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Molecular dynamics simulations of microstructural evolution of irradiated $(U,Pu)O_2$ studied via simulated XRD patterns

Laurent Van Brutzel^{a,*}, Paul Fossati^a, Alain Chartier^a

^aUniversité Paris-Saclay, CEA, Service de la Corrosion et du Comportement des Matériaux dans leur Environnement, 91191, Gif-sur-Yvette, France

Abstract

Molecular dynamics simulations of microstructural evolution under irradiation of $(U,Pu)O_2$ solid solutions have been carried out with the Frenkel pair accumulation method with two empirical potentials. Simulated X-Ray diffraction patterns have been systematically generated along the irradiation pathway from the computed atomistic configurations. Description of the X-Ray diffraction patterns for each of these well characterized damage microstructure snapshots is discussed. Attempt to correlate the features of the X-Ray diffraction peaks with the microstructural evolution with irradiation dose is also provided. Special attention is dedicated to the swelling effect. *Keywords:* Molecular dynamics, MOX fuel, irradiation, XRD pattern

1 1. Introduction

² Mixed oxide nuclear fuel (MOx), composed primarily of uranium and ³ plutonium oxide, provides a significant percentage of the nuclear fuel used

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^{*}Corresponding author. Tel.: +33-169087915; Fax: +33-169089221

Email address: laurent.vanbrutzel@cea.fr (Laurent Van Brutzel)

in new Pressurized Water Reactors or in envisaged future Generation IV 4 nuclear plants. During its lifetime in these reactors, it undergoes chemical, 5 structural, and physical changes due mainly to high thermal gradient and 6 irradiation. One of the most important property which influences safety and 7 fuel design is the swelling effect. This increase in volume of the fuel occurs 8 under irradiation and is usually attributed to the creation of defects such 9 nanocavities or accumulation of fission products. To study this behaviour, 10 direct analysis of the sample density or X-Ray diffraction (XRD) are usually 11 carried out. Several XRD studies in UO_2 confirmed that lattice parameter 12 and microstrain increase with the increasing dose [1-5]. However, XRD pat-13 tern interpretation can be sometimes controversial due to the complexity of 14 the burnup fuel system. Moreover, heavy ions external irradiation techniques 15 on pristine fuel leads usually to a thin irradiated surface and an undefected 16 material underneath. For this type of sample, XRD analysis is difficult to 17 deconvolve. 18

Recently, combination of experimental XRD results and Molecular Dy-19 namic Simulations (MD) [6, 7] helps to sort out the different defect contri-20 butions of the XRD patterns in SiC and ZrC. In this article the authors 21 endeavour to deconvolve the elastic strain obtained from XRD with the dif-22 ferent defect contributions calculated from molecular dynamics simulations. 23 These atomistic simulations provide the microstructure evolution as a func-24 tion of the increasing dose via Frenkel pair accumulation method [11, 12]. 25 This method, consists on the accumulation of Frenkel pairs at regular time 26 intervals, which can recombine or reorganize into more complex extended 27 defects such as dislocation or nanocavity within a very short time. It thus

²⁹ probes the microstructure evolution created during the spontaneous defect
 ³⁰ reorganization regime.

In UO₂ Chartier *et al.* [8] and Jin *et al.* [5, 9] also attempt, using the same method, to deconvolve the global lattice parameter evolution as a function of irradiation dose with the different defect contributions. However, in these last studies the defects from the oxygen sub-lattice were not taken into account and relaxation volume for the uranium vacancy has to be hypothesis positive in order to fit the experimental results, which is in contradiction with abinitio calculations [10].

Following these studies, the same methodology is invoked herein to in-38 vestigate simulated XRD patterns from several well-characterized damaged 39 $(U,Pu)O_2$ solid solutions. The damaged configuration snapshots are cre-40 ated with the Frenkel pair accumulation method. Each configuration is 41 rigorously analysed and XRD patterns are systematically calculated using 42 the Debye scattering equation with the corresponding atomic coordinates. 43 This database of XRD patterns with corresponding well-defined damaged mi-44 crostructures can help the deconvolution and interpretation of experimental 45 XRD patterns from real physical systems. Furthermore, correlation between 46 the microstructure evolution in both cation and anion sub-lattices and the 47 simulated XRD patterns is also discussed. 48

The paper is organized as follow: section 2 describes briefly the methodology employed to irradiate the $(U,Pu)O_2$ solid solution and simulated the associated XRD patterns, section 3 describes the simulated XRD patterns and subsequently discusses the correlation between the microstructural evolution and the XRD pattern changes as a function of the increasing dose.

