



Effects of Sb micro-alloying on precipitate evolution and mechanical properties of a dilute Al-Sc-Zr alloy

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ABSTRACT

An Al-Sc-Zr aluminum alloy with Sb micro-addition (Al-0.066Sc-0.050Zr-0.021Sb at%) is cast and heat-treated to study the effects of Sb on the nucleation, growth, coarsening kinetics and precipitate morphology, and resulting mechanical properties at ambient and elevated temperatures. When isochronally aged, the Sb-containing alloy exhibits a peak microhardness (607 ± 12 MPa) at 475 °C, which is greater than that of a comparable Sb-free alloy at the same temperature (549 ± 17 MPa), and a smaller rate of decrease of microhardness values due to precipitate coarsening for aging temperatures > 475 °C. When isothermally aged, the Sb-containing alloy achieves larger peak microhardness values at 300 °C for more than a month (~80 MPa difference) and 400 °C for ~8 h (~200 MPa difference) than the Sb-free alloy. Atom-probe tomography of the peak-aged Sb-containing alloy demonstrates that Sb partitions to the precipitates, and is enriched in the Zr-rich shell (up to 0.35 at% Sb). For creep testing at 300 °C, the Sb-containing alloy exhibits smaller steady-state strain-rates than the Sb-free control alloy at applied stresses > 15 MPa. It is hypothesized that the effects of Sb micro-alloying (partitioning to precipitates, enhanced precipitate coarsening and higher creep resistance) are linked with the following mechanisms: (i) enhanced Zr diffusion in the matrix due to attractive Sb-Zr interactions; (ii) reduction in matrix/precipitate interfacial free energy, when Sb is present; and (iii) an increase in precipitate/matrix lattice parameter mismatch resulting in stronger elastic interactions with dislocations.

1. Introduction

Precipitation-strengthened aluminum alloys microalloyed with scandium and zirconium have been developed as a promising family of lightweight alloys for use at temperatures as high as 400 °C, with applications in aerospace and automotive structural components [1–10]. Current, traditional age-hardened aluminum alloys cannot be used at high temperatures for long times since the precipitate coarsens rapidly above ~230 °C, thereby weakening the alloy [11–16]. Scandium and zirconium form nanoscale trialuminide Al₃X (X=Sc or Zr) precipitates with the L1₂ structure, which are coherent with the face-centered cubic (f.c.c.) crystal structure of aluminum, and displays slow coarsening rates due to the diffusion of Sc and Zr in Al [1,17–30]. Scandium has the greatest ability to strengthen aluminum on a per atom basis by grain refinement and formation of ordered (L1₂-structure) nanoscale precipitates that are stable after prolonged aging at 300 °C [17,18,22–25,27,31–34]. Zirconium forms metastable L1₂ precipitates, which are coarsening-resistant at temperatures below 500 °C, before transforming to the D0₂₃ tetragonal structure [19,21,29,35–38].

Combining Sc and Zr in aluminum yields an alloy with L1₂ Al₃(Sc, Zr) precipitates, displaying superior heat-resistance and high strength [33,39–46]. Precipitates with a core-shell morphology are formed in these alloys during aging, where the core is Sc-rich and the shell is Zr-rich due to Scandium's higher diffusivity, and thus its earlier precipitation in aluminum [3,10,39,40,47–51]. The Zr-rich shell provides a smaller lattice parameter mismatch with the matrix, a diffusion barrier against Sc atoms, resulting in coherent Al₃(Sc, Zr) precipitates with small coarsening rates at 400 °C for up to 2 mos. Recently, additional elements, such as erbium and silicon, have been added to Al-Sc-Zr alloys and studied for their effects on precipitate morphology, nucleation and growth rates, coarsening resistance, and strengthening at ambient and elevated temperatures [47,52–54]. Erbium improves the creep resistance by the formation of a higher mismatching Er-rich inner core within the precipitates, Si accelerates the nucleation, growth and coarsening of the precipitates, and improves the peak strength achieved during thermal aging due to an attractive binding free energy between Si atoms and vacancies [47,52–55]. Booth-Morrison et al. [53] attribute the effects on the early stages of nucleation and growth of Sc-rich precipitate cores to: (i) the favorable formation of Sc-Si and Si-

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vacancy dimers, which decreases the migration energy of Sc in Al from 0.74 to 0.45 eV atom⁻¹ and increases the Sc diffusivity; and (ii) an attractive binding free energy between Si and vacancies leading to vacancy clusters that become heterogeneous nucleation sites for precipitates. Vo et al. [54] propose that the accelerated coarsening of the Al₃(Sc, Zr) precipitates is a result of Si atoms increasing the diffusivity of Sc within the Zr-rich regions in the precipitate, and also possibly Zr.

