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Effect of saddle point anisotropy of point defects on their absorption by dislocations and cavities

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Abstract

Developing predictive models for the microstructure evolution of materials requires an accurate description of the point defects fluxes to the different sinks, such as dislocations, grain boundaries and cavities. This work aims at improving the evaluation of sink strengths of dislocations and cavities using object kinetic Monte-Carlo simulations parametrized with density functional theory calculations. The present accurate description of point defects migration enables quantitative assessment of the influence of the point defects anisotropy at saddle point. The results in aluminum show that the anisotropy at saddle point has a large influence on sink strengths. In particular, this anisotropy leads to the cavity being a biased sink. These results are explained by the analysis of the point defect trajectories to the sinks, which are shown to be strongly affected by the saddle point anisotropy.

Keywords: kinetic Monte Carlo, Diffusion, Irradiation, Dislocation, Cavity

1. Introduction

Supersaturation of point defects in metals occurs, for example, after plastic
deformation [1], hydrogen charging [2, 3], solid or liquid state quenching [4, 5, 6]
and irradiation [7]. This supersaturation leads to the formation of vacancy

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clusters such as voids, stacking fault tetrahedra and dislocation loops and, in
the case of irradiation, self-interstitial clusters. These clusters are sinks for point
defects and grow, thereby affecting the macroscopic properties of materials.

Fluxes of point defects to the sinks of the microstructure strongly depend on the elastic field created by the sinks, which modify the energy landscape. Striking examples of the role of elastic interactions between sinks and point defects 10 on the final microstructure come from materials under irradiation. Swelling [7] 11 and irradiation creep [8, 9] are due to a slight imbalance of absorption of point 12 defects (self-interstitial atoms (SIAs) and vacancies) by the different sinks of 13 the microstructure. In the so-called "dislocation bias model", swelling is due to 14 the preferential absorption of interstitials by dislocations, which is responsible 15 for a net flux of vacancies to cavities [10]. In this model, cavities are assumed 16 to be neutral sinks, which means that they have no absorption bias for intersti-17 tials. Some models for irradiation creep, such as SIPA (Stress Induced Preferred 18 Absorption), rely on the difference in climb velocity of different dislocation pop-19 ulations, depending on their orientation with respect to the applied stress. In 20 such models, the climb velocity depends not only on the applied stress, but also 21 on the stress field created by the dislocations [8]. In order to simulate irradia-22 tion induced phenomena such as swelling and creep, a proper description of the 23 effect of the elastic field created by sinks on point defect migration is therefore 24 crucial. 25

The simulation of long term microstructures under irradiation is conveniently 26 performed by rate equation cluster dynamics [11, 12, 13, 14]. In this kind of 27 mean-field model, the variation of the migration energy along the point defect 28 trajectory cannot be taken into account explicitly. The effect of elastic interac-29 tions on point defect diffusion is found in the sink strengths for SIAs (k_i^2) and 30 vacancies (k_v^2) . The bias, which is defined as the relative difference between the 31 sink strengths k_i^2 and k_v^2 , quantifies to what extent a sink preferentially absorbs 32 SIAs or vacancies, depending on its sign. 33

A large amount of data exists about sink strengths and bias values, but the scattering is rather high. Assuming that dislocations are the only biased

sinks, the dislocation bias can be inferred from experimental swelling data, 36 using standard rate theory models [15, 16, 17, 18, 19]. However, swelling is 37 combination of the bias and the fraction of freely migrating defects, which is а 38 not precisely known for ion and neutron irradiations. Therefore, there is some 39 uncertainty about the bias values obtained by such methods. Depending on the 40 experimental data and the assumptions of the rate theory model, the dislocation 41 bias values typically range between 0.01 and 0.35. Sink strengths and biases can 42 also be computed. A common way is to solve the drift-diffusion equation for the 43 concentration of point defects around a sink. This method was used for the first 44 calculations, mostly for simple geometries and simple description of the sink-45 point defect interaction [20, 21, 22, 23]. For more complex cases, phase field [24] 46 and object kinetic Monte Carlo (OKMC) simulations have been used [25, 26, 27]. 47 OKMC methods are particularly handy to take into account the effect of elastic 48 interactions at stable and saddle points [28, 29]. 49

The influence of elastic interactions at saddle position on the value of sink 50 strength was emphasized by Dederichs and Schroeder [30]. Although this ef-51 fect had been discussed previously [31, 32, 33], these authors also suggested 52 that the *anisotropy* of point defects at saddle position could have an effect 53 on the sink strength. Such an effect was later confirmed for straight disloca-54 tions [34, 35, 36, 37], infinitesimal dislocation loops [38] and voids [39]. However, 55 all these works contain approximations to make calculations tractable, so the 56 values of sink strengths significantly vary from one study to the other [37]. In 57 addition, the elastic dipoles of point defects are based on empirical potential cal-58 culations, which are not always in agreement with first-principles calculations. 59 Only recently, the effect of saddle point anisotropy has been shown for the sink 60 strength of semi-coherent interfaces, using OKMC simulations parameterized 61 with density functional theory (DFT) calculations [29]. 62

In the present work, we perform OKMC simulations to study the sink strengths of straight dislocations and spherical cavities in pure aluminum, in order to assess the role of saddle point anisotropy. To that purpose, the elastic interactions between sinks and point defects are modeled explicitly in the

- ⁶⁷ OKMC code. Point defects are represented by their elastic dipole tensors com ⁶⁸ puted by DFT calculations.
- This paper is structured as follows. Section 2 describes the method used to calculate sink strengths. Section 3 presents the study of the straight dislocation. The case of a spherical cavity is treated in section 4.

72 2. Methods

⁷³ 2.1. OKMC simulations and sink strength calculation

Sink strengths are calculated with an OKMC code [29], allowing the simula-74 tion of many point defect trajectories in an efficient way, and making it possible 75 to account for the point defects properties and elastic interactions between point 76 defects and sinks [28, 40, 29]. A single type of sink is introduced in the simula-77 tion box. It can be a dislocation or a spherical cavity. The sinks are considered 78 as immobile and remain unchanged after absorption of defects. The temper-79 ature is set to 300 K. At this temperature, thermal equilibrium concentration 80 of point defects is far smaller than the concentration imposed by irradiation. 81 Therefore, thermal generation of point defects by the sinks is neglected. 82

SIAs and vacancies are considered separately, in dedicated simulations, thus 83 no recombination is possible. They are generated uniformly at a constant cre-84 ation rate G_0 (in s^{-1}), and migrate inside the box by performing atomic jumps 85 until they are absorbed by the sink. The migrating point defects do not react 86 with each other to form clusters and no long-range interactions between point 87 defects are considered. Periodic boundary conditions are used in all 3 dimen-88 sions. Point defects are considered as absorbed by the sink when the distance 89 d between the sink center and the point defect verifies $d \leq d_{\text{reac}}$ where d_{reac} is 90 the reaction distance depending on the nature of the sink. 91