⁵⁴ 2. Computational method

55 2.1. Potential interactions

For this study we used Molecular Dynamics simulations to simulate the 56 evolution of the microstructure of $(U, Pu)O_2$ solid solution under increasing 57 radiation damage. All simulations have been performed via the LAMMPS 58 code [13]. The study herein concerns three $(U,Pu)O_2$ compositions: pure 59 uranium dioxide (UO₂), a mix with 50% uranium atoms ($U_{0.5}Pu_{0.5}O_2$), and 60 pure plutonium dioxide (PuO_2). It is known experimentally that the ternary 61 system $U_{1-x}Pu_xO_2$ forms an ideal solid solution for the full range of Pu 62 content and from room temperature to nearly melting point [14]. Therefore, 63 for the mix, the initial positions of the cations are randomly distributed into 64 the regular sites of the face-centered structure. All the initial structures 65 are the fluorite structure of space group Fm3m. The system box size is 66 $22 \times 22 \times 22$ nm³, involving 768 000 atoms. 67

MD simulations rely on the quality of the interatomic potential for ac-68 curate results; hence, we have investigated systematically two interatomic 69 potentials, in order to compare and contrast the results and estimate the 70 errors due to the interatomic models. The first set of potentials have been 71 developed by Potashnikov and al. [15] and will be referenced herein as MOX-72 07. Previous studies assessed thermodynamics and transport properties as 73 well as point defect formation energies for these potentials [16, 17]. The re-74 sults are in good agreement with experimental data however, they slightly 75 underestimate the bulk and shear moduli and show isotropic behaviour for 76 the elastic stiffness with a Zener's ratio close to 1. This is due to the fact 77 that these potentials have been fitted with experimental data coming from 78

polycrystal samples. The second set of potentials used herein have been 79 developed by Cooper et al. [18, 19] and will be coined CRG. These poten-80 tials provide also really good thermodynamic and transport properties as 81 well as mechanical properties with anisotropic behaviour for the elastic stiff-82 ness. This potential reproduces also accurately the thermal conductivity and 83 heat capacity, which are related to anharmonic effects [20]. However, they 84 yields to metastable configurations under irradiation in the oxygen sublat-85 tice, which imposes longer simulations before stability is reached [17]. This 86 made them less handy to use for irradiation studies. 87

The long-range Coulombic interactions is calculated via the particleparticle/particle-mesh (PPPM) method provided in the LAMMPS code [21].

90 2.2. Modelling irradiation dose

At the atomistic length scale, irradiation events lead mainly to electronic 91 excitation but also to the creation of point defects such as vacancies or in-92 terstitials. As the irradiation dose increases, these point defects accumulate 93 and aggregate to change the microstructure. It is these changes that we are 94 trying to describe with MD simulations. Usually in MD simulations, irradia-95 tion damage is performed by modelling displacement cascades. This type of 96 simulation is computationally expensive but gives a fairly good description 97 of the full process of an irradiation event including the thermal spike and 98 the structural recovery. However, it describes only the primary damage of 99 one single event, which mainly consists in the case of MOx fuel of few point 100 defects as shown in previous studies [17]. Therefore, in order to study the 101 dose effect (accumulation of damage), we use an alternative method: the 102 Frenkel Pair Accumulation Method (FPA) [11, 12]. This method consists 103

on introducing periodically and consistently Frenkel pair defects, while the
structure is continuously allowed to relax under constant pressure and temperature. Here, the introduced Frenkel pairs mimic the remaining damage
after displacement cascades. In that respect, this method corresponds to
the accumulation of the final stage of displacement cascades within the same
volume.

Previously Chartier *et al.* [8] showed that the oxygen sublattice seems 110 to follow the cation disorder. Consequently, only cation Frenkel pairs (C-111 FP) are introduced in order to reduce the computational time. The time 112 interval between two subsequent C-FP introductions is set to 2 ps. This 113 time is large enough to allow spontaneous C-FP recombination, which has 114 no dependence with the temperature and for which the distance between 115 the vacancy and the interstitial is up to 1.5 nm corresponding to the 5^{th} 116 cation nearest-neighbour [16, 22]. We have checked that within the time-lapse 117 between two FP introductions the temperature and pressure of the system 118 reach the desired values and that just expected thermal fluctuation occurs. 110 The system is then considered stabilized enough to permit the introduction 120 of the next set of defects. All the simulations have been carried out at room 121 temperature (300 K) and 0 GPa. Due to the high increase in energy arising 122 from each FP introduction, the NPT relaxation for this FPA procedure is 123 done with the Berendsen algorithm provided by the LAMMPS code [23]. 124

Each C-FP introduction sequence involves the creation of 700 FPs for the MOX-07 potential and 300 for the CRG potential within the simulation box. Because the defect recombination time is higher for CRG potential, less FPs can be introduced within the same time interval. It is also worth noticing that this number corresponds approximatively to the remaining number of
Frenkel pairs remaining after a displacement cascade simulation initiated
with a primary knock-on atom energy of 80 keV [17].

