecular dynamics

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## 1. Introduction

TiAl alloy has been used as structural material in aviation industry because its inherent advantages such as low density and self-diffusion rates, high elastic module and high strength [1]. Two-phase titanium aluminum alloys with proper phase distribution and grain size exhibit better mechanical performance compared with monolithic constituents  $\gamma$ (TiAl) and  $\gamma$ (Ti<sub>3</sub>Al) alloy [2]. Brittle fracture in TiAl alloy strongly affects the safety of fracture of structure like turbo of aircraft engine and combustion generator.

Deformation phenomena in TiAl alloys have been widely studied in order to overcome the problems associated with the limited ductility and damage tolerance. The literature data covers a wide range of parameters such as alloy composition, microstructure and deformation temperature. Much of the work has been performed on single phase  $\gamma$  alloys and PST crystals. Rapture failure at the macroscopic scale can be attributed to nucleation, growth and propagation of cracks, but at the microscopic scale cracks are initially easily formed at defects in the casting process, such as voids and inclusions [3]. These defects are known to play a fundamental role in the deformation of the material. Nucleation, growth and coalescence of voids are deemed as the primary mechanism of ductile material fracture, in which void growth is particularly important. Therefore, it is necessary to study the deformation response of porous materials with the consideration of microstructure evolution.

33 Brittle fracture in TiAl alloy strongly affects the safety of fracture of structure like turbo of aircraft  
 34 engine and combustion generator [ ]. Defects such as grain boundary, void and segregation plays an  
 35 significant role in the process of fracture [ ]. In order to understand the mechanism of brittle fracture,  
 36 multi-scale methods from micro to macro scale have been applied to investigate the behavior of  
 37 fracture. It's necessary to carefully examine the evolution of defects and its influence on the fracture  
 38 process at atomic scale. A previous study on void growth in gamma-TiAl single crystal has reveals that  
 39 void with high volume fraction detracts incipient yield strength [ ]. Molecular dynamics (MD) method  
 40 has been used to investigate the evolution of void in materials in nanoscale [ ]. The fracture mechanisms  
 41 in the duplex micro-structure are plasticity induced grain boundary decohesion and cleavage, while  
 42 those in the lamellar microstructure are interface delamination and cracking across the lamellae [ ].

43 MD simulations has reveals that existence of voids alone may contribute to strain hardening  
 44 because they are barriers to dislocation movement [ 3 ]

## 45 2. Molecular Dynamics Simulation

### 46 2.1. Atomic Potential

47 The interaction of particle in the material is determined by interatomic potential. Many reported  
 48 examples of crack propagation in metal materials were performed with embedded atom method  
 49 due to its better accuracy in metal lattice compare with F-S and L-J [ ]. The embedded atom method  
 50 (MEAM) potential developed by Zope and Mishin by [ ] was used in the study. The simulation is  
 51 submitted by MD simulations with the Large-scale Atomic/Molecular Massively Parallel Simulator  
 52 (LAMMPS) open-source code [ ]. We performed constant-pressure and constant-temperature (NPT)  
 53 molecular dynamics simulation.

$$E_{total} = \sum_i F_i(\rho_{h,i}) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_i \sum_{j \neq i} \phi_{ij}(R_{ij}) \quad (1)$$

54 where  $E_{total}$  is the total energy of the system,  $\rho_{h,i}$  is the host electron density at atom  $i$  due to the  
 55 remaining atoms of the system,  $F_i(\rho)$  is the energy for embedding atom  $i$  into the background electron  
 56 density  $\rho$ , and  $\phi_{ij}(R_{ij})$  is the core-core pair repulsion between atoms  $i$  and  $j$  separated by the distance  
 57  $R_{ij}$ . It can be noted that  $F_i$  only depends on the element of atom  $i$  and  $\phi_{ij}$  only depends on the elements  
 58 of atoms  $i$  and  $j$ . The electron density is, as stated above, approximated by the superposition of atomic  
 59 densities, namely