To increment the simulation time, a residence time algorithm is used [41, 42]. At a given time t, the time step is given by $\Delta t = -\ln(r_1)/\Gamma_{\text{tot}}$ where r_1 is a random number chosen in]0, 1] and Γ_{tot} is the sum of the frequencies of all N_{e} possible events, *i. e.* $\Gamma_{\text{tot}} = \sum_{i=0}^{N_{\text{e}}-1} \Gamma_i$. The possible events are the creation

of a point defect due to irradiation (frequency $\Gamma_0 = G_0$) or an atomic jump 96 from a stable position to a neighboring one (frequency Γ_i , $i = 1, \ldots, N_e$ – 97 1). The chosen event j is such that $\sum_{i=0}^{j-1} \Gamma_i < r_2 \Gamma_{\text{tot}} \leq \sum_{i=0}^{j} \Gamma_i$, with r_2 98 a random number chosen in]0,1]. Frequencies of atomic jumps are given by 99 $\Gamma_i = \nu_0 \exp(-\Delta E_i/(k_{\rm B}T))$, with ν_0 the attempt frequency assumed to be the 100 same for all jumps, $k_{\rm B}$ is the Boltzmann constant, T the temperature and $\Delta E_i =$ 101 $E_i^{\rm sad} - E_i^{\rm sta}$ the difference of energy between the saddle point of the jump and 102 the initial stable position. 103

The energy of point defects at stable point E_i^{sta} and at saddle point E_i^{sad} are given by

$$E_i^{\text{sta}} = -\sum_{j,k} P_{i,jk}^{\text{sta}} \epsilon_{jk}(\boldsymbol{r}_i^{\text{sta}}) \tag{1}$$

$$E_i^{\text{sad}} = E^{\text{m}} - \sum_{j,k} P_{i,jk}^{\text{sad}} \epsilon_{jk}(\boldsymbol{r}_i^{\text{sad}}), \qquad (2)$$

where $E^{\rm m}$ is the migration energy without elastic interactions and $P^{\rm sta}$ and 104 $P^{\rm sad}$ are elastic dipole tensors (P-tensors) describing the point defects at stable 105 and saddle positions, respectively [43, 44]. The saddle position r^{sad} is simply 106 considered as the midpoint along the reaction coordinate between the two stable 107 positions involved in the jump. The strain, written ϵ , is generated by the 108 sink. Since we focus on the effect of saddle point anisotropy, we consider that 109 **P**-tensors do not depend on the local strain, *i. e.* we neglect polarisability 110 effects [43]. Other energy terms, such that higher order terms in the multipole 111 expansion [44] and image interactions for voids [45, 46], are also neglected. 112

In our simulations, unless otherwise specified, the calculations are performed 113 in isotropic elasticity, using available analytical expressions of the strain pro-114 duced by the sink. This assumption is expected to be reasonable in the case of 115 face centered cubic (FCC) aluminum, studied here, because the elastic moduli 116 tensor of this material is only weakly anisotropic (see Tab. 1). This makes it 117 possible to focus on the effect of point defects anisotropy only. However, to check 118 the influence of the anisotropy of the elastic moduli tensor on the sink strength, 119 simulations are also performed in anisotropic elasticity, using the values of elas-120

Elastic moduli tensor terms and Zener anisotropy ratio [47]							
C_{11} (GPa)	C_{12} (GPa)	C_{44} (GPa)	$A = 2C_{44} / \left(C_{11} - C_{12} \right)$				
106.51	60.38	27.8	1.21				
Constants for isotropic elasticity							
Poisson'	s ratio ν	Shear modulus μ (GPa)					
0.35		25.91					

tic constants given in [47]. In that case, a Fast Fourier Transform (FFT)-based method is used to compute the strain field at mechanical equilibrium [48, 49, 50].

Table 1: Elastic constants of aluminum at 300 K. The isotropic elastic constants are calculated from the tensor terms by the Voigt average [51].

In the mean field rate theory, the sink strength k^2 defines the ability of a sink to absorb point defects. In this formalism, the evolution equation of the average number of defects \overline{N} is given by

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\overline{N}}{\mathrm{d}t} = G_0 - k^2 D\overline{N},\tag{3}$$

with D the point defect diffusion coefficient, which reads

$$D = \alpha a_0^2 \nu_0 \exp\left(-\frac{E^{\rm m}}{k_{\rm B}T}\right). \tag{4}$$

In this equation, $\alpha = \frac{2}{3}$ for SIAs ($\langle 100 \rangle$ dumbbells) and $\alpha = 1$ for vacancies, and a_0 is the lattice parameter of the FCC lattice.

The absorption of point defects by the sink is expressed in Eq. (3) through the second term in the right-hand side. When the steady state is reached, the sink strength can be computed by

$$k^2 = \frac{G_0}{D\overline{N}}.$$
(5)

Two sink strength values are obtained, k_{SIA}^2 for SIAs and k_{vac}^2 for vacancies. From these two values, the sink bias *B* can be calculated by [52]

$$B = \frac{k_{\rm SIA}^2 - k_{\rm vac}^2}{k_{\rm SIA}^2}.$$
 (6)

This parameter describes the ability of the sink to absorb more SIAs than vacancies.

In the OKMC simulations, the number of point defects in the box N is 127 recorded every 10^4 steps. At the end of the simulation, the average number of 128 defects at steady state \overline{N} is computed by averaging the recorded values. The sink 129 strengths and bias values are then computed using Eqs. (5)-(6). The simulated 130 times are chosen to obtain sufficient accuracy on the value of \overline{N} , and thus on k^2 . 131 A block-averaging procedure [53] is used to compute the error estimates σ on 132 the sink strength and bias. In the following, the error bars in figures correspond 133 to $\pm 3\sigma$. 134

135 2.2. Representation of point defects

To compute interactions between the sink and the point defects, the P-136 tensors at stable points P^{sta} and at saddle points P^{sad} are needed. The values 137 of P-tensors for SIAs and vacancies in aluminum are computed by DFT cal-138 culations. The DFT simulation cell for SIA/vacancy contains 256 ± 1 atoms. 139 Calculations are performed with VASP code using the projector augmented wave 140 framework [54, 55, 56, 57]. The plane wave energy cutoff is set to 450 eV and the 141 Hermite-Gaussian broadening-width for Brillouin zone integration is 0.2 eV. The 142 calculations are performed including the s semi-core states [Ne]3s²3p¹. The ex-143 change correlation energy is evaluated using the Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) 144 Generalized Gradient Approximation (GGA) [58]. The k-point grid mesh is set 145 to shifted $3 \times 3 \times 3$ grid. Each configuration is relaxed using the gradient con-146 jugate technique. The climbing image method [59] using 15 images is used in 147 order to localize the saddle point. In relaxed configurations, minimum or saddle 148 point, the forces on each atom are lower than 0.001 eV/Å. With such settings 149 the relative error in the energy and **P**-tensor components is estimated to be less 150 than 0.5% and 4%, respectively, from converged values [29]. 151