This article focuses on a study of an Al-Sc-Zr alloy with microalloying addition of Sb, which was selected based on Wolverton's [55] first-principle calculations of binding energies between solute atoms and vacancies in aluminum. Since Sb has a favorable 0.30 eV attractive binding energy, at 0 K, with nearest-neighbor vacancies in Al, we hypothesize that Sb will exhibit a similar effect to that of Si on accelerating the precipitation kinetics of Al₃(Sc, Zr) by binding favorably with Zr, as many intermetallic compounds form in the Sb-Zr binary phase [56]. The Al-Sb binary phase diagram indicates a very limited solid solubility of Sb in aluminum (< 0.02 at% at 627 °C), with AlSb being the only intermetallic line-compound [57–59]. Although it is possible that the solubility of Sb in Al is altered as a result of Sc and Zr additions in the alloy, there currently exist no ternary phase diagrams for the Al-Sc-Sb or Al-Zr-Sb system. Furthermore, it is likely that the effects of Sc and Zr on the solubility of Sb in Al can be neglected due to the small amounts of Sc and Zr in the alloy (< 0.1 at% for either). To disperse the Sb atoms throughout the Al solid-solution and reduce or prevent AlSb primary precipitates formation during solidification and homogenization, a very small concentration of Sb (200 ppm at%) was chosen. Herein, we compare a previously-studied Sb-free alloy to our new Sb-containing alloy with respect to aging kinetics, coarsening resistance, precipitate composition, and microhardness and creep resistance.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Alloy preparation and heat treatment

A 200 g cylindrical ingot was cast in air for an alloy with a nominal atomic composition of Al-0.06Sc-0.06Zr-0.02Sb at% (Al-0.10Sc-0.21Zr-0.09Sb wt%) by melting pieces of 4N (99.99% purity) Al (Alcoa Inc.), Al-Sc and Al-Zr master alloys (Alcoa Inc.), and ~99.5% pure Sb (Alfa Aesar) in an alumina crucible at 800 °C. The melt was stirred vigorously before being poured into a graphite crucible placed onto an ice-cooled copper platen to encourage directional solidification, thereby preventing the formation of internal shrinkage cavities during solidification. Direct-current plasma optical-emission spectrometry (DCP-OES) was performed on ~0.50 g of the ingot by ATI Specialty Alloys and Components (Albany, OR), and the results are displayed in Table 1, alongside those measured utilizing local-electrode atom-probe (LEAP) tomography. The DCP determined concentrations for Sc, Zr and Sb are close to their nominal concentrations, and the former is used in the remainder of this article.

The cast alloy was homogenized in air at 640 °C for 3 days and then water-quenched, resulting in a supersaturated solid-solution. Samples of the ingot were cut and heat-treated sequentially from 100 to 575 °C with 25 °C/1 h steps for isochronal aging. Other samples were iso-

thermally aged at 300 and 400 °C for times ranging from 0.5 to 2 months. Double isothermal aging (300 °C for 4 h and subsequently at 400 and 425 °C for 0.5 h to 1 week) was performed to develop a heat treatment sequence for maximum alloy strength with a minimal aging time. Vickers microhardness measurements were made using a Struers Duramin 5 hardness tester with 200 g load, dwell time of 5 s, and a magnification of 40×, while electrical conductivity measurements were performed using a Foerster SigmaTest 2.069 at frequencies of 120, 240, 480, and 960 kHz. Both microhardness and conductivity measurements were utilized to follow the time and temperature evolution of the precipitates.

2.2. Creep experiments

A constant load compressive creep experiment was performed at 300 ± 1 °C on a cylindrical specimen with a 10 mm diameter and a 20 mm height. The specimen had been isochronally aged to 450 °C after homogenizing at 640 °C for 72 h with a final aging temperature well above the creep temperature, to insure no aging during the creep test. The samples were heated in a three-zone furnace, with the temperature monitored using a thermocouple placed within ~1 cm of the specimen, which were placed between two boron-nitride coated alumina platens, and subjected to uniaxial compressive loads by Ni superalloy push-rods employing dead weights. Sample strain was determined by measuring the cross-head displacement using a linear-variable displacement-transducer (LVDT), with a resolution of ~6 μm, corresponding to a strain increment of ~3×10⁻⁴. The specimens were deformed at a constant load until steady-state (secondary) creep was achieved; the load was then increased and the measurement repeated. As a result, several creep rates for sequentially increasing applied stresses were measured from a single specimen without deforming the specimen more than 13%.

2.3. Microstructural imaging

Specimens for three-dimensional (3D) local-electrode atom-probe (LEAP) tomography were prepared by cutting blanks, with a diamond-blade precision saw, to dimensions of ~0.45×0.45×10 mm³. The blanks were cut from samples aged isochronally to 450 °C utilizing 25 °C/1 h steps. They were then electropolished at room temperature by thinning the blanks at 25–20 V DC using a solution of 10% perchloric acid in acetic acid, followed by necking and final nanopit formation at 15–12 V DC with a solution of 2% perchloric acid in butoxyethanol [47,54]. Ultraviolet (UV) laser assisted APT was performed using a LEAP 4000Si-X tomograph (Cameca, Madison, WI) at a specimen temperature of 30 K, a UV laser energy of 25 pJ pulse⁻¹, and a pulse repetition rate of 500 kHz. The data were analyzed using IVAS reconstruction software (Cameca), and measurement errors were calculated using counting statistics and standard error propagation techniques.

A surface of the Al-Sc-Zr-Sb alloy specimen after homogenization at 640 °C was polished to a ~0.05 μm finish, and then etched with Keller's reagent to reveal the grains and dendritic structure. The images were recorded using a Nikon Eclipse MA200 optical microscope with bright- and dark-field modes. Additionally, the base surface of the creep specimen after aging isochronally to 450 °C was polished to a ~1 μm

Table 1

Compositions of the base and experimental alloys given in atomic percent (at%) determined by direct current plasma – optical emission spectroscopy (DCP-OES) and local electrode atom-probe (LEAP) tomography. The detection limit of each method is indicated for Si.