### 60 2.2. Model Creation of Crystalline

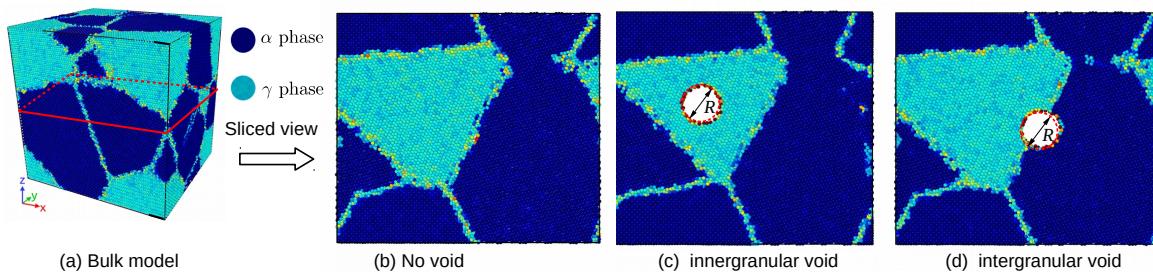


Figure 1. Overview of model creation

61 [ ]  $\gamma$  TiAl has a fcc-centered tetragonal with an  $L1_0$  structure [ ], and  $\alpha$ TiAl is hcp structure, the  
 62 structure of the two initial cells are shown in Fig. [ ], and the constructing parameters are given by Table. [ ].  
 63 The simulation cells of two phase polycrystalline with an initially spherical void at different position  
 64 are shown in figure [ ]. Periodic boundary conditions (PBC) are applied along all three directions, that  
 65 makes poly crystal with periodic nanovoid structures. The initial dimension of simulation cell is  $L_x =$

66 nm,  $L_y$  = nm,  $L_z$  = nm, and each model contains about 4.6 million atoms. The grain orientation and  
 67 size were randomly created with Voronoi method with code ATOMSK [], and resulting in the arbitrary  
 68 shape and orientation of the grains. Only one spherical void defect was placed intragranularly or  
 69 intergranularly within each simulation model void within each simulation model. The intragranular  
 70 spherical void was located in grain interior of the largest grain of the simulation model, as shown in  
 71 Fig. []. The intergranular spherical void was at the center of the simulation cell, as shown in Fig. [].

**Table 1.** Parameters of nanocrystalline

Phase	Space group	Designation	Parameters
$\alpha_2$	P6 <sub>3</sub> /mmc	0 <sub>19</sub>	$a = 0.5765$ $c = 0.46833$
$\gamma$	tP4	L1 <sub>0</sub>	$a = 0.3997$ $c = 0.4062$

