

Revealing the role of oxygen on the defect evolution of electron-irradiated tungsten: A combined experimental and simulation study

Zhiwei Hu, Qigui Yang, François Jomard, Pierre Desgardin, Cécile Genevois, Jérôme Joseph, Pär Olsson, Thomas Jourdan, Marie-France Barthe

▶ To cite this version:

Zhiwei Hu, Qigui Yang, François Jomard, Pierre Desgardin, Cécile Genevois, et al.. Revealing the role of oxygen on the defect evolution of electron-irradiated tungsten: A combined experimental and simulation study. Journal of Nuclear Materials, 2024, 602, pp.155353. 10.1016/j.jnucmat.2024.155353 . cea-04682709

HAL Id: cea-04682709 https://cea.hal.science/cea-04682709

Submitted on 30 Aug 2024

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

- 1 Revealing the role of oxygen on the defect evolution of electron-
- 2 irradiated tungsten: A combined experimental and simulation study
- 3 Zhiwei Hu^a, Qigui Yang ^{b, e, f}, François Jomard ^c, Pierre Desgardin ^a, Cécile Genevois ^a, Jérôme
- 4 Joseph ^a, Pär Olsson ^b, Thomas Jourdan ^{d, *}, Marie-France Barthe ^{a, *}
- ^a CEMHTI, CNRS, UPR3079, University of Orléans, F-45071 Orléans, France
- 6 b KTH Royal Institute of Technology, Nuclear Engineering, Roslagstullsbacken 21, 114 21
- 7 Stockholm, Sweden
- 8 ° Groupe d'Etude de la Matière Condensée, CNRS, UVSQ, 45 avenue des Etats-Unis, 78035
- 9 Versailles cedex, France
- 10 d' Université Paris-Saclay, CEA, Service de recherche en Corrosion et Comportement des Matériaux,
- 11 SRMP, F-91191 Gif-sur-Yvette, France
- 12 ^e Institute of High Energy Physics, CAS, 100049 Beijing, China
- 13 f China Spallation Neutron Source, Institute of High Energy Physics, CAS, Dongguan 523803, China

14 Keywords

- 15 Tungsten, Electron irradiation, First-principles calculations, Cluster dynamics, Frenkel pairs
- 16 recombination, O-vacancy complexes, Positron annihilation spectroscopy

17 Abstract

The evolution of Frenkel pairs has been studied experimentally and theoretically in 18 tungsten, a Body-Centered Cubic metal. We used positron annihilation spectroscopy to 19 characterize vacancy defects induced by electron irradiation in two sets of polycrystalline 20 21 tungsten samples at room temperature. Doppler Broadening spectrometry showed that some positrons were trapped at pure single vacancies with a lower concentration than expected. At 22 the same time, positron annihilation lifetime spectroscopy revealed that positrons are 23 annihilated in unexpected states with a lifetime 1.44-1.64 times shorter than that of single 24 vacancy (200 ps), namely unidentified (X) defects. Secondary ions mass spectrometry detected 25 a significant concentration of oxygen in these samples, of the same order of magnitude as 26 electron-induced single vacancy. In addition, Cluster dynamics simulated defect behaviors 27 under experimental conditions, and Two-component density functional theory was used to 28 calculate defect annihilation characteristics that are difficult to obtain in experiments. Finally, 29

by combining the theoretical data, we simulated the positron signals and compared them with the experimental data. This enabled us to elucidate the interactions between oxygen and Frenkel Pairs. The X defects were identified as oxygen-vacancy complexes formed during irradiation, as oxygen is mobile in tungsten at room temperature, and can be trapped in a vacancy, while its binding to self-ion atoms leads to their immobilization thus reducing defect recombination. Therefore, we anticipate oxygen to play an important role in the evolution of tungsten microstructure under irradiation.

1. Introduction

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

Refractory metals are essential in future nuclear industrial infrastructure, thanks to their high melting point, high thermal conductivity, and low sputtering rate. For instance, tungsten and its alloys [1-5] are the most mentioned candidates as plasma-facing components and divertor in fusion applications [3,4,6]. In future fusion power plants, they will be exposed to high fluxes of Hydrogen (H) and Helium atoms and will have to withstand intense neutron irradiation. Such extreme conditions modify the crystal structure, displacing atoms from their initial lattice sites, and creating Frenkel pairs (FPs) i.e. a displaced self-interstitial atom (SIA), leaving a vacant site (single vacancy, V₁). The diffusion and interaction of FPs induce other defects (voids, dislocation loops, vacancy complexes, etc.), at the origin of microstructure evolution [7], which is harmful to materials [8–11], degrades their properties [8,12], and then limits reactor performance [13–15]. Hence, understanding microstructural evolution is a preliminary step towards improving, adapting materials, and extending the active service life of future fusion power plants. Electron irradiation is an efficient method to induce isolated FPs in metallic materials and can be used to study defect properties in detail. Was and Allen claimed that the FP production rate is near 100 % in nickel (Ni) with 1 MeV electron [16]. Numerous resistivity recovery (RR) experiments on electron-irradiated metals were realized in the 70s-80s [17–19], revealing the different defect evolution stages, in which Stage I was attributed to the migration of SIAs. In iron, Body-Centered Cubic (BCC) metal, Takaki et *al.* [20] isolated two sub-stages of Stage I, i.e. I_{D2}, and I_E, corresponding to the recombination of correlated and uncorrelated FPs. Twenty years later, Fu et *al.*[21] have obtained similar results by performing simulations based on kinetic Monte Carlo. For Face-Centered Cubic (FCC) metals, RR experiments in electron-irradiated platinum showed a recombination fraction of 63 % for non-correlated FPs [22]. In tungsten, due to the high mobility of SIAs, a non-negligible population of electron-induced FPs should be recombined. However, the recombination rate (*Rc*) in this material is still an unsolved issue.

Furthermore, light-element impurities (LEs) may play an important role on the defect evolution. Lu et *al.* [23,24] summarized numerous theoretical works and showed that vacancy-oxygen (O) and carbon (C) complexes can bind with hydrogen (H) atoms and act as H-trapping sites. These complexes can be germs for clustering of H which is considered as the origin of the blisters observed in tungsten [25,26].

Experimentally, we also demonstrated that LEs act on the evolution of vacancy-type defects in self-ion irradiated tungsten [27]. While the effect of C [28,29] has been addressed in numerous works, the effect of O on the behavior of defects in tungsten has yet to be studied, particularly with experimental methods. In vanadium, Zhang et al.[30] argued that the hardening induced by dislocation accumulation is not sufficient to explain their experimental data suggesting that the missing strain hardening component is due to oxygen-vacancy complexes and conclude that detection of such defects is very challenging.

Positron annihilation spectroscopy (PAS) was demonstrated to be a well-adapted technique to characterize vacancy-type defects [31,32]. The complementarity of Doppler Broadening and lifetime spectroscopies makes it possible to quantify the vacancy defects and access their nature using simulation [33–35]. Accordingly, in the present work, we have combined theoretical and

experimental studies to better understand the properties of defects and the impact of O on the PAS signals and defect recombination. We investigated the behavior of FPs in a typical BCC metal, i.e. tungsten, using 2.5 MeV electron irradiation at room temperature (RT) to introduce a quantifiable fraction of FPs. We employed PAS and, as a complement, transmission electron microscopy (TEM) to characterize damaged samples. In addition, secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS) was used to quantify the LEs in our samples. In terms of theory, we chose Cluster dynamics (CD) which has proven to be an appropriate and accurate method for simulating the evolution of simple homogeneously dispersed defects in metals [36] such as those induced by electron irradiation. Furthermore, referring to the promising findings that have been discovered for vacancies in tungsten[37], we have used Two Component Density Functional Theory (TCDFT), to calculate the positron annihilation characteristics -lifetime and Doppler broadening spectrum- for various vacancy-oxygen complexes. Finally, we applied the positron trapping model [31,38] to calculate positron annihilation signals in irradiated samples using CD and TCDFT data. The comparison of calculations with experimental results highlighted the effect of O on the evolution of defects during irradiation.

2. Methods

2.1 Material and irradiation conditions

High purity (HP, 99.95 wt.%) tungsten samples ($7 \times 7 \times 0.3 \text{ mm}^3$ plates, and Ø3 mm discs) were purchased from Neyco (**Nc**) and Goodfellow (**GF**) companies. The Nc samples were mechanically polished and annealed at 1600 °C for 1 hour under high vacuum ($\sim 10^{-7} \text{ mbar}$) to eliminate the native and polishing-induced defects. However, this temperature was insufficient to eliminate all the defects for the sample recently purchased from Goodfellow (GF series). The annealing temperature was subsequently raised to 1700 °C, and the duration was extended to 3 h. After the annealing, a few discs were electropolished to create thin areas in the center, using Tenupol-5 with a double jet of NaOH solution (0.05 mol. L⁻¹, 20 °C, and a voltage of 15 V) for

105 10 min. The configuration of the samples i.e. plates and thinned discs was adapted to the characterization techniques i.e. PAS and TEM, respectively.

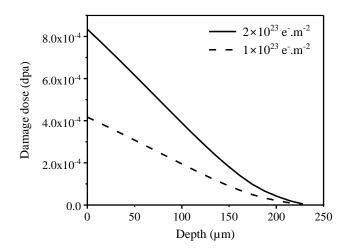


Fig.1: Calculated damage profile of 2.5 MeV electrons in tungsten using POLY ET SMOTT program for two fluences LF: 1 $\times 10^{23} \text{ m}^{-2}$ and HF: $2 \times 10^{23} \text{ m}^{-2}$

2.5 MeV electron irradiations were performed using the SIRIUS accelerator [39] at Laboratoire des Solides Irradiés (LSI). The tungsten samples (plate: **Nc**, disc: **GF**) were damaged with an electron flux of ~5.5 \times 10¹⁷ m⁻². s⁻¹ at about 50 °C for 2.5 and 5 days, to obtain two fluences, namely a low fluence (LF: 1×10^{23} m⁻²) and a fluence twice as high, the high fluence (HF: 2×10^{23} m⁻²), respectively. The damage dose was calculated using the POLY et SMOTT program [38–40] with a threshold displacement energy of 55.3 eV [43]. The estimated damage profiles, i.e. displacement per atom (dpa) as a function of depth are plotted in Fig.1. For both fluences, the damage dose decreases linearly until 150 μ m and becomes negligible beyond 220 μ m. Within the maximum slow positron penetrated region (~700 nm in tungsten [44]), the damage dose can be considered approximately constant, corresponding to an average value of about 8.33×10^{-4} dpa for HF, and 4.16×10^{-4} dpa for LF with the same standard deviation of about 1×10^{-6} dpa.

2.2 Experimental characterizations

2.2.1 Positron annihilation spectroscopies

When a positron penetrates the solid, under interaction with the host atoms, it is thermalized and diffuses into the lattice. During the diffusion phase, the positron encounters an electron, and the electron-positron (e⁻e⁺) pair is then annihilated by emitting gamma rays. In a perfect lattice, a positron annihilates in a delocalized state called "lattice state". If a positron finds open volumes along its diffusion path, it has a high probability of being trapped [31,32] in such vacancy-type defects, where it experiences relatively weak coulomb repulsion from the nucleus. Once the positron is trapped, it annihilates in this localized state, the vacancy defect-related state. The electronic density is different in each annihilation state (lattice or different types of vacancy defects). Therefore, the annihilation characteristics vary from one defect to another. This makes PAS a sensitive and widely used technique for probing vacancy-type defects in materials [31,32]. For this reason, Slow Positron Beam Doppler Broadening Spectroscopy (SPB-DBS) and Positron Annihilation Lifetime Spectroscopy (PALS) measurements were employed to characterize the electron-induced defects in tungsten.