A common way to measure irradiation dose on materials is the use of 132 displacements per atom (dpa). This is also a very simple metric from the 133 atomistic simulations point of view. It is defined simply by the number of 134 displacements (on average) of one atom, which exactly corresponds to what is 135 simulated with the FPA method. Since in our study only C-FPs are created, 136 we express the dose in displacements per cation (MD-dpc) rather than the 137 classic dpa. Therefore, for each C-FP introduction, the dose is increased by 138 1.17×10^{-3} MD-dpc and 2.73×10^{-3} MD-dpc for CRG and MOX-07 potentials 139 respectively. It is worth noting that this unit of dose does not correspond 140 directly to the experimental dpa unit of dose, which is usually calculated 141 via SRIM calculations. Straight quantitative comparison between both units 142 should not be considered. Nonetheless, increasing MD-dpc indicates that 143 the number of displaced atoms increases and hence that the irradiation dose 144 increases as well. 145

The analysis of the structural evolution is carried out using OVITO software [24]. We determined the dislocation density with the DXA algorithm provided in OVITO and examined the point defects with a fine structural detection via a homemade software, ACME [25]. This last method was chosen over the Wigner-Seitz or the Voronoi cell analysis because numerous disoriented fluorite subdomains appear during the simulation.

152 2.3. Simulated XRD pattern

Beside the analysis of the point defects and the dislocations, we are gen-153 erating simulated X-Ray powder diffraction (XRD) patterns via the Debyer 154 software [26] from irradiated configurations. During the FPA procedure, 155 sampling of irradiated configurations are saved. These configurations are 156 systematically relaxed for 20 ps under constant temperature (300 K) and 157 constant pressure (0 GPa) with the Parrinello and Rahman algorithm [27] 158 in order to further anneal the system and eliminate any residual unstable 159 defects. Subsequently, the simulated XRD patterns are calculated with the 160 atomic coordinates averaged over the last 5 ps of the relaxation. The defect 161 analysis is also carried out at this stage. XRD patterns are calculated simply 162 using the Debye scattering equation: 163

$$I(Q) = \sum_{i} \sum_{j} f_i f_j \frac{\sin(Qr_{ij})}{Qr_{ij}}$$
(1)

where Q is the scattering vector defined as: $Q = |\mathbf{Q}| = 4\pi \sin \theta / \lambda$, where θ is the diffraction half-angle and λ is the wavelength, ($\lambda = 1.5406$ Å). $r_{ij} = |\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_j|$ is the distance between atoms i and j, and f_i is the atomic scattering factor of the i^{th} atom.

Because our simulation uses periodic boundary conditions ("infinite" bulk material) a cut-off radius is applied to limit the number of atomic pairs accounted in the Debye formula. Only pairs with distances inferior to this radius are considered. However, a correction term is added to avoid large sinusoid. Therefore, the normalized intensity of the scattered wave becomes:

$$I(Q)/N = f^2 \left\{ \frac{1}{N} \left[\sum_{i} \sum_{j, r_{ij} < R_c} \frac{\sin(Qr_{ij})}{Qr_{ij}} \right] + \frac{4\pi\rho}{Q^3} \left[QR_c \cos(QR_c) - \sin(QR_c) \right] \right\}$$
(2)

where R_c is the cut-off radius equals in our simulation to half the box size, *i.e.* 11 nm.

The resulting simulated XRD patterns are further analysed with Fityk software [28] in order to identify the feature of the different peaks. It appears that the best fit for the peaks in our simulated XRD pattern is Gaussian function.

