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ABSTRACT

Numerous experimental studies have found the presence of (Cu)-Ni-Mn-Si clusters in neutron irradiated reactor pressure vessel steels, prompting concerns that these clusters could lead to larger than expected increases in hardening, especially at high fluences late in life. The mechanics governing clustering for the Fe-Mn-Ni-Si system are not well-known; state-of-the-art methods use kinetic Monte Carlo (KMC) parameterized by density functional theory (DFT) and thermodynamic data to model the time evolution of clusters. However, DFT-based KMC studies have so far been limited to only pairwise interactions due to lack of DFT data. Here, we explicitly calculate the binding energy of triplet clusters of Mn, Ni, Cu, Si, and vacancies in *bcc* Fe using DFT to show that the presence of vacancies, Si, or Cu stabilizes cluster formation, as clusters containing exclusively Mn and/or Ni are not energetically stable in the absence of interstitials. We further identify which clusters may be reasonably approximated as a sum of pairwise interactions and which instead require an explicit treatment of the three-body interaction, showing that the three-body term can account for as much as 0.3 eV, especially for clusters containing vacancies.

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I. INTRODUCTION

The key component that dictates the operational lifetime of a pressurized water reactor (PWR) is the reactor pressure vessel (RPV), which is constructed of low-alloy ferritic steel. During steady state operation, the RPV is subject to elevated temperatures (~ 600 K) and a high energy (>1 MeV) neutron flux that leads to the creation of nanoscale features.^{1,2} These features impede dislocation motion, resulting in a hardening of the RPV, and ultimately to an increase in the ductile-to-brittle transition temperature. If this increase is too large, the safety case under accident conditions cannot be justified.

The most common features observed as a result of fast neutron radiation damage in RPV steels are voids, dislocation loops, and solute clusters composed primarily of Si, Ni, Mn, and Cu.^{3–6} The latter is the focus of a global research effort to gain a mechanistic understanding of solute clustering in RPV steels.^{7–16} The aim of this global effort is twofold, to improve the design of new steel compositions, especially their resistance to radiation-induced solute clustering, and improving current dose damage

relationship models at high fluences beyond 40 years of operation of a PWR.

Historically, Cu dominated the cluster compositions, especially in the welds of early RPVs leading to their designation as Cu-rich precipitates (CRPs).^{2,17–19} However, in more modern reactors, RPV steels have largely reduced Cu contents (<0.1 at. %); but clusters of Mn-Ni-Si have been predicted by Monte Carlo simulations based on both thermodynamic models^{20–22} and density functional theory (DFT) results.^{23–26} These clusters have been observed experimentally at fluences greater than 10^{23} nm⁻²,^{3,27–33} and in nonirradiated thermally-aged steel as well,^{34,35} causing concern for late-life performance of currently operating RPVs. Atom probe tomography studies of these Mn-Ni-Si solute clusters have often found Cu cores surrounded by Ni, Mn, Si enriched shells.^{5,30,36–38} However, recent experiments have also found that clusters can develop in the absence of Cu^{3,31,39,40} and solute-vacancy^{41,42} and solute-interstitial^{43,44} complexes develop in addition to pure solute clusters in both RPV steel and model alloys.

Difficulties exist in trying to elucidate the structures and exact chemical compositions due to the small size of the solute clusters

(1–3 nm) and limitations in the analysis techniques, and so there is still debate as to their formation mechanism, chemical compositions (including Fe content), and structure. Therefore, investigations into matrix damage and solute clusters using multiscale modeling techniques are ongoing.^{14,45–47} DFT, molecular dynamics (MD), and kinetic Monte Carlo (KMC) are well suited to investigating the thermodynamics, kinetics, and structure of such features. Currently, however, there has been limited work on clusters containing more than two solute atoms in the low-alloy ferritic Fe-Cu-Mn-Ni-Si system. Mixed Ni-Mn triplets were studied by Bonny *et al.*, which modeled four distinct triplets (Mn₃, Mn₂Ni, MnNi₂, Ni₃)⁴⁸ and further studies by Bakaev *et al.*⁴⁹ and Bonny *et al.*⁵⁰ have looked at divacancy containing triplets, and Ni-Cr-vacancy triplets/quadruplets, respectively. These results have been further built upon in Ref. 51 with studies of more triplet clusters and investigations of cluster expansion. However, these studies have only looked at one configuration of triplets (the triangle or 1-1-2 configuration, as described in this work and with the exception of,^{50,51} has not varied the ordering within the configuration or quantified the impact of including triplet clusters in KMC codes as opposed to purely pairwise interactions). Further, in the development of quaternary Fe-Mn-Ni-Cu embedded atom potentials, the binding energy of some Mn-Ni pairs and triplets was calculated by DFT to be repulsive⁴⁸ and did not adequately reflect the experimentally observed cluster growth. Therefore, these binary solute interactions were empirically modified to be slightly attractive to allow for cluster growth to occur. Additionally, a recent study by Domain and Becquart¹⁴ has found that DFT and MD calculations, using the potentials developed in Ref. 48, are in poor agreement when simulating solutes close to ⟨111⟩ interstitial loops.