Nominal composition	Measured composition from DCP-OES				Measured composition from LEAP			
	Sc	Zr	Sb	Si	Sc	Zr	Sb	Si ^a
Al-0.06Sc-0.06Zr ²¹	0.067	0.052	–	< 0.005	0.069	0.026	–	< 0.002
Al-0.06Sc-0.06Zr-0.02Sb	0.066	0.050	0.021	< 0.005	0.047	0.034	< 0.002	< 0.002

^a Atomic concentration of ²⁸Si²⁺ atoms from LEAP tomography.

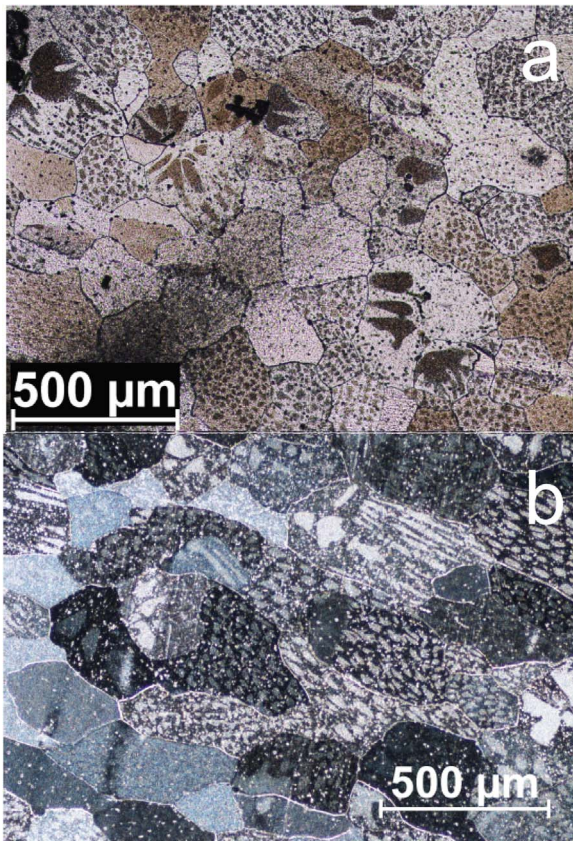


Fig. 1. Bright-field (a) and dark-field optical micrographs of etched cross-section of Al-0.06Sc-0.06Zr-0.02Sb at% in the homogenized state. Numerous dendrite arm cross-sections are observed within the grains of the specimen.

finish and then etched with Keller's reagent to reveal the grain boundaries.

3. Results

3.1. Dendrites and grain size

The micrographs of the Al-Sc-Zr-Sb alloy in the homogenized state, Fig. 1, indicate that there is a large volume fraction (~45%) of dendrite arm cross-sections within each grain. Dendrites form during alloy solidification and can lead to the development of precipitate-free regions among the dendrite arms, which can have deleterious effects on the mechanical properties [3,21]. A micrograph of the etched surface of the Sb-containing creep specimen, Fig. 2, indicates that a majority of the grains have lengths in excess of ~1 mm. Given the grain dimensions, applied compression loads (~13–30 MPa), and the testing temperature, 300 °C, we can safely state that the dominant creep mechanism is dislocation climb [60–62].

3.2. Isochronal aging

Fig. 3 displays the microhardness and conductivity values, as a function of isochronal aging temperature, for the Sb-free Al-Sc-Zr alloy and the new Sb-containing Al-Sc-Zr-Sb alloy. The data for the Sb-free alloy are from Booth-Morrison et al. [47]. The microhardness and conductivity values for the Sb-containing alloy remain relatively unchanged at 260 ± 7 MPa and 29.90 ± 0.05 MS/m, respectively, between 100 and 275 °C, indicating the absence of precipitation. The microhardness and conductivity start increasing at 300 °C, indicating the onset of precipitation and microhardness peaks at 375 ± 7 MPa, which corresponds to the precipitation of Sc atoms from the

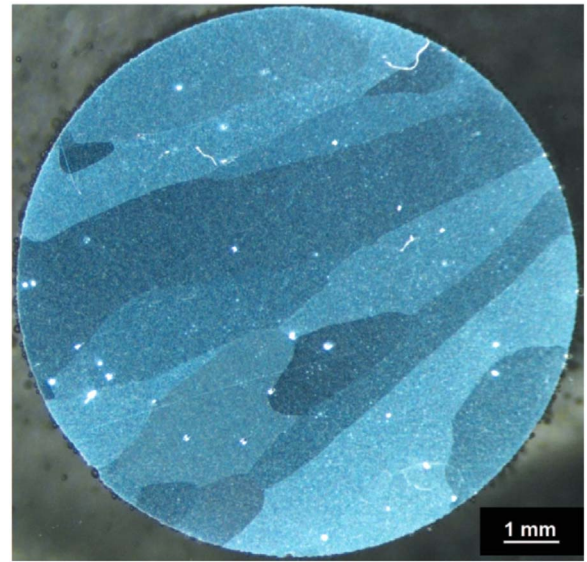


Fig. 2. Micrograph of the etched base surface of the creep specimen of an Al-0.06Sc-0.06Zr-0.02Sb at% alloy. The large grain diameters in the specimen indicate that dislocation creep is the dominant mechanism.