¹⁵² For the configurations illustrated in Tab. 2, the following results are obtained:

¹⁵³ 1. For SIAs, migration energy of $E^{\rm m} = 0.105$ eV, and

• at stable point, dumbbell along [100]:

154

$$\boldsymbol{P}_{\rm SIA, ref}^{\rm sta} = \begin{vmatrix} 19.652 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & 18.518 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 18.518 \end{vmatrix} \, eV \tag{7}$$

155

• at saddle point, for a [100]-to-[010] migration path:

$$\boldsymbol{P}_{\rm SIA, ref}^{\rm sad} = \begin{bmatrix} 19.498 & 1.133 & 0\\ 1.133 & 19.498 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 19.034 \end{bmatrix} eV \tag{8}$$

¹⁵⁶ 2. For vacancies, migration energy of $E^{\rm m} = 0.605$ eV and

• at stable point:

$$\boldsymbol{P}_{\rm vac,ref}^{\rm sta} = \begin{bmatrix} -3.238 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & -3.238 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & -3.238 \end{bmatrix} eV \tag{9}$$

158

• at saddle point, for a migration along the [110] direction:

$$\boldsymbol{P}_{\rm vac,ref}^{\rm sad} = \begin{bmatrix} -2.866 & -0.080 & 0\\ -0.080 & -2.866 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 1.000 \end{bmatrix} \text{eV}$$
(10)

These values show that SIAs are weakly anisotropic at stable and saddle 159 points, while vacancies are perfectly isotropic at stable point and strongly 160 anisotropic at saddle point. The anisotropy of SIAs at stable point is in ex-161 cellent agreement with the experimental value $|P_{11} - P_{22}| = 1.1 \pm 0.3$ eV [60]. 162 The relaxation volumes at stable point for interstitials and vacancies, deduced 163 from the trace of the dipole tensor through $\Delta V^{\text{sta}} = \text{Tr}(\mathbf{P})/3K$ with K the 164 bulk modulus, seem slightly overestimated: they are equal to $-0.40 \ \Omega$ for va-165 cancies and 2.35 Ω for interstitials (Ω is the atomic volume), while experimental 166 values range from -0.05 to -0.38 Ω for vacancies and are equal to 1.9 ± 0.4 Ω 167 for interstitials [61, 62]. 168



Table 2: Schematic representations of stable and saddle positions of point defects in FCC lattice, with orientations corresponding to the **P**-tensors in Eqs. (7) to (10). Here, black spheres represent the regular lattice atomic positions, red spheres represent atomic positions outside of lattice nodes and gray cubes represent vacancies.

To understand which properties of point defects have a major influence on the sink strengths, different simulation cases are built, using the previous **P**tensors or simplified versions of them. The cases are given in Tab. 3.

The first case (case 0, $P_0^{\text{sta}} = 0$ and $P_0^{\text{sad}} = 0$) is considered as a reference to validate the method used in this work, by comparing the calculated sink strengths to the corresponding analytical solutions. Indeed, for the boundary conditions considered here, the analytical expressions only exist when the sink strain field in not considered, *i. e.* when the point defects do not interact with the sink.

An accurate assessment of the effects of elastic interactions on the sink strength is done using the real point defect description (case 2, $P_2^{\text{sta}} = P_{\text{ref}}^{\text{sta}}$ and $P_2^{\text{sad}} = P_{\text{ref}}^{\text{sad}}$).

The following two approximations 2' and 2'' are used to identify the point defect properties influencing the sink strengths. Case 2' corresponds to point defects with isotropic dipole tensors at saddle point but with the same relaxation volume as for case 2:

$$\boldsymbol{P}_{2'}^{\mathrm{sta}} = \boldsymbol{P}_{\mathrm{ref}}^{\mathrm{sta}} \tag{11}$$

$$\boldsymbol{P}_{2'}^{\text{sad}} = \frac{1}{3} \operatorname{Tr} \left(\boldsymbol{P}_{\text{ref}}^{\text{sad}} \right) \boldsymbol{I}, \qquad (12)$$

where I is the identity tensor. Such an approximation permits to enlighten the effect of saddle point anisotropy by comparing results to case 2. For case 2", a further approximation is used: dipole tensors are taken isotropic at stable point, with the same relaxation volume as cases 2 and 2':

$$\boldsymbol{P}_{2^{\prime\prime}}^{\mathrm{sta}} = \frac{1}{3} \operatorname{Tr} \left(\boldsymbol{P}_{\mathrm{ref}}^{\mathrm{sta}} \right) \boldsymbol{I}$$
(13)

$$\boldsymbol{P}_{2^{\prime\prime}}^{\mathrm{sad}} = \frac{1}{3} \operatorname{Tr} \left(\boldsymbol{P}_{\mathrm{ref}}^{\mathrm{sad}} \right) \boldsymbol{I}.$$
 (14)

Therefore, by comparing cases 2' and 2'', the effect of anisotropy at stable point can be evaluated.

Finally, a traditional approximation in the calculation of sink strengths consists in ignoring the differences in point defect properties at stable and saddle points. Defect properties are given solely by the relaxation volume at stable point ΔV^{sta} [52, 63, 22, 64, 23]. This is tantamount to using the following dipole tensors (case 1):

$$\boldsymbol{P}_{1}^{\mathrm{sta}} = \boldsymbol{P}_{1}^{\mathrm{sad}} = \frac{1}{3} \operatorname{Tr} \left(\boldsymbol{P}_{\mathrm{ref}}^{\mathrm{sta}} \right) \boldsymbol{I}.$$
(15)

183 3. Straight dislocation

184 3.1. Case definition

The simulation box contains two dislocations, each dislocation having the following characteristics: line vector $\boldsymbol{l} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} [\bar{1} \ \bar{1} \ \bar{2}]$, vector normal to the glide plane $\boldsymbol{n} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} [1 \ 1 \ \bar{1}]$ and Burgers vector $\boldsymbol{b} = \pm \frac{a_0}{2} [\bar{1} \ 1 \ 0] (\|\boldsymbol{b}\| = \frac{a_0}{\sqrt{2}})$. This