¹⁷⁹ 3. Results and discussion

180 3.1. Microstructure evolution with irradiation dose

Before presenting the simulated XRD patterns as a function of the irra-181 diation dose, it is important to describe the evolution of the microstructure 182 and the nature of the associated damage with the irradiation dose. Figure 1 183 depicts the point defect evolution (vacancies and interstitials) and the dis-184 location density as a function of dose expressed in MD-dpc for the three 185 Pu contents studied (0%, 50%, and 100%) at 300 K for the MOX-07 poten-186 tials. Likewise, Figure 2 depicts the same results for the CRG potential. To 187 illustrate the type of damage created, snapshots of the simulation in UO_2 188 analysed with the DXA tool from OVITO are also displayed. As previously 189 detailed for UO₂ [8] and for the $U_{1-x}Pu_xO_2$ solid solution [17] carried out at 190

¹⁹¹ 1600 K, we show that the evolution of the microstructure in these materials
¹⁹² mainly follows a five-stage process:

- For doses lower than 0.2 MD-dpc, isolated point defects are first cre ated. This is demonstrated by a rapid increase of the number of va cancies and interstitials (highlighted by the pink area in Figure 1 and
 Figure 2). It is noteworthy that within this stage the number of vacan cies is equal the number of interstitials because only isolated Frenkel
 pairs are created.
- 2. Subsequently and up to 0.5 MD-dpc, for the MOX-07 potential the number of interstitials decreases rapidly while the number of vacancy continues to increase steadily. This indicates that most of the interstitials aggregate into clusters while the vacancies remain isolated. For CRG potential, UO_2 compounds follows the same behaviour. In the mix and pure PuO_2 the decrease of the interstitials is less pronounced yet still occurs while the number of vacancies seems to stabilize.
- 3. For the MOX-07 potential, the interstitial clusters nucleate mostly into
 Frank loops as demonstrated by the peak density of Frank loops highlighted in blue in Figure 2. For the CRG potential this stage seems to
 be skipped as almost no Frank loops are created.
- 4. Around 0.5 MD-dpc, for the MOX-07 potential the Frank loops transform into perfect dislocations whereas for the CRG potential the interstitial clusters form perfect dislocations directly.
- 5. Subsequently, for both potentials, the density of perfect dislocations decreases even if for the mix with CRG is less abrupt indicating in that case a growth of the small loops. After about 2 MD-dpc a steady

state is reached and dislocations reorganize into forest of dislocations creating few disoriented nanodomains.



Figure 1: Evolution of the number of point defects and dislocation density as a function of dose for the MOX-07 potential at 300 K. Three snapshots of the simulation box of UO_2 analysed with the DXA tool from OVITO are also displayed to illustrate the damage. In these figures the grey dots at 0.02 MD-dpc represent the track of the point defects. For clarity only the dislocation lines are represented in the figure at 0.3, 0.8, and 2.5 MD-dpc (dark blue: perfect loop, cyan: Frank loops, green: Shockley partials, and red: Stair-Rod).

Even if there is a quasi-absence of Frank loops generation with the CRG potential the damage process evolution is roughly similar with both potentials. However, it is worth noticing that with CRG potential the Pu content has some influence. Namely, as the Pu content increases the total density of dislocation loops decreases and the peak in the dislocation density appears

216



Figure 2: Evolution of the number of point defects and dislocation density as a function of dose for the CRG potential at 300 K. Three snapshots of the simulation box of IO_2 analysed with the DXA tool from OVITO are also displayed to illustrate the damage. In these figures the atoms in fluorite crystallographic position are removed for clarity. The grey dots at 0.02 and 0.2 MD-dpc represent the track of the point defects. In the last two snapshots at 0.9and 2.5 MD-dpc only the dislocation lines are represented for clarity (dark blue: perfect loop, cyan: Frank loops, green: Shockley partials).

for higher dose. This could indicate either that the formation of dislocation loops is easier with low Pu content or that with this potential the characteristic time for the formation of dislocation loops assisted by spontaneous reorganization of defects is slower.

In the following this five-stage process will be reduced into three main domains of microstructures. The first one from 0 to 0.2 MD-dpc highlighted in pink in figures denotes the isolated point defects microstructure, the sec-

ond one appearing only with the MOX-07 potential from 0.2 to 0.5 MD-dpc 230 highlighted in blue represents the microstructure dominated by Frank loops, 231 and the third one from 0.5 to 2.5 MD-dpc highlighted in light grey desig-232 nated microstructures containing mainly perfect dislocations. It is important 233 noticing that in this last microstructure numerous point defects, principally 234 vacancies, are remaining. After analysing the spatial distribution of these 235 vacancies, we found that 50% of the vacancies are isolated (mono-vacancy) 236 however about 25% form bi- or tri-vacancy clusters. The remaining 25% is 237 distributed among larger clusters that could include more than 30 vacancies 238 for both potentials forming nanocavities. 239