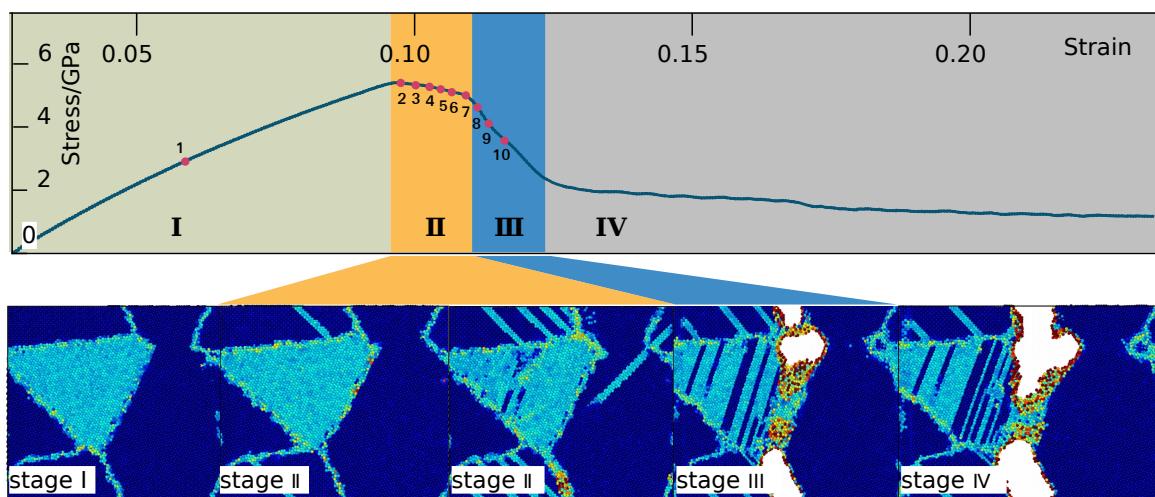
### 72 2.3. Analysis method

The centrosymmetry parameter is defined as follow:

$$P = \sum_{i=1}^6 |\vec{R}_i + \vec{R}_{i+6}|^2 \quad (2)$$

73 where  $\vec{R}_i$  and  $\vec{R}_{i+6}$  are the vectors corresponding to the six pairs of opposite nearest neighbors  
 74 in the fcc lattice. The centrosymmetry parameter(CSP) is zero for atoms in a perfect lattice. In other  
 75 words, if the lattice is distorted the value of P will not be zero. Instead, the parameter will have a value  
 76 within the range corresponding to a particular defect. By removing all the perfect and surface atoms  
 77 within the bulk, the existence of dislocation atoms become visible.

### 78 3. Results and Discussion



**Figure 2.** perfect-line2-2

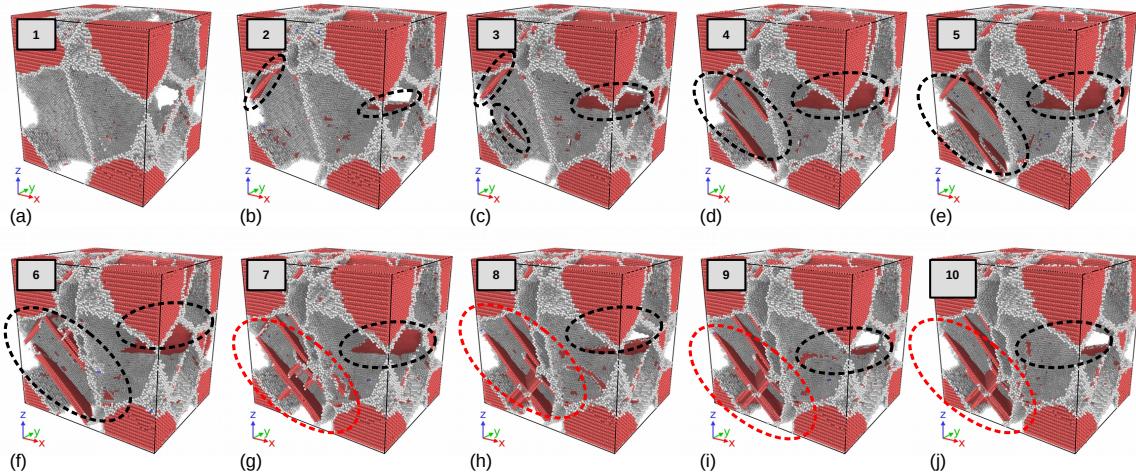
### 79 3.1. Deformation Behaviour of Two Phase Alloys without Void Defects

80 However, the following discussion concentrates on deformation phenomena that rely on the  
 81 elastoplastic co-deformation of the  $\gamma$  and  $\gamma_2$  phases and on the particular point defect situation occurring  
 82 in twophase alloys. Due to this effect ( $\alpha_2 + \gamma$ ) alloys exhibit some remarkable properties that are