			S	IA			vacancy		
Core 0	Non interacting		$P_{ m SIA}^{ m sta}$	$A_{A} = 0$			$oldsymbol{P}_{ ext{vac}}^{ ext{sta}}=oldsymbol{0}$		
defects		$oldsymbol{P}_{ ext{SIA}}^{ ext{sad}}=oldsymbol{0}$					$oldsymbol{P}_{ ext{vac}}^{ ext{sad}}=oldsymbol{0}$		
Case 1	Spherical inclu-		$\boldsymbol{P}_{\rm SIA}^{\rm sta} =$	18.896 <i>I</i>			$oldsymbol{P}_{ ext{vac}}^{ ext{sta}} = -3.238 \; oldsymbol{I}$		
sions		$oldsymbol{P}_{ ext{SIA}}^{ ext{sad}} = 18.896 \; oldsymbol{I}$					$P_{ m vac}^{ m sad} = -3.238~I$		
Case 2 Rea			19.652	0	0				
		$oldsymbol{P}_{ ext{SIA}}^{ ext{sta}} =$	0	18.518	0		$P_{ m vac}^{ m sta} = -3.238 \; I$		
	Deel defecto		0	0	18.518		$\begin{bmatrix} -2.866 & -0.080 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$		
	Real delects		19.498	1.133	0		$P_{\rm vac}^{\rm sad} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.080 & -2.866 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$		
		$oldsymbol{P}_{ ext{SIA}}^{ ext{sad}} =$	1.133	19.498	0		0 0 1.000		
			0	0	19.034				
			19.652	0	0				
Case 2/	Defects simplified	$P_{ m SIA}^{ m sta} =$	0	18.518	0		$P_{ m vac}^{ m sta}=-3.238~I$		
Cabe 2	at saddle points 0	0	18.518		$oldsymbol{P}_{\mathrm{vac}}^{\mathrm{sad}} = -1.577~oldsymbol{I}$				
		$P_{ m SIA}^{ m sad}=1$	19.343 <i>I</i>						
	Defects simplified	$\mathbf{D}^{\mathrm{sad}} = 18,806$ I					nsad 2,020 r		
Case 2"	Case $2''$ at stable and sad-		$P_{\overline{\text{SIA}}} = 18.890 I$				$\mathbf{F}_{\text{vac}} = -3.238 \mathbf{I}$		
	dle points		$\mathbf{r}_{SIA} =$	19.343 I			$\boldsymbol{r}_{\mathrm{vac}} = -1.577 \boldsymbol{I}$		

Table 3: **P**-tensors for the different simulation cases. The values are given in eV, for the configuration illustrated in Tab. 2. For vacancies, as they are isotropic at stable point, cases 2' and 2'' are identical.

¹⁸⁸ corresponds to a perfect straight edge dislocation in the aluminum FCC lattice. ¹⁸⁹ The capture radius of the straight dislocations is set to $r_c = 2 \|\boldsymbol{b}\|$, which means ¹⁹⁰ that for each dislocation $d_{\text{reac}} = 2 \|\boldsymbol{b}\|$ [65, 20].

The two edge dislocations of opposite Burgers vectors are introduced in an 191 orthorombic simulation box, according to the configuration in Fig. 1. There-192 fore, the dislocation density only depends on the box dimensions according to 193 $\rho = \frac{2}{d_x \cdot d_y}$, so different densities can be studied by varying the box dimensions 194 (keeping the aspect ratio constant). The lattice is rotated to ensure that the 195 dislocation line vector is aligned with the z-direction of the box, while the Burg-196 ers vectors are aligned with the x-direction. Such a configuration ensures that 197 the strain is continuous at the simulation box borders. Other configurations 198 could have been studied, a few have been tested and the configuration choice 199 does not alter the method nor the generality of our results. 200

201

As illustrated in Fig. 2, due to the periodic boundary conditions, the con-

figuration is equivalent to a 2D array of dislocations in the xy-plane. To cal-202 culate the strain field, we have to sum along x the strain fields of infinite y-203 columns of dislocations with alternate Burgers vectors, noted ϵ^+ and ϵ^- for 204 $e_x \cdot b > 0$ and $e_x \cdot b < 0$, respectively. The strain field generated by an in-205 finite row of dislocations ϵ^{\pm} is given in [66] and [51]. The complete strain 206 field is then given by summing the contributions of neighboring boxes $\epsilon(x, y) =$ 207 $\sum_{k=-N}^{N} \left(\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{+}(x+k \cdot d_{x}, y) + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{-}(x+k \cdot d_{x}, y) \right), \text{ using a sufficiently large value for}$ 208 N to reach convergence. We have used N = 1, which gives a relative error on 209 the strain lower than 10^{-3} . 210



Figure 1: Configuration of the simulation box containing two edge dislocations, with opposite Burgers vectors.

211 3.2. Sink strength and bias

Values of the sink efficiency $Z = k^2/\rho$ and of the bias for dislocation densities from $5 \cdot 10^{13} \text{ m}^{-2}$ to 10^{16} m^{-2} , encompassing the densities in irradiated materials [67], are shown in Fig. 3.

The reliability of our approach is proved by the good agreement between the results obtained in the case of non interacting defects (case 0, yellow squares) and the analytical expression [68]. We have verified that the small differences are due to the different boundary conditions at the capture radius r_c . Indeed, the analytical treatment assumes that the concentration of point defects is zero at exactly $r = r_c$, while for the OKMC simulations, the defects are only removed

т	$^+(x, \perp$	$y) \epsilon$	$^{-}(x,$	y)	Ţ	Т
⊥ т	\perp		Т		Т	т
$\bot^{k = -1} T$	T	k = 0	т		$\mathbf{e}_{y} \perp^{k} = \mathbf{e}_{x}$	= 1 T
<u> </u>	\perp		Т		1	т
⊥ т	\perp		T		Ţ	т

Figure 2: Schematic representation of the calculation of the strain with periodic boundary conditions. The strains ϵ^+ and ϵ^- are generated by the columns associated to the edge dislocations with the Burgers vectors **b** such that $\mathbf{e}_x \cdot \mathbf{b} > 0$ and $\mathbf{e}_x \cdot \mathbf{b} < 0$, respectively.

after the last atomic jump that enters the capture region $r \leq r_c$, so the concentration is zero for some value lower than r_c . As proposed in [69, 25, 70], this difference can be accounted for by using an effective capture radius \tilde{r}_c slightly smaller than r_c in the analytical formula to mimic the OKMC configuration.

When the complete **P**-tensors are used (case 2 – real defects, gray downpointing triangles), sink strengths for vacancies are twice higher than the values obtained when the elastic interactions are neglected, for the highest dislocation densities sudied. This increase is even more important for SIAs than for vacancies, and the difference increases with the dislocation density. This leads to a strongly positive bias value, increasing with the dislocation density.

To identify the properties of point defects responsible for the sink strength variation, the dipole tensors are modified. By removing the anisotropy of the elastic dipole tensors at the saddle point (case 2'), the sink strength is reduced for both types of point defects. The decrease is particularly important for vacancies,



Figure 3: Straight dislocation sink efficiency for (a) SIAs and (b) vacancies, (c) bias. The error bars are displayed for all values, some of them are too small to be visible.

which are very anisotropic at saddle point. This shows that the saddle point
anisotropy is responsible for a significant variation of the sink strength, through
the decrease of the migration barriers near the dislocation.