The damaged microstructures is here generated by the reorganization of 240 close defects over a very short time-scale. This microstructural evolution, 241 considered as spontaneous, involves sometime complex pathways that could 242 be thermally activated. However, diffusion kinetics over long distances of 243 extended defect, such as dislocations or nanocavities is out of reach with the 244 time frame of the MD simulations. Nevertheless, simple order-of-magnitude 245 calculation based on the characteristic distance between displaced atoms es-246 timated from typical dose rate compared to characteristic self-diffusion dis-247 tance shows that defects anneal mainly by close defect interactions. As a 248 matter of fact, characteristic distance between two displaced atoms can be 249 determined by $d = (V_{at}/K)^{1/3}$, where V_{at} is the atomic volume (13.6 Å in 250 MOx) and K is the dose rate (typically around 10^{-3} dpa.s⁻¹). This distance 251 within one second is equal to approximately 3 nm. On the other hand, cation 252 irradiation-induced solid-state diffusion is generally taken from Matzke rec-253 ommendation [29] and is expressed as: $D = 1.2 \times 10^{-39} \dot{F} \text{ m}^2 \text{.s}^{-1}$, where \dot{F} is 254

the fission rate. Fission rate calculated by T. Sekine et al. [30] using Monte-255 Carlo simulations in MOx fuel ranges from 10^{11} to 10^{14} fission.m⁻³.s⁻¹. This 256 yields to diffusion coefficient close to $D = 1.2 \times 10^{-25} \text{ m}^2 \text{.s}^{-1}$, for the highest. 257 The cation characteristic distance travelled by diffusion within one second is 258 then approximatively equal to 0.003 nm, which is a thousand times smaller 259 than the characteristic distance between defects. Therefore, recombination 260 regime handled by our MD simulations plays a significant role on the forma-261 tion of the damaged microstructure. Consequently, the damaged structural 262 configurations studied herein should be representative of some first stage 263 damages of the real system. 264

265 3.2. Simulated XRD patterns

As mentioned above, for each configuration saved and relaxed as the irra-266 diation dose increases a simulated XRD pattern is generated with the Debyer 267 software. About a hundred configurations are investigated for each com-268 pound and for both interatomic potentials. The XRD patterns are generated 269 for diffraction angles from $2\theta = 20^{\circ}$ to $2\theta = 90^{\circ}$. As an illustration of these 270 results, figures 3(a) and 3(b) display 3D plots of the simulated XRD patterns 271 in UO_2 as a function of dose in MD-dpc from configurations calculated with 272 the MOX-07 and the CRG potential respectively. 273

Overall, the main behaviour of the XRD patterns is the same for both interatomic potentials. All the XRD patterns are rather well defined without any background noise, which eases the analysing of the peaks. No change of phase is found as the irradiation dose increases. However, changes appear in the intensity, the full width at half maximum (FWHM), and in the position of the peaks, *i.e.* the diffraction angle for the peak maxima.



Figure 3: 3D representations of the simulated XRD patterns of UO_2 as a function of irradiation dose from configurations calculated with (a) MOX-07 potential and (b) CRG potential. It is worth noticing that the scale for the doses is not linear.

To illustrate more precisely these changes, the relative intensity defined 280 as the intensity at a certain dose divided by the intensity of the pristine ma-281 terial (*i.e.* I(MD-dpc)/I(0)) for the most intense peak at the Miller indices 282 (111) is reported in figure 4(a) for all the compounds and for both em-283 pirical potentials. For all the compounds calculated with MOX-07 and for 284 UO_2 calculated with CRG, the diffraction peaks intensity decreases as the 285 irradiation dose increases until approximatively 0.5 to 0.7 MD-dpc before in-286 creasing back and reaching a plateau. For $U_{0.5}Pu_{0.5}O_2$ and PuO_2 calculated 287 with CRG, the intensities decrease and reach a plateau around 1.2 MD-dpc 288 like the others compounds. 289

An other interesting feature of the peaks is the evolution of the FWHM, which is reported in figure 4(b). Peak broadening in the case of one phase single crystal usually indicates microstrains, which are related to the formation of defects in the crystal structure such as dislocation or stacking faults. For this feature, we observe an increase and a drop with a maximum around 0.6-0.7 MD-dpc followed by a plateau at around 1.5 MD-dpc for all the com-



Figure 4: Evolution as a function of irradiation dose of (a) the relative intensity (I(MD-dpc)/I(0)), (b) the relative full width at half maximum (FWHM(MD-dpc)/FWHM(0)), and (c) the relative lattice parameter (a(MD-dpc)-a(0))/a(0)) calculated of the peak of Miller indices (111) for UO₂, MOx (U_{0.5}Pu_{0.5}O₂), and PuO₂ calculated with both empirical potentials.

