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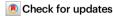
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Multi-stage phase transformation pathways in MAX phases

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Diverse, multi-stage phase transformations occur in many materials under extreme environments. In response to irradiation, some MAX phase compositions transform from an initial hexagonal structure to an intermediate y-phase, then to a face-centered cubic (fcc) structure, while others instead become amorphous. To date, no comprehensive description of the associated transformation mechanisms, or of the influence of composition on this phase behavior, has been reported. In this work, we combine in situ ion irradiation, Transmission electron microscopy (TEM), and density-functional theory (DFT) calculations to demonstrate the distinct transformation pathways and corresponding energetics of the y-to-fcc transformation in a series of MAX phases. We show that structural distortion and bond covalency of the intermediate y-phase determine the outcome of the transformation process. This yields a generalized rule to predict the phase transition behaviors of MAX phases based on their atomic radii and electronegativity. These results provide an insight into the multi-stage phase transformation pathways along which MAX phase systems and related complex materials evolve in extreme environments.

Understanding and predicting phase transformations is one of the crucial tasks of condensed matter physics and materials science. Irradiation, which induces lattice atom displacement, is a common means of probing phase transformation dynamics, since irradiation can provide the driving force for overcoming the energy barrier between stable and metastable phases¹. Study of irradiation-induced polymorphism has been used to elucidate transformation mechanisms in a broad range of both ionic-covalent²⁻⁶ and metallic materials^{7,8}. Many materials undergo multi-stage phase transformations under irradiation, such as the transition of pyrochlore- or spinel-structured complex oxides first to disordered defect-fluorite structures, then to amorphous structures as irradiation proceeds^{3,4,9}.

MAX phases show similar behavior in response to irradiation. These ternary layered carbides/nitrides, known as metallic ceramics^{10–12}, have been proposed as candidate materials for wide-

ranging applications due to their unique properties, such as nuclear fuel cladding materials and joint materials $^{13-16}$. They also exhibit a unique multiphase transformation from an initial hex-phase (hexagonal structure) to a γ -phase (hexagonal close-packed structure), and then to a fcc-phase (face-centered cubic structure) under irradiation $^{17-21}$. However, almost all analyses to date were based on the initial phase or structure, and the role of intermediate phases in the transformation process has been rarely studied. It is a challenge to understand the mechanisms by only analyzing the initial phases. For example, antisite defect formation energy in the initial phases was considered as a criterion to assess the resistance to the irradiation-induced phase transformation, yet this approach cannot fully explain the phase behavior or offer a generalizable predictive capability, since it is restricted to the early stages of the phase transformation process, prior to the formation of the intermediate γ -phase 17,22 .

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For the material family of MAX phases (over 340 types), previous irradiation experiments were mostly performed under ex situ irradiation conditions, which does not provide direct observation of the evolving atomic structure as a function of irradiation damage level, and thus fails to describe the complete, multi-stage phase transformation pathway. In addition, prior analyses also mainly focused on the initial hexagonal phases²³⁻²⁶ and provided only a phenomenological description of irradiation-induced phase behaviors^{18,19,27,28}. No substantial theoretical investigation of compositional trends in the dynamics of these multi-stage phase transformations has been reported, thus far. Hence, there is a clear need for a comprehensive understanding of the multi-stage phase transformation behavior in this class of materials.

In this work, we report an investigation of the distinct phase transformation behaviors of three representative MAX phases, M₂AlC (M=Cr, V, Nb), under in situ ion irradiation with real-time TEM observation. The anomalous case of Cr₂AlC is observed, which does not follow the common hex-y-fcc phase transition pathway as in V₂AlC and Nb₂AlC. Instead, Cr₂AlC follows a hex-y-amorphous transition pathway, without forming the fcc-phase. Using ab initio calculations, we explain the compositional origin of these phase transformation dynamics. Unlike prior computational work which considered only the energetics of structural transitions from the initial hex-phase²³⁻²⁶, this improved description of phase energetics captures the key role of the intermediate γ-phase in mediating the radiation response. An atomic-scale mechanism for the observed phase behavior is developed through the quantitative description of energetics along the transformation pathway and the underlying characteristics associated with the lattice and electronic structures of the intermediate γ-phase. We ultimately develop a generalized rule for prediction of the extreme environment phase transition behaviors of MAX phases of varying composition based on atomic radius and electronegativity. This method can be potentially extended to similar complex ceramics that undergo multi-stage phase transformations.