A Doppler Broadening spectrometer is coupled to a slow positron accelerator at the CEMHTI laboratory [45]. This instrument provides a variable monoenergetic positron beam, with energies ranging from 0.5 to 25 keV. The positron beam has a diameter of 1 mm and moves over a 3 mm spot as its energy increases from 0.5 to 25 keV. The penetration depth of slow positrons can be estimated by the Makhovian model [46]. For the highest energy (25 keV), the positron reaches a maximum of ~700 nm in tungsten [44]. In the SPB-DBS measurement, Doppler Broadening - or emitted gamma rays - spectra, corresponding to the momentum distribution of annihilated e^-e^+ pairs, are recorded using a high-purity germanium detector as a function of positron energy E. The dead time of the spectrometer is about 10 % and the energy resolution of ~1.25 keV (full width at half maximum, FWHM), equivalent to a momentum resolution of 4.89×10^{-3} m₀c (m₀: electron mass, c: light speed). Gamma-ray detection efficiency is higher than 25 % at 1.33 MeV. From each DB spectrum, the low momentum S

and high momentum W annihilation fractions or parameters can be extracted. They are the ratio of the count number in defined momentum ranges over the total count in the spectrum. The momentum ranges are between 0 - $|2.64| \times 10^{-3}$ m₀c for S, and $(|9.80| - |24.88|) \times 10^{-3}$ m₀c for W, respectively. To further investigate the defect distribution in the sample, the VEPFIT program [47,48] is used to model the sample as several homogenous layers and convert S and W measured as a function of positron energy i.e. S(E) and W(E) into a depth profile i.e. S(z)and W(z). Each layer has specific annihilation characteristics i.e. S, W, and an effective diffusion length L_{eff}^+ , which is physically linked to the defect concentration, and the intrinsic diffusion coefficient of positrons. Compared to DB measurement, PALS is more quantitative, in particular for determining the nature of the defects. For this study, a fast positron-emitting source was fabricated by deposing ²²NaCl on 6 µm-thick aluminum foil. The encapsulated source is a square of about 4×4 mm². and the ²²Na enriched NaCl salt deposit has a maximum diameter of 3 mm at the center. The source was sandwiched between two equivalent samples $(7 \times 7 \text{ mm}^2)$. By detecting the gamma photons emitted simultaneously to the birth (1.274 MeV), and the annihilation (~511 keV) of the positron, using two fast detectors in coincidence. The spectrometer resolution is a Gaussian function with a Full Width at Half Maximum (FWHM) of about 212 ps. The lifetime spectrum is a convolution of the spectrometer resolution with a sum of decreasing exponential functions, reflecting the different annihilation states experienced by positrons. The contribution of positrons annihilated in the ²²Na source is taken into account in the data processing. Each experimental spectrum contains more than 5×10^6 counts, which ensures a correct decomposition of the spectra. It is important to note that a fraction of the positrons annihilate in the source. ANAPC program was employed to deconvolve the lifetime spectra. As is generally done, three main contributions from the source are subtracted from the experimental lifetime spectrum [49,50]. These contributions depend on the quality of the source and the

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

nature of the samples. In this study, the source contributions were determined from the experimental spectra of a pair of extra-high purity W samples (Plansee 99.9999 wt.%) annealed at 1700 °C for 3h. The first source contribution (C_1) has been identified as coming from the source wrapping foil and has a lifetime of 230 ps and an intensity of 23.59%. Its intensity is calculated using the Bertolaccini formula given in [51]. The second component (C_2) corresponds to the annihilations in the NaCl salt itself and or at the surface of the wrapping foil. The corresponding lifetime is 450 ps. The third one (C_3), generally weak, is due to annihilations of positronium probably formed on the surface of the samples or in the air between them [49,50]. The corresponding lifetime is 1500 ps. The intensities of the two longest correction sources are estimated at (1.3 ± 0.3) % and (0.35 ± 0.05) %, respectively. Apart from these source contributions, a single compound of the Lattice was revealed of about 103 ps.

The measured annihilation parameters (lifetime and S, W) depend on the specific annihilation characteristics of the lattice, X_L , and traps i detected by the positron X_i (where X is given for S, W or lifetime), and on the trapping rate k_i being the product of their respective concentrations C_i by their specific trapping coefficient μ_i . The relationship between measured annihilation parameters (lifetime and S, W) and k_i can be formulated using trapping models [38].

2.2.2 **SIMS**

In our previous works, we demonstrated that the LEs probably interplay with vacancy-type defects, leading to variation on the SPB-DBS signals [15,80]. DFT predicted very low migration energy for O (0.17 eV) and high interactions with vacancy-type defects in tungsten [24,52–54]. Hence, we employed SIMS to quantify O in some samples using a CAMECA IMS 7f available at Groupe d'Etude de la Matière Condensée (GEMaC). The cations and anions were collected in ultra-high vacuum ($\sim 10^{-9}$ mbar) by Cs⁺ (15 kV, 40 nA, 23° respect to surface normal) and O₂⁺ ions (5 kV, 100 nA, 45° respect to surface normal), respectively. The beams scanned

the sample surface over a square area of about $150 \times 150 \,\mu\text{m}^2$, and secondary ion collection was carried out in a smaller circular area (Ø 33 μ m) to avoid edge effects. The mass resolution $M/\Delta M$ was 400. The ^{16}O signal is measured together with W ones as a function of time. To evaluate the oxygen concentration, we applied the relative sensitivity factors (RSF) method [55] determined in oxygen-implanted W samples. A profilometer (DEKTAK 8) was used to measure the depth of the craters, allowing us to determine the sputtering rate, and to convert time profile into depth. In addition, the error bar on the oxygen concentration determination is estimated to be about 28 %.

2.2.3 TEM

The irradiated thin foil was observed using a JEOL ARM200F cold field emission gun electron microscope operating at 200 kV and equipped with double spherical aberration correctors. The observations were carried out in the zone axis [001] at different magnifications from 50 to 600 kx, in various regions of the thin part of the sample. The dislocation structure was characterized by weak-beam imaging mode using various diffraction beams, i.e. g (200), (020), and (110), which were used to distinguish the two types of dislocation loops expected in tungsten, those with $\frac{1}{2}$ a<111> and <100> Burgers vectors (b) due to the extinction rule g·b=0 [56].

2.3 Simulation methods

2.3.1 Density Functional Theory

In parallel to the experiments, density functional theory (DFT) calculations were performed with the Vienna *Ab initio* Simulation Package (VASP) [57] with the projector augmented wave (PAW) [58] method. We utilized the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) with the Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof exchange-correlation functional [59] for the electron exchange and correlation potential. The $4 \times 4 \times 4$ supercells with $4 \times 4 \times 4$ Γ -centered k-point mesh was used to investigate tungsten. The plane-wave cutoff energy was set to 520 eV for all calculations.

The structures of oxygen-vacancy complexes, O_pV_1 (p=1-6) were built by referring You et al. [53]. The $5p^65d^46s^2$ and $2s^22p^4$ electrons were treated as valence states for tungsten and O_p , respectively. The criterion of convergence for the electronic loop was 10^{-5} eV. For ionic relaxation, the force tolerance was 0.01 eV/Å.

After calculating the electron densities with the standard DFT, the positron densities were calculated using TCDFT in the relaxed structures. The TCDFT implementation used in this work was developed by Makkonen et al. [60] based on VASP and the details can be found in [60,61]. The Boroński-Nieminen local density approximation (LDA) [62] was used for electron-positron correlation and enhancement factor. The positron was approximated to not affect the average electron density, and the zero-positron-density limit was used [62]. This is the so-called conventional scheme. It has been shown that this scheme provides results that agree well with more self-consistent modeling due to certain compensation and feedback effects [63]. The vacancy-type defects were fully relaxed by taking into account the repulsive forces on ions induced by positron [60]. The momentum distribution of annihilated electron-positron pairs was calculated with the state-dependent scheme [64] and PAW method [58,60]. The computed Doppler spectra were convoluted with a Gaussian function with a FWHM corresponding to the experimental resolution $(4.89 \times 10^{-3} \, \text{m}_{0}\text{c})$ and theoretical S and W values were extracted using the same momentum windows as in experiments.

2.3.2 Cluster dynamics

To simulate the kinetic evolution of small vacancy-O and SIA-O clusters, we used a mean field cluster dynamics approach as implemented in the CRESCENDO code [65]. Equations of cluster concentrations are solved as a function of time. Physical phenomena taken into account are: the production of defects (SIAs and vacancies) by electron irradiation, absorption of migrating clusters by other clusters and by grain boundaries, and thermal dissociation of clusters. Migration is assumed to be exclusively thermally activated, except for vacancies for which

electron-induced diffusion is also considered [66,67]. The effect of grain boundaries is taken into account through sink strengths, which also take into account the transition from 1D to 3D mobility [66]. Parameters of the model are shown in Tab. 1.

The parametrization of pure vacancy and SIA clusters closely follows the OKMC parametrization proposed by Becquart et *al.* [68]. In particular, we consider 3D mobility for vacancies and vacancy clusters, 1D mobility for SIA clusters, and mixed 1D-3D mobility for SIAs. Reaction rates for this latter case can be found in references [69,70].

We then assume that O is the only impurity acting on the clustering process, due to its rather high mobility and its strong binding with vacancies [54]. The exact concentration of O dissolved in the matrix is not precisely known experimentally. O may form oxides and migrate to grain boundaries, leading to a much lower concentration in the matrix than the one measured by SIMS. Taking into account the formation of oxides and the interaction of O with grain boundaries is beyond the scope of the present study. Instead, we perform a parametric study of the role of O, by varying its concentration as dissolved in the matrix from 0 to 220 appm. Accordingly, grain boundaries are considered only when the O concentration is zero.

In our model, Vacancy-O clusters are 3D objects that can contain up to 6 O atoms. This assumption is probably more valid for small vacancy clusters. We will see in the next section that Vacancy-O clusters indeed remain small in the present experimental conditions. These clusters are also assumed to be immobile. The binding energies of vacancies and O atoms to these clusters are deduced from formation energies calculated by DFT for O_pV_1 clusters [54]. For other cluster sizes, we determine the vacancy binding energy as the maximum of the value given by a capillary law (assuming that vacancies will essentially bind together) and the binding of a vacancy with an O atom (assuming that a vacancy will preferentially bind with an O atom). No formation of pure O clusters is permitted, as their diffusion behavior is unknown.

SIA-O clusters may also form in our model, under the form of dislocation loops trapped on O impurities. Such clusters are thus assumed to be immobile, unlike pure SIA clusters which migrate very quickly along their glide cylinder. Binding energies of O are given by an analytical model fitted to DFT results [29], whereas no effect of O on the binding energies of SIAs and vacancies to loops is considered. It is assumed that an interstitial loop cannot host more than one O atom every 2b along the dislocation line, where b is the norm of the Burgers vector of the loop.

Tab. 1: Parameters for the cluster dynamics simulations.

Parameter	Value	Reference	
Temperature	323 K	EXP	
Electron energy	2.5 MeV	EXP	
Electron flux/damage rate	$5.5 \times 10^{17} \ m^{2} \ s^{1} \ / \ 2.3 \times 10^{\text{9}} \ dpa \ s^{1}$	EXP	
Grain size	10 μm	EXP	
Lattice parameter a ₀	0.316 nm	-	
Norm of the Burgers vector of interstitial loops	0.274 nm	-	
Diffusion prefactor of v_n (n = 1,, 3)	$4\times 10^{\text{-}6}/(10^3)^{\text{n-}1}\;m^2s^{\text{-}1}$	[68,71]	
Migration energy of v_n (n = 1,, 3)	1.66 eV	[54]	
Diffusion prefactor of O	$3.75 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$	[72]	
Migration energy of O	0.17 eV	[54]	
Diffusion prefactor of I_n (n = 1,, 10)	$1.5 \times 10^{-3} / n^{1/2} \text{ m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$	[68]	
Migration energy of I_n (n = 1,, 10)	0.013 eV	[68]	
Rotation frequency of a crowdion (i1)	$6.59 \times 10^{12} \text{Hz}$	[72]	
Rotation energy of a crowdion	0.38 eV	[72]	
Formation energy of vacancies and vacancy clusters $\boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{n}}$	DFT values for $n \le 8$	[65,68]	
	Capillary model for larger sizes	[03,06]	
Binding energies of O_pV_n clusters $(1\leq p\leq 6)$	DFT values for O_pV_1 $(p \le 6)$	[53]	
	See text for other cluster sizes		
Formation energy of SIAs and SIA clusters $I_{n}% =\left\{ 1,,n\right\}$	DFT values for $n \le 12$, discrete-continuum model	[72]	
	for larger sizes	[73]	
Binding energies of O _p I _n clusters	DFT values and analytical model for the binding		
	of O	[40]	
	No influence of O for the binding of SIAs and	[69]	
	vacancies		
Recombination distance of SIAs and vacancies	$2 a_0 = 0.632 \text{ nm}$		
Absorption efficiency of SIAs by loops Zi	1.1		