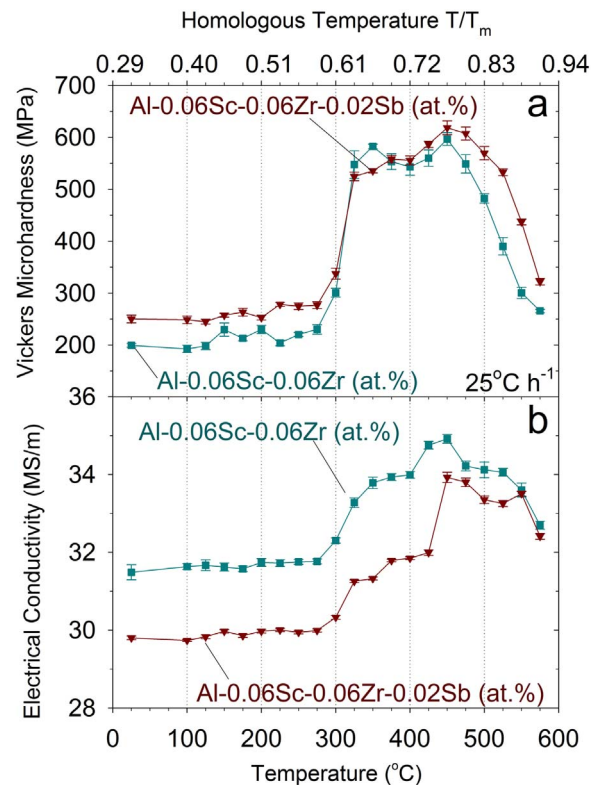


Fig. 3. Temporal evolution of the (a) Vickers microhardness and (b) electrical conductivity for the Sb-free²¹ and Sb-containing alloys for isochronal aging.

matrix to form Sc-rich $Al_3(Sc, Zr)$ precipitates, based on the archival literature [3,18,19]. Similarly, the microhardness and conductivity values for the Sb-free Al-Sc-Zr alloy display very little change from their homogenized state values of ~200 MPa and ~31.50 MS/m, respectively, up to 275 °C, after which both increase significantly for aging temperatures between 300 and 350 °C.

Above 375 °C, the microhardness of the Sb-containing alloy increases slowly and peaks again at ~450 °C with values of 618 ± 13 MPa, which corresponds to the precipitation of Zr from the matrix, forming a Zr-rich $Al_3(Zr, Sc)$ shell on the existing precipitates, as also reported in

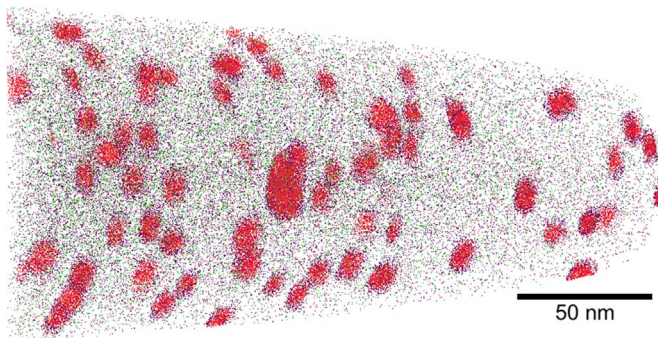


Fig. 4. Reconstruction of the Al-0.06Sc-0.06Zr-0.02Sb (at%) atom-probe tomographic nanotip taken from a sample isochronally aged to 450 °C after homogenizing at 640 °C for 72 h. The Sc atoms are in red, Zr atoms in purple, Sb atoms in light green, and Si atoms in black. The Al atoms have been omitted for the sake of clarity. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

Refs. [3,5,38]. By contrast, the microhardness and electrical conductivity for the Sb-free alloy decrease and plateau, respectively, between 350 and 400 °C, indicative of coarsening of the initially formed Al₃Sc precipitates, and increase between 400 and 450 °C, as expected from precipitation of Zr from the matrix. The microhardness and conductivity values for both alloys decrease at aging temperatures above 450 °C due to the dissolution of the precipitates and the solutionizing of Sc, Zr and Sb atoms. Although the microhardness loss is significantly reduced for the new Al-Sc-Zr-Sb alloy when compared with the Sb-free alloy, as indicated by the consistently higher microhardness values for the former alloy at any given temperature > 450 °C. For example, at 550 °C (homologous temperature of 0.88), the Sb-containing alloy (HV=437 ± 6 MPa) is much harder than the Sb-free alloy. In summary, it appears that Sb micro-additions neither affect significantly the precipitation of Sc from the matrix nor the first peak microhardness value achieved at 375 °C from these precipitates, but accelerates the precipitation of Zr between 350 and 450 °C, and decelerates the coarsening rate of core-shell Al₃(Sc, Zr) precipitates above 450 °C, with a substantial microhardness of 437 ± 6 MPa maintained at 550 °C.