Results and discussion

Diverse compositional trends of multi-stage phase transformation pathways

M₂AlC (M = Cr, V, Nb) were studied by in situ ion irradiation at the Xiamen Multiple Ion Beam In-situ TEM Analysis Facility²⁹, and compositional trends in their irradiation-induced polymorphism were characterized. The irradiation was conducted using an ion beam of 800 keV Kr²⁺ at room temperature, while an in situ TEM was used to observe and record the phase states and transformation processes during irradiation. Figure 1 shows the in situ selected area electron diffraction (SAED) micrographs along the [1120] direction of Cr₂AlC, V₂AlC, and Nb₂AlC, respectively. For each material, seven SAED patterns were selected, each corresponding to different ion fluences during the irradiation process, represented by the damage level in displacements per atom (dpa). In all three materials, irradiation triggers the formation of intermediate yphases with hexagonal close-packed (hcp) structure at relatively low damage level, due to the accumulation of M-Al (M = Cr, V, Nb) antisite defects¹⁷, as shown in Fig. 1c, j, q. Both V₂AlC and Nb₂AlC undergo the hex-y-fcc phase transformation, while this process was not observed in Cr₂AlC. Instead, the intermediate y-Cr₂AlC phase amorphized starting from ~1.8 dpa, as indicated by the diffuse scattering ring in Fig. 1e-g. These compositional trends indicate that the transformation to the fccphase proceeds not from the initial hex-phase, but instead from the intermediate y-phase. Additionally, the y-to-fcc phase transformation occurs at a lower irradiation fluence in Nb2AlC than that in V2AlC. Further experimental results in Cr₂AlC under Al⁺ ion (as self-ion) irradiation confirmed this phase transformation and amorphization process, as shown in Supplementary Fig. S2 in the Supplementary Information. Additionally, prior work also indicates that the same transformation pathway is followed at other irradiation conditions (ions and temperatures), although the transformation rate may differ 18,27,30.

Evidence from high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) micrographs

High-resolution TEM (HRTEM) micrographs of Cr_2AlC , V_2AlC (as shown in Fig. 2), and Nb_2AlC (see Supplementary Fig. S3 in the

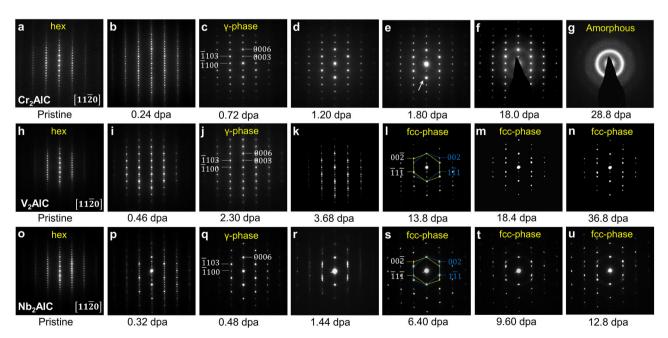


Fig. 1 | Diverse compositional trends of multi-stage phase transformation pathways among M_2AlC (M=Cr, V, Nb) under in situ irradiation. The image sequences of (a-g), (h-n) and (o-u) show the selective area electron diffraction (SAED) patterns of Cr_2AlC , V_2AlC and Nb_2AlC along the $\begin{bmatrix} 11\bar{2}0 \end{bmatrix}$ direction recorded during 800 keV Kr^{2+} in situ irradiation at room temperature. V_2AlC and Nb_2AlC

transformed to the γ -phase at about 2.3 and 0.48 dpa, respectively, then to the fcc-phase at about 13.8 and 6.4 dpa, respectively. For Cr₂AIC, an amorphous ring appeared at about 1.80 dpa, as marked by the white arrow in **e**, indicating the transition from the γ -phase to an amorphous state.