3. Results

281

282

3.1 SPB-DBS

Fig. 2a shows the S parameter as a function of the positron energy E of pristine and electron-283 irradiated samples. For the pristine sample (Nc#6), within the energy range from 0.5 to 25 284 keV, S decreases progressively with increasing positron energy E. S-W plot in Fig.2b shows 285 that annihilation characteristics of the bulk tend toward the ones of the tungsten *Lattice* (S_L = 286 0.367, $W_L = 0.0844$) which have been identified for GF samples in [74]. By operating the 287 VEPFIT program, the S(E) and W(E) curves of the pristine sample were fitted by a single-layer 288 model. The S (0.366 (3)), and W (0.0855(3)) of the fitted layer are close to the tungsten *Lattice* 289 values, and an effective diffusion length of about 121 (4) nm indicates a low defect 290 291 concentration, which can be roughly estimated below the detection limit of the SPB-DBS measurement ($\sim 10^{23} \text{ m}^{-3} [74]$). 292 For electron-irradiated samples with two fluences (LF: Nc#1 & 3 (1×10^{23} m⁻²) and HF: 293 Nc# 4, & 5 (2 \times 10²³ m⁻²)), S(E) curves were plotted with downward and upward triangle, 294 respectively, in Fig.2 a. S increases with the fluence at all energies higher than 2 keV. Above 2 295 keV, the annihilation fraction at the surface decreases quickly, due to more annihilation at the 296 defects, S differs from the pristine sample value, and this deviation increases with positron 297 energy. Comparable evolution is observed for the samples irradiated together at the same 298 299 fluence (LF: Nc#1 & 5 and HF: Nc#3 & 4). It confirms a homogenous fluence on the surface of the samples. However, the S(E) value dispersion reveals a heterogeneous distribution of 300 defects in the Nc samples. S decreases until 25 keV for samples irradiated at low fluence (LF: 301 302 Nc#1 & 5), while it only decreases up to 18 keV and then plateaus for samples irradiated at high fluence (HF: Nc#3 & 4). Because of this heterogeneous distribution, the homogeneous 303 multi-layer model used in the VEPFIT program is inappropriate to fit the defect distribution in 304 irradiated samples. Moreover, Fig. 2 a shows the S(E) curve measured in B05, a GF disc 305

irradiated at HF at the same time with **Nc#3** & **4** plates. The *S* values are less dispersed in **B05** compared to other samples. When the positron energy increases from 0 to 5 keV, the *S* parameter decreases. Within the energy range from 5 to 25 keV, the S values fluctuate in B05 with a mean value of 0.3981 (16), in contrast to the declining trend in other samples. The *S* plateau value is higher than those measured in the same energy range for the irradiated **Nc** samples. Furthermore, Fig.2 b shows the *S-W* plot, for both fluences. *S-W* points are located close to the line L_1 , which was identified as the characteristic line of annihilation at V_1 with the saturated point (S_{VI} , W_{VI}) [75]. These results suggest that the positrons annihilated mainly at V_1 with a more or less heterogeneous distribution in **Nc** samples. Their concentration is greater in samples after longer irradiation. The highest concentration was found in the GF B05 sample but still did not reach the saturation signal of the single vacancy (V_1 point in Fig.2) in tungsten [75].

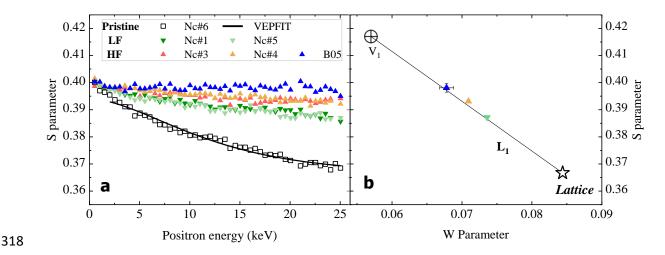


Fig.2: Annihilation characteristics of pristine sample (Neyco, square) in comparison with 2.5 MeV electron-irradiated ones at two fluences, LF 1×10^{23} (downward triangle) and HF 2×10^{23} m⁻² (upward triangle) at RT, **a:** low momentum parameter S as a function of the positron energy E, and **b:** S versus W, fitted value (using VEPFIT) for pristine (Nc#6), mean values in the 5-25keV range for B05, and value at 25 keV for damaged Nc samples, with the standard deviation as the error bars.

3.2 PALS

According to the damage profile in Fig.1, 2.5 MeV electrons induce damage until about 220 µm. To complement the SPB-DBS measurements in the surface region (~700 nm), PALS was used to obtain more information on the induced defects in the in-depth bulk (the first 50

μm). Fig.2a shows processed PALS spectra (after source corrections, and deduction of background noise) of the pristine and irradiated samples: the LF pair (Nc#1 & 5) and the HF pair (Nc#3 & 4). Obviously, after irradiation, the spectra contain longer-lifetime components.

Tab. 2: Lifetime components deconvoluted from experimental spectra using the ANAPC program for pristine and electron-irradiated sample pairs at 2.5 MeV, taking into account 3 components, the third being fixed at 200 ps.

Fluence (× 10 ¹⁹ cm ⁻²⁾		Component 1		Component 2		Component 3		
	$ au_{av}$ (ps)	$ au_1 ext{(ps)}$	I_1 (%)	$ au_2 ext{(ps)}$	I_2 (%)	$ au_3$ (ps)	I ₃ (%)	τ _M (ps)
0	105	105 ± 0.3	100	-	-	-	-	-
1	135	11 ± 0.1	11 ± 3	122 ± 2	56 ± 2	200	33 ± 1	62
2	147	12 ± 0.2	7 ± 2	135 ± 2	63 ± 1	200	30 ± 1	84

332 333

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

327

328

329

330

331

Using ANAPC to fit the spectra, a 105 ps lifetime component was extracted for the pristine samples. This value lies within the lifetime range of the tungsten *Lattice*, from 100-110 ps [76– 79]. For irradiated samples, we have first tested a 2-component fit. The results showed a long lifetime of 187 \pm 2 and 197 \pm 4 ps for High and Low electron fluence respectively and an intensity of 53 and 40% respectively. These lifetimes are close to those expected for a single vacancy. Meanwhile, a short lifetime with a value (102 ps and 127 ps respectively) close to that of the perfect Lattice in tungsten was also found for both fluences. It's noteworthy that when positrons annihilate in more than one state, for example in a deep trap (defect with no detrapping) and the lattice (delocalized state), the short lifetime indicating the time that positrons spend in the lattice before being trapped or annihilated, this lifetime should be shorter than the lifetime of the perfect Lattice. Furthermore, the τM estimated with eq.1 was 135 and 148 ps respectively, i.e. larger than that of the Lattice. This indicates at least a second trap (X defect) exists apart from the single vacancy. Hence, a 3-component fit was attempted, but the number of free parameters and the close values of the lifetime components prevented the fit. It should be noted that in these analyses, vacancy clusters larger than the single vacancy were not considered, as they are not expected to form in electron irradiation at RT: (1) due to the low energy of PKA, the local density of displacements is low and no cascade is expected; and (2) because single

vacancies are not mobile at RT, their migration energy is high i.e. $E_{V_1}^m = 1.66 \text{ eV}$ [80]. To fit the data with three components, the lifetime component τ_3 was fixed to 200 ps a value previously identified for the single vacancy, i.e. 193-199 ps reported by theoretical works [82–84], and 195-200 ps obtained experimentally [75,84]. The fitted results are reported in

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

365

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

Tab. 2. The intensity of the third component τ_3 (fixed at 200 ps) was of approximately 30 % was for both fluences. Meanwhile, a component with a very short lifetime τ_1 of about 10 ps with a quite low intensity of about 10%, was also extracted. This component corresponds to the 'reduced lattice' lifetime, i.e. the time that positrons spend in the lattice before being trapped or annihilated. Its value is very short compared to the lifetime of the perfect Lattice because most positrons are trapped before annihilation. This indicates a minor fraction of positrons annihilated in the Lattice. Such a short lifetime probably means that the limit of the deconvolution was reached. This short component was taken into account because the decomposition with three components shows the best variance compared to the two-component decomposition. In addition, a component with an intermediate lifetime τ_2 of about 122, and 135 ps was deconvoluted from the spectra of samples damaged with both fluences, i.e. LF and HF, respectively. Its intensity is about 56 % for LF and increases to 63 % for the HF. As a result, the average lifetime has increased from 135 to 144 ps (Fig. 3 b), when the electron fluence has doubled, from 1×10^{23} to 2×10^{23} m⁻². This result suggests that, in addition to the *Lattice* and V₁, one or more new positron traps (X defect) were created in electron irradiation at RT. Furthermore, according to the trapping model [31], if 100 % of the positrons annihilated in the identified states i in the experiments, the sum $1/\tau_{\rm M}$ of the ratio between the intensity I_i and the lifetime τ_i of each component should be equal to the reciprocal of the *Lattice* lifetime, i.e. $\tau_{Lattice}$. (eq.1)

$$\frac{1}{\tau_M} = \sum_{i=1}^{l} \frac{l_i}{\tau_i}$$
 eq. 1

However, the τ_M value obtained for both fluences is shorter than the tungsten *Lattice* lifetime (

Tab. 2), suggesting that the positrons annihilate at more than three states.

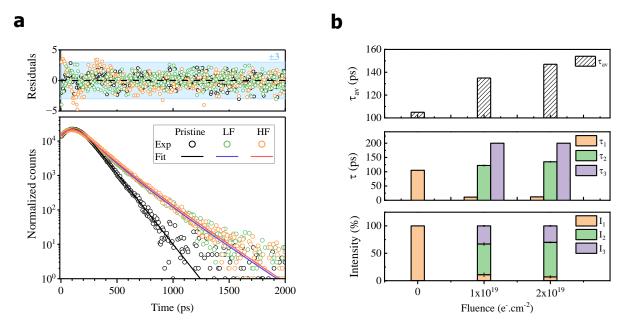


Fig.3: a) Processed experimental lifetime spectra without source correction nor background noise of the pristine and 2.5 MeV electron irradiated samples Nc#1 & 5 for low fluence and Nc#3 & 4 for high fluence, and b) the deconvoluted lifetime components (lifetime and corresponding intensity) and average lifetime extracted from the lifetime spectra using the ANAPC program versus irradiation fluence. The quality of the fit was checked by calculating the residual standard deviation between the experimental and fitted spectra which is ±3 over the entire time scale.

3.3 SIMS

Fig.4 a and b show the secondary anions and cations collected in Nc#3 within a mass range from 0 to 250 a.m.u with Cs^+ and O_2^+ as the primary ions, respectively. Not surprisingly, the tungsten isotopes appear with the highest intensity. Moreover, O appears as a major impurity in spectra acquired with Cs^+ sputtering. In addition, it should be noticed that significant intensities are detected at around 200, 216, and 232 a.m.u. respectively, which probably correspond to O tungsten molecules (WO_x) for several tungsten isotopes. It should be noted that O cations collected with primary O_2^+ ions cannot be used as an argument for the presence of O in the samples, as is possible for anions collected after sputtering with Cs^+ .

Then, the analysis was focused on the quantification of O, in the pristine (Nc#6) and irradiated samples (Nc#3, B05). Fig.4 c shows the O profiles collected by SIMS at three random positions with primary Cs⁺ ions. The O profiles are both comparable for Nc#3 and Nc#6, suggesting that there was no significant introduction of O during irradiation. O concentration is high at the surface and decreases rapidly, probably merely due to a native oxidized layer [85]. Beyond 200 nm, the profiles fluctuate down to 1.5 µm depth, and the concentration varies from 30 to 250 appm, depending on the craters for a sputtered area of $150 \times 150 \,\mu\text{m}^2$. After reducing the sputtered area to $100 \times 100 \,\mu\text{m}^2$, no obvious change in the O profile is observed in Nc#6 (at ~1250 nm), while there is a decrease for one crater in Nc#3 (at ~900 nm). We emphasized that the O concentration returns to the value of a larger sputtered area between 900 and 2000 nm. These results indicate that oxygen concentration is nonhomogeneous in the Nc samples. It changes not only with depth but also with the characterized area In contrast, O profiles obtained from the HF-damaged B05 sample are rather 'clean': concentrations from three craters are comparable. A plateau is obtained from 200 to 1500 nm. A clear decrease in O concentration was revealed after reducing the sputtering area, leading to a new plateau with a lower concentration of about 25 appm. These results suggest that the SIMS detection limit (<25 appm) of O was reached in **B05**, and its distribution is homogeneous. To summarize, a heterogeneous distribution of O concentration was revealed in Nc#3 and Nc#6 (30 to 250 appm). The highest values are probably due to the presence of a significant fraction of oxide nanoparticles. The lowest values revealed that O atoms could be dissolved in the matrix with a concentration between 30 to 80 appm, as already observed in [86], in contrast, the oxygen concentration is homogeneous and less than or equal to 25 appm in the B05.