The influence of stable point anisotropy can be assessed by comparing the 238 latter results for case 2' to the results for case 2'' (defects simplified at stable 239 and saddle points). Removing the anisotropy at stable points does not modify 240 the sink strength values, and consequently leaves the bias unchanged. This 241 shows that the anisotropy at stable point has no influence on the sink strength 242 and sink bias in aluminum. This is due to the fact that, in this material, the 243 anisotropy at stable point for SIAs is quite small, while vacancies are isotropic. 244 In Fig. 3 we also show the sink strength obtained when point defects have 245 the same properties at stable and saddle points based on the relaxation volume 246

at stable point (case 1, blue disks). The sink strengths are indeed quite different 247 from the ones obtained for case 2. For SIAs, the sink strength is close to the 248 one obtained for cases 2' and 2'', due to the fact that the relaxation volumes 249 at saddle points are similar: for case 1, $\frac{1}{3}$ Tr $(P_{SIA}^{sad}) = 18.896$ eV and for cases 250 2' and 2'', $\frac{1}{3} \operatorname{Tr} \left(\boldsymbol{P}_{\text{SIA}}^{\text{sad}} \right) = 19.343$ eV. On the contrary, the relaxation volumes 251 at saddle points for vacancies vary a lot between case 1 and cases 2' and 2'': 252 for case 1, $\frac{1}{3}$ Tr $(P_{\text{vac}}^{\text{sad}}) = -3.238$ eV and for cases 2' and 2", $\frac{1}{3}$ Tr $(P_{\text{vac}}^{\text{sad}}) =$ 253 -1.577 eV. Consequently, the interactions are stronger for the vacancies in case 254 1 than in cases 2' and 2'', giving a stronger sink strength. The dislocation bias 255 obtained in case 1 is close to the one obtained for real dipole tensors (case 2), 256 but this is completely incidental. Finally, various analytical expressions exist 257 in the literature for case 1, but for isolated dislocations and different boundary 258 conditions [71, 72, 73, 74]. In Fig. 3 we plot the solution provided by Rauh and 259 Simon [74], which corresponds to the case of prescribed concentration on the 260 system boundary (other expressions of the sink strengths correspond to slightly 261 different boundary conditions, see Ref. [23] for a discussion of this point and a 262 comparison of the formulas). It is shown that the results agree qualitatively but 263 the analytical bias values are smaller than the OKMC values. Reasons for this 264 discrepancy are given in Appendix A. 265

These results reveal the strong effect of elastic interactions, and more particularly show that the saddle point anisotropy of point defects is a key parameter for the variation of the sink strength and bias.

269 3.3. Analysis and discussion

In the previous section we stated that the decreasing migration barriers near the dislocation, due to the saddle point anisotropy, leads to a significant increase in the sink strengths, especially for the vacancy. These numerical results are compared with previous analytical calculations, using various approximations. These previous studies were done in copper. However, due to similar point defect properties in aluminum and copper, trends are expected to be alike in both materials. The first estimation of the effect of saddle point anisotropy

was obtained by Skinner and Woo [36]. To make the calculations tractable, 277 they transformed the diffusion problem into a cylindrically symmetric one and 278 assumed that the diffusion coefficient only depends on one component of the 279 dipole tensor. They concluded that the effect was small and led to a slight 280 increase in the sink strengths for vacancies and interstitials. With an arbitrary 281 choice of the point defect anisotropy and diffusion tensor, Chen showed that the 282 effect of anisotropy could be described by an effective relaxation volume [35]. 283 The increase of the relaxation volume due to the anisotropy at saddle point is 284 such that the effect on the sink strength is rather large. Borodin and Ryazanov 285 did not resort to some of the assumptions made by Skinner and Woo [37] and 286 obtained a few percents decrease of the sink strength for interstitials and an 287 increase of about 20 % for vacancies. More recently, Sivak and Sivak [75] showed 288 with OKMC calculations that the anisotropy of vacancies at saddle point is 289 responsible for complex variations of the sink strength with the dislocation type. 290 Here, by exactly taking into account the interaction between the dislocation and 291 the point defect at saddle position, we show that an increase of about 20 % for 292 interstitials and 100 % for vacancies can be obtained with respect to an isotropic 293 defect. 294

We have also shown that the anisotropy of interstitials at stable point does 295 not change the bias value. Several authors have pointed out that if the concen-296 tration at the boundary of the simulation cell is imposed, fluxes, and therefore 297 sink strengths, do not depend on the stable point energy [30, 36, 37]. Therefore, 298 in this case, no effect of defect anisotropy at stable point is expected. Here, the 299 situation is different, since we impose the creation rate of defects and measure 300 the sink strength by the average concentration in the simulation cell (Eq. (5)). 301 The concentration depends on the stable point energy, so the sink strength can 302 potentially depend on the point defect anisotropy at stable position [76]. How-303 ever, the anisotropy of interstitials is so low that the difference in energy between 304 the isotropic and the anisotropic cases is negligible, leading to no appreciable 305 effect on the sink strength. 306



To have a better understanding of the influence of the saddle point anisotropy,



Figure 4: Average fluxes of (a) SIAs and (b) vacancies with isotropic saddle points (case 2'), and (c) SIAs and (d) vacancies with real **P**-tensors (case 2). The flux $\boldsymbol{v} = (v_1, v_2, v_3)$ is recorded through surfaces between stable positions. The color corresponds to the component of the flux in the z-direction $(v_3/||\boldsymbol{v}||)$, and the lines represent the flux in the xy plane $\boldsymbol{v}_{xy} = (v_1, v_2)$. The width of the lines is here proportional to the norm of the flux $||\boldsymbol{v}|| = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + v_3^3}$.

the migration paths of point defects to the dislocations can be extracted from 308 OKMC simulations. The fluxes of point defects are recorded through dividing 309 surfaces between stable atomic positions during OKMC simulations. From these 310 data, average migration paths are obtained. The result is represented in Fig. 4. 311 Results for point defects with isotropic saddle points (case 2') are shown 312 in Fig. 4 a-b. As expected, SIAs migrate and reach the dislocations through 313 their dilated sides and are repelled from the compressed sides. On the contrary, 314 vacancies mostly flow to the compressed sides. The difference is less clear than 315 for interstitials, due to the lower magnitude of the elastic interactions. 316

When the saddle point anisotropy is taken into account (case 2), we obtain the fluxes in Fig. 4 c-d. These graphs show that the saddle point anisotropy not only has an influence on the sink strength but also on the point defects trajectories. Vacancies now migrate to the dislocations to enter through the lateral sides along the Burgers vector direction $(\pm e_x)$. The difference is not so visible for SIAs, as the relative importance of the deviatoric component of their dipole tensors is smaller than for vacancies.