Fig. 4 displays a three-dimensional (3D) atomic-scale reconstruction of the Sb-containing alloy aged isochronally to 450 °C as obtained from APT. Table 2 presents a comparison of the precipitate number density, N_v , mean precipitate radius, $\langle R(t) \rangle$, volume fraction, ϕ , and microhardness values between the Al-Sc-Zr and Al-Sc-Zr-Sb alloy, which are calculated using the so-called cluster analysis (Cameca, Madison, WI). for the Sb-containing alloy is measured as $9.4 \pm 0.6 \times 10^{22} \text{ m}^{-3}$, which is more than four times the value measured by Booth-Morrison et al. [47] in the Sb-free Al-Sc-Zr alloy, the average precipitate radius is the same within error, and the volume fraction for the Al-Sc-Zr-Sb alloy is almost three times that of the Sb-free alloy.

Measurements of volume fraction and number density by LEAP tomography are susceptible to large statistical variations because the nanotips constitute a small volume, when compared to those probed

Table 2

Precipitate number density, N_v , mean precipitate radius, $\langle R \rangle$, volume fraction of precipitates, ϕ , and Vickers microhardness value HV for the Sb-free²¹ and Sb-containing alloys after homogenization at 640 °C for 72 h and isochronal aging up to 450 °C.

Alloy	N_v ($\times 10^{22} \text{ m}^{-3}$)	$\langle R \rangle$ (nm)	ϕ (%)	HV (MPa)	Nanotip length (nm)
Al-Sc-Zr ²¹	2.1 ± 0.2	3.1 ± 0.4	0.251 ± 0.002	597 ± 12	~290
Al-Sc-Zr-Sb	9.4 ± 0.6	3.1 ± 0.7	0.70 ± 0.002	618 ± 13	~240

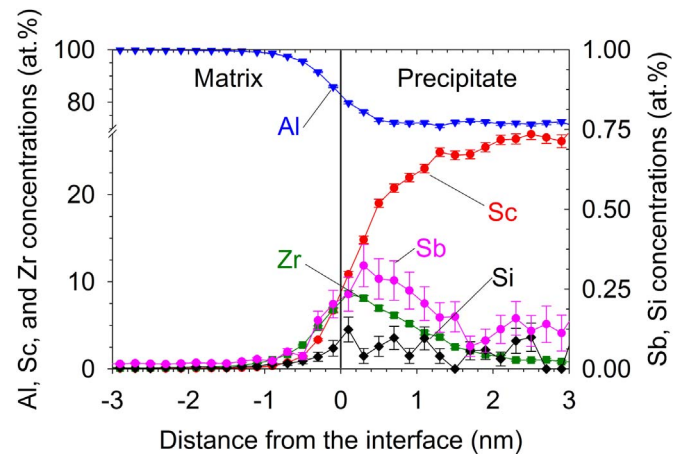


Fig. 5. Proximity histogram across the matrix-precipitate interface recorded for 63 precipitates within the atom-probe tomographic nanotip of an Al-0.06Sc-0.06Zr-0.02Sb at% sample aged isochronally to 450 °C after homogenizing at 640 °C for 72 h. The interface ($x=0$) is set at the inflection point of the Al concentration curve. The matrix is on the left-hand side and the precipitates are on the right-hand side of the vertical line indicating the position of the interface.

via microhardness and conductivity testing. Therefore, it is likely that the large differences in volume fraction and number density for the two alloys aged isochronally to 450 °C can be attributed to statistical variation, given that the microhardness of the alloy is within error the same. The precipitate radii are within error is consistent with the absence of a microhardness difference between the two alloys.

Fig. 5 displays concentration profiles for Al, Sc, Zr, Si, and Sb as a function of distance, where the $x=0$ point is placed at the inflection point of the Al curve, which defines the interface between the precipitate (right-hand side) and the solid-solution matrix (left-hand side). The concentration profiles are generated using the proximity histogram (proxigram) methodology [63] in the IVAS software package, which is based on 63 precipitates. While the amount of solute (Sc, Zr, Si, and Sb) in the matrix is negligible, the four elements are present within the precipitates. The peak concentration of Zr of ~8 at% is less than 0.25 nm from the interface, although there is still a sizeable concentration of Zr towards the center of the precipitate (~1 at%), which may be the result of the accelerated incorporation of Zr in the precipitates. The peak for Sc of ~25 at% is found at the precipitates centers based on measurements of $\langle R \rangle$. These peak Zr- and Sc-concentrations correspond, respectively, to the Zr- and Sc-rich regions of the core-shell precipitates. A peak of 0.3 at% for Sb (compared to 0.02 at% for the nominal alloy composition) is found near the Zr-peak, indicating that Sb segregates largely to the Zr-rich shell. Nevertheless, a significant amount of Sb and Zr is found at the centers of the precipitates with constant concentrations of ~0.15 at% and ~1 at% respectively. By contrast, Si atoms appear to be distributed relatively evenly across the matrix-precipitate interface.

The composition of the overall APT nanotip, matrix, and the precipitates measured using APT on Sb-free and Sb-containing alloys samples aged isochronally to 450 °C are displayed in Table 3. While the DCP-OES results for both alloys (Table 1) match closely the target nominal compositions, the LEAP tomography measurements are taken from small sampling volumes that are prone to variations, as the nanotip may be taken from a solute-enriched dendrite or a solute-depleted interdendritic channel. The measured concentration of Zr in the precipitates is smaller for the Sb-containing alloy, probably because of its higher measured number density of precipitates, such that the Zr atoms are dispersed more sparsely between the precipitates.