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

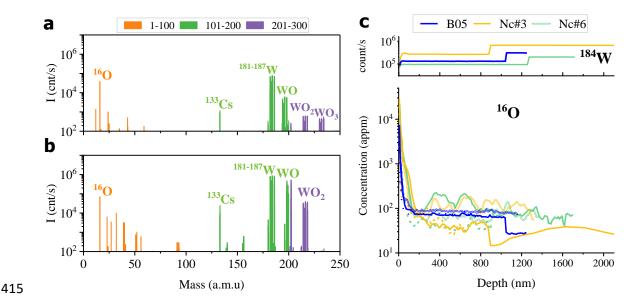


Fig.4: Mass spectra ranging from 0 to 250 a.m.u. of the secondary particles sputtered from the sample Nc#3 $(2 \times 10^{23} \text{ m}^{-2})$, a) collected anions with Cs⁺ primary ions, and b) collected cations by using O₂⁺ primary ions. c) O profiles of pristine (Nc#6, yellow), and electron-damaged –HF- (Nc#3, green), and B05 (blue) for three random positions (Crater 1 to 3) plotted using different line types.

3.4 TEM

During irradiation experiments, one tungsten-thinned disc (GF, 99.95 wt.%) was also damaged at the HF (i.e. 2×10^{23} m⁻²) simultaneously with thick samples. No dislocation loops nor any black dots were observed (Fig.5) in the images indicating that no defects with a size greater or equal to 1 nm were created during irradiation. This size is the minimum size for which the diffuse contrast can be distinguished in TEM [87]. The thickness of the observed region was estimated using EFTEM (Energy Filtered Transmission Electron Microscopy) measurements and measures about 30 nm. Several zones over the thin region were observed for a total surface of 3×10^{-27} m². It follows that if some defects larger than 1 nm exist, their maximum concentration should be about 1×10^{19} m⁻³.

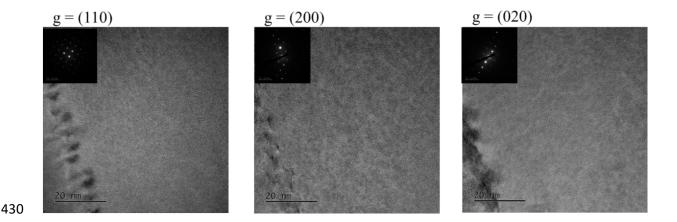


Fig. 5: bright field TEM images acquired using different g-vectors (g=(110), g=(200) and g=(020)) in a tungsten foil irradiated with 2.5 MeV electrons at RT with a fluence of 2.10^{19} cm⁻².

3.5 TCDFT

Since SIMS analysis shows an O concentration of the same order of magnitude as that of induced V_1 , we focused our TCDFT calculations on the interaction between O atoms and V_1 . Tab. 3 contains the total binding energy of oxygen-vacancy complexes and positron lifetimes calculated for O_pV_1 complexes. Our binding energy values are in good agreement with the values in [53]. The calculated positron lifetimes for annihilation in the tungsten *Lattice* and as trapped in V_1 are 101 ps and 195 ps respectively as already reported in [37]. These values calculated based on TCDFT are comparable with the experimental ones found in the present work.

Tab. 3: Binding energy $E_{binding}^{O_p-V_1}$, and position lifetime τ calculated using TCDFT-LDA for O_pV_I (p=1-6) complexes, and estimated specific trapping coefficient $\mu_{O_pV_1}$ of the complexes. These trapping coefficients were estimated using the value of V_1 in Ta [31] for V_1 and reduced by the ratio of the Voronoi volume of O_pV_I complexes to that of pure V_1 (0.0159 nm⁻³) for the complexes. ^aReference [53], ^bReference [88]. The error on the values of $\mu_{O_pV_1}$ is calculated from that of $\mu_{V1} = (6 \pm 3) \times 10^{-15}$ m⁻³.s⁻¹ [31]

447 448	Number of associated O atoms, p	$E_{binding}^{O_pV_1}$ (eV)	τ (ps)	$\mu_{O_pV_1}$ (10 ⁻⁹ cm ³ .s ⁻¹)
449	1 2 3	3.0, (3.04 ^a) 5.9, (5.96 ^a) 6.9, (7.29 ^a)	170 (170.6 ^b) 142 (136.8 ^b) 143 (129.4 ^b)	4.89 ± 3.46 3.91 ± 2.77 3.67 ± 2.60
450	4 5	8.56, (8.80 a) 10.06, (10.37 a)	130 (123.6 ^b) 124 (121.6 ^b)	2.75 ± 1.94 2.42 ± 1.71
451	6	11.92, (11.21 a)	132 (128.3b)	2.50 ± 1.76

Tab. 3 shows that the positron lifetime of O_pV_1 complexes decreases with the number p of associated O atoms when p remains inferior or equal to 5. The lifetime of O_1V_1 is 170 ps, then drops drastically to near 140 ps for O_2V_1 and O_3V_1 , and decreases to 130 ps and 124 ps for O_4V_1 and O_5V_1 , respectively. Interestingly, the positron lifetime rebounds to 132 ps for O_6V_1 , a result also reported in [88] with different positions of O atoms in the vacancy. These changes are due to the change in electronic density in V_1 . Moreover, the positron remains localized in the center of the complex for all p values (see local positron density in Fig.6) indicating that trapping can be expected in all the O_pV_1 complexes. Fig.6 shows the computed S-W plot for O_pV_1 complexes. The S-W annihilation fractions are very sensitive to the presence of O atoms in the vacancy. A clear trend emerges: The S-W points move down to the bottom-right with the increasing number of O atoms. The calculated S-W points of $O_{2-6}V_1$ deviate from the line segment connecting the Lattice and V_1 , called L_1 in our experiments, as p increases, while that of the O_1V_1 complex is close to the middle of L_1 .



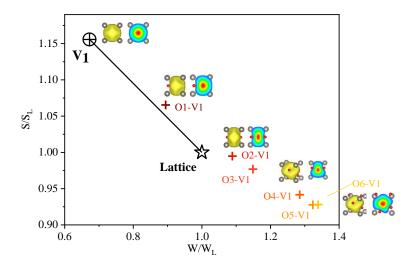


Fig.6: a-1) Theoretical **S-W** plot for V_1 associated with O atoms in tungsten. The computational results are convoluted with a Gaussian function with a FWHM of 4.89×10^{-3} m₀c, which corresponds to the experimental resolution. (-left) 3D structure –O atoms (red sphere) location in the vicinity of V_1 (gold sphere)- and (right) local positron density are illustrated for V_1 , O_1V_1 , O_2V_1 , O_4V_1 , and O_6V_1 .

3.6 Cluster dynamics

Cluster distributions at HF (2×10^{23} e⁻ m⁻²), for three different O concentrations in the matrix, are shown in Fig.7 (a-c). We also represent cluster distributions for $x_0 = 200$ appm, when electron-induced diffusion is turned off (Fig.7 d). By comparing Fig.7 c to Fig.7 d, it can be seen that electron-induced diffusion plays a marginal role in these experimental conditions. It slightly promotes vacancy mobility, which results in a small number of clusters containing two vacancies (n = -2) and some O atoms. Most vacancy defects (more than 99, 99 %) contain only one vacancy (n = -1) and up to six O atoms (p = 1 - 6), due to the high mobility of O atoms. As expected, the increasing O concentrations lead to more decorated vacancy clusters, i.e. the number of clusters with large p values increases. In addition, the number of SIA clusters $(n \ge 2)$ increases. They all contain at least one oxygen atom. Given the larger diffusion coefficient of SIAs with respect to oxygen atoms, the formation of such SIA clusters can be seen as a heterogeneous nucleation on O impurities. As the loop density increases with O concentration, the loop size decreases. The maximum number of SIAs in a cluster declines from around 95 to 30 as O concentration increases from 20 to 200 appm (Fig. 6 a-c). These smaller dislocation loops are more difficult to detect with TEM. The number of SIAs corresponding to a loop size of 1 nm, which can be considered as a detection limit in TEM, is shown by a vertical gray line on the cluster distributions. The density of SIA clusters larger than 1 nm decreases from $6 \times 10^{22} \text{ m}^{-3}$ to $3 \times 10^{20} \text{ m}^{-3}$ as oxygen concentration increases from 20 to 200 appm, and more than 99.95 % of them are smaller than 2 nm. Apart from the case $x_0 = 20$ appm, loops of size larger than 1 nm are too scarce to be detectable in TEM.

472

473

474

475

476

477

478

479

480

481

482

483

484

485

486

487

488

489

490

491

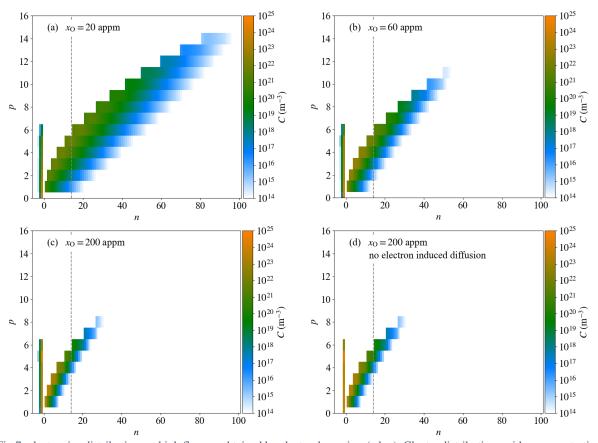


Fig.7: cluster size distributions at high fluence obtained by cluster dynamics. (a,b,c): Cluster distributions with a concentration of O in the matrix equal to 20, 60, and 200 appm respectively. (d): same as (c) but without taking into account electron-induced vacancy mobility. In these graphs, positive values of n refer to the number of SIAs in a cluster, whereas negative values are used for the number of vacancies (-n) in vacancy clusters. The number of O atoms in a cluster is noted in p. The vertical grey line corresponds to a loop of size 1 nm.

We also show the concentration of small vacancy-O complexes for low and high fluence conditions, as a function of the O concentration in the matrix (Fig.8). As expected, populations of complexes containing more O atoms increase with the concentration of O in the matrix. However, these populations decrease with the fluence. Indeed, owing to the low mobility of vacancies, these complexes tend to absorb more SIAs than vacancies. Assuming that the vacancy-O complexes are immobile at RT like the pure single vacancies, SIA that are highly mobile at RT can be absorbed by non-mobile oxygen-vacancies complexes. As a consequence, O atoms are released in the matrix and can freely migrate to dislocation loops or other vacancy clusters. On the contrary, the vacancy concentration steadily increases with the damage dose due to the continuous production of vacancies by irradiation and the low mobility of vacancies.

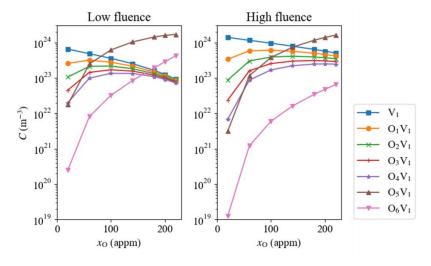


Fig.8: Concentration of vacancy-O clusters as a function of the atomic fraction of O in the matrix, for the low and high fluence cases. Clusters with more than one vacancy are not represented, as their concentration is negligible.

4. Discussion

Generally, low-energy electron irradiation generates mainly FPs. In our SPB-DBS experiments, in the near-surface region (0~700 nm), the presence of V_1 was detected by positrons at both fluences, and their concentration increased with the fluence. PALS results confirmed the annihilation of positrons as trapped at V_1 and, more interestingly, revealed new positron traps (X defects) with high annihilation probability. These traps have an average lifetime of about 122, and 135 ps for LF- and HF-damaged samples, respectively. Their nature is discussed below.

The X defects have a lifetime shorter by a factor of 1.44-1.64 than V_1 (195-200 ps), and it therefore could be related to defects with smaller open volumes than V_1 . Two types of defects can be envisaged: (i) dislocation loops or (ii) impurity-vacancy complexes.