Several different KMC models have also been developed to study the evolution due to neutron irradiation of RPV steels, including many atomic species (Cu, Mn, Ni, Si, P, Cr).^{23,24,26,52} These are commonly parameterized by empirical thermodynamic data^{20–22,53} or DFT data,^{24,25,54,55} although other models based on rate-theory³⁹ and a combination of tight-binding and experimental data⁵⁶ has been developed in the past. Disagreement exists between models, with thermodynamic-based KMC suggesting that the clusters are stable and radiation enhanced, whereas DFT-based KMC favors the hypothesis that clusters are radiation induced.²⁵

There has been particular interest in the role of interstitial driven migration, with much KMC successfully modeling the interactions of dumbbells with solutes, including development of the LAKIMOCA code that emphasizes the role of self-interstitial atoms (SIAs) in solute migration^{23–26,54} due to the high binding energy that Mn has been found to exhibit for self-interstitial defects.^{57,58}

The role of nonpairwise interactions has been thus far absent from the literature and therefore the KMC models. In this study, which was performed concurrent to one by Bonny *et al.*,⁵¹ the energetic influence of triplet clusters is investigated using DFT. In the study by Bonny *et al.*, DFT was used to expand on the previous work on solute pairs that are currently used to parametrize higher order codes that incorporate time evolution (KMC and MD),^{23–26,47} and to determine the effect of three-body interactions on solute triplets, when compared to energies calculated by only taking into account pairwise interactions. Here, we analyze the triplet clusters in detail to show which configurations have the

lowest energy and furthermore to study the errors that are incurred in trying to represent these 3-body interactions as 2-body interactions not reported in Ref. 48.

II. METHOD

DFT calculations were performed using the Vienna *ab initio* simulation package (VASP),^{59–62} a plane-wave code that implements the projector augmented wave method (PAW),^{60,63} which has been used with the Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) exchange-correlation functional, based on the generalized gradient approximation.⁶⁴ For the elements Fe, Cu, Ni, Mn, and Si, pseudopotentials included within the VASP 5.4 distribution were used with 14, 17, 16, 13, and 4 valence electrons, respectively. Brillouin zone sampling was performed using the Monkhorst-Pack scheme, where a *k*-point mesh of 4 × 4 × 4, a cut-off energy of 500 eV, and Methfessel-Paxton⁶⁵ smearing (with a width of 0.1 eV) proved sufficiently converged to 10^{−3} eV for the pure elements. The tetrahedron smearing method with Blöchl corrections⁶³ was used on fixed dimension/volume calculations to generate the density of states (DOS). Supercells were constructed and fully relaxed using constant pressure calculations; using 128 atoms (4 × 4 × 4 *bcc* Fe unit cells), a lattice parameter of 2.831 Å was calculated to be ground-state. Supercell convergence tests using 256, 128, 54 atoms were performed, from which it was found that 128 atom cells are adequate for modeling substitutional triplet clusters. Constant volume relaxations of the supercells with the defect clusters were performed to obtain binding energies. All variations of Mn-Mn-X, Mn-Ni-X, Ni-Ni-X where X is Cu, Mn, Ni, Si, or a vacancy were considered, as well as all clusters containing one or two vacancies (vacancy-X-X and vacancy-vacancy-X). The electronic energy and ionic relaxation convergence criteria were set to 10^{−6} and 10^{−4} eV, respectively, for all calculations.

Binding energies for solute-vacancy triplets were calculated using

$$E_b(X_1, X_2, X_3) = E\left(\sum_{i=1}^3 X_i\right) - \sum_{i=1}^3 E(X_i) + 2E(\text{Fe}), \quad (1)$$

where $E(\text{Fe})$ is the energy of a pure Fe supercell, $E(X_i)$ is the energy of the supercell containing a single solute, and $E(\sum_i X_i)$ is the energy of the supercell containing all solutes.

The binding energy of a triplet can be described as the sum of the pairwise interaction plus a three-body term,

$$E_b(X_1, X_2, X_3) = E_b(X_1, X_2; n_{1-2}) + E_b(X_2, X_3; n_{2-3}) + E_b(X_3, X_1; n_{3-1}) + E^{3\text{-body}}(X_1, X_2, X_3), \quad (2)$$

where $E_b(X_i, X_j; n_{i-j})$ is the pair binding energy of solutes X_i and X_j at n_{i-j} nearest neighbor separation. Thus, Eq. (2) was used to calculate the magnitude of the three-body term, $E^{3\text{-body}}$. The binding energy of the triplet, when only taking pairwise interactions into account, was calculated using Eq. (3),

$$E_b^{2\text{-body}}(X_1, X_2, X_3) = E_b(X_1, X_2; n_{1-2}) + E_b(X_2, X_3; n_{2-3}) + E_b(X_3, X_1; n_{3-1}). \quad (3)$$

The pairwise triplet binding energy from Eq. (3) was then compared to the exact binding energy from the explicit DFT calculation of the triplet,

$$E^{3\text{-body}}(X_1, X_2, X_3) = E_b(X_1, X_2, X_3) - E_b^{2\text{-body}}(X_1, X_2, X_3). \quad (4)$$

Under these definitions, negative energy represents attractive binding.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. First to fifth nearest neighbor pairs

The binding energies between each solute species in the *bcc* Fe lattice provide insight into local stabilities and potential migration behavior. Figure 1 shows the interactions of solute pairs (of same species) and solute-vacancy pairs from the first nearest neighbor (1nn) to the fifth nearest neighbor (5nn); there is good agreement with previous works, with the exception of Mn for which there is a large spread of reported results. Discrepancies associated with Mn are due to the shallow energy landscape between ferromagnetic and antiferromagnetic moments (AFM) leading to differences in isolated reference states and variations in the magnetic moment in the pairs. These findings were reported in a previous publication.⁶⁶ According to the findings, all Mn atoms were given the initial magnetic moment of ($-2\mu_B$) corresponding to the AFM coupling to Fe. The decrease in binding energy between a vacancy and Cu, Mn, and Ni at 5nn