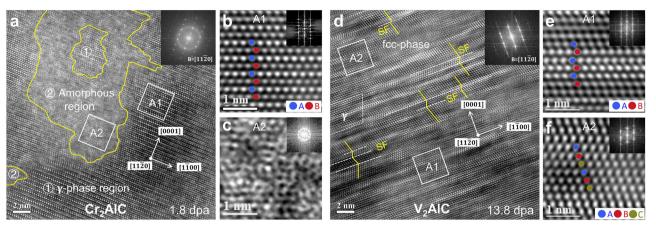


Fig. 2 | Distinct phase transformation pathways revealed by the high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) micrographs. a and d show the HRTEM micrographs of Cr_2AlC and V_2AlC irradiated at 1.8 dpa and 13.8 dpa, respectively. The electron beam is oriented along the [11 $\bar{2}$ 0] direction. b, c and e, f are enlargements of the A1 and A2 regions in a and d, respectively. Insets show the corresponding Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) images in each

micrograph. The regions 1 and 2 in a indicate the γ -phase and amorphous region, respectively. The coexistence of the γ -phase and the amorphous phase in Cr_2AlC (a-c) indicates that γ - Cr_2AlC amorphized directly instead of transforming to the fcc-phase, while the fcc-phase with abundant stacking faults (SFs) is observed in V_2AlC irradiated at 13.8 dpa.

Supplementary Information) further reveal the distinct phase transformation behaviors between Cr₂AlC and V₂AlC/Nb₂AlC. Figure 2a illustrates the coexistence of the y-phase with an hcp structure whose stacking sequence is ABABAB... (Fig. 2b), and the amorphous phase (Fig. 2c) nucleated inside the γ-phase in Cr₂AlC irradiated at 1.8 dpa, without the formation of the fcc-phase. This suggests that the intermediate y-Cr₂AlC phase is prone to amorphization with increasing irradiation dose rather than transforming to the fcc-phase, as in the other materials. As for V₂AlC shown in Fig. 2d, a dual-phase containing y-phase (Fig. 2e) and fcc-phase with a stacking sequence of ABCABC... (Fig. 2f) was observed at an irradiation dose of 13.8 dpa. Abundant stacking faults (SFs) are observed in these dual-phase regions. This indicates that the y-V₂AlC phase undergoes a y-to-fcc phase transformation with the accumulation of SFs. Fcc-phase regions containing SFs were also observed following irradiation of the γ-phase in Nb₂AlC (Supplementary Fig. S3). The transformed fcc-phase in V₂AlC and amorphous phase in Cr₂AlC grow with irradiation fluence.

The synchroshear mechanism and ab initio calculations for interpretation

Prior work has shown that SFs play an important role in triggering the hcp-to-fcc or fcc-to-hcp phase transformation in MAX phases $^{17-20,31,32}$ and related materials $^{33-36}$ via alteration of the stacking sequences. Generally, SFs in hexagonal MAX phases are produced by dissociation of perfect $\frac{1}{3} \left< 11\bar{2}0 \right> (0001)$ dislocations along the (0001) basal planes (which are the most energetically favorable) as expressed by the reaction equation 37 :

$$\frac{1}{3} \big\langle 11\bar{2}0 \big\rangle \to \frac{1}{3} \big\langle 10\bar{1}0 \big\rangle + \textit{SF} + \frac{1}{3} \big\langle 01\bar{1}0 \big\rangle \tag{1}$$

where the SF is bounded and expanded by the passage of one Shockley partial dislocation (analogous to that in the fcc crystalline structure) on the slip plane, in response to the irradiation-induced stress^{1,7,38,39}.

However, at the atomic level, the shearing mechanism in complex materials may differ from that in simple metals or alloys, due to their sublattices or ordered structures with different atomic planes parallel to the slip plane. Therefore, a coordinated motion of two Shockley partial dislocations is necessary, considering both geometric and energetic factors³⁶. The irradiation-induced γ -phase of these MAX phases is an hcp structure with cation sublattice disorder and X atoms rearranged randomly across octahedral interstitial sites (Fig. 3a)¹⁷.

Thus, to model SF-driven transformations in the intermediate γ -phase, we make use of a synchroshear mechanism for the formation of SFs in the γ -phases of MAX phases, which consists of two synchronous shears in different directions on adjacent atomic planes (additional details are illustrated in Supplementary Fig. S4 of the Supplementary Information), similar to that in the intermetallic Laves-phases 35,36 .