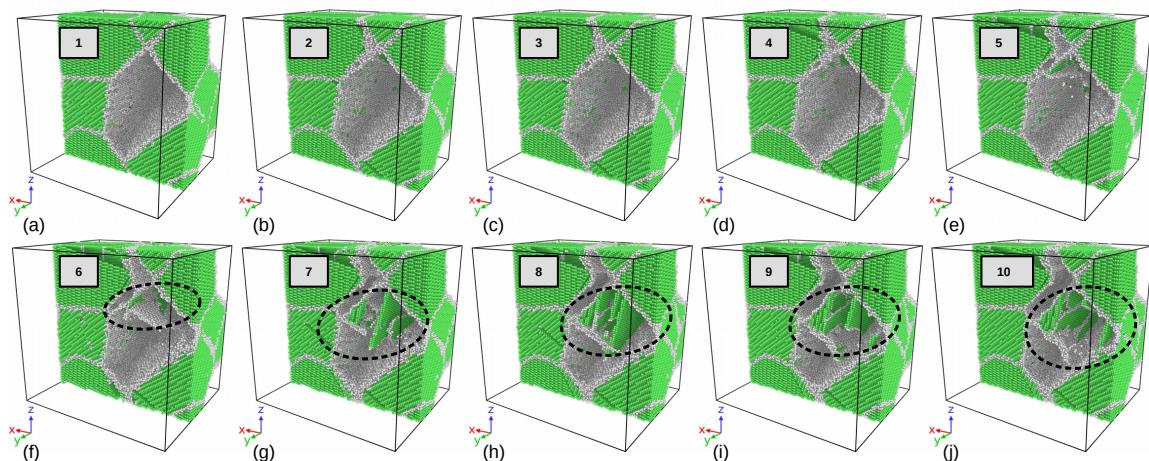
**Table 2.** Key point during tensile process

Key Number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Time/ps	0	0.15	0.16	0.17	0.18	0.19	0.20	0.21	0.22	0.23
Strain	0	0.15	0.16	0.17	0.18	0.19	0.20	0.21	0.22	0.23

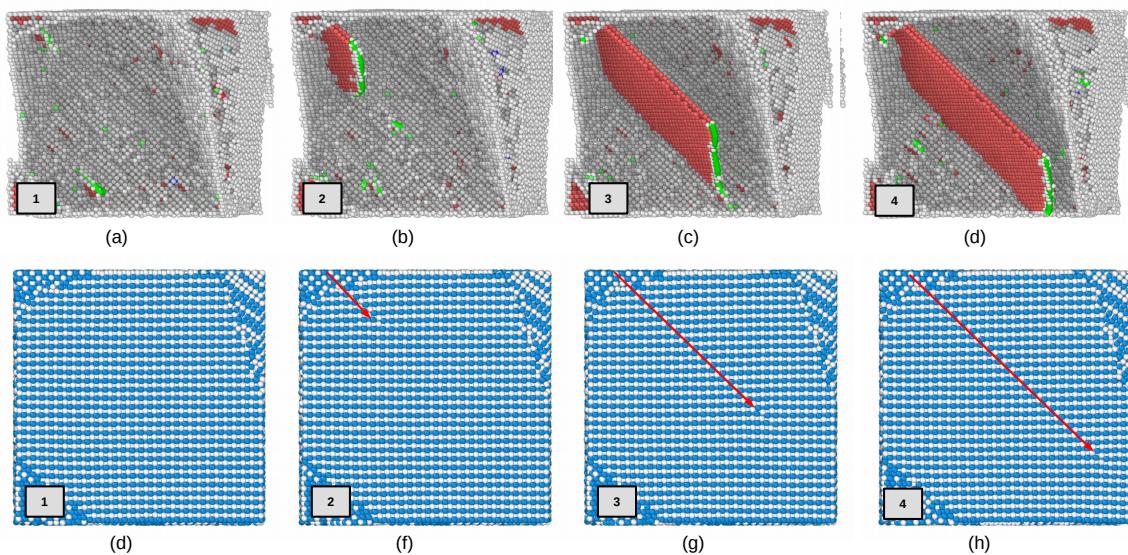
unlike those of either constituent. The configure of atoms is shown in Fig.8, it can be seen that