(compared to 4nn) is attributed to the “Friedel-like” relaxation around a vacancy in Fe. The 5nn sites are in a compressive region (compared to tensile of the 4nn configuration).⁵⁷

Figure 2 compares the binding energies between Cu, Mn, Ni, and Si defects from 1nn to 5nn, together with past literature results. Inconsistencies in our results with Vincent *et al.*⁶⁷ are attributed to the use of Vanderbilt-type ultrasoft pseudopotentials used by Vincent *et al.* that do not describe well the strongly varying core part of the *d*-like orbitals compared to the PAW electronic methods used in this work. It is evident from Fig. 2 that there is non-negligible binding between Si and other solute elements (top row), which may be important for cluster dynamics. Specifically, Si exhibits both a strong binding at 1nn with Mn, Cu, and Ni (~ -0.15 eV) and a repulsion at 2nn with Ni and Mn (~ 0.10 eV). In agreement with Olsson *et al.*,⁵⁷ interactions beyond 2nn are very small, due to the increased separation and suggesting that efforts should be concentrated on modeling the energetics of 1nn and 2nn solute pairs in particular. Olsson *et al.* note that large changes in solute-vacancy binding energies (~ 0.2 eV) between 1nn and 2nn, as are observed here for both solute-vacancy and Si-solute interactions, can be explained by large differences in charge distribution surrounding vacancies in *bcc* Fe.⁵⁷ The exact configuration and co-ordination of small clusters is important when modeling cluster growth in KMC codes as there are 8, 6, 12, 24, and 8 possible sites for 1nn, 2nn, 3nn, 4nn, and 5nn positions, respectively, in the *bcc* lattice.

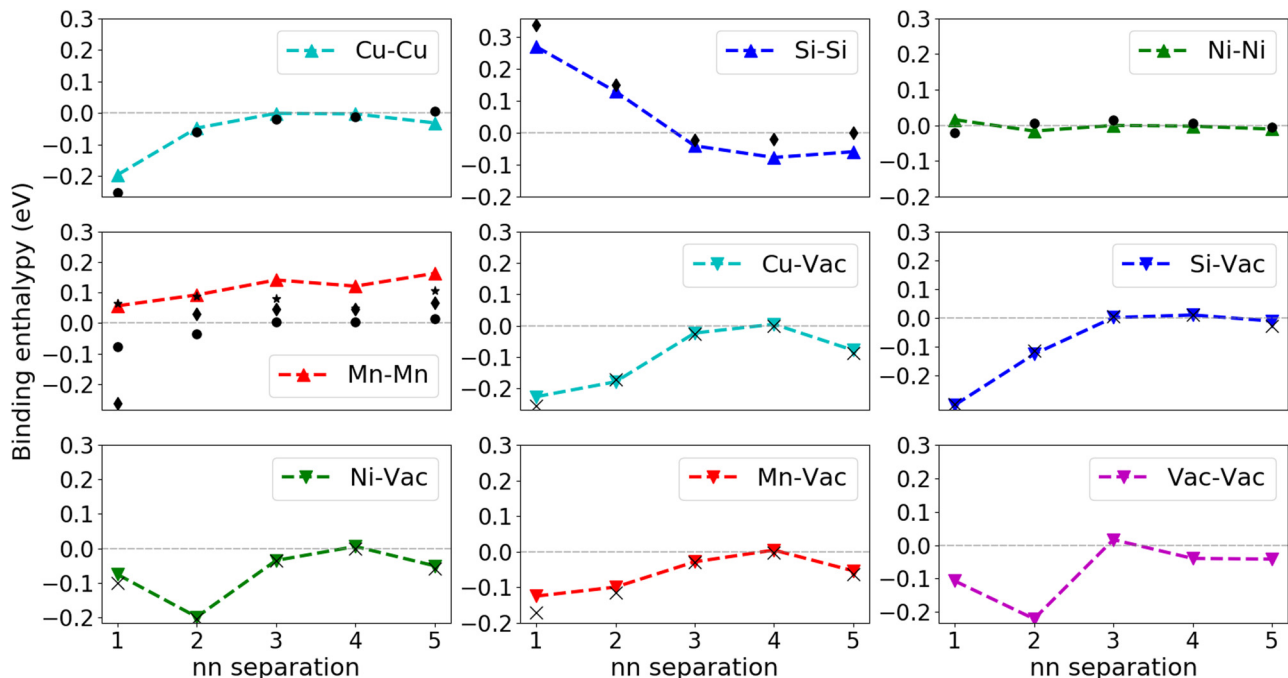


FIG. 1. Binding enthalpy of same solute and solute-vacancy pairs obtained by supercell relaxations, compared with previous works by Messina *et al.*¹³ (crosses), Bakaev *et al.*⁶⁸ (diamonds), King *et al.*⁶⁶ (stars), and Olsson *et al.*⁵⁷ (circles).