²⁹⁶ pounds calculated with MOX-07 and UO₂ calculated with CRG. Conversely, ²⁹⁷ for $U_{0.5}Pu_{0.5}O_2$ and PuO_2 calculated with CRG, the FWHM increases till ²⁹⁸ about 1.2 MD-dpc where it plateaus.

The evolution of the relative lattice parameter calculated from the first most intense peak at the Miller indices (111) is reported in figure 4(c). The relative lattice parameter is defined as [a(MD-dpc)-a(0)]/a(0), where a(MD-dpc) is the lattice parameter at a given irradiation dose. The lattice parameter for a given irradiation dose is calculated with the following 304 equation:

$$a(hkl) = \frac{\lambda\sqrt{h^2 + k^2 + l^2}}{2\sin(\theta/2)} \tag{3}$$

where λ is the wavelength and hkl the Miller indices of the peak, here 305 $\sqrt{h^2 + k^2 + l^2} = \sqrt{3}$. This quantity can be directly related to the swelling of 306 the material. Conversely to the relative intensity, all the lattice parameter 307 first increases to reach a maximum then drops to a plateau at higher doses. 308 This means that the material initially swells before shrinking and then sta-309 bilizes but yet to a lattice parameter higher than its original parameter. The 310 maximum of swelling is found for the compounds calculated with MOX-07 311 around 0.4 MD-dpc. For those calculated with CRG, the maximum is ob-312 served around 0.6 to 0.7 MD-dpc. For $U_{0.5}Pu_{0.5}O_2$ and PuO_2 the relative 313 lattice parameters decrease like for the other system However, it decreases 314 at a slower rate reaching its plateau around 1 MD-dpc. 315

Overall, the main behaviour of the simulated XRD pattern is similar for both potentials, even if with the CRG potential the Pu content is much more pronounced.

319 3.3. Correlation with microstructure evolution

All these features are interesting because they show that the evolution with the increasing dose is rather complex with probably different microstructure influence. In the following, we will try to correlate these behaviours with the microstructural evolution involved in our simulated irradiated systems.

After some investigations, it appears clearly that the FWHM features are directly correlated with the evolution of the perfect dislocation loops (Burger's vector: $b=a/2\langle 110\rangle$). To illustrate this hypothesis, we plot on the

same graph in figure 5 the FWHM and the density of dislocation loops as a 327 function of irradiation dose. For clarity, the results calculated from both em-328 pirical potentials are displayed in two different figures: 5(a) for MOX-07 and 329 5(b) for CRG. In these figures the curves of the perfect dislocation density 330 follow the exact shape of the FWHM curves for both potentials. Differences 331 only appear on the relative amplitude for the $U_{0.5}Pu_{0.5}O_2$ compounds for 332 both potentials and for PuO_2 with the CRG potential. It also appears that 333 there is no correlation with the Frank loop density for the compound calcu-334 lated with MOX-07. For compounds calculated with CRG, the Frank loop 335 density is very small; hence comparison is difficult. However, this behaviour 336 indicates that the broadening of the simulated XRD peaks are mainly due 337 to the presence of microstrains generated by perfect dislocations surround-338 ing the disorientated nanodomains. As the irradiation dose increases, the 339 number of perfect dislocation segments decrease resulting in the diminution 340 of the number of nanodomains but an increase of their size. Indeed, at the 341 highest irradiation dose only a few nanodomains remain, separated by few 342 long lines of perfect dislocations (see figure 1 and figure 2 at 2.5 MD-dpc). 343 This microstructure evolution toward fewer defects of nanometre size yields 344 to the release of the local strain and subsequently to sharpener peaks into 345 the simulated XRD patterns. 346

For intermediate irradiation doses (*i.e.* 0.4-0.5 MD-dpc), new small peaks appear in the simulated XRD patterns calculated with the MOX-07 potentials. An example of this pattern is displayed in figure 6(a) where the extra small peaks are underlined with arrows. They are all located to the right of the classical peaks of the fluorite structure. After investigation, these peaks



Figure 5: Evolution as a function of irradiation dose of the density of dislocation loops and fwhm calculated from the (111) peaks of the simulated XRD patterns for (a) compounds calculated with MOX-07 and (b) compounds calculated with CRG.