3.3. Isothermal aging

The Vickers microhardness and electrical conductivity measure-

Table 3

The compositions, in atomic percent (at%), of the atom-probe tomograph nanotip, matrix, and precipitates for the Sb-free²¹ and Sb-containing alloys homogenized at 640 °C for 72 h and isochronally aged through 450 °C as determined by LEAP tomography. The heating rate is 8 K h⁻¹.

	Al-0.06Sc-0.06Zr ²¹					Al-0.06Sc-0.06Zr-0.02Sb				
	Al	Sc	Zr	Sb	Si ^a	Al	Sc	Zr	Sb	Si ^a
Overall nanotip	Balance	0.069	0.026	–	< 0.002	Balance	0.047	0.034	< 0.002	< 0.002
Matrix	Balance	0.016	0.013	–	< 0.002	Balance	< 0.002	0.011	< 0.002	< 0.002
Precipitate	71.95	22.63	5.42	–	< 0.002	72.10	26.10	1.69	0.13	0.04

^a Atomic concentration of ²⁸Si²⁺ atomic as determined by LEAP tomography.

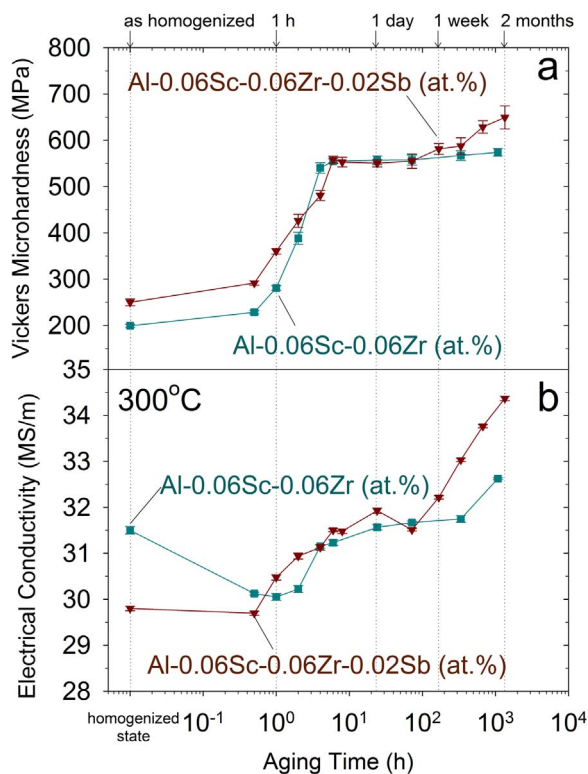


Fig. 6. Temporal evolution of the (a) Vickers microhardness and (b) electrical conductivity for the Sb-free²¹ and Sb-containing alloys for isothermal aging at 300 °C.

ments, as a function of aging time, at a temperature of 300 °C is shown in Fig. 6 for the Al-Sc-Zr and Al-Sc-Zr-Sb alloys. The first notable increase in microhardness corresponds to the precipitation of Sc atoms out of the solid-solution matrix [47,53]. While the microhardness values for the new Al-Sc-Zr-Sb alloy are higher than that of the Sb-free alloy for aging times less than ~2 h, for longer aging times the microhardness values become similar. These results in concert with the isochronal aging curves indicate that Sb has very little effects on the precipitation of Sc out of the matrix. After reaching a microhardness of 550 ± 10 MPa and conductivity of 31.50 ± 0.05 MS/m after ~6 h of aging, these values for the Sb-containing alloy remain approximately constant for aging times up to 1 week. Both microhardness and conductivity subsequently increase as a result of Zr precipitation from the matrix [29,38]. After two months, the microhardness and conductivity for the Sb-containing alloy reaches 650 ± 25 MPa and 34.37 ± 0.05 MS/m, respectively, while the microhardness and conductivity measurements for the Sb-free alloy remain approximately unchanged. These results indicate that Sb accelerates the nucleation and growth of the Zr-rich shell of the Al₃(Sc, Zr) precipitates.

Fig. 7 shows the hardness and conductivity measurements as a function of time for isothermal aging at 400 °C. While the Sb-free alloy's hardness values remain roughly the same at a low value of ~230 MPa for aging times even beyond 2 months, the conductivity

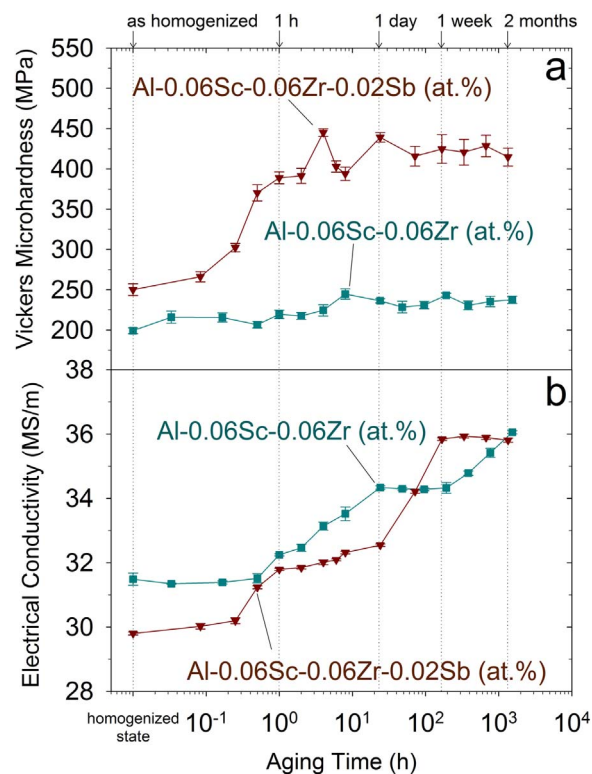


Fig. 7. Temporal evolution of the (a) Vickers microhardness and (b) electrical conductivity for the Sb-free²¹ and Sb-containing alloys for isothermal aging at 400 °C.