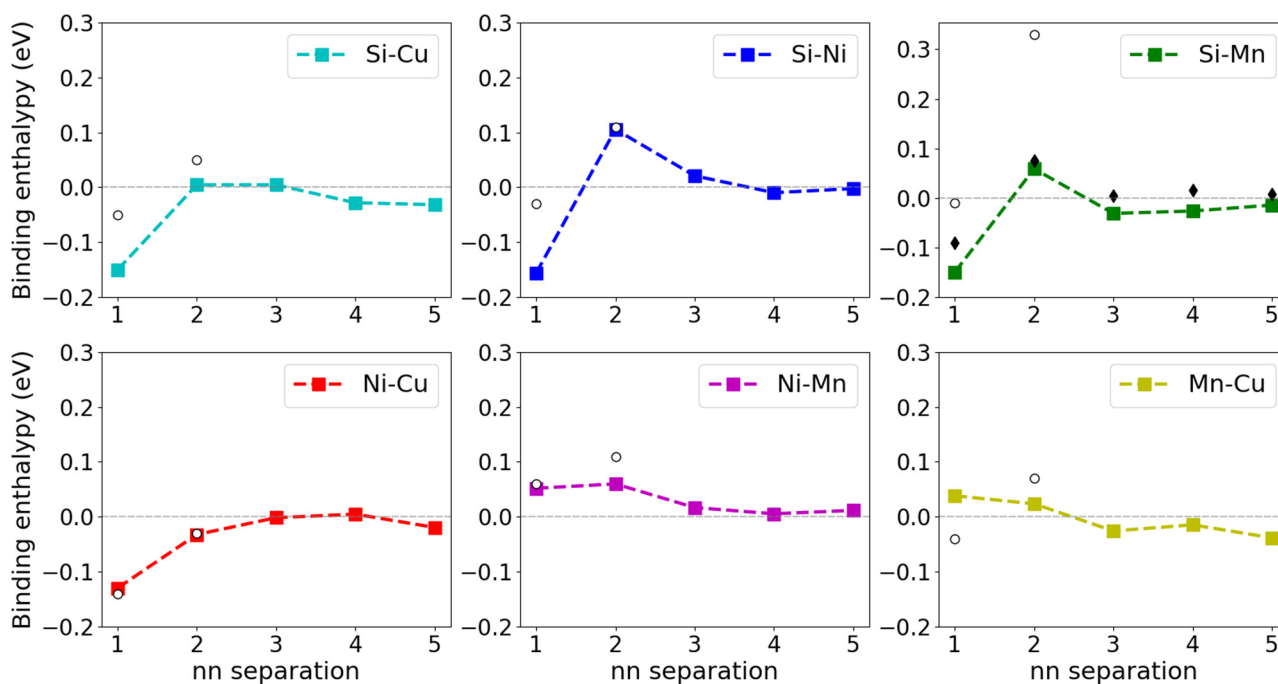


FIG. 2. Binding enthalpy of mixed solute pairs obtained by supercell relaxations, compared with previous works by Vincent *et al.*⁵⁷ (white circles) and Bakaev *et al.*⁶⁸ (black diamonds).

B. Mn-Ni triplets

In this section, work is presented on triplet clusters in which at least two of the defects are Mn or Ni, and the other is either Si, Cu, Mn, Ni, or a vacancy. Due to the pronounced 1nn interactions in the binary cases, triplet calculations have focused on geometries where one of the atomic species in the triplet cluster is 1nn to both of the other solutes. These configurations are termed 1-1-2, 1-1-3, and 1-1-5, where for the triplet composed of species A, B, and C in the a-b-c configuration: a is the nearest neighbor number of B relative to A, b is the nearest neighbor number of C relative to B and c is the nearest neighbor number of A relative to C as shown in Fig. 3. For each triplet configuration and composition, we consider all possible permutations of species on each site. Therefore, triplet clusters with three different species will have three discrete energies for each configuration (1-1-2, 1-1-3, and 1-1-5) for a total of nine discrete energies for that cluster chemistry; but due to symmetry, triplets with two different species (e.g., Mn-Mn-Ni) will have two possible energies per configuration and triplets with one species (e.g., Mn-Mn-Mn) have only one energy per configuration. Higher order interactions such as quadruplet and quintuplet clusters have been omitted due to the expense of DFT calculations and the vast multiplicity involved with modeling these clusters. Additionally, as there already exists substantial literature on interactions of solutes with interstitial dumbbells in various positions,^{23–26,54} in this work we have concentrated instead on the role of Cu, Si, and vacancies in stabilizing triplet clusters of different geometries in substitutional positions.

Figure 4 shows the energies of the triplet binding energies calculated using Eq. (1). From comparison with previous literature, it is seen that there is poor agreement with this work for clusters containing Mn; this is again attributed to the shallow energy landscape between magnetic moments as discussed in Sec. III A. For clusters without Mn, our findings are in line with previous works to within the error of DFT (~ 0.1 eV). For the study by Bonny *et al.*⁵¹ that concentrated on clusters in the 1-1-2 configuration, agreement was found to be within 0.1 eV for all but the Mn-Mn-Mn, Vac-Mn-Mn, Mn-Mn-Ni, and Ni-Cu-Mn (ordered A-B-C in Fig. 3), which is again attributed to the shallow energy landscape of Mn. It is evident that clusters consisting only of Mn are energetically unfavorable, as are Mn-Mn-Ni clusters, which are repulsive (up to 0.34 eV) for all configurations studied. With an increase in Ni content of the clusters to 2Ni:1Mn, clusters become more favorable; however, the magnitudes of their interaction are very small (between 0.02 and -0.08 eV). It is also interesting to note that modeling different configurations and orderings is important as only modeling a single 1-1-2 configuration could be misleading. Examples of this are clear in Fig. 4 where Mn-Ni-X clusters show differing behavior in the 1-1-2 configuration when compared to the 1-1-3 or 1-1-5 configurations and in some cases, such as for Mn-Ni-Ni triplets, the 0.09 eV repulsion becomes a marginal attraction, albeit within the uncertainty of DFT methods. Equally, the 1-1-5 configurations can be more repulsive by a significant margin than the 1-1-2 configurations; examples of this are the Mn-Mn-Mn and Mn-Mn-Ni clusters.