From TEM observations, no defects were detected in the **GF** disk irradiated at HF, indicating that the dislocation loop size and concentration were rather low i.e. lower than 1 nm and $\sim 1 \times 10^{19}$ m⁻³, respectively. CD calculations predict a negligible concentration of interstitial clusters (around 1 \times 10¹³ m⁻³) all smaller than 1 nm in pure tungsten irradiated under experimental conditions, which is well below the experimental detection limits. Arakawa et *al.*[89] and Tamino et *al.*[90] observed an average density of dislocation loops of about 4×10^{22}

m⁻³ at 105 K in high-purity polycrystalline tungsten (99.9999 wt.%, JX Nippon Mining & Metals Co) irradiated with 2 MeV electrons at low temperatures (≤290 K) [89,90]. The average size of the dislocation loops is mentioned to be approximately 3-4 nm [89]. In these experiments, the fluence ($\sim 4 \times 10^{25} \text{ m}^{-2}$) and the flux (1×10^{24} [89] and $3.0 \times 10^{22} \text{ m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$ [90] respectively) are remarkably higher than those used in current work, by a factor of 200, and 3 to 6 orders of magnitude respectively. In such high flux irradiation conditions, the estimated damage rate is 1.3×10^{-4} dpa. s^{-1} (for 3.0×10^{22} m⁻².s⁻¹) in [89,90], which is five orders of magnitude higher than in the present study $(2.3 \times 10^{-9} \text{ dpa. s}^{-1})$. These differences give rise to a much higher local density of SIA in Arakawa's experiments, leading to a high probability of cluster formation. SIA interaction is much less likely to be under our irradiation conditions, and cluster formation remains limited in pure tungsten. Furthermore, CD results predict that an increase in O concentration promotes small SIA clusters (<1 nm) production for less pure tungsten, whereas it limits the formation of larger SIA clusters. It is expected that a cluster including more than 7 SIAs will reach a stable configuration and become an interstitial ½<111> loop [91] with a diameter of approximately 0.7 nm. The concentration of these clusters is predicted by CD to be at most 1.55×10^{23} m⁻³ for the O concentration of 60 appm. Could these TEM-invisible SIA clusters be detected by PAS? Their concentration is close to the PAS detection limit for V₁ (~10²³ m⁻³), but such a low concentration of defects could be detected only if their positron trapping coefficient, μ_{intL} was higher than that of V_1 . Despite the μ_{intL} , is unknown to date, nevertheless, the positron binding energy E_B^p at an edge dislocation line has been calculated about -0.28 eV in iron by E. Kuramoto et al. [92]. Like the edge dislocation line, the interstitial loops have reduced free volume concerning the lattice on the line or at the loop periphery respectively, so a low E_B^p should also be expected for interstitial loops. This

527

528

529

530

531

532

533

534

535

536

537

538

539

540

541

542

543

544

545

546

547

548

549

suggests that the probability of a positron being trapped in such interstitial loops should be less probable, at least at RT. Thus, the *X defects* are unlikely to be dislocation loops.

According to TCDFT results, one V₁ can be associated with 1 to 6 O atoms, forming O-vacancy complexes with a lifetime close to the *X defects*. CD simulation with 20 to 220 appm oxygen, predicts that all these O-vacancy complexes coexist. Next, we use the trapping model to calculate theoretical lifetime spectra *PALS(t)* for the damage dose of 4.1×10^{-4} and 8.3×10^{-4} dpa. In these models, we assume that the positron can annihilate in several states: $O_{1-6}V_1$ complexes, pure V₁, and *Lattice*. The trapping rate k_i for each defect (V₁, $O_{1-6}V_1$) can be estimated by multiplying their concentration by their specific trapping coefficient, μ_i . The concentration of defects is given by CD simulations. The specific trapping coefficient for pure V₁ is $\mu_{VI} = (6 \pm 3) \times 10^{-15}$ m⁻³·s⁻¹ [31], and $\mu_{O_PV_1}$ for the O_PV_1 (with p = 1-6) complexes were estimated by reducing μ_{VI} by a ratio of the Voronoi volume of each O complex to that of pure V₁ (Tab. 3). Once the trapping rates k_i of each trap ($t_1 = \text{pure V}_1$ and t_2 -7 = $O_{1-6}V_1$ complexes) are determined, the intensity of the lifetime components I_i , and the theoretical lifetime spectra PALS(t) can be calculated, using a trapping model including several annihilation states: *Lattice*, pure V₁ and $O_{1-6}V_1$ complexes (eq. 2)

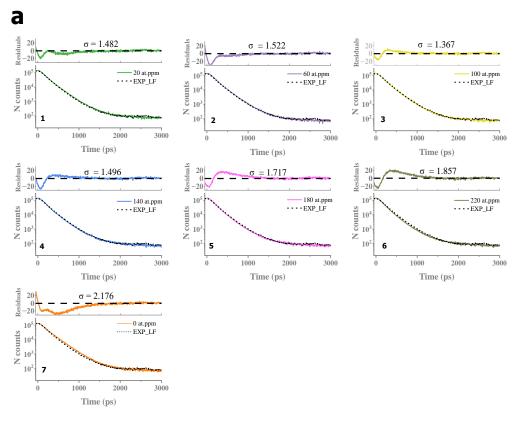
$$\begin{cases} I_i = \frac{k_i}{\lambda_L - \lambda_i + \sum k_i} , \text{ and } I_0 + \sum_i I_i = 1 \\ PALS(t) = R(t) * \left[\sum_i \left(\frac{I_i}{\tau_i} e^{-\frac{t}{\tau_i}} \right) + \sum_j \left(\frac{I_{C_j}}{\tau_{C_j}} e^{-\frac{t}{\tau_{C_j}}} \right) + \frac{I_0}{\tau_0} e^{-\frac{t}{\tau_0}} \right] + BG \end{cases}$$
eq. 2

where defects i could be pure V_1 , or $O_{1-6}V_1$ complexes, λ_L , and λ_i are the annihilation rate at the lattice and in each trap i respectively i.e. the reciprocal of their lifetime τ_L =105 ps for the lattice, and τ_i (τ_1 =200 ps for pure V_1 , and the values of complexes reported in Tab. 3), and I_0 is the intensity of the reduced lifetime τ_0 . τ_{Cj} and I_{Cj} are respectively the lifetimes and intensities for the source corrections. As a result, theoretical lifetime spectra were calculated by applying a trapping model with the parameters obtained from

and taking into account the spectrometer resolution (FWHM= 212 ps) and an experimental the background noise of about 60 counts. Fig.9 a (LF) and b (HF) show the theoretical spectra for a matrix containing 0 to 220 O appm in comparison with their respective experimental spectrum.

Firstly, in the absence of O, positrons annihilate only in pure V_1 and in the *Lattice*. The corresponding theoretical lifetime spectrum differs greatly from the experimental one: in the region between 360 and 1400 ps, the number of counts is higher in the theoretical spectra than in the experimental ones for both fluences, i.e. LF (Fig.9a.7) and HF (Fig.9b.7) as highlighted in the residual standard deviation plotted above the lifetime spectra. It confirms that a component with a lifetime between that of V_1 and that of the *Lattice* is hidden in the experimental spectra, as extracted in the deconvolution fits of experimental spectra. This component corresponds to new positron **traps X**.

Theoretical spectra with O concentration ranging from 20 to 220 appm agree much better with experimental spectra than those without O. The best agreement corresponds to an O concentration in the matrix of 140 appm, for HF (Fig.9a.1-4), and 100 appm, LF (Fig.9b.2-6) shows a relatively lower residual between experimental and theoretical spectra. This concentration range is comparable to the SIMS results measured with an error bar of 28 % (Fig.4 c). Residual values can be explained by either experimental error bars or approximations made in simulations, including CD and TCDFT, and also in estimating the specific trapping coefficients. Despite all these approximations, these comparisons indicate that the trapping of positrons in oxygen-vacancy complexes agrees with the experimental results and confirms that **traps X** are oxygen-vacancy complexes.



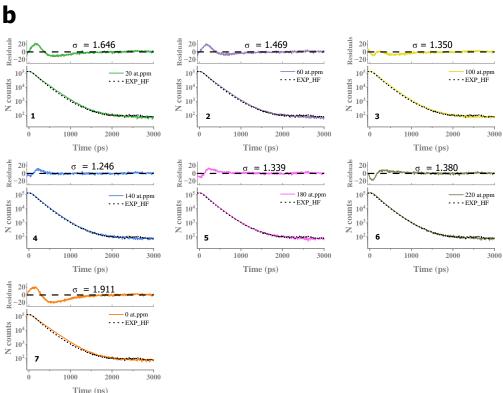


Fig.9: Comparison of theoretical and experimental lifetime spectra measured in **Nc** samples a: low fluence (LF). and b: high fluence (HF). The theoretical spectra were calculated by employing trapping models, with parameters calculated from *eq*. **2**. The residual standard deviation (Residual) and its average absolute value (σ) highlight the difference between the two spectra on a time scale.

After comparing the lifetime spectra, we calculated the theoretical S-W values still based on the same two- or three-state trapping model (eq.3) depending on O concentration ranging from 0 to 220 appm using eq.3.

$$\begin{cases}
\mathbf{S} = S_L \cdot f_L + \sum S_i \cdot f_i \\
\mathbf{W} = W_L \cdot f_L + \sum W_i \cdot f_i \\
f_i = \frac{k_i}{\lambda_L + \sum k_i}, \text{ and } f_L + \sum_{t_1}^{t_7} f_i = 1
\end{cases}$$
eq. 3

where f_L and f_i are the fractions of annihilation in the delocalized state and the localized state of traps i respectively, determined using (eq. 3). The relative S/S_L - W/W_L points calculated for both fluences LF and HF are shown in Fig.10. a.

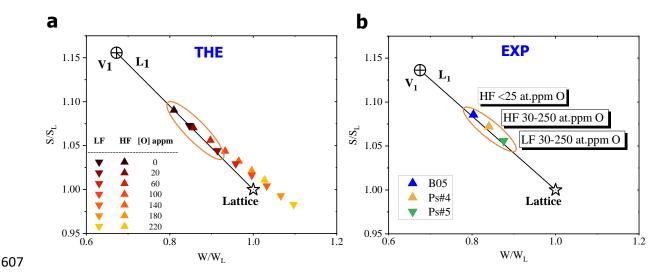


Fig. 10 a: Theoretical relative ratio to lattice S-W using trapping model in the case of 0 to 220 appm O vs b: Experimental S-W points, an average of 5-25keV for B05, and at 25 keV for damaged Nc samples (HF: yellow triangle, LF: green triangle with 30-250 appm O, and HF: blue triangle with <25 appm O), the error of SIMS measurement is estimated to 28 %.

For zero O concentration, the S-W points calculated for both fluences LF and HF are located on line L₁. This is still the case when O concentration is low (20 appm). As shown in Fig.8, increasing O concentration induces a larger population of $O_{1-6}V_1$ complexes. Annihilations at these complexes shift S-W points to the right-bottom toward the Lattice point and progressively move away from L₁. We emphasize that only the relative S/S_{L-W/W_L values can be used for comparison between theoretical and experimental data [37]. The S/S_{L-W/W_L points measured}}

in **B05** (HF, <25 O appm) and in the **Nc** (LF & HF, 30-250 O appm) samples are shown in Fig.10.

The experimental points are located on or near L_1 . The purest sample **B05** (HF, <25 O appm) shows the highest S and lowest W values, whereas S decreases and W increases for less pure samples Nc (LF & HF, 30-250 O appm). The same trend can be observed for the theoretical values (see Fig.10.a) showing a decrease of S and an increase of W with increasing oxygen concentration. The agreement between calculated and experimental SW points appears to be better for O concentrations of 20 and 60 appm. These concentration values are lower than those for which better agreement was observed for lifetimes. This discrepancy might be due to several factors: (i) the O distribution in Nc samples is heterogeneous and PALS probes a thick region (\sim Ø 3 mm \times 0.05 mm) whereas, in the SPB-DBS, positrons stopped close to the surface (\sim Ø 3 mm, and 1st 700 nm); (ii) the errors propagate from approximations either in simulations or experiments, making it difficult to achieve ideal agreement between experimental and theoretical DB spectrum. Thus, only the trend on the variation of S and S and S and S can be discussed, as shown by the comparisons made in [34,35].

We now focus on the experimental data for **B05**, containing the lowest O concentration. In this sample, the relative position of the S-W point is close to the theoretical one calculated for the zero O content. As the O concentration is below the SIMS detection limit (25 \pm 8 appm), we can assume that the $O_{1-6}V_1$ concentration is too low to have a significant annihilation fraction, while pure V_1 should be the dominant trap. The pure V_1 concentration can simply be extracted from the DB measurements by using a one-trap (pure V_1) trapping model [31,38], using the following equation.

639
$$C_{V1} = \frac{\lambda_L \cdot (X_L - X)}{\mu_{V1} (X - X_{V1})}$$
 eq. 4

where X is S or W annihilation fractions and λ_L and μ_{V1} were already defined above.