Utilizing this synchroshear mechanism combined with ab initio calculations, the barrier energies along the minimum energy path (MEP) for the y-to-fcc phase transformation (Fig. 3) were calculated for each of the y-M₂AlC (M = Cr, V, Nb) phases. For each material, 36 samples of 2 × 2 × 1 supercells with different random (solid-solution in cations sites) atomic configurations (Fig. 3a) were generated using the ATAT package⁴⁰ based on the Special Quasirandom Structures (SQS) method⁴¹. A climbing image nudged elastic band (CINEB)⁴² approach was applied to search the transition state and calculate the barrier energy $E_q^{\gamma-fcc}$ ($E^{TS}-E^{lS}$, TS: transition state, IS: initial state) during the transformation. The calculated average barrier energies $(\bar{E}_{a}^{\gamma-fcc})$ with the number of samples for γ -M₂AlC (M = Cr, V, Nb) are shown in Fig. 3b. It is shown that $\bar{E}_a^{\gamma-fcc}$ converges to a stable value as the statistical sample increases. $\bar{E}_a^{\gamma-fcc}$ of Cr₂AlC (115.8 meV/atom over 36 SQS samples) is much higher than those of V₂AlC and Nb₂AlC (66.8 and 62.7 meV/atom, respectively), indicating that the γ-to-fcc phase transformation in Cr2AlC is much less energetically favorable. If we consider a formula unit (two Cr, one Al, and one C atoms, take Cr2AlC as an example), the phase transformation probability of γ-to-fcc for Cr₂AlC is only about 0.04% that of for V₂AlC, according to the estimate from the Arrhenius formula $p \sim e^{-E_a/k_BT}$ (where E_a is the energy barrier to the phase transformation, k_B is the Boltzmann constant and T is the temperature). This is in good agreement with the experimental finding that Cr₂AlC becomes amorphous without transforming to an fcc-phase (Fig. 1).

As discussed above, this γ -to-fcc phase transformation process is strongly related to the accumulation of SFs bounded by dislocation gliding. Thus, to further quantify this process, we calculated the energy pathway for the glide of $\frac{1}{3}\langle 10\bar{1}0\rangle$ -type Shockley partials through the synchroshear mechanism on successive (0001) planes of the γ -phase in these materials (See Supplementary Fig. S5 in the Supplementary Information). The generalized stacking fault energy (GSFE) profiles (including the stacking-fault energy (SFE) γ_{isf} , and the unstable SFE γ_{us} , which represents the barrier energy E_a to forming an SF⁴³) demonstrate that γ -Cr₂AlC possesses a positive $\bar{\gamma}_{isf}$ and has a much higher energy barrier ($\bar{E}_a^{isf}\sim 901.9~mJ\cdot m^{-2}$) as compared with those of γ -

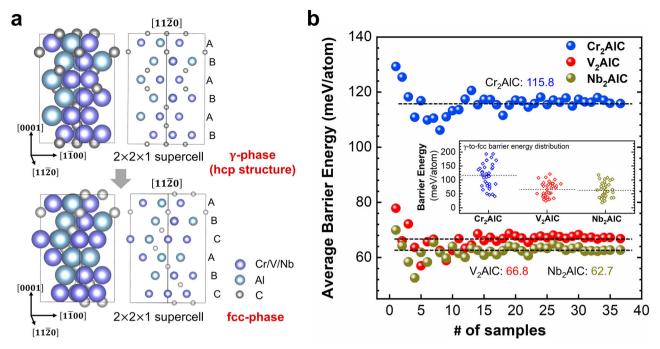


Fig. 3 | Calculated barrier energy along the minimum energy path (MEP) for the γ -to-fcc phase transformation in Cr₂AlC, V₂AlC, and Nb₂AlC. a The side views along [$11\bar{2}0$] of a special quasirandom structure (SQS) supercell with hcp and fcc structures. b The average barrier energy of the γ -to-fcc phase transition with the

number of samples in M_2AIC (M = Cr, V, Nb). The inset shows the corresponding distribution. It is shown that γ -Cr₂AIC has a much higher energy barrier as compared with those of γ -V₂AIC and γ -Nb₂AIC.

 V_2 AlC and γ-Nb₂AlC (545.5 and 515.5 $mJ \cdot m^{-2}$, respectively). These results are consistent with the trend of calculated barrier energies for the γ-to-fcc phase transformation in Fig. 3b.