In the case of vacancies, the saddle point anisotropy also gives rise to nonzero component of the flux along the dislocation line direction. Note, however, that by symmetry the flux averaged in the xy-plane is zero in this direction. The fluxes along the dislocation line direction can be explained using the diffusion tensor, whose terms can be written [30]

$$D_{ij}(\boldsymbol{r}) = \frac{1}{2}\nu_0 \sum_{\boldsymbol{h}} h_i h_j \exp\left(-\frac{E_{\boldsymbol{h}}^{\text{sad}}(\boldsymbol{r}) - E^{\text{sta}}(\boldsymbol{r})}{k_{\text{B}}T}\right),\tag{16}$$

where (see Eqs. (1)–(2))

$$E^{\mathrm{sta}}\left(\boldsymbol{r}\right) = -\sum_{k,l} P_{kl}^{\mathrm{sta}} \epsilon_{kl}\left(\boldsymbol{r}\right) \tag{17}$$

$$E_{\boldsymbol{h}}^{\text{sad}}\left(\boldsymbol{r}\right) = E^{\text{m}} - \sum_{k,l} P_{\boldsymbol{h},kl}^{\text{sad}} \epsilon_{kl} \left(\boldsymbol{r} + \boldsymbol{h}/2\right).$$
(18)

In these equations, h refers to the possible jumps from a stable position rto the neighboring one r + h. These possible jumps are represented in Fig. 5.

In the case of an isotropic saddle point (case 2'), $P_{h,kl}^{\text{sad}} = P_{kl}^{\text{sad}}$. In addition, if we assume that $\epsilon_{kl} (\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{h}/2) \approx \epsilon_{kl} (\mathbf{r})$, the saddle point energy $E_{\mathbf{h}}^{\text{sad}} (\mathbf{r})$ no longer depends on the jump and the diffusion tensor becomes

$$D_{ij}(\boldsymbol{r}) = \frac{1}{2}\nu_0 \exp\left(-\frac{E^{\text{sad}}(\boldsymbol{r}) - E^{\text{sta}}(\boldsymbol{r})}{k_{\text{B}}T}\right) \sum_{\boldsymbol{h}} h_i h_j.$$
 (19)

Since

$$\sum_{\mathbf{h}} h_i h_j = 0 \quad \text{if } i \neq j, \tag{20}$$

an isotropic saddle point leads to a diagonal diffusion tensor. This conclusion also holds for a non uniform strain field, if it is expanded to first order in h.

On the contrary, this simplification cannot be made when the saddle point



Figure 5: Lattice stable position (gray sphere) and its first nearest neighbor positions (white spheres). Representation (a) in the xy plane and (b) in the yz plane of the simulation box.

dipole tensor is anisotropic. The diffusion tensor terms D_{ij} then depend on

$$\sum_{\mathbf{h}} h_i h_j \exp\left(-\frac{P_{\mathbf{h},kl}^{\mathrm{sad}} \epsilon_{kl} \left(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{h}/2\right)}{k_{\mathrm{B}}T}\right) \approx \sum_{\mathbf{h}} h_i h_j \exp\left(-\frac{P_{\mathbf{h},kl}^{\mathrm{sad}} \epsilon_{kl} \left(\mathbf{r}\right)}{k_{\mathrm{B}}T}\right). \quad (21)$$

Because the strain has a different coupling with each jump h, the lattice symmetry is lowered and the different jumps in Fig. 5 no longer cancel each other out. Non-zero off-diagonal terms, in particular D_{xz} and D_{yz} , can therefore appear and lead to flux components along the dislocation line direction.

The presence of such a flux component may have some implications on the effect of external stress on dislocation sink strengths. It has been found that the point defect anisotropy at saddle point induces a stress dependence of the dislocation sink strength, known as the "stress-induced preferential absorption due to anisotropic diffusion" (SIPA-AD) [34, 36, 37]. This phenomenon has been shown to be more than one order of magnitude larger than the usual SIPA effect,

noted SIPA-I, due to the polarisability of point defects [36, 77]. Assessing the relative importance of both mechanisms is crucial in order to describe properly irradiation creep for example. For a uniaxial stress, SIPA-AD manifests itself through a dependency of the sink strength on the direction of the stress with respect to the dislocation line. For the sake of simplicity, let us consider the migration of the vacancy in an xy-plane perpendicular to the dislocation line. The saddle point energy reads

$$E^{\rm sad}(\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{\rm a}) = E^{\rm sad}(0) - P_1^{\rm sad} \epsilon^{\rm a}_{x'x'} - P_2^{\rm sad} \epsilon^{\rm a}_{y'y'} - P_3^{\rm sad} \epsilon^{\rm a}_{zz}, \tag{22}$$

where $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{a}$ is the applied strain, expressed here in the basis $(\boldsymbol{e}_{x'}, \boldsymbol{e}_{y'}, \boldsymbol{e}_{z})$ where $\boldsymbol{P}^{\mathrm{sad}}$ is diagonal, and $P_{1}^{\mathrm{sad}} = -2.946 \text{ eV}$, $P_{2}^{\mathrm{sad}} = -2.786 \text{ eV}$ and $P_{3}^{\mathrm{sad}} = 1.000 \text{ eV}$ are the three eigenvalues of $\boldsymbol{P}^{\mathrm{sad}}$ (see Eq. (10)). If a tensile stress is applied along the dislocation line (\boldsymbol{e}_{z}) , the energy becomes

$$E^{\rm sad}(\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{\rm a}) = E^{\rm sad}(0) - 2.946\nu\epsilon^{\rm a} - 2.786\nu\epsilon^{\rm a} - 1.000\epsilon^{\rm a}.$$
 (23)

If the stress is in the plane, for example along $e_{x'}$, it reads

$$E^{\rm sad}(\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{\rm a}) = E^{\rm sad}(0) + 2.946\nu\epsilon^{\rm a} - 2.786\nu\epsilon^{\rm a} + 1.000\epsilon^{\rm a}.$$
 (24)

Therefore it is easily seen that providing vacancies migrate in a plane normal 332 to the dislocation line, a tensile stress along the line will decrease the migration 333 barrier and thus increase the sink strength, whereas a tensile stress in the jump 334 direction will have the opposite effect. If the vacancy does not migrate in this 335 plane, the effect can be lower. In the works dealing with SIPA-AD, the large 336 magnitude of the SIPA-AD effect has been obtained by assuming that point 337 defect fluxes are perpendicular to the dislocation line [36, 77]. However, we 338 have seen that when a three-dimensional model is used, saddle point anisotropy 339 leads to fluxes with components along the dislocation line. Therefore, it is not 340 clear whether the magnitude of the SIPA-AD will remain as large compared to 341 SIPA-I. Additional work is needed to evaluate precisely the importance of both 342 mechanisms, by studying specifically different stress levels and directions [78]. 343



Figure 6: Dislocation bias obtained for real defects (case 2) with interpolation of the analytical solution in Fourier space for the strain, with isotropic and anisotropic elasticity.