increases from 31.51 ± 0.14 MS/m to 34.30 ± 0.21 MS/m between 1 h and 2 days of aging, indicating precipitation of coarse Sc-rich precipitates from the matrix [47,53]. The conductivity plateaus until after two weeks of total aging are due to saturation of Sc atoms from matrix, and then increases again to 36.25 ± 0.05 MS/m after aging for 2 months, which corresponds to the precipitation of coarse Zr-rich precipitates from the solid-solution matrix [29,38].

After aging the Al-Sc-Zr-Sb alloy for 15 min, the microhardness and conductivity begin to increase as a result of nucleation and growth of small precipitates [64]. The first microhardness peak at 450 ± 5 MPa is reached after 4 h of aging, while the conductivity steadily increases to 32.55 ± 0.03 MS/m after aging for 1 d, as a result of Sc precipitation out of the matrix. The microhardness value decreases slightly between 4 and 24 h as a result of coarsening of the Al₃Sc precipitates. The peak strength achieved at 400 °C is considerably smaller than that reached upon aging at 300 °C due to the smaller driving force for nucleation at higher aging temperatures, resulting in a smaller number density of coarser precipitates [65]. The next increase in conductivity to 35.90 ± 0.06 MS/m occurs between one day and two weeks of aging, as a result of Zr precipitation out of the matrix. The fact that this increase occurs earlier than for the Sb-free alloy again suggests that Sb accelerates the precipitation of Zr from the matrix. The microhardness is, however, unaffected, probably because weakening by coarsening negates

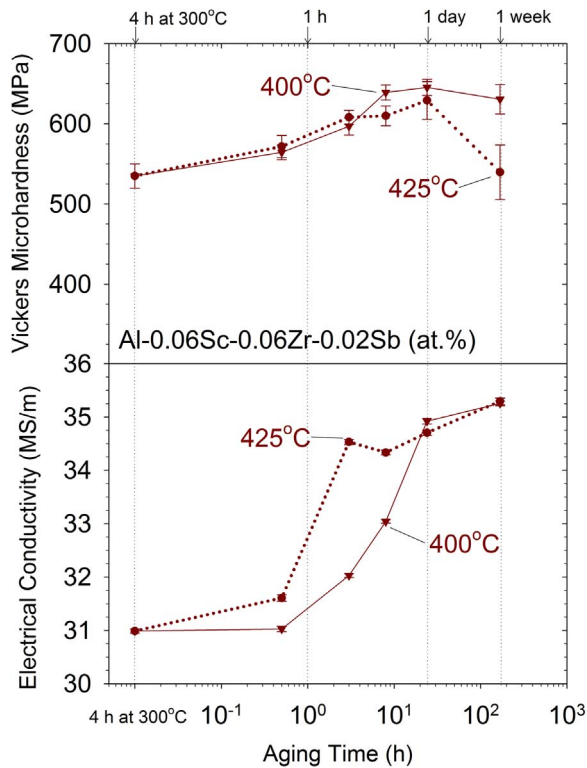


Fig. 8. Temporal evolution of the (a) Vickers hardness (b) and electrical conductivity measurements for the Sb-free²¹ and Sb-containing alloys during isothermal aging at 400 °C and 425 °C, after prior aging at 300 °C for 4 h.

strengthening due to Zr precipitation.

The Vickers microhardness and electrical conductivity measurements for the Al-Sc-Zr-Sb alloy, isothermally aged at 400 and 425 °C after prior peak aging at 300 °C for 4 h, are displayed in Fig. 8. Aging at 400 °C for 24 h yields a peak microhardness value of 640 ± 9 MPa, with a concomitant conductivity of 33.04 ± 0.03 MS/m, which are comparable to the values achieved during isothermal aging at 300 °C for 56 days, Fig. 6. A slightly lower microhardness is achieved after 24 h for aging at 425 °C, which is the result of a smaller driving force for nucleation. The microhardness values at 425 °C decrease significantly after aging for more than a week, while this decrease is less pronounced at 400 °C. These results imply that a total aging time of 12 h (at 300 and then 400 °C) leads to peak alloy strength, which is more than 50 times shorter than the time (64 days) required for aging at only 300 °C.