Correlation of the energetic features with the properties of the y-phases

Both the experimental and computational results above indicate two distinct phase transformation pathways from the intermediate y-phase to either fcc or amorphous end states. Therefore, it is essential to focus on the role of the y-phase in these transformation pathways. We found the energetic features of these phase transformations can be rationalized by the underlying properties of the lattice and the electronic structures of the intermediate γ-phases. To calculate the lattice distortion and bonding characteristic in the γ -M₂AlC (M = Cr, V, Nb) phases, DFT relaxation together with a charge density topology analysis was applied to these crystalline structures (Fig. 4a). The latter was implemented by the Critic2 code⁴⁴ based on the quantum theory of atoms in molecules (QTAIM)⁴⁵, to obtain the charge densities at the bond critical points (BCPs) and then evaluate the covalency of bonds (see further details of this approach in the Supplementary Information). Figure 4b shows the statistical results of the lattice distortion, Δd , and average charge density at the BCPs of M/A-C bonds $\rho(r_h)$ over five $3 \times 3 \times 1$ SQS supercells of γ -M2AlC (M = Cr, V, Nb) phases and corresponding transformed fccphases. The lattice distortion Δd , is described by the atomic deviation from the regular ideal lattice sites as46

$$\Delta d = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[\left(x_i - x_i' \right)^2 + \left(y_i - y_i' \right)^2 + \left(z_i - z_i' \right)^2 \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$$
 (2)

where (x_i, y_i, z_i) and (x_i', y_i', z_i') are the coordinates of the unrelaxed and relaxed positions of atom i, respectively. The ab initio results show that the lattice distortions in Cr_2AlC are larger than those in Nb_2AlC and V_2AlC in both the γ -phase and fcc-phase, which is consistent with the trend of the energy barriers for the γ -to-fcc phase transformation and SF formation (left panel in Fig. 4c). This is because the increase of

lattice distortion generally hinders dislocation movement, obstructing slip on the faulting planes⁴⁷.

A related compositional trend is observed in charge density at the BCPs of M/A-C bonds, $\rho(r_b)$ (where $\rho(r_b)$ in Cr₂AlC is the largest), indicating stronger interatomic bonding^{26,45} in the γ -phase of Cr₂AlC. As proposed by Ogata et al.⁴³, crystalline systems that possess stronger covalent or directional bonding characteristics are expected to be more frustrated and less accommodating to shear strain, as reflected by their higher GSFE. The stacking-fault barrier energy (\bar{E}_a^{isf}) also illustrates a good correlation to the average $\rho(r_b)$ in γ -M₂AlC (M = Cr, V, Nb), as shown in the right panel of Fig. 4c.

Moreover, the charge density redistribution around the faulting planes has been shown to be an important factor determining SFEs^{43,48}, and a positive correlation between the charge density redistribution $(\Delta \rho)$ and SFE was reported in metals and related systems^{34,43,49}. Figure 4d shows the differential charge density $(\Delta \rho)$ contour between the transition state (TS) when forming an SF and the initial state (IS), on the defined charge density fault plane (CDFP, the middle plane between the shifted and unshifted layers, where most of the charge density critical points appear⁴⁹) in y-M₂AIC (M=Cr, V, Nb) phases. The blue and red regions indicate the gain and loss of electrons during the process, respectively. At any given point on the CDFP, the average absolute value of maximum charge gain or loss $(\overline{MAX|\Delta\rho|})$ over 22 SQS configurations in γ-Cr₂AlC, γ-V₂AlC, and γ-Nb₂AlC are approximately 0.20, 0.12, and 0.11 e/Bohr³, respectively. A larger value of MAX $|\Delta \rho|$ indicates that more electrons are redistributed during the process of SF formation, which incurs a larger energy penalty. These results are consistent with the trend of the GSFE, including the energy barrier (Fig. 3b), for the three materials.