344 3.4. Importance of elastic moduli tensor anisotropy

Point defect anisotropy at saddle point has been identified as one of the main parameters influencing the sink strength value in isotropic elasticity. Although aluminum is a weakly anisotropic material (A = 1.21, see Tab. 1), it can be worth investigating the effect of the anisotropy of the elastic moduli tensor on the sink strength.

The results obtained for the dislocation bias are presented in Fig. 6. In this 350 figure, both results are obtained with calculations using the analytical solution 351 in Fourier space for the strain field [48, 49, 50]. With anisotropic elasticity, only 352 a small variation of the bias values can be observed. It is much less important 353 than the variation induced by the saddle point anisotropy. The influence of the 354 elastic moduli tensor anisotropy is therefore far less important than the one of 355 the point defect anisotropy. Consequently, as far as aluminum is concerned, 356 the calculations can be done with isotropic elasticity. A similar conclusion was 357 drawn in the case of iron, for which it was seen that the change in the sink 358 strength is lower than 10% when elastic constants are changed from their values 359 at 0 K (A = 2.3) to the ones at 1000 K (A = 4.5) [79]. 360

³⁶¹ 4. Spherical cavity

362 4.1. Case definition

To compute the cavity sink strengths and bias, the cubic simulation box of size d contains a single centered spherical cavity, as illustrated in Fig. 7. This cavity is a perfect sink with a constant radius r_c , with a capture radius of $d_{\text{reac}} = r_c + r_{\text{PD}}$ where r_{PD} is the point defect radius $(r_{\text{PD}} = 0.16 \text{ nm})$. The cavity density only depends on the box dimensions and is given by $\rho = 1/d^3$, so different densities can be studied by varying the box dimension d.



Figure 7: Configuration of the simulation box containing a spherical cavity.

The strain field generated by a cavity is calculated after the expressions given in [80, 39]:

$$\epsilon_{ij}\left(\boldsymbol{r}\right) = \frac{\left(-\frac{2\gamma}{r_c}\right)}{4\mu} \left(\frac{r_c}{r}\right)^3 \left(\delta_{ij} - \frac{3x_i x_j}{r^2}\right). \tag{25}$$

In this equation, μ is the shear modulus of the material, the coordinates in the box x, y, z are noted x_1, x_2, x_3 for convenience, with $r = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2}$, and γ is the surface tension, set to the typical value of 1 J.m⁻² [39].

From Eq. (25), it can be seen that $\text{Tr}(\boldsymbol{\epsilon}) = 0$. As a consequence, for defects having an isotropic dipole tensor $\boldsymbol{P} = P_0 \boldsymbol{I}$, the energy induced by the elastic field is $E = -P_0 \text{Tr}(\boldsymbol{\epsilon}) = 0$. Therefore when both vacancies and SIAs have isotropic dipole tensors, e.g. in the usual approximation of case 1, the bias is zero, and the cavity is a neutral sink. The simulations involving defects with isotropic dipole tensors at both stable and saddle points (case 1 and case 2") are then equivalent to case 0, with no interactions. Consequently, only the cases of non interacting defects (case 0), real defects (case 2) and defects simplified at saddle points (case 2') are considered here.

382 4.2. Sink strength and bias



Figure 8: Cavity sink efficiency for (a) SIAs and (b) vacancies, (c) bias, for a cavity of radius 1 nm.

The cavity sink strength and bias are calculated for a cavity of radius $r_c = 1$ nm, for a density between 10^{21} and 10^{23} cavities per m³, corresponding to densities commonly measured in irradiated materials [67]. The sink efficiencies Z are then calculated by

$$Z = \frac{k^2}{4\pi d_{\text{reac}}\rho}.$$
(26)

³⁸³ Results are presented in Fig. 8.

As in the case of dislocations, a good agreement is obtained between the sink strengths for non interacting defects (case 0, yellow squares) and the analytical expression for the cavity sink strength [68], validating our approach. The small difference can be explained by the boundary conditions at the cavity surface, in the same way as for the dislocation.

It is particularly interesting to notice how the elastic interactions influence 389 the sink strength values. The results obtained for real defects (case 2, gray down-390 pointing triangles) show that the interactions increase the cavity sink strength 391 for SIAs, but slightly reduce the sink strength for vacancies as compared to the 392 case without elastic interactions. This yields a positive bias of 0.3 in average for 393 the densities studied. The bias weakly depends on the cavity density, because of 394 the short range of interactions. This bias value shows that the cavity cannot be 395 considered as a neutral sink when the elastic interactions are taken into account. 396

The sink strengths obtained for point defects with isotropic saddle points (case 2', green triangles) are equal to the ones obtained for non interacting defects, so the bias is zero. Therefore, results show that the saddle point anisotropy of point defects alone is responsible for the increase of the bias value. The stable point anisotropy does not influence the sink strength nor the bias, which is consistent with the results obtained for the dislocation.

Fig. 9 presents the cavity bias for a density of $3.74 \ 10^{21} \ m^{-3}$, for cavity radii from 1 nm to 5 nm, with consideration of point defects anisotropy (case 2). The cavity bias decreases when the cavity radius increases due to the decrease in $1/r_c$ in Eq. (25), but even for a radius of 5 nm the bias is still above 0.1, which indicates that the cavity is a biased sink.

408 4.3. Analysis and discussion

In the same way as for dislocations, cavity sink strengths have been determined by analytical calculations, taking into account the diffusion anisotropy [39]. With different boundary conditions as those used in our simulations, and under the assumptions that the cavity is small with respect to the simulation cell and



Figure 9: Cavity bias B as a function of the cavity radius r_c , for real defects (case 2), and the analytical expression computed from [39]. The cavity density is 3.74 10^{21} m⁻³.

that the strain is low, the expression obtained for the sink strength is remark-413 ably simple: it depends on the components of the dipole tensor and varies as 414 $1/r_{\rm c}$. The bias values obtained from these expressions are represented in Fig. 9. 415 This analytical expression is in agreement with our simulation results for the 416 larger cavities, but the values differ for the small radii, for which the strain field 417 is stronger. For our simulation parameters, these calculations show that for a 418 cavity of radius 1 nm, the sink strength for vacancies is reduced by a factor 0.69 419 when the anisotropy at saddle point is taken into account, while the one for 420

SIAs increases by a factor 1.29. In our simulations, the reduction for vacancies is less marked, whereas the value for SIAs is very close. Therefore, the bias value is higher in the analytical approach (B = 0.46).