do not appear as artefacts of the simulation but seem rather directly cor-352 related with the density of Frank loops. In figure 6(b), we reported on the 353 same graph the maximum intensity of the new peak at around $2\theta = 29^{\circ}$ 354 corresponding to the first arrow in the figure 6(a) and the evolution of the 355 dislocation densities for both Frank loops and perfect loops. The intensity of 356 this new peaks follows almost perfectly the shape of the Frank loop densities 357 for all the compounds. It is also important to notice that no new peak is 358 detected on the simulated XRD patterns calculated with the CRG potential 359 for which very few Frank loops are found. Since these new peaks follow the 360 regular fluorite peaks, they could be interpreted as a fluorite-like structure 361 with a smaller lattice parameter (e.g. for the configuration in figure 6(a), the 362 lattice parameter of the small peaks is approximatively equal to a = 5.3 Å 363 instead of a = 5.5 Å for the regular peaks.). These fluorite-like structures 364 could then correspond to the structure inside a Frank loop, which is more 365

³⁶⁶ constrained than in the bulk leading to smaller lattice parameter.



Figure 6: (a) Close up of the simulated XRD pattern of UO₂ calculated with MOX-07 potential at 0.4 MD-dpc. The arrows indicate the position of the new peaks found for this configuration. (b) Evolution as a function of irradiation dose of the density of dislocation loops and the maximum intensity of the new peak at around $2\theta = 29^{\circ}$ corresponding to the first arrow in the figure 6(a).

Another interesting feature that can be analysed from XRD pattern is the evolution of the lattice parameter, which gives an indication of the swelling of the material under irradiation. We already computed the evolution of the lattice parameter as a function of the increasing irradiation dose in figure 4(c). We now compare these graphs for UO_2 with the theoretical expansions derived from each defect relaxation volume contributions as the following equation:

$$\frac{\Delta a}{a_0} = \frac{1}{3} \left[C_{\text{int.}}(\mathbf{U}) \frac{V_{\text{int.}}^{\text{rel.}}(\mathbf{U})}{\Omega} + C_{\text{vac.}}(\mathbf{U}) \frac{V_{\text{vac.}}^{\text{rel.}}(\mathbf{U})}{\Omega} + C_{\text{int.}}(\mathbf{O}) \frac{V_{\text{int.}}^{\text{rel.}}(\mathbf{O})}{\Omega} + C_{\text{vac.}}(\mathbf{O}) \frac{V_{\text{vac.}}^{\text{rel.}}(\mathbf{O})}{\Omega} \right] + \frac{\pi b^2}{4} \rho_{\text{perfect}} + \frac{b\bar{R}_{\text{Frank}}}{2} \rho_{\text{Frank}} \quad (4)$$

where $C_{\text{int.}}$ and $C_{\text{vac.}}$ are is the interstitial and the vacancy concentrations 374 (respectively), V^{rel} is the relaxation volume of each defect expressed in atomic 375 volume unit Ω , b is the Burger's vector associated to the type of loop (*i.e.* 376 $b = a/\sqrt{2}$ for perfect loops and $b = a/\sqrt{3}$ for Frank loops), \bar{R}_{Frank} is the 377 average radius size of the Frank loops found in our simulation (2 nm), and 378 ρ is the dislocation density expressed in m⁻². The defect concentrations 379 and dislocation densities are directly calculated from the MD simulations, 380 relaxation volumes of each defect are taken from the DFT calculations carried 381 out by Bruneval et al. [10]. The values of all the relaxation volumes are 382 reported in the table 1. 383

$V_{\rm int.}^{\rm rel}(U)/\Omega$	$V_{\rm vac.}^{\rm rel}(U)/\Omega$	$V_{\rm int.}^{\rm rel}(O)/\Omega$	$V_{\rm vac.}^{\rm rel}(O)/\Omega$
1.02	-0.23	0.02	0.175

Table 1: Relaxation volume of point defects calculated with DFT by Bruneval *et al.* [10] in UO_2 .

Figure 7(a) and (b) report the comparison of the lattice parameter expansion as a function of irradiation dose between those found with the simulated XRD in UO₂ and the theoretical values calculated with the equation 4. Only UO_2 compounds have been investigated because to our knowledge the relaxation volume of defects in MOx or PuO₂ have not been yet calculated. However, we hypothesis that their behaviour would follow the one of UO₂.



Figure 7: Theoretical contribution of the different defects to the relative lattice parameter [a(MD-dpc)-a(0)]/a(0) corresponding to the swelling as a function of irradiation dose calculated with (a) MOX-07 and (b) CRG potentials. These contribution are compared with the relative lattice parameter calculated from the simulated XRD.