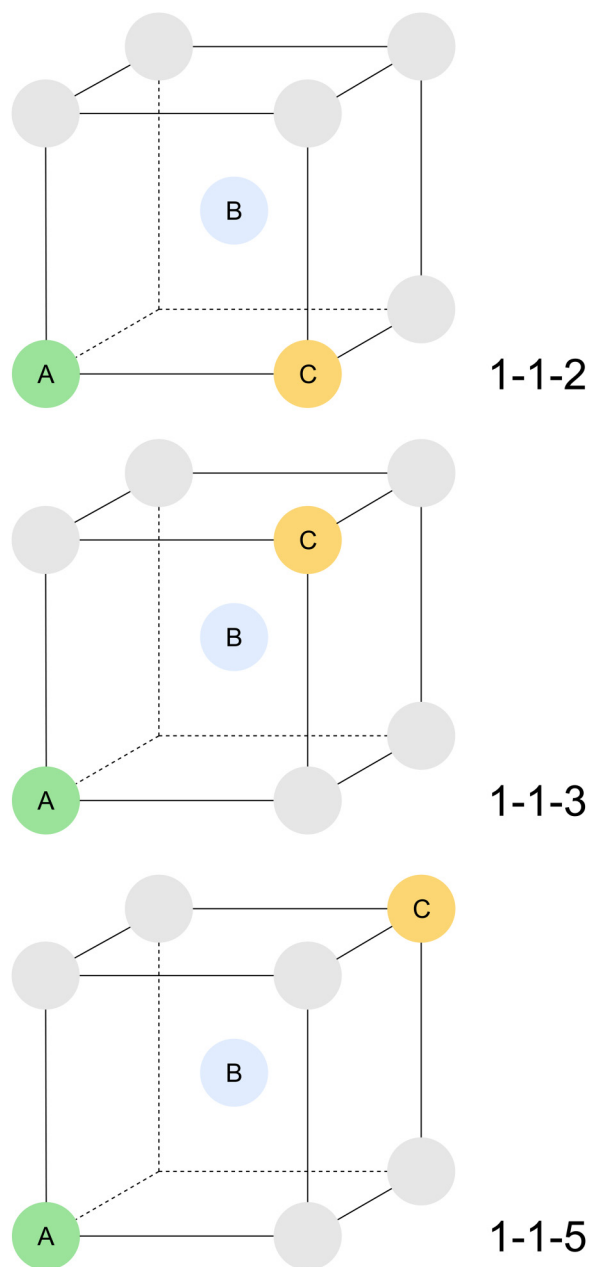


FIG. 3. Atomic models of the three triplet structures studied, where Mn, Ni (Sec. III B), or a vacancy (Sec. III C) is placed in A and B positions and one of Si, Cu, Mn, Ni, or a vacancy is substituted in position C on the *bcc* Fe lattice. Simulations have been run for all permutations.

It is clear that Cu, Si, and vacancies are important for the stability of small, local Mn-, and Ni-containing clusters, as we have found pure substitutional Mn-Ni triplet clusters to be repulsive or only weakly bound in the absence of a SIA, although a previous study by Bonny *et al.* found that quadruplets and larger clusters of