**Figure 3.**  $\gamma$  phase deformation

dislocation emission initiate in  $\gamma$  pahse in XXX ps, and the deformation canbe mainly confined to the majority  $\gamma$  pahse.  $\gamma$ (TiAl) deforms by octahedral glide of ordinary dislocations with the Burgers vector  $b=1/2<110]$  and superdislocations with the Burgers vectors  $b=<101]$  and  $b = 1/2 < 11\bar{2}]$ . The other potential deformation mode is mechanical twinning along  $1/6 < 11\bar{2}111$ . From Fig.8, of the two constituents of ( $\alpha_2+\gamma$ ) alloys, the  $\alpha_2$  phase is more difficult to deform. A reason for the unequal strain partitioning between the  $\alpha_2$  and  $\gamma$  phase is certainly the strong plastic anisotropy of the  $\alpha_2$  phase. TEM examinations performed on tensile tested lamellar alloys have revealed that the limited plasticity of the  $\alpha_2$  phase is mainly carried by local slip of  $<\mathbf{a}>$ -type dislocations with the Burgers vector  $b = 1/3 < 11\bar{2}0 >$  prism planes<sup>8</sup>, which is by far the easiest slip system in  $\alpha_2$  single crystals. Basic

**Figure 4.**  $\alpha$  phase deformation

deformationg mechanism of  $\alpha$  phase



**Figure 5.** Dislocation in  $\gamma$

94     1. In many cases the orientation of slip slip is changed because the crystallographically available  
 95     slip and directions are not continuous across the interface. This may significantly reduce the Schmid  
 96     factor and thus impede slip transfer. At the  $\gamma/\gamma$  interfaces the orientation of the slip plan could change  
 97     through a relevantly large angle of about 90 degree. Reorientation of slip is always required at the  
 98      $\alpha_2/\gamma$  interface; the smallest angle between the corresponding slip planes  $111_\gamma$  and  $10 - 10_{\alpha_2}$  is about  
 99     19 degree [1].

100     The core of a dislocation intersecting an interface often needs to be transformed. For example, an  
 101     ordinary  $1/2<110]$  dislocation gliding in one  $\gamma$  grain has to be converted in to a  $<101]$  super dislocation  
 102     with the double Burgers vector gliding in an adjacent  $\gamma$  grain. At the  $\alpha/\gamma$  interface the dislocations  
 103     existing in the  $D0_{19}$  structure have to be transformed into dislocations consistent with the  $L1_0$  structure.  
 104     These core transformations are associated with a change of the dislocation line energy because the  
 105     lengths of the Burgers vectors and the shear module are different.

106     Dislocations crossing semi-coherent boundaries have to intersect the misfit dislocations, a process  
 107     that involves elastic interaction, jog formation and the incorporation of gliding dislocations into the  
 108     mismatch structure of the interface. When the slip is forced to cross  $\alpha_2$  lamella, pyramidal slip of the  $\alpha_2$   
 109     phase is required, which needs an extremely high shear stress.