A generalized rule to predict the phase transformation behaviors

To develop generalizable rules that can predict phase behavior in this class of materials, we systematically calculated the SFE and corresponding energy barriers of SF formation in several additional MAX

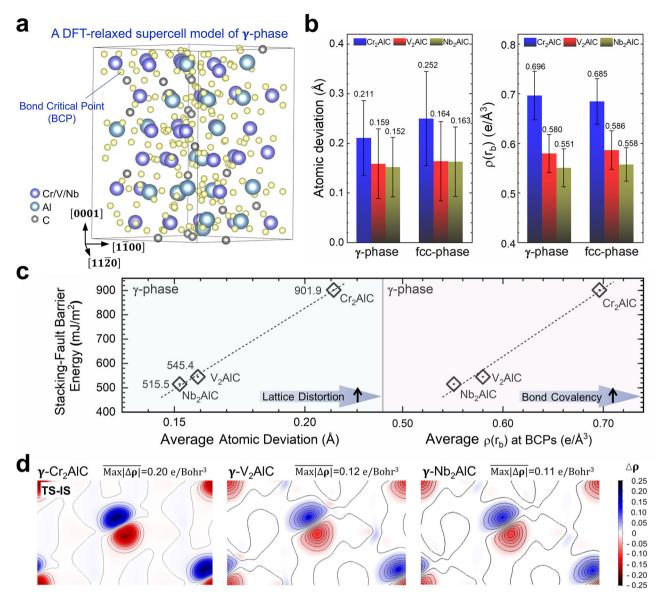


Fig. 4 | Correlation of the generalized stacking fault energy (GSFE) trends with the underlying properties of the lattice and the electronic structures of the intermediate γ -phases. a The schematic of a DFT-relaxed $3\times3\times1$ supercell model of γ -M₂AlC (M = Cr, V, Nb). The yellow spheres represent the bond critical points (BCPs) implemented via the Critic2 code. b The DFT calculated lattice distortion (left panel) and average charge density at the BCPs of M/A-C bonds $\rho(r_b)$ (right panel) of the γ -phase and corresponding transformed fcc-phase in M₂AlC (M = Cr,

V, Nb), respectively. The error bar represents the standard deviation (SD). c Correlations of stacking-fault barrier energy to average atomic deviation (left panel) and average $\rho(r_b)$ (right panel) in γ -M₂AlC (M = Cr, V, Nb), respectively. d The differential charge density contour plots ($\Delta \rho$) on the defined charge density fault plane (CDFP, which is the middle plane between the shifted and unshifted layers) between the transition state (TS) and the initial state (IS) in one configuration of γ -M₂AlC (M = Cr, V, Nb), due to SF formation.

phases (with y-phase structures) and investigated the core physical parameters that could estimate and predict the magnitude of the GSFE, which relates to the propensity of a material to transform to the fcc-phase. Two physical parameters, the atomic radius difference between M-A elements (Δr_{M-A}), and the weighted average electronegativity difference between M/A and X elements $(\Delta \chi_{M/A-X})$, correlate well with the stacking-fault barrier energy $(\bar{\gamma}_{us} \text{ or } \bar{E}_a^{isf})$, as illustrated in Fig. 5. The atomic radii and electronegativity data are derived from VFI (Vainshtein, Fridkin, Indenbom) atomic radii50 and on the Pauling scale⁵¹, respectively. These two fundamental physical parameters are rational indicators to characterize the level of lattice distortion and bond-covalency, respectively, both of which were shown above to play key roles in governing the GSFE, and thus the phase behavior in extreme environments. Generally, the lattice distortion (Δd) increases roughly with the atomic radius difference Δr_{M-A} , as reported in previous studies of both alloys⁴⁶ and

ceramics⁵²⁻⁵⁴. As for bonding properties, the M/A-X bond-covalency increases as the $\Delta\chi_{M/A-X}$ decreases^{55,56}. Larger Δr_{M-A} and smaller $\Delta\chi_{M/A-X}$ lead to a higher level of γ_{us} in these MAX phases. These data agree well with the available irradiation experimental results^{18,19,57,58}. For example, Ti₂SnC and Zr₂AlC, with relatively high SF barrier energy, were also observed to become amorphous without undergoing the γ -to-fcc phase transformation under ion irradiation^{57,58}.

Therefore, these general criteria provide a capability for predicting the tendency of stacking fault formation and the phase behavior of these materials under irradiation. These findings further contribute to the understanding of transformation processes and mechanisms in complex materials by revealing the effects of the lattice and electronic structures of intermediate phases on the multi-stage transformation as a whole.