640

The S and W values give a pure V_1 concentration of about $(2.63 \pm 1.32) \times 10^{24}$ m⁻³. This 641 concentration is much lower than that expected from the damage dose calculated in the region 642 probed by positrons (700 nm in tungsten, $8.33 \times 10^{-4}\,dpa$) which should be $5.28 \times 10^{25}\,m^{-3}$ if 643 each displacement effectively leads to a vacancy at the end of irradiation. This reduction of V₁ 644 concentration reveals a high recombination rate R_c of FPs, which is estimated at around ~95 \pm 645 646 2 %. This value is in excellent agreement with the theoretical results predicted by CD (96 %). In electron-irradiated pure iron, Takaki et al. [20] found in resistivity recovery experiments that 647 76 % of recombinations were related to uncorrelated FPs, and 19 % to correlated FPs, for a total 648 649 of 95 %. Furthermore, Ortiz et al. [93] calculated that up to 90 % of defects have been annihilated at 400 K in Fe irradiated with electrons at a damage dose of 10⁻⁶ dpa. In tungsten, 650 De Backer et al. [94] showed that R_c increases from 20 to 96 % for ³He 800 keV irradiation at 651 RT with various fluences, ranging from 10^{17} to 5×10^{20} m⁻², i.e. a range of damage dose from 652 1.9×10^{-4} to 0.17 dpa (SRIM with E_{disp} = 55.3 eV, K-P model). In addition, Neely et *al.* [19] 653 found about 30 % of resistivity recovery in 99.99 % pure irradiated tungsten at 70 K (2.1 MeV 654 e^{-} , $5 \times 10^{21} e^{-}$.m⁻²), and the authors claimed that the recovery rate can be impacted by a non-655 negligible concentration of impurities. 656 657 In tungsten, at RT, the SIA has very low migration energy (< 0.2 eV [68,95,96]), whereas the vacancy is immobile. A high recombination rate can be expected. When oxygen or other 658 impurities that interact strongly with SIA immobilize SIA, the probability of recombination 659 decreases. In our CD results, the R_c ratio decreases from 96 to 87% when the O/FP ratio 660 increases from 0 to 0.53. These results are consistent with the close relative position for 661 theoretical and experimental S-W point observed for the lowest O content (0 appm HF, in Fig. 10 662 a and **B05** in Fig. 10 b). Despite all the approximations used in this work, agreement between 663 simulations and experiments confirms that O affects the evolution of vacancy and interstitial 664

defects in tungsten irradiated at RT as illustrated in Fig.11. When a fraction of O atoms is dissolved in the matrix, they can diffuse during irradiation. Electron irradiation induces vacancies and SIAs. O atoms can be bound to V_1 and immobilize the SIA, leading to the formation of oxygen-vacancy and O-SIA complexes in a proportion that increases with the O/dpa ratio and the dpa rate. The presence of oxygen can increase the concentration of vacancy defects by a factor of up to four and of the interstitial clusters by more than two orders of magnitude depending on the ratio O/dpa, creating a large majority of O-decorated defects.

665

666

667

668

669

670

671

672

673

674

675

676

677

678

679

680

681

682

683

684

685

686

687

688

This effect has already been observed for carbon at high temperatures (>500°C [28]), whereas the O effect is demonstrated here for the first time. It should be emphasized that this effect is demonstrated here at RT. In industrial applications such as in fusion reactors, where tungsten was chosen for the divertor and is envisaged for the first walls, this material will be subjected to high temperature >500°C irradiation. Under these conditions, the O effect can be expected to be pronounced. The diffusion coefficient will be higher for O than for C and according to the simulations, O_0V_1 complexes have high binding energies of 3 to 12 eV (Tab. 3) close to those of C_PV₁ complexes, and even slightly higher [53]. Competition between C and O can therefore be expected at higher temperatures when C atoms become mobile. Both elements will impact the formation of the vacancy clusters and cavities. These O-decorated defects could also have an impact on the retention of hydrogen in tungsten [23]. Predicting H retention in the walls of fusion reactors is of major importance for safety, given the use of tritium, a radioactive isotope of H, as fuel. Ab initio calculations show a strong interaction between O decorated vacancies and H. Oxygen is one of the major impurities expected in tokamaks and is also difficult to avoid in tungsten. At least, for the large amount of material required in the reactor. Accordingly, this work shows that oxygen has to be taken into account in the prediction of the microstructure evolution of tungsten.

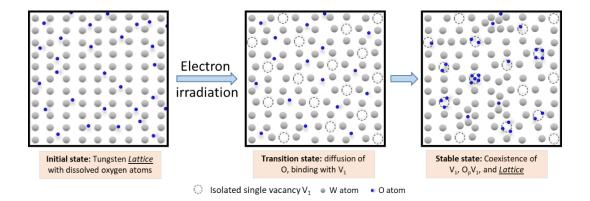


Fig.11: Schematic diagram of the evolution of the defects in tungsten samples irradiated with electrons in the presence of oxygen, as in the present work.

5. Conclusion

To summarize, after 2.5 MeV electron irradiation at RT, an unexpected positron annihilation state (X defect) was revealed by PALS measurement in tungsten. After combining other characterization techniques (TEM, SIMS) and simulations (TCDFT, CD), we have drawn the following conclusions regarding the microstructure evolution:

- (i) According to CD simulations, the nucleation and growth of SIA clusters depend on the O atoms' presence in the matrix. This is in agreement with TEM results which show no evidence of dislocation loops.
- (ii) Theoretical results (TCDFT, CD, and trapping model) with an O concentration of approx. 100-140 O appm shows a better match of experimental lifetime spectra (Fig.9), which is in good agreement with SIMS analysis. Consequently, the hypothesis of heterogeneous O₁₋₆V₁ complexes formation is verified.
- (iii) PAS and CD results highlight the interaction between O atoms and V₁. In addition, in the O-free matrix, a very high recombination ratio, R_c of 95 ± 2 % was determined, in excellent agreement with the CD result (96 %).
- 707 (iv) As soon as the O concentration in the matrix is larger than 20 appm, the total population 708 of O₁₋₆V₁ complexes exceeds that of pure V₁. The O effect on the evolution of SIAs and V₁ is 709 therefore demonstrated at RT due to its high mobility and strong binding. This effect should

also be pronounced in high-temperature applications, and potentially be more important than that of the other LEs (H, C, and N).

Declaration of Competing Interest

712

- 713 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
- relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

715 Credit authorship contribution statement

- 716 Zhiwei Hu: Sample preparation, PALS, SPB-DBS experiment, PAS and SIMS data processing
- and interpretation, writing original draft & editing, *Qigui Yang*: TCDFT calculation, data
- analysis, writing original draft & editing *Thomas Jourdan*: CD calculation, data analysis,
- 719 writing original draft & editing *Pierre Desgardin*: Supervision, SPB-DBS experiments
- 720 François Jomard: Supervision, SIMS experiments Cécile Genevois: Supervision, TEM
- 721 experiments Jérôme Joseph: Sample preparation and technical support Pär Olsson:
- 722 Conceptualization, supervision, review & editing. *Marie-France Barthe*: Conceptualization,
- supervision, data processing and interpretation, writing review & editing.

724 Acknowledgments

- 725 The authors thank Olivier Cavani, Bruno Boizot, and Jérémy Lefebvre from the Laboratoire
- des Solides Irradiés (LSI) at École Polytechnique for electron irradiation EMIR&A network for
- 727 the technical support during the irradiations. This work has been carried out within the
- framework of the EUROfusion Consortium, funded by the European Union via the Euratom
- 729 Research and Training Programme (Grant Agreement No 101052200 EUROfusion). Pär
- 730 Olsson acknowledges funding from the Euratom research and training program 2019-2020
- views and opinions expressed are under grant agreement No 900018 (ENTENTE project). Views and opinions expressed are
- however those of the authors only and do not necessarily reflect those of the European Union
- or the European Commission. Neither the European Union nor the European Commission can
- be held responsible for them. Qigui Yang acknowledges the financial support by the China

- 735 Scholarship Council (No. 201807930008) and Svensk Kärnbränslehantering AB. The
- computational resources were provided by the Swedish National Infrastructure for Computing
- 737 (SNIC) and by the CINECA HPC center in Italy. This project has benefited from the facilities
- of the Platform MACLE-CVL which was co-funded by the European Union and Centre-Val de
- 739 Loire Region (FEDER). The authors thank Dr. Ilja.Makkonen at Helsinki University for sharing
- 740 the positron code.

741 References

- 742 [1] M. Rieth, S.L. Dudarev, S.M. Gonzalez de Vicente, J. Aktaa, T. Ahlgren, S. Antusch, D.E.J.
- Armstrong, M. Balden, N. Baluc, M.-F. Barthe, W.W. Basuki, M. Battabyal, C.S. Becquart, D.
- Blagoeva, H. Boldyryeva, J. Brinkmann, M. Celino, L. Ciupinski, J.B. Correia, A. De Backer, C.
- Domain, E. Gaganidze, C. García-Rosales, J. Gibson, M.R. Gilbert, S. Giusepponi, B. Gludovatz, H.
- Greuner, K. Heinola, T. Höschen, A. Hoffmann, N. Holstein, F. Koch, W. Krauss, H. Li, S. Lindig, J.
- 747 Linke, Ch. Linsmeier, P. López-Ruiz, H. Maier, J. Matejicek, T.P. Mishra, M. Muhammed, A.
- Muñoz, M. Muzyk, K. Nordlund, D. Nguyen-Manh, J. Opschoor, N. Ordás, T. Palacios, G. Pintsuk,
- R. Pippan, J. Reiser, J. Riesch, S.G. Roberts, L. Romaner, M. Rosiński, M. Sanchez, W.
- 750 Schulmeyer, H. Traxler, A. Ureña, J.G. van der Laan, L. Veleva, S. Wahlberg, M. Walter, T.
- 751 Weber, T. Weitkamp, S. Wurster, M.A. Yar, J.H. You, A. Zivelonghi, Recent progress in research
- on tungsten materials for nuclear fusion applications in Europe, Journal of Nuclear Materials
- 753 432 (2013) 482–500. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnucmat.2012.08.018.
- 754 [2] H. Bolt, V. Barabash, G. Federici, J. Linke, A. Loarte, J. Roth, K. Sato, Plasma facing and high heat 755 flux materials – needs for ITER and beyond, Journal of Nuclear Materials 307–311 (2002) 43–52. 756 https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-3115(02)01175-3.
- 757 [3] M. Rieth, D. Armstrong, B. Dafferner, S. Heger, A. Hoffmann, M.D. Hoffmann, U. Jäntsch, C.
- Kübel, E. Materna-Morris, J. Reiser, M. Rohde, T. Scherer, V. Widak, H. Zimmermann, Tungsten as a Structural Divertor Material, AST 73 (2010) 11–21.
- 760 https://doi.org/10.4028/www.scientific.net/AST.73.11.
- 761 [4] T. Hirai, S. Panayotis, V. Barabash, C. Amzallag, F. Escourbiac, A. Durocher, M. Merola, J. Linke,
 762 Th. Loewenhoff, G. Pintsuk, M. Wirtz, I. Uytdenhouwen, Use of tungsten material for the ITER
 763 divertor, Nuclear Materials and Energy 9 (2016) 616–622.
- 764 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nme.2016.07.003.
- 765 [5] A. Calvo, K. Schlueter, E. Tejado, G. Pintsuk, N. Ordás, I. Iturriza, R. Neu, J.Y. Pastor, C. García-766 Rosales, Self-passivating tungsten alloys of the system W-Cr-Y for high temperature
- rosales, sell passivating tangsteri alloys of the system well for interpretation
- applications, International Journal of Refractory Metals and Hard Materials 73 (2018) 29–37. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijrmhm.2018.01.018.
- 769 [6] C. Thomser, V. Bailescu, S. Brezinsek, J.W. Coenen, H. Greuner, T. Hirai, J. Linke, C.P. Lungu, H.
 770 Maier, G. Matthews, Ph. Mertens, R. Neu, V. Philipps, V. Riccardo, M. Rubel, C. Ruset, A.
- 771 Schmidt, I. Uytdenhouwen, Plasma Facing Materials for the JET ITER-Like Wall, Fusion Science 772 and Technology 62 (2012) 1–8. https://doi.org/10.13182/FST12-A14103.
- 773 [7] G.S. Was, Fundamentals of radiation materials science: metals and alloys, Springer, Berlin; New York, 2007.
- 775 [8] X. Hu, T. Koyanagi, M. Fukuda, N.A.P.K. Kumar, L.L. Snead, B.D. Wirth, Y. Katoh, Irradiation
- hardening of pure tungsten exposed to neutron irradiation, Journal of Nuclear Materials 480
- 777 (2016) 235–243. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnucmat.2016.08.024.