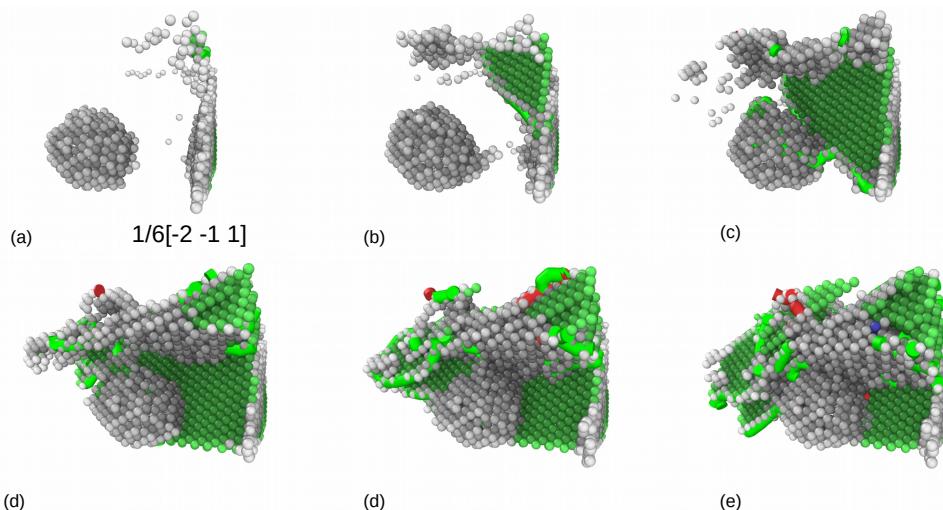
### 110     3.2. Evolution of spherical void in the simulation with intragranular spherical voids

111     The volume defects considered pertain to three-dimensional objects contained within a matrix.  
 112     Three-dimensional structures composed of zero-, one- or two-dimensional defects are not considered  
 113     here. Second-phase particles, precipitated within, as a consequence of a thermal treatment, or taken  
 114     up, as a consequence of a material processing route, into a matrix of the first, dominant phase, disrupt,  
 115     more or less (as possibly associated with the occurrence of incoherent or coherent interfaces; see Sect.  
 116     5.3), the long-range translation symmetry of the matrix. They may induce considerable misfit-stress  
 117     fields and thus can influence material properties pronouncedly. Such stress fields surrounding the  
 118     second-phase particles can be due to misfit between the volume occupied by the second-phase particle  
 119     when unconstrained and the space ("hole") put at its disposal by the matrix. Such misfit can arise  
 120     due to specific volume differences induced by precipitation or by different thermal expansion or  
 121     shrinkage upon heating or cooling the specimen. A possibly favourable effect of second-phase particles  
 122     is a contribution to the enhancement of mechanical strength. Considering yielding of a material as  
 123     related to glide of dislocations (Sect. 5.2.5), any mechanism obstructing dislocation glide improves the  
 124     mechanical strength. In the discussion of the Frank–Read source for dislocation (-line) production (Sect.

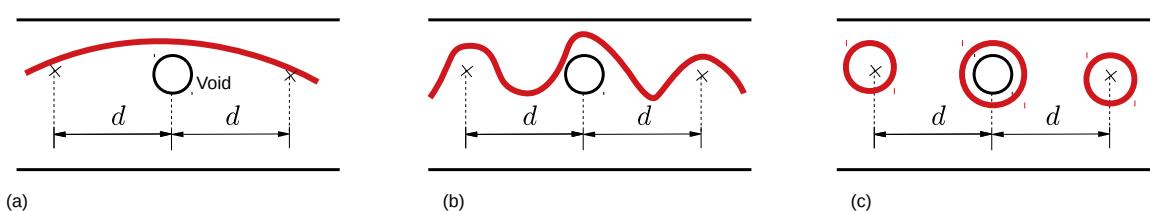
5.2.6) it was made clear that second-phase particles can serve as obstacles for dislocation migration: the stress fields surrounding the second-phase particles can be of "antagonistic" nature and "block" propagation of the stress field of a migrating dislocation: the second-phase particle acts as "pinning point". It was already indicated that in order that a dislocation can pass two pinning points (A and B in Fig. 5.13; see Sect. 5.2.6) a critical shear stress is needed that depends on the distance between the obstacles (which can be second-phase particles):