To summarize, we have demonstrated distinct phase transformation pathways in MAX phases (i.e., from a y-phase, V₂AlC and Nb₂AlC

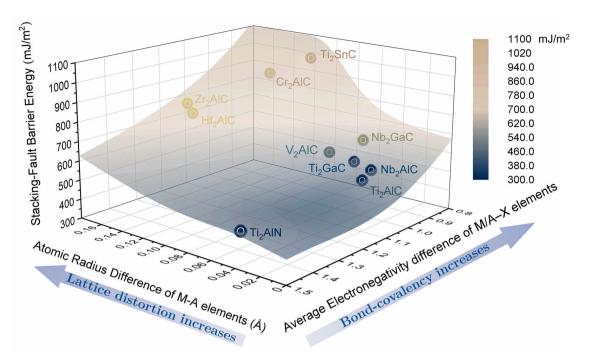


Fig. 5 | Correlation of stacking-fault barrier energy with atomic radii and electronegativity. The stacking-fault barrier energy (\bar{E}_a^{ig}) of several MAX phases (with γ -phase structures) is revealed to be dependent on the atomic radius difference between M-A elements (Δr_{M-A}) , and the weighted average electronegativity

difference between M/A and X elements $(\Delta \chi_{M/A-X})$. Larger Δr_{M-A} and smaller $\Delta \chi_{M/A-X}$ lead to a higher level of stacking-fault barrier energy (γ_{us}) in these γ -phases, and therefore an increased likelihood of amorphization under irradiation.

transform to an fcc-phase while Cr₂AlC instead amorphizes) through in situ ion irradiation with TEM analysis. Using DFT calculations, these compositional effects on the phase transformation behavior under irradiation were interpreted through the quantitative description of GSFE profiles along the transformation pathway from the intermediate vphase to the fcc-phase. The larger lattice distortion and stronger bonding covalency in y-Cr₂AlC result in a considerably higher transformation energy barrier and GSFE, thus inhibiting the y-to-fcc phase transformation and instead facilitating amorphization. Based on these findings, a generalized rule to predict the tendency of stacking fault formation and transformation to the fcc-phase in MAX phases was developed based on the atomic radius and electronegativity difference of the constituent elements. By elucidating the atomic-scale processes surrounding the intermediate phases that govern the overall irradiation-induced multiphase transformation behaviors, these results provide an insight into the relation between composition and phase behaviors in the MAX phase system and related complex materials that undergo multi-stage phase transformations.

Methods

Materials preparation

The Al-based MAX phases irradiated in this work (Cr_2AlC , V_2AlC , Nb_2AlC) were synthesized by an in-situ hot pressing/solid-liquid reaction process at Ningbo Institute of Materials Technology and Engineering (NIMTE), Ningbo, China. The corresponding elemental powders of each material were mixed in stoichiometric proportions, pressed in a graphite die, and subsequently hot-pressed in a flowing Ar atmosphere. More details about the synthesis process have been published elsewhere $^{59-61}$. The synthesized bulk materials were cut into square specimens and then mechanically thinned to 20 µm with subsequent polishing. The foils were inserted into 40 copper grids, followed by an argon ion milling process from 5 keV down to about 2 keV using a Gatan PIPS 691 ion miller, thus preparing the sample with a thin wedge for in-situ irradiation and transmission electron microscope (TEM) characterization.

Ion irradiation

In-situ ion irradiation experiments for Cr₂AlC, V₂AlC, and Nb₂AlC were conducted using a 400 kV ion implanter coupled with a 300 keV FEI Tecnai F30 transmission electron microscope at Xiamen Multiple Ion Beam In-situ TEM Analysis Facility, Xiamen University²⁹. The ion bombardment was performed with an 800 keV Kr²⁺ beam (twice the accelerating voltage due to the +2 charge) at room temperature (RT). Kr²⁺ ions were chosen since their beam current is relatively stable during irradiation, and their energy transfer efficiency to the target atoms is moderate such that the irradiation-induced phase transformation process can be observed and recorded reasonably. During the in-situ ion irradiation experiments, we monitored the wave shape of the Beam Position Monitor (BPM) and several parameters of the Faraday cylinder, and made timely minor adjustments when the readings deviated, to ensure that the beam current remained at the initial set value. The beam current was set at $\sim 100 \text{ nA}$ ($\sim 2.15 \times 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) in the irradiation experiments, therefore, it took about 2.9 h to get 40 dpa in V₂AlC. During irradiation, selected area electron diffraction (SAED) images were recorded to observe the near real-time phase states and transformations. The radiation damage level (dpa) and the penetration of Kr ions along the ions' incident direction were calculated using the SRIM-2008 program (as shown in Supplementary Fig. S1 in the Supplementary Information). The quick Kinchin-Pease mode was adopted⁶², and the threshold displacement energies for each element were set as 25–28 eV. The Kr²⁺ peak range exceeds the thickness of the TEM sample foil such that the effects of Kr ion accumulation were avoided.