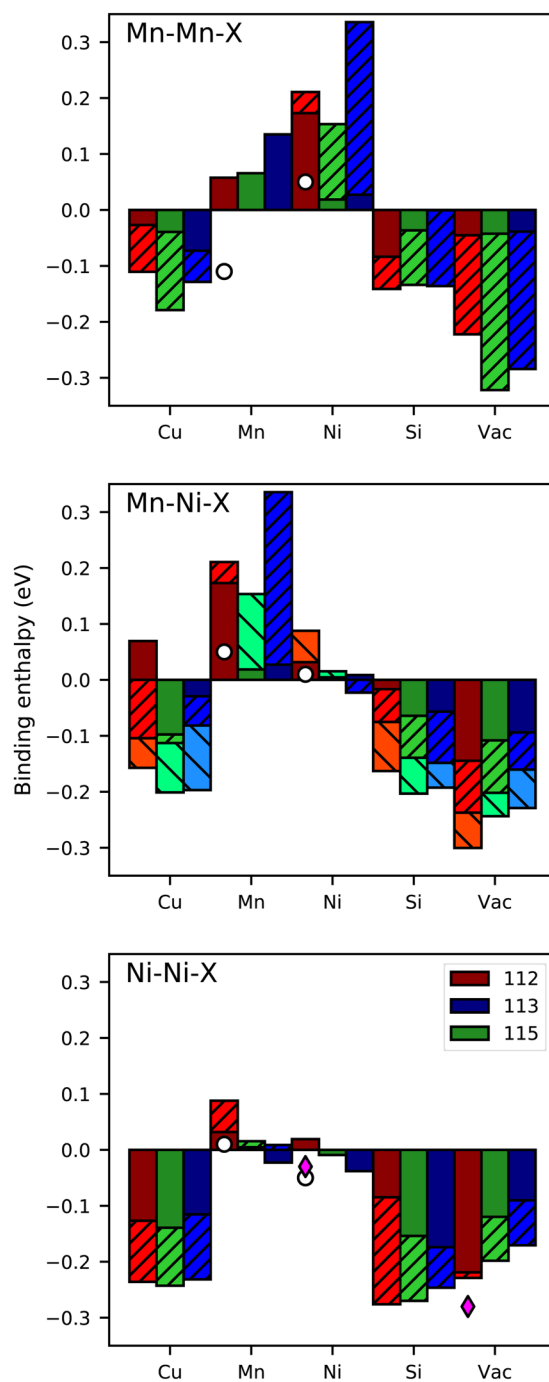


FIG. 4. Binding enthalpies of each of the triplet clusters in the different positions shown in Fig. 3. Each line on the bars represents the energies of the specified cluster composition (e.g., Cu-Mn-Ni) and configurations (e.g., 1-1-3) in different permutations. For example, Cu-Mn-Ni (1-1-3) triplets have three distinct configurations, whereas Mn-Mn-Mn (1-1-3) triplets only have one distinct configuration. Results from Bonny *et al.*⁴⁸ (white circles) and Bonny *et al.*⁵⁰ (purple diamonds) are shown for comparison.

Mn and Ni may be more stable.⁴⁸ While there are many variables that drive cluster formation that are neglected here such as temperature, strain, defect fluxes, and defect sinks, our results suggest that Cu, Si, and vacancies will increase the thermodynamic stability of clusters and could be directly used to parameterize KMC codes that can better take into account these factors. The Cu content in modern Grade 3 A508 RPV steels is low (typically <0.1 at %), and Cu phase separates early in the lifetime of the reactor (<10²³ nm⁻² fluence, ≥1 MeV).⁶⁹ Due to the established flux-coupling effect of vacancy drag of Ni, Mn, and Si to existing Cu clusters^{3,27,70} and the strong binding energy (−0.2 eV) of Cu-Ni-Mn triplets, existing Cu clusters will act locally as nucleation points for Mn-Ni clusters; evidence for this is seen experimentally with the observation of Cu-rich cores surrounded by Mn-Ni-Si rich shells.^{5,36–38,71} The availability of Si (0.2–0.6 at. %) is typically greater than Cu in the Fe matrix of RPV steels during cluster evolution^{3,72–74} and is well below its solubility limit at 500 K;⁷⁵ therefore, it will be more readily available in the matrix than Cu during the operation of the RPV. Due to the availability of Si, the established solute transport of Mn, Ni, and Si by both vacancies and SIAs to sinks (such as interstitial loops and dislocations)^{8,39,40,70} and the strong binding energy of Si with Mn/Ni in pairs and triplets, Si will increase the thermodynamic driving force for solute clustering. The stronger binding energies of the Si-containing triplet clusters are likely due to its semimetallic nature and smaller atomic radius (110 pm compared to 140 pm for Mn and Fe, and 135 pm for Ni and Cu⁷⁶), and its strong binding with vacancies and other solutes in 1nn position.^{13,49,68} Electronic interactions of Si with Fe and other solutes may also play a role, as these have been found to be largely responsible for its solubility in *bcc* Fe rather than size effects.¹⁰ Si also exhibits remarkably strong vacancy-solute drag factors,¹⁴ and Si-vacancy complexes have been experimentally observed to form and evolve as Si can stabilize vacancy clusters; however, solute

aggregation of pure Si clusters close to vacancy clusters is not found to occur in model alloys (i.e., it has been found experimentally that Si clusters must contain vacancies within them to be stable, rather than nucleating on vacancy clusters and forming a separate phase as is seen for Cu⁴¹).

Solute-vacancy complexes are well-known forms of radiation-induced features that have been observed in Fe-Mn and Fe-Ni model alloys.⁴¹ The binding of Mn and Ni to vacancies is significant and both are known to exhibit vacancy-solute drag up to temperatures of ~1000 K in *bcc* Fe¹³). Therefore, the results of the current study for favorable binding energies of Mn-Mn-vacancy clusters (max. −0.32 eV), Mn-Ni-vacancy (max. −0.30 eV), and Ni-Ni-vacancy (max. −0.23 eV) are no surprise. These results suggest that on a local scale, greater concentrations of vacancies (as a result of larger fluence) will lead to more cluster nucleation; this is in good agreement with the observed relationship between neutron fluence and cluster growth that higher fluence increases number density of clusters.^{27,31,77,78}

To better determine the role of each species in cluster stability, the local density of states (LDOS) of Mn and Ni at 1nn separation from different solute species and a vacancy in bulk *bcc* Fe is shown in Fig. 5. It is clear to see that the shape and position of the Mn LDOS are similar when isolated and in the presence of a stabilizing species (Cu, Si, and vacancy). Here, the antibonding peak in the upper spin channel is unfilled (above the Fermi level). This is in contrast to the LDOS of Mn in the presence of a destabilizing species (Mn or Ni), which display the higher energy states in the upper spin channel as filled. This suggests that there is a repulsive interaction and similar observations have been made for Mn when in the presence of defects in *bcc* Fe.^{66,79} For Ni-X pairs, the LDOS around the Ni is very similar when isolated in *bcc* Fe or in the presence of any of the studied solutes. It is evident that the cause of the variance in stability, by the other solute species, is difficult to