More in-depth investigation of the effect of saddle point anisotropy can be 424 obtained by extracting point defect trajectories. They are represented in Fig. 10 425 in the xy-plane, for both isotropic (case 2', a-b) and anisotropic (case 2, c-426 d) saddle points. In the case of isotropic saddle point, the average fluxes of 427 both SIAs and vacancies are normal to the cavity. This corresponds to the 428 fluxes that would be obtained without interactions between point defects and 429 the sink. When the saddle point is anisotropic, trajectories of SIAs are not 430 markedly changed. On the contrary, trajectories of vacancies are curved close 431 to the cavity. 432

Fig. 11 presents the probability of absorption on the surface of the cavity 433 for a radius of 1 nm. These results confirm that the probability of absorption of 434 SIAs is almost homogeneous on the cavity surface, with a small increase along 435 the $\langle 111 \rangle$ directions. On the contrary, Fig. 11-b shows that the probability of 436 absorption of vacancies is strongly anisotropic. Vacancies are absorbed almost 437 only through the $\langle 100 \rangle$ directions. In a similar way, anisotropic concentration 438 fields around the cavity were found by Borodin et al. [39]. Qualitatively, it can 439 be explained by the curvature of the point defect trajectories (Fig. 10-d), which 440 converge to the $\langle 100 \rangle$ directions. In general, as emphasized in the case of the 441 dislocation, vacancies tend to migrate more easily if the strain along the jump 442 direction is negative (such defects are called "F-type defects" by Woo [38]). 443 Tangential strain due to the cavity is negative, while normal strain is positive. 444 Therefore, defects tend to migrate tangentially close to the cavity, which reduces 445 the point defect absorption and the sink strength. This effect is more or less 446 strong, depending on the orientation of jumps with respect to the strain field 447 of the cavity. This lattice effect is a signature of the saddle point anisotropy. 448 In order to more precisely assess this trajectory curvature effect very near to 449 the cavity, more involved simulations, including other energy terms that may 450 be important at low distance [45], should be performed. 451



Figure 10: Average fluxes of (a) SIAs and (b) vacancies with isotropic saddle points (case 2'), and (c) SIAs and (d) vacancies with real **P**-tensors (case 2). The same convention is applied as in Fig. 4.

452 5. Conclusion

In this work, OKMC simulations have been performed to evaluate sink strengths and bias values of a straight dislocation and of a spherical cavity in aluminum. The elastic interactions between the sink and the migrating point defects are explicitly modeled and the point defects are represented by their elastic dipole tensors (**P**-tensors), which are computed by DFT calculations. The influence of the saddle point anisotropy on the sink strengths and bias has been quantitatively assessed.



Results show that the values of sink strengths and bias are strongly increased



Figure 11: Probability density of absorption p of (a) SIAs and (b) vacancies (case 2) on the surface of the cavity, for a cavity radius of 1 nm.

by the elastic interactions, for both the dislocation and the cavity. The study 461 of the different approximations of the P-tensors highlights the influence of the 462 saddle point anisotropy of defects. It leads to the cavity being a biased sink with 463 a bias of almost 0.3 for a radius of 1 nm, which reduces as the radius increases. 464 The influence of the saddle point anisotropy has been enlightened by the 465 study of the point defects migration paths. We have shown that the saddle 466 point anisotropy leads to more complex trajectories than in the isotropic case, 467 especially for vacancies which have a more anisotropic saddle point than in-468 terstitials. Near the dislocation, vacancies migrate along the Burgers vector 469 direction, and not only through the compressed side. The vacancy flux has a 470 non-zero component along the dislocation line direction. Near a cavity, vacan-471 cies tend to migrate tangentially and be absorbed through the $\langle 100 \rangle$ directions, 472 while the absorption of SIAs is nearly isotropic. 473

Similar results are expected for other FCC metals, as dipole tensors have 474 the same features [29]. These results have implications on swelling and irradia-475 tion creep rates, and also suggest that the saddle point anisotropy of vacancies 476 could play a significant role in many FCC based materials, in particular when 477 solidification, heat treatments and/or deformation processes have led to a su-478 persaturation of vacancies. In addition, this anisotropy could be of importance 479 in coherent multi-phase materials, such as nickel based superalloys, in which va-480 cancies diffuse in an inhomogeneous strain field resulting from both the internal 481 multiphase microstructure and the thermo-mechanical treatment. 482

⁴⁸³ Appendix A. Comparison of OKMC results and analytical calcula-⁴⁸⁴ tions for straight dislocations (case 1)

In this section we compare the OKMC results for case 1 (spherical inclu-485 sions), for straight dislocations, with the analytical calculation provided by Rauh 486 and Simon [74]. This analytical study corresponds to a single dislocation with 487 a prescribed concentration at a distance R from the dislocation position. The 488 effect of the strain field of other dislocations is therefore not taken into account. 489 In order to explain the discrepancy observed in Fig. 3, the drift-diffusion 490 equation has also been solved on two different cases (Fig. A.12), using the fi-491 nite element (FE) method. More details about the methodology can be found 492 in Ref. [23]. In the first case (Fig. A.12-(a)), the concentration is imposed at 493 the outer boundary of the computation domain, corresponding to the analyt-494 ical treatment from [74]. The sink strength is deduced from the flux to the 495 dislocation. In the second case (Fig. A.12-(b)), a source term is imposed, cor-496 responding to our OKMC simulations. The sink strength is deduced from the 497 average concentration of defects, using Eq. (5). In both cases, the effect of the 498 strain field of surrounding dislocations is taken into account. 499

Results are compared in Fig. A.13. A very good agreement is obtained between FE simulations with imposed creation rate and OKMC simulations. On the contrary, FE simulations with imposed concentration tends to the an⁵⁰³ alytical solution for low dislocation densities, whereas they depart from each ⁵⁰⁴ other as the dislocation density increases. This means that the discrepancy ⁵⁰⁵ between the analytical solution and the OKMC results mostly comes from the ⁵⁰⁶ different boundary conditions, whereas at high dislocation densities the effect ⁵⁰⁷ of surrounding dislocation strain fields also plays a role in the difference.



Figure A.12: Computation domains for FE calculations (in grey). (a) Concentration is imposed on the outer boundary ($\Gamma_{D,2}$). Concentration is zero on $\Gamma_{D,1}$ and the normal flux is zero on Γ_N . (b) Creation rate G_0 is imposed in the volume. Concentration is zero on Γ_D , the normal flux is zero on Γ_N and periodic boundary conditions are used on Γ_P .

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Figure A.13: Bias of straight dislocations when point defects are considered as spherical inclusions (case 1), obtained with various approaches: analytical calculation by Rauh and Simon [74], FE calculations with two different boundary conditions and OKMC calculations.

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