$$\tau_0 = Gb/d \quad (3)$$

where  $d$  represents the distance between A and B and thus reflects the dependence of the critical shear stress  $\tau_0$  on the second-phase particle density and distribution. This mechanism for hardening is designated as the Orowan process (with  $\tau_0$  as the Orowan (shear) stress ; see also Sect. 11.14.4). As a result of the Orowan process, upon passage of the pinning points by a series of gliding dislocations, a system of concentric loops is formed around the second-phase particles (see Fig. 5.27). Consequently, the effective average distance between the second-phase particles has decreased to  $d$  which implies a necessary increase of the value of critical shear stress required for continuation of dislocation glide (cf. (5.10)). A step, of the width of a burgers vector, will be generated at both sidesof a crystal along teh direction of teh burgers vector after dislocation traversing teh entire crystal, as is shown in ???. A small step will be formed at spherical void surface toward teh void interiorafter dislocation absorptionat sphericalvoid surfaces, as is shown in ???. If a great number of dislocation slip along their respective systemstowards teh spherical nanovoid in all directions, and are absorbed at spherical void surfaces, the spherical nanovoid will eventually shrink from teh dash circle to



**Figure 6.** Dislocation around void



**Figure 7.** orowan

### 3.3. The effect of void on the strength of material

Void of  $R=10$  was placed at phase boundary, inside  $\alpha$  phase grain respectively. Effect of void at different position under uniaxial tension is shown in Fig.9. The strength of materials with void in

<sup>147</sup> different size and at different position is shown in Fig.9. The results show that the model without void  
<sup>148</sup> defect has best strength, while the void located inside  $\alpha$  phase detracts the strength of the material most,  
<sup>149</sup> and the void at the phase boundary have less impact on the strength.

<sup>150</sup> The effect of size is expectable that the greater voids detracts the strength of the materials more,  
<sup>151</sup> however, it has been observed in the simulation that there is a critical value about 15A for voids at  
<sup>152</sup> different position. The voids larger than 15 A have dramatic detraction to the strength of the material.  
<sup>153</sup> Conventional definition of strength of materials with geometry subtraction was applied to the model,  
<sup>154</sup> and theoretical strength of the models was calculated by formulation 4:

$$\sigma^* = \sigma_0 \cdot \frac{A^*}{A_0} \quad (4)$$

<sup>155</sup> where  $\sigma_0$  is the strength of the model without void defects 5.26 Gpa, and  $A_0$  is initial section area,  
<sup>156</sup>  $A = a \times b = 36000 A^2$ ,  $A^*$  is section area in consider of the subsection that results from the voids.  
<sup>157</sup> Comparing with the strength determined by molecular dynamics simulation and the results calculated  
<sup>158</sup> with formulation 4, it can be assumed that the main factor that affects the strength of materials can be  
<sup>159</sup> attributed to local behaviour of the materials, thus evolution of defects should be examined carefully.