The sum of all the contribution fits quite nicely the expansion calculated 390 from the simulated XRD patterns for both empirical potentials. For both 391 cases, the main contribution of the expansion arises from the uranium inter-392 stitials followed by the oxygen vacancies, and for MOX-07 the Frank loops 393 plays also an important part of the expansion. It is worth noticing that 394 this finding is different from what has been previously reported in UO_2 by 395 Chartier et al. [8] or by Jin et al. [9] who calculated this expansion com-396 parison with another empirical potential and did not take into account the 397 oxygen defect contributions. Moreover, in their study, the values of the re-398 laxation volumes were also different especially for the uranium vacancy for 399

which the relaxation volume is positive. Nevertheless, the main contribution
of the expansion remains the cation interstitials.

The swelling of the material under irradiation can also be directly measured experimentally by the volume increase of the irradiated sample. Identical procedure can be applied to our MD boxes. We measure directly the box expansion as a function of increasing dose. Figure 8(a) reports this evolution. For comparison the expansion calculated from XRD are also displayed in the same graph.



Figure 8: (a) Evolution of the relative lattice parameters [a(MD-dpc)-a(0)]/a(0) as a function of irradiation dose calculated from the simulated XRD pattern (symbols) and from the direct expansion of the simulation MD boxes (straight lines). (b) Evolution of the percentage of vacancies embedded in vacancy cluster of minimum size 3 as a function of irradiation dose. Both graphs report the results for UO₂, (U,Pu)O₂ solid solution noted MOx, and PuO₂ calculated with the MOX-07 and CRG potentials.

Differences between both types of measurement appear clearly. For the doses corresponding to the point defect regime (*i.e.* area in pink in figures 1 and 2) the expansion is identical. However, for higher doses corresponding to what we have referred as the dislocation regime (*i.e.* area in blue and grey in figures 1 and 2) the expansion calculated directly with the MD box

continues to increase and reaches a plateau after approximatively 1 MD-dpc. 413 This behaviour does not correlate with the theoretical expansion calculated 414 with the equation 4. Nonetheless, it seems to correspond with the evolution 415 of the vacancy densities reported in figures 1 and 2. Furthermore, vacancy 416 clustering analysis, namely the number of vacancies that are embedded into 417 vacancy cluster larger than bi-vacancies, shows that up to 30% of the va-418 cancies are not isolated at high doses, see figure 8(b). The maximum size of 419 these vacancy clusters is found to be between 30 to 50 vacancies correspond-420 ing to nanocavities of 1 to 1.5 nm diameter. We believe that this is these 421 nanocavities that impose the MD box to swell but their influence does not 422 appear in the expansion of the XRD pattern because it does not affect much 423 the surrounding matrix lattice parameter. 424

425 4. Conclusions

Molecular dynamics simulations have been carried out to investigate the 426 evolution with irradiation dose of the microstructure of $(U, Pu)O_2$ solid so-427 lutions. Irradiation damage is created using the Frenkel pair accumulation 428 method and assessed with two empirical potentials. One, MOX-07, gives 429 good results on the point defects formation energy; while the other, CRG, 430 provides better results on the mechanical properties. Overall, both potentials 431 provide the same behaviour even if the CRG potential is influenced more by 432 the presence of Pu content. 433

Along the irradiation pathway, each microstructure created with spontaneous reorganization of defects is analysed directly by determining the point defects and dislocation densities and by calculating the X-Ray diffraction patterns. Since the atomic configuration is well defined within the molecular
dynamics simulations, correlation between the simulated X-Ray diffraction
patterns and the microstructure evolution could be established. This provides a database, which can help the interpretation and/or to deconvolve the
experimental XRD patterns of real physical irradiated MOx.

Unsurprisingly, we found that the full width at half maximum of the XRD 442 peaks are directly correlated to the perfect dislocation loop density. The 443 increase of the FWHM corresponds usually to an increase of the microstrain, 444 which is related herein to the creation of small disoriented nanodomains. 445 More unexpected, small peaks appear on the simulated XRD patterns for 446 intermediate irradiation doses and seem directly correlated to the Frank loop 447 density. These small peaks represent in our simulation the track of a fluorite-448 like structure embedded within the Frank loops. Moreover, this structure-like 449 has a smaller lattice parameter and corresponding to fluorite structure under 450 compression stress. This needs to be confirmed, yet it could be a method to 451 measure the Frank loop density, which is hard to characterize experimentally 452 due to the small sizes of these loops. 453

Finally, the swelling under irradiation have been investigated. The dilatation found with the XRD pattern mainly originates from the presence of the cation interstitials and the oxygen vacancies and to a lesser extent from the frank loop density when it exists. However, the dilation calculated directly from the dimension of the simulation box is mainly due to the creation of nanocavities.

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