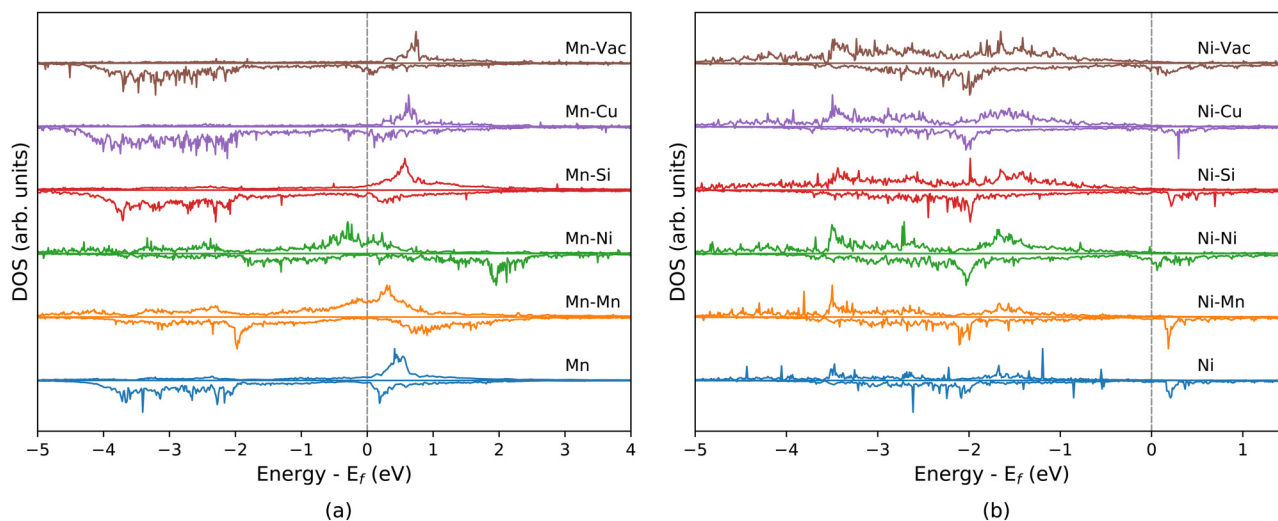


FIG. 5. Local density of states of (a) Mn and (b) Ni in *bcc* Fe when in 1nn positions to a vacancy, Cu, Si, Ni, or Mn atom. Dashed line denotes the Fermi energy.

observe locally. It is possible that the differing stability can be explained by the effective size of the solute species (related to d-band occupation), which provides some indication of the relative strain imposed on the system. Moreover, vacancies and Si are undersized, and Ni and Mn are oversized, when compared to the Fe lattice.^{57,80,81} Therefore, an alleviation of strain will be achieved by the combination of the former with the latter two.

In atom probe experiments, solute clusters are frequently found in welds and close to dislocation loops or grain boundaries.^{39,40,78,82,83} It should be noted that the analysis in this work does not consider strained environments such as those found near these regions nor the increased solute concentrations found in welds where Ni content can be up to 1.6 at. %.^{3,73} However, it is known that dislocations and grain boundaries act as sinks for vacancies and that Cu, Mn, Ni, and Si will enrich at grain boundaries due to vacancy drag and SIA migration (particularly for Mn);^{13,25,57,58,70} this, combined with the strong binding energies for triplet clusters including vacancies, will facilitate nucleation and growth of clusters in these regions.

C. Divacancy triplet clusters

As solute drag by vacancies has been found to be very strong at RPV temperatures for Mn, Si, Ni, and Cu,¹³ investigations have been made to better understand the binding between the solutes and vacancies by calculating the binding energies of triplets including two vacancies, see Fig. 6. Good agreement is found between our findings and those of previous works; clusters containing two vacancies and only one Ni or Mn are strongly bound and up to -0.25 eV more energetically favorable than Mn or Ni clusters containing only one vacancy, suggesting that if the vacancy concentration is high enough, Ni-Mn-vacancy clusters will readily form. For divacancy clusters containing Si or Cu, the binding energy is very strong, and in excess of -0.5 eV for the compact 1-1-2 configurations, so Si and Cu will strongly bind to vacancies and migrate via this pathway (more so than Ni and Mn), in agreement with previous work, which has found that solute drag is strong at RPV

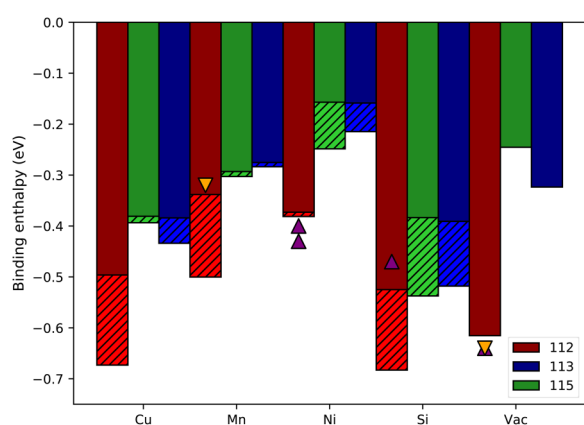


FIG. 6. Binding enthalpies of triplet clusters containing two vacancies, in the different configurations shown in Fig. 3 compared with previous works by Bakaev *et al.*⁴⁹ (orange inverted triangles) and Bonny *et al.*⁵⁰ (purple triangles).