Characterization techniques

TEM observations were obtained using a 200 kV Tecnai F20 transmission electron microscope (FEI, Hillsboro, OR) with a point resolution of 0.24 nm and a line resolution of 0.102 nm at the Electron Microscopy Laboratory of Peking University. In the HRTEM post-processing, we applied a typical HRTEM filter (v1.3, including Wiener and Average Background Subtraction Filter)^{63,64} to avoid potential artifacts. All SAED patterns in each sample were obtained from the same central

part of one grain to avoid the effect of grain boundaries (GBs). To confirm all results, the irradiation experiment was redone in other samples and different grains, and the SAED patterns were checked for consistency.

Computational details

First-principles calculations based on density functional theory (DFT) were conducted in this work applying the Vienna Ab-initio Simulation Package (VASP)⁶⁵. The projector augmented-wave (PAW) method⁶⁶ and the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) by Perdew, Burke, and Ernzerhof (PBE)⁶⁷ were employed for the electron-ion interactions and exchange-correlation function, respectively.

The disordered supercells were constructed using the alloy theoretic automated toolkit (ATAT)^{40} based on the special quasi-random structure (SQS) method⁴¹. The gamma-centered Monkhorst-Pack⁶⁸ k-point of $4\times4\times2$ is used to sample the Brillouin zone. The total energy and forces converged to better than 10^{-6} eV and 0.01 eV/Å with a plane wave cutoff of 450 eV.

The stacking-fault energy (SFE) γ_{isf} and the unstable SFE γ_{us} (which is the first maximum energy in the GSFE profile) were calculated through the formulas:

$$\gamma_{isf} = \frac{1}{A} \left(E_{isf} - E_0 \right); \, \gamma_{us} = \frac{1}{A} \left(E_{TS} - E_0 \right)$$
(3)

where A is the section area of ISF on the (0001) planes, E_0 and E_{isf} represent the energies of the configurations before and after the ISF formed, and E_{TS} is the energy of the corresponding transition state. γ_{us} represents the energy barrier E_a to forming an SF⁴³. This SFE calculation method has also widely used in other material systems 35,69,70. The climbing image nudged elastic band (CINEB)⁴² approach was applied to search the transition state and calculate the barrier energy in each step of SF generation, with the number of images inserted being 1 and the spring constant between the images being -5 eV/Å2. By comparing the stack fault barrier energies of γ-Cr₂AlC with and without spin polarization, it is found that although considering spin polarization leads to larger fluctuations in the stack fault barrier energies, the average stack fault barrier energies are not significantly different, as shown in Supplementary Fig. S6b in the Supplementary Information. This result suggests that spin polarization does not significantly affect the stack fault barrier energies. Therefore, the calculations were performed without spin polarization. The differential charge density distribution mapping was performed from the three-dimensional visualization program of VESTA for atomic and electronic structure analysis.

Data availability

The authors declare that the main data supporting the findings of this work are available within the published article, its supplementary information, and source data files. All other relevant data are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request. Source data are provided with this paper.

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Author contributions

C.W. and S.Z. conceived the study. S.Z., Y.L., Z.Z. and C.W. performed the experiments, analyzed the data, interpreted the results, and wrote the paper. H.X. performed part of the first principle calculation. Y.W., C.L.T., R.C.E, and F.G. contributed to the discussion and manuscript modification. Q.H. provided the bulk samples and L.C. helped with the irradiation experiment. C.W. supervised the work. All authors contributed to revising and approving the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information

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