- 778 [9] A. Hasegawa, Property change mechanism in tungsten under neutron irradiation in various 779 reactors, Journal of Nuclear Materials (2011) 4.
- 780 [10] A. Hasegawa, M. Fukuda, S. Nogami, K. Yabuuchi, Neutron irradiation effects on tungsten 781 materials, Fusion Engineering and Design 89 (2014) 1568–1572. 782 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fusengdes.2014.04.035.
- 783 [11] T. Miyazawa, L.M. Garrison, J.W. Geringer, M. Fukuda, Y. Katoh, T. Hinoki, A. Hasegawa,
 784 Neutron irradiation effects on the mechanical properties of powder metallurgical processed
 785 tungsten alloys, Journal of Nuclear Materials 529 (2020) 151910.
 786 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnucmat.2019.151910.
- 787 [12] J. Matolich, H. Nahm, J. Moteff, Swelling in neutron irradiated tungsten and tungsten-25 788 percent rhenium, Scripta Metallurgica 8 (1974) 837–841. https://doi.org/10.1016/0036-789 9748(74)90304-4.
- 790 [13] C. Chang, D. Terentyev, A. Zinovev, W.V. Renterghem, C. Yin, P. Verleysen, T. Pardoen, M.
 791 Vilémová, J. Matějíček, Irradiation-induced hardening in fusion relevant tungsten grades with
 792 different initial microstructures, Phys. Scr. 96 (2021) 124021. https://doi.org/10.1088/1402 793 4896/ac2181.
- 794 [14] J. Linke, J. Du, T. Loewenhoff, G. Pintsuk, B. Spilker, I. Steudel, M. Wirtz, Challenges for plasma-795 facing components in nuclear fusion, Matter and Radiation at Extremes 4 (2019) 056201. 796 https://doi.org/10.1063/1.5090100.
- 797 [15] K. Farrell, A.C. Schaffhauser, J.O. Stiegler, Recrystallization, grain growth and the ductile-brittle 798 transition in tungsten sheet, Journal of the Less Common Metals 13 (1967) 141–155. 799 https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-5088(67)90177-4.
- 800 [16] G.S. Was, T. Allen, Intercomparison of microchemical evolution under various types of particle 801 irradiation, Journal of Nuclear Materials 205 (1993) 332–338. https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-802 3115(93)90097-I.
- F. Maury, M. Biget, P. Vajda, A. Lucasson, P. Lucasson, Anisotropy of defect creation in electron-irradiated iron crystals, Phys. Rev. B 14 (1976) 5303–5313.
 https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevB.14.5303.
- [18] F. Maury, M. Biget, P. Vajda, A. Lucasson, P. Lucasson, Frenkel pair creation and stage I recovery
 in W crystals irradiated near threshold, Radiation Effects 38 (1978) 53–65.
 https://doi.org/10.1080/00337577808233209.
- 809 [19] H.H. Neely, D.W. Keefer, A. Sosin, Electron Irradiation and Recovery of Tungsten, Phys. Stat. Sol. 810 (b) 28 (1968) 675–682. https://doi.org/10.1002/pssb.19680280225.
- 811 [20] S. Takaki, J. Fuss, H. Kuglers, U. Dedek, H. Schultz, The resistivity recovery of high purity and
 812 carbon doped iron following low temperature electron irradiation, Radiation Effects 79 (1983)
 813 87–122. https://doi.org/10.1080/00337578308207398.
- 814 [21] C.-C. Fu, J.D. Torre, F. Willaime, J.-L. Bocquet, A. Barbu, Multiscale modelling of defect kinetics 815 in irradiated iron, Nat Mater 4 (2004) 68–74. https://doi.org/10.1038/nmat1286.
- 816 [22] W. Schilling, K. Sonnenberg, Recovery of irradiated and quenched metals, J. Phys. F: Met. Phys.
 817 3 (1973) 322. https://doi.org/10.1088/0305-4608/3/2/005.
- 818 [23] G.-H. Lu, H.-B. Zhou, C.S. Becquart, A review of modelling and simulation of hydrogen behaviour 819 in tungsten at different scales, Nucl. Fusion 54 (2014) 086001. https://doi.org/10.1088/0029-820 5515/54/8/086001.
- X.-S. Kong, Y.-W. You, Q.F. Fang, C.S. Liu, J.-L. Chen, G.-N. Luo, B.C. Pan, Z. Wang, The role of impurity oxygen in hydrogen bubble nucleation in tungsten, Journal of Nuclear Materials 433 (2013) 357–363. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnucmat.2012.10.024.
- T. Shimada, H. Kikuchi, Y. Ueda, A. Sagara, M. Nishikawa, Blister formation in tungsten by
 hydrogen and carbon mixed ion beam irradiation, Journal of Nuclear Materials 313–316 (2003)
 204–208. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-3115(02)01447-2.
- 827 [26] M.Y. Ye, H. Kanehara, S. Fukuta, N. Ohno, S. Takamura, Blister formation on tungsten surface 828 under low energy and high flux hydrogen plasma irradiation in NAGDIS-I, Journal of Nuclear 829 Materials 313–316 (2003) 72–76. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-3115(02)01349-1.

- Z. Hu, P. Desgardin, C. Genevois, J. Joseph, B. Décamps, R. Schäublin, M.-F. Barthe, Effect of purity on the vacancy defects induced in self–irradiated tungsten: A combination of PAS and TEM, Journal of Nuclear Materials 556 (2021) 153175.
- https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnucmat.2021.153175.
- 834 [28] N. Castin, A. Dubinko, G. Bonny, A. Bakaev, J. Likonen, A. De Backer, A.E. Sand, K. Heinola, D.
 835 Terentyev, The influence of carbon impurities on the formation of loops in tungsten irradiated
 836 with self-ions, Journal of Nuclear Materials 527 (2019) 151808.
 837 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnucmat.2019.151808.
- 838 [29] A. Bakaev, G. Bonny, N. Castin, D. Terentyev, V.A. Bakaev, Impact of interstitial impurities on the trapping of dislocation loops in tungsten, Sci Rep 11 (2021) 12333.
 840 https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-021-91390-1.
- [30] J. Zhang, W.-Z. Han, Oxygen solutes induced anomalous hardening, toughening and
 embrittlement in body-centered cubic vanadium, Acta Materialia 196 (2020) 122–132.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.actamat.2020.06.023.
- Hautojärvi, Corbel C., Positron Spectroscopy of Defects in Metals and Semiconductors, ENFI 125 (1995) 491–532. https://doi.org/10.3254/978-1-61499-211-0-491.
- F. Tuomisto, I. Makkonen, Defect identification in semiconductors with positron annihilation:
 Experiment and theory, Rev. Mod. Phys. 85 (2013) 1583–1631.
 https://doi.org/10.1103/RevModPhys.85.1583.
- [33] D.J. Keeble, J. Wiktor, S.K. Pathak, L.J. Phillips, M. Dickmann, K. Durose, H.J. Snaith, W. Egger,
 Identification of lead vacancy defects in lead halide perovskites, Nat Commun 12 (2021) 5566.
 https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-25937-1.
- 852 [34] Q. Yang, P. Olsson, Identification and evolution of ultrafine precipitates in Fe-Cu alloys by first-853 principles modelling of positron annihilation, Acta Materialia (2022) 118429. 854 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.actamat.2022.118429.
- 855 [35] M. Elsayed, T.E.M. Staab, J. Čížek, R. Krause-Rehberg, Monovacancy-hydrogen interaction in 856 pure aluminum: Experimental and ab-initio theoretical positron annihilation study, Acta 857 Materialia 248 (2023) 118770. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.actamat.2023.118770.
- T. Jourdan, C.C. Fu, L. Joly, J.L. Bocquet, M.J. Caturla, F. Willaime, Direct simulation of resistivity
 recovery experiments in carbon-doped α-iron, Phys. Scr. T145 (2011) 014049.
 https://doi.org/10.1088/0031-8949/2011/T145/014049.
- 861 [37] Q. Yang, Z. Hu, I. Makkonen, P. Desgardin, W. Egger, M.-F. Barthe, P. Olsson, A combined 862 experimental and theoretical study of small and large vacancy clusters in tungsten, Journal of 863 Nuclear Materials (2022) 154019. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnucmat.2022.154019.
- R. Krause-Rehberg, H.S. Leipner, Positron Annihilation in Semiconductors: Defect Studies,
 Springer-Verlag, Berlin Heidelberg, 1999. http://www.springer.com/gp/book/9783540643715
 (accessed October 19, 2021).
- 867 [39] B. Boizot, M. Soyer, L'accélérateur d'électrons SIRIUS du Laboratoire des Solides Irradiés: Un outil unique pour l'étude des effets d'irradiation dans les matériaux, Reflets phys. (2013) 28–29. https://doi.org/10.1051/refdp/201332028.
- 870 [40] W.A. McKinley, H. Feshbach, The Coulomb Scattering of Relativistic Electrons by Nuclei, Phys. Rev. 74 (1948) 1759–1763. https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRev.74.1759.
- 872 [41] P.D. Lesueur, Cascades de déplacement dam les solides polyatomiques, Philosophical Magazine 873 A 44 (1981) 905–929. https://doi.org/10.1080/01418618108239557.
- [42] A. Dunlop, D. Lesueur, J. Dural, Damage production in iron during high-energy ion irradiation:
 Experimental and theoretical determinations, Nuclear Instruments and Methods in Physics
 Research Section B: Beam Interactions with Materials and Atoms 42 (1989) 182–192.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/0168-583X(89)90705-2.
- 878 [43] D.R. Mason, X. Yi, M.A. Kirk, S.L. Dudarev, Elastic trapping of dislocation loops in cascades in ion-irradiated tungsten foils, J. Phys.: Condens. Matter 26 (2014) 375701.
- 880 https://doi.org/10.1088/0953-8984/26/37/375701.

- [44] A. Hollingsworth, M.-F. Barthe, M.Y. Lavrentiev, P.M. Derlet, S.L. Dudarev, D.R. Mason, Z. Hu, P.
 Desgardin, J. Hess, S. Davies, B. Thomas, H. Salter, E.F.J. Shelton, K. Heinola, K. Mizohata, A. De
 Backer, A. Baron-Wiechec, I. Jepu, Y. Zayachuk, A. Widdowson, E. Meslin, A. Morellec,
 Comparative study of deuterium retention and vacancy content of self-ion irradiated tungsten,
 Journal of Nuclear Materials 558 (2022) 153373.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnucmat.2021.153373.
- P. Desgardin, L. Liszkay, M.F. Barthe, L. Henry, J. Briaud, M. Saillard, L. Lepolotec, C. Corbel, G.
 Blondiaux, A. Colder, P. Marie, M. Levalois, Slow Positron Beam Facility in Orléans, MSF 363–365 (2001) 523–525. https://doi.org/10.4028/www.scientific.net/MSF.363-365.523.
- 890 [46] E. Soininen, J. Mäkinen, D. Beyer, P. Hautojärvi, High-temperature positron diffusion in Si, GaAs, 891 and Ge, Phys. Rev. B 46 (1992) 13104–13118. https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevB.46.13104.
- 892 [47] A. van Veen, H. Schut, J. de Vries, R.A. Hakvoort, M.R. Ijpma, Analysis of positron profiling data 893 by means of "VEPFIT," in: AIP Conference Proceedings, AIP, Ontario (Canada), 1991: pp. 171– 894 198. https://doi.org/10.1063/1.40182.
- 48] A. van Veen, H. Schut, M. Clement, J.M.M. de Nijs, A. Kruseman, M.R. IJpma, VEPFIT applied to depth profiling problems, Applied Surface Science 85 (1995) 216–224.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/0169-4332(94)00334-3.
- T.E.M. Staab, B. Somieski, R. Krause-Rehberg, The data treatment influence on the spectra decomposition in positron lifetime spectroscopy Part 2: The effect of source corrections,
 Nuclear Instruments and Methods in Physics Research Section A: Accelerators, Spectrometers,
 Detectors and Associated Equipment 381 (1996) 141–151. https://doi.org/10.1016/0168-9002(96)00585-2.
- 903 [50] S. McGuire, D.J. Keeble, Positron lifetimes of polycrystalline metals: A positron source
 904 correction study, Journal of Applied Physics 100 (2006) 103504.
 905 https://doi.org/10.1063/1.2384794.
- 906 [51] M. Bertolaccini, L. Zappa, Source-supporting foil effect on the shape of positron time 907 annihilation spectra, Nuov Cim B 52 (1967) 487–494. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02711092.
- 908 [52] A. Alkhamees, H.-B. Zhou, Y.-L. Liu, S. Jin, Y. Zhang, G.-H. Lu, Vacancy trapping behaviors of oxygen in tungsten: A first-principles study, Journal of Nuclear Materials 437 (2013) 6–10. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnucmat.2013.01.317.
- 911 [53] Y.-W. You, X.-S. Kong, X.-B. Wu, C.S. Liu, Q.F. Fang, J.L. Chen, G.-N. Luo, Interaction of carbon,
 912 nitrogen and oxygen with vacancies and solutes in tungsten, RSC Adv. 5 (2015) 23261–23270.
 913 https://doi.org/10.1039/C4RA13854F.
- 914 [54] A. Alkhamees, Y.-L. Liu, H.-B. Zhou, S. Jin, Y. Zhang, G.-H. Lu, First-principles investigation on 915 dissolution and diffusion of oxygen in tungsten, Journal of Nuclear Materials 393 (2009) 508– 916 512. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnucmat.2009.07.012.
- 917 [55] S. Gorondy-Novak, F. Jomard, F. Prima, H. Lefaix-Jeuland, SIMS as a new methodology to depth 918 profile helium in as-implanted and annealed pure bcc metals?, Nuclear Instruments and 919 Methods in Physics Research Section B: Beam Interactions with Materials and Atoms 398 920 (2017) 56–64. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nimb.2017.02.036.
- [56] S. Hasanzadeh, R. Schäublin, B. Décamps, V. Rousson, E. Autissier, M.F. Barthe, C. Hébert,
 Three-dimensional scanning transmission electron microscopy of dislocation loops in tungsten,
 Micron 113 (2018) 24–33. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.micron.2018.05.010.
- 924 [57] G. Kresse, J. Furthmüller, Efficient iterative schemes for ab initio total-energy calculations using
 925 a plane-wave basis set, Physical Review B 54 (1996) 11169–11186.
 926 https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevB.54.11169.
- 927 [58] P.E. Blöchl, Projector augmented-wave method, Physical Review B 50 (1994) 17953–17979. 928 https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevB.50.17953.
- J.P. Perdew, K. Burke, M. Ernzerhof, Generalized Gradient Approximation Made Simple,
 Physical Review Letters 77 (1996) 3865–3868. https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevLett.77.3865.