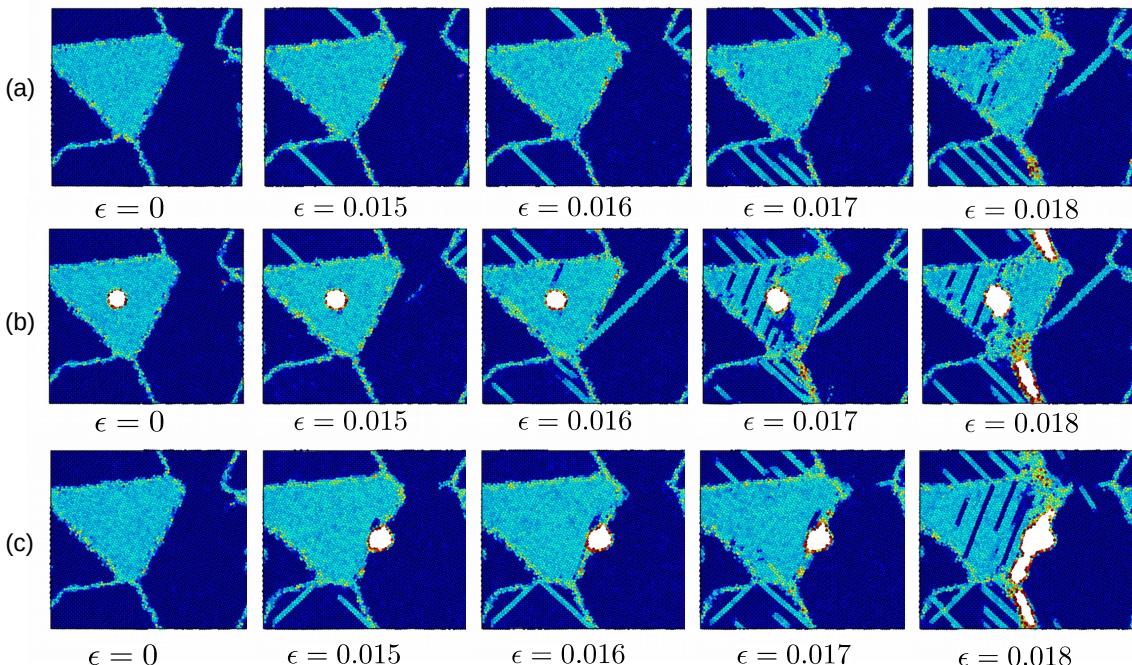


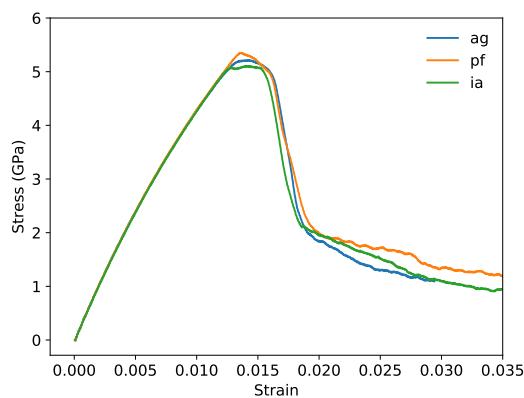
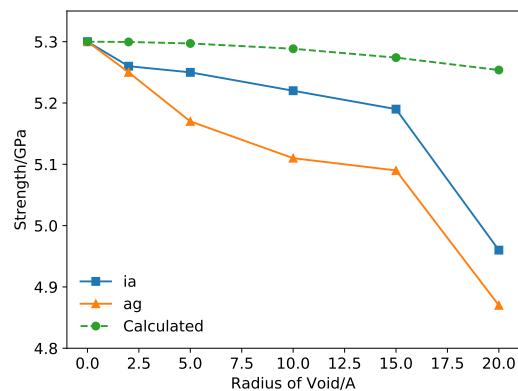
Figure 8. Yield process of the models

Voids with different size: 2A, 5A, 10A, 15A were placed into the model respectively. It has been observed that voids detract the strengths of the material. The maximum stress of the simulation cell decreases as the volume of voids are larger. From Fig ??, there is a critical value of void radius about 15A, the void greater than 15A cause serious detraction of strength of material. Engineering stress is calculated

$$\sigma = S/A$$

<sup>160</sup> The rate of decrease of loading area are smaller comparing with the detraction of strength, so it can  
<sup>161</sup> be assumed that the yield behaviour and strength is much more related with local behaviour of  
<sup>162</sup> grain boundaries and void.

<sup>163</sup> Grain and phase boundaries are obstacles to deformation process, thus the stability of boundaries  
<sup>164</sup> have great impact on the strength of materials. Interaction between grainboundary and void determines  
<sup>165</sup> the fracture mode of the TiAl alloy.

**Figure 9.** Stress-Strain**Figure 10.** Strength of models

According to Schmid's law:

$$\tau = \sigma * m$$

where m is the Schmid factor :

$$m = \cos(\phi)\cos(\lambda)$$

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