temperature and drives the formation of solute-defect clusters.^{13,84} Indeed, Si and Cu divacancy triplets have stronger binding energies than pure vacancy triplets for all configurations studied, suggesting that there is a solute-vacancy synergy that can occur both ways, i.e., solutes can stabilize vacancy clusters as well as vacancies stabilizing solute clusters, in agreement with experimental observations that irradiation induced vacancies are stabilized by forming vacancy-solute complexes.⁴¹ However, from studies of triplet clusters alone, it is difficult to say whether Si and Cu may act as vacancy traps as previous works have found both that the presence of solutes can stabilize vacancy clusters,¹³ and also that large solute clusters (of Cu) are more mobile than single atoms.⁸⁵⁻⁸⁷

The findings from Secs. III B and III C suggest that locally, vacancies, Cu, and Si will aid initial cluster growth due to the attractive binding energy of triplets and pairs that include these species. However, in order to extrapolate further, higher order codes such as KMC are required to model larger system sizes and study cluster evolution and so it is suggested that these results are used in parameterization of future models. Due to the complexity of RPV alloys, there will be many distinct species present and clusters will also have significant Fe content^{20,86,87} and so when modeling triplet clusters, the configurational shape, chemistry, and ordering of the triplet is also important. Finally, considering there is strong evidence that interstitial loops can act as nucleation points for the growth of solute clusters,^{39,43,88} it is likely that the energetic drive for clustering is a combination of interstitial loops, Cu precipitates, and vacancy clusters.

D. Importance of three-body interaction

In order to model the evolution of solutes in the *bcc* Fe system, larger scale models, in particular KMC, have been used to study cluster growth. Due to the computational expense of the DFT calculations used to parameterize KMC codes, DFT-Monte Carlo simulations so far have only taken into account pairwise interactions, for example, Refs. 23–26. In this section, we address this issue by explicitly calculating the binding energies predicted from purely pairwise interactions and comparing them with the triplet binding energies.

Figure 7 quantifies error associated with the 3-body binding energy when only using the pairwise interactions given by Eq. (3) to describe triplet clusters. For the clusters containing no vacancies, the least deviations in binding energies are observed ($|\Delta E_b| < \sim 0.1$ eV); of those that deviate, the majority of the binding energies are underestimated by the pairwise calculations alone. Where one or two vacancies are present, all but two points in Fig. 7 show underestimates of the binding energies of up to 0.3 eV for both repulsion and attraction. Therefore, by only taking pairwise interactions into account in previous works, there will have been a bias for cluster formation around interstitial loops rather than vacancy clusters in KMC codes and a subsequent underestimation of the impact vacancy clusters can have on the nucleation and growth of solute clusters could have been made. Indeed, solute drag by vacancies is important for migration of all solutes under consideration¹³ as well as the role of SIAs. It is, therefore, reasonable to deduce that the three-body terms should be used for parameterization of future models in parallel with

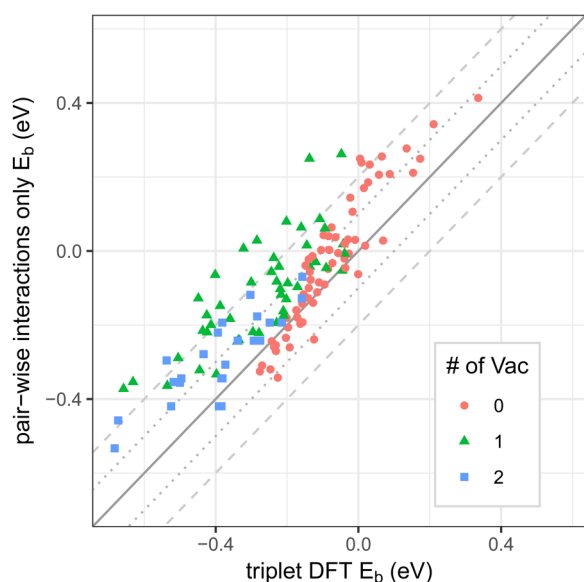


FIG. 7. Magnitude of three-body interaction in triplet clusters; defined as the difference in binding energies between explicit DFT calculation of triplets (x-axis) and combination of pairwise binding energies (also from DFT, y-axis). Color coded by number of vacancies in the cluster. Dotted and dashed lines represent the deviation of ± 0.1 eV and ± 0.2 eV, respectively.

the recent results from SIA models for a more accurate model of cluster behavior.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

To summarize, our main findings are:

1. Triplet clusters containing exclusively Mn and/or Ni are not energetically stable and so cluster growth will involve vacancies, Cu, Si, or SIAs.
2. All solutes bind strongly to vacancies and may act as vacancy traps; additionally, a synergetic effect is seen whereby solutes stabilize vacancy clusters (as well as vacancies stabilizing solute clusters).
3. Binding energies of triplet clusters predicted from purely pair binding energies are nearly all underestimated by not including a 3-body term and the underestimation is worse for triplets containing vacancies where differences of 0.3 eV were found. This will have led to a bias of formation of clusters on interstitial loops rather than vacancy clusters.
4. The energetics of the 3-body term (or explicitly calculated triplet energies) should be included in future KMC models to improve the accuracy of predictions as important energetics are neglected by only taking solute pairs into account.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

See the [supplementary material](#) for DFT binding energies of all triplets and pairs.

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