- [60] I. Makkonen, M. Hakala, M.J. Puska, Modeling the momentum distributions of annihilating
 electron-positron pairs in solids, Physical Review B 73 (2006) 035103.
 https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevB.73.035103.
- 934 [61] P. Folegati, I. Makkonen, R. Ferragut, M.J. Puska, Analysis of electron-positron momentum 935 spectra of metallic alloys as supported by first-principles calculations, Physical Review B 75 936 (2007) 054201. https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevB.75.054201.
- 937 [62] E. Boroński, R.M. Nieminen, Electron-positron density-functional theory, Physical Review B 34 (1986) 3820–3831. https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevB.34.3820.
- 939 [63] M.J. Puska, A.P. Seitsonen, R.M. Nieminen, Electron-positron Car-Parrinello methods: Self 940 consistent treatment of charge densities and ionic relaxations, Physical Review B 52 (1995)
 941 10947–10961. https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevB.52.10947.
- 942 [64] M. Alatalo, B. Barbiellini, M. Hakala, H. Kauppinen, T. Korhonen, M.J. Puska, K. Saarinen, P.
 943 Hautojärvi, R.M. Nieminen, Theoretical and experimental study of positron annihilation with
 944 core electrons in solids, Physical Review B 54 (1996) 2397–2409.
 945 https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevB.54.2397.
- 946 [65] T. Jourdan, G. Bencteux, G. Adjanor, Efficient simulation of kinetics of radiation induced 947 defects: A cluster dynamics approach, Journal of Nuclear Materials 444 (2014) 298–313. 948 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnucmat.2013.10.009.
- 949 [66] M. Kiritani, Electron Radiation Induced Diffusion of Point Defects in Metals, J. Phys. Soc. Jpn. 40 (1976) 1035–1042. https://doi.org/10.1143/JPSJ.40.1035.
- 951 [67] L. Reali, M.R. Gilbert, M. Boleininger, S.L. Dudarev, Intense γ -Photon and High-Energy Electron
 952 Production by Neutron Irradiation: Effects of Nuclear Excitations on Reactor Materials, PRX
 953 Energy 2 (2023) 023008. https://doi.org/10.1103/PRXEnergy.2.023008.
- 954 [68] C.S. Becquart, C. Domain, U. Sarkar, A. DeBacker, M. Hou, Microstructural evolution of
 955 irradiated tungsten: Ab initio parameterisation of an OKMC model, Journal of Nuclear Materials
 956 403 (2010) 75–88. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnucmat.2010.06.003.
- [69] H. Trinkaus, H.L. Heinisch, A.V. Barashev, S.I. Golubov, B.N. Singh, 1D to 3D diffusion-reaction
 kinetics of defects in crystals, Phys. Rev. B 66 (2002) 060105.
 https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevB.66.060105.
- [70] G. Adjanor, Complete characterization of sink-strengths for 1D to 3D mobilities of defect
 clusters: Bridging between limiting cases with effective sink-strengths calculations., Journal of
 Nuclear Materials 572 (2022) 154010. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnucmat.2022.154010.
- 963 [71] H. Schultz, H. Ullmaier, Atomic Defects in Metals · W: Datasheet from Landolt-Börnstein 964 Group III Condensed Matter · Volume 25: "Atomic Defects in Metals" in SpringerMaterials
 965 (https://doi.org/10.1007/10011948_54), (n.d.). https://doi.org/10.1007/10011948_54.
- 966 [72] P.M. Derlet, D. Nguyen-Manh, S.L. Dudarev, Multiscale modeling of crowdion and vacancy
 967 defects in body-centered-cubic transition metals, Phys. Rev. B 76 (2007) 054107.
 968 https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevB.76.054107.
- 969 [73] R. Alexander, M.-C. Marinica, L. Proville, F. Willaime, K. Arakawa, M.R. Gilbert, S.L. Dudarev, Ab 970 initio scaling laws for the formation energy of nanosized interstitial defect clusters in iron, 971 tungsten, and vanadium, Phys. Rev. B 94 (2016) 024103. 972 https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevB.94.024103.
- 973 [74] P.-E. Lhuillier, Etude du comportement de l'hélium et des défauts lacunaires dans le tungstène,
 974 phdthesis, Université d'Orléans, 2010. https://tel.archives-ouvertes.fr/tel-00587482 (accessed
 975 January 7, 2021).
- 976 [75] P.E. Lhuillier, M.F. Barthe, P. Desgardin, W. Egger, P. Sperr, Positron annihilation studies on the 977 nature and thermal behaviour of irradiation induced defects in tungsten, Phys. Status Solidi (c) 978 6 (2009) 2329–2332. https://doi.org/10.1002/pssc.200982114.
- 979 [76] O.V. Ogorodnikova, M. Majerle, V.V. Gann, J. Čížek, P. Hruška, S. Simakov, M. Štefánik, V. Zach, 980 Verification of the theory of primary radiation damage by comparison with experimental data, 981 Journal of Nuclear Materials 525 (2019) 22–31. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnucmat.2019.07.019.

- 982 [77] P.M.G. Nambissan, P. Sen, Positron annihilation study of the annealing behaviour of alpha 983 induced defects in tungsten, Radiation Effects and Defects in Solids 124 (1992) 215–221. 984 https://doi.org/10.1080/10420159208220193.
- 985 [78] R. Ziegler, H.E. Schaefer, Vacancy Formation in Molybdenum and Tungsten Investigated by
 986 Positron Lifetime Measurements, MSF 15–18 (1987) 145–148.
 987 https://doi.org/10.4028/www.scientific.net/MSF.15-18.145.
- 988 [79] H.-E. Schaefer, Investigation of Thermal Equilibrium Vacancies in Metals by Positron 989 Annihilation, Phys. Stat. Sol. (a) 102 (1987) 47–65. https://doi.org/10.1002/pssa.2211020104.
- [80] C.S. Becquart, C. Domain, Ab initio calculations about intrinsic point defects and He in W,
 Nuclear Instruments and Methods in Physics Research Section B: Beam Interactions with
 Materials and Atoms 255 (2007) 23–26. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nimb.2006.11.006.
- 993 [81] Q. Yang, Z. Hu, I. Makkonen, P. Desgardin, W. Egger, M.-F. Barthe, P. Olsson, A combined 994 experimental and theoretical study of small and large vacancy clusters in tungsten, Journal of 995 Nuclear Materials 571 (2022) 154019. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnucmat.2022.154019.
- 996 [82] K. Sato, A. Hirosako, K. Ishibashi, Y. Miura, Q. Xu, M. Onoue, Y. Fukutoku, T. Onitsuka, M.
 997 Hatakeyama, S. Sunada, T. Yoshiie, Quantitative evaluation of hydrogen atoms trapped at single
 998 vacancies in tungsten using positron annihilation lifetime measurements: Experiments and
 999 theoretical calculations, Journal of Nuclear Materials 496 (2017) 9–17.
 1000 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnucmat.2017.09.002.
- 1001 [83] P. Staikov, N. Djourelov, Simulations of $\langle 100 \rangle$ edge and $1/2 \langle 111 \rangle$ screw dislocations in α 1002 iron and tungsten and positron lifetime calculations, Physica B: Condensed Matter 413 (2013)
 1003 59–63. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.physb.2012.12.026.
- 1004 [84] A. Yabuuchi, M. Tanaka, A. Kinomura, Short positron lifetime at vacancies observed in electron-1005 irradiated tungsten: Experiments and first-principles calculations, Journal of Nuclear Materials 1006 542 (2020) 152473. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnucmat.2020.152473.
- 1007 [85] A. Dunand, M. Minissale, J.-B. Faure, L. Gallais, T. Angot, R. Bisson, Surface oxygen versus native 1008 oxide on tungsten: contrasting effects on deuterium retention and release, Nucl. Fusion 62 1009 (2022) 054002. https://doi.org/10.1088/1741-4326/ac583a.
- 1010 [86] N. Igata, S. Sato, FIM observation of point defect clusters in ion-implanted tungsten surfaces, 1011 Nanotechnology 4 (1993) 213–217. https://doi.org/10.1088/0957-4484/4/4006.
- [87] Z. Zhou, S.L. Dudarev, M.L. Jenkins, A.P. Sutton, M.A. Kirk, Diffraction imaging and diffuse
 scattering by small dislocation loops, Journal of Nuclear Materials 367–370 (2007) 305–310.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnucmat.2007.03.135.
- 1015 [88] A. Yabuuchi, Inverse change in positron lifetimes of vacancies in tungsten by binding of 1016 interstitial impurity atoms to a vacancy: A first-principles study, Nuclear Materials and Energy 1017 34 (2023) 101364. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nme.2023.101364.
- [89] K. Arakawa, M.-C. Marinica, S. Fitzgerald, L. Proville, D. Nguyen-Manh, S.L. Dudarev, P.-W. Ma,
 T.D. Swinburne, A.M. Goryaeva, T. Yamada, T. Amino, S. Arai, Y. Yamamoto, K. Higuchi, N.
 Tanaka, H. Yasuda, T. Yasuda, H. Mori, Quantum de-trapping and transport of heavy defects in
 tungsten, Condensed Matter Physics (n.d.). https://doi.org/10.1038/s41563-019-0584-0.
- [90] T. Amino, K. Arakawa, H. Mori, Activation energy for long-range migration of self-interstitial atoms in tungsten obtained by direct measurement of radiation-induced point-defect clusters,
 Philosophical Magazine Letters 91 (2011) 86–96.
 https://doi.org/10.1080/09500839.2010.533133.
- 1026 [91] C. Domain, C.S. Becquart, Solute 〈111〉 interstitial loop interaction in α-Fe: A DFT study,
 1027 Journal of Nuclear Materials 499 (2018) 582–594.
 1028 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnucmat.2017.10.070.
- 1029 [92] E. Kuramoto, T. Tsutsumi, K. Ueno, M. Ohmura, Y. Kamimura, Positron lifetime calculations on vacancy clusters and dislocations in Ni and Fe, Computational Materials Science 14 (1999) 28–1031 35. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0927-0256(98)00068-8.

- 1032 [93] C.J. Ortiz, M.J. Caturla, Cascade damage evolution: rate theory versus kinetic Monte Carlo 1033 simulations, J Computer-Aided Mater Des 14 (2007) 171–181. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10820-1034 007-9082-9.
- [94] A. De Backer, P.E. Lhuillier, C.S. Becquart, M.F. Barthe, Modelling of the implantation and the
 annealing stages of 800keV 3He implanted tungsten: Formation of nanovoids in the near
 surface region, Journal of Nuclear Materials 429 (2012) 78–91.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnucmat.2012.05.024.
- 1039 [95] R.A. Johnson, Point-defect calculations for tungsten, Phys. Rev. B 27 (1983) 2014–2018. 1040 https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevB.27.2014.
- 1041 [96] K. Heinola, T. Ahlgren, K. Nordlund, J. Keinonen, Hydrogen interaction with point defects in tungsten, Phys. Rev. B 82 (2010) 094102. https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevB.82.094102. 1043