3.4. Creep results at 300 °C

A plot of the steady-state strain rate vs. the applied stress during creep experiment of our Al-0.066Sc-0.050Zr-0.021Sb (at%) alloy at 300 °C is displayed in Fig. 9, along with the data for the Al-0.057Sc-0.059Zr alloy (at%, measured using DCP-OES) studied by Knipling et al. [3]. While the creep specimen from our Sb-containing alloy was aged isochronally to 450 °C utilizing 25 °C/1 h steps, the Sb-free creep specimen was aged isochronally to 400 °C with 25 °C 3 h⁻¹ steps. Because Knipling's Al-0.06Sc-0.06Zr (at%) alloy aged isochronally to 400 °C with 25 °C 3 h⁻¹ steps has a Vickers microhardness value similar to that of Booth-Morrison et al. Al-0.052Sc-0.067Zr (at%, measured with DCP-OES) alloy aged isochronally to 450 °C with 25 °C/1 h steps, it is likely that the two alloys have similar microstructure and therefore it is reasonable to use Knipling et al.'s creep dataset to compare with our Sb-containing alloy [3,47]. No 300 °C creep data are available for the Al-Sc-Zr alloy studied by Booth-Morrison et al. [52].

The steady-state strain-rate $\dot{\epsilon}$ vs. applied stress σ data points

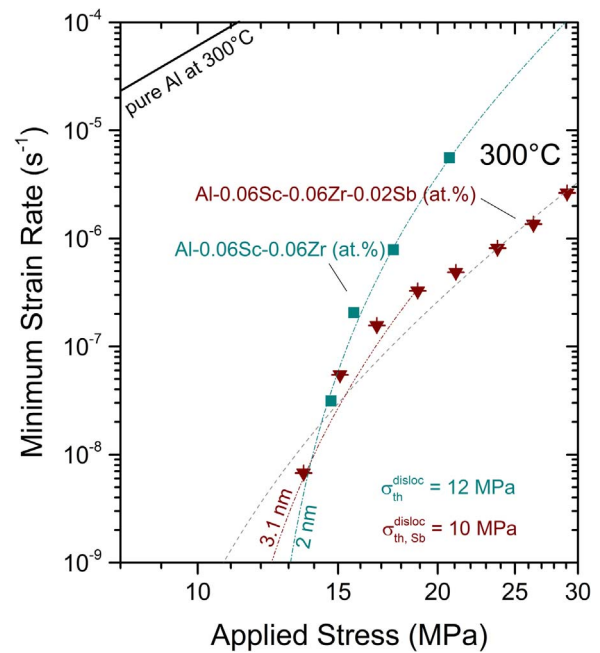


Fig. 9. Double-logarithmic plot of minimum creep rate vs. applied stress for compressive creep experiments at 300 °C for alloy is inferred from Knipling et al. [3]. Best-fit lines from the modified creep power law equation (Eq. (1)) are given together with the resulting dislocation creep threshold stresses. The colored best-fit curve (dash-dot) represents only the first four data points for the Al-0.06Sc-0.06Zr-0.02Sb at% alloy, while the grey best fit curve (dashed) represents all data points and gives a threshold stress of 7.1 MPa. Creep rates for pure Al are also plotted [66]. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

(Fig. 9) are fitted to the modified power-law equation:

$$\dot{\epsilon} = A(\sigma - \sigma_{th})^n \exp\left(-\frac{Q}{RT}\right) \quad (1)$$

where A is a constant, σ_{th} is the threshold stress below which the steady-state strain-rate cannot be measured in the laboratory frame, R is the ideal gas constant, T is the absolute temperature, n is a creep-mechanism dependent exponent, and Q is the activation energy for self-diffusion [60,66–68]. The activation energy is taken to be $Q = 142$ kJ mol⁻¹ for pure aluminum, and the creep exponent can be taken as that of dislocation creep ($n=4.4$), since the micrograph of the creep specimen (Fig. 2) exhibits large grain diameters indicating that diffusional creep is not dominant [61,62]. The constant A and threshold stress σ_{th} for the Sb-containing alloys are determined from a nonlinear fit of $\dot{\epsilon}^{1/n}$ vs. σ , yielding $\sigma_{th} = 10$ MPa when using the four lowest stress data points. Knipling et al. reported $\sigma_{th} = 12$ MPa for a creep specimen tested at 300 °C [3], Fig. 9. Further experiments are required to confirm the mechanisms controlling the creep behavior in this alloy, which are beyond the scope of this paper whose focus is precipitate evolution.

For applied stresses below ~15 MPa, the best-fit curves suggest that Knipling et al.'s Sb-free Al-Sc-Zr specimen is somewhat more creep resistant than our Sb-containing alloy. The Al-Sc-Zr data only includes steady-state strain-rates for applied stresses > 13 MPa, and a more appropriate fit of the power law equation would incorporate data for smaller applied stresses. It is, however, clear that our Sb-containing alloy has superior creep resistance for applied stresses > 15 MPa, since the steady-state strain-rates are significantly smaller than those measured on the Al-Sc-Zr alloy by approximately more than one order of magnitude at 20 MPa.

4. Discussion

4.1. Core-shell precipitate structure

The precipitates present within the Al-Sc-Zr-Sb samples, which were aged isochronally to 450 °C, display a similar morphology to those of the Sb-free alloy [3,40,47–50]: Sc-rich core and Zr-rich shell. The proxigrams generated from the precipitates within the atom-probe tomographic nanotip for the Al-Sc-Zr-Sb alloy (Fig. 5) indicate that Sb is present throughout the precipitates, but clearly segregates to the Zr-shell of the precipitates where there is a peak concentration of 0.4 at% of Sb, a value twenty times greater than the nominal nanotip concentration of 0.02 at% Sb. Additionally, the Sb appears to be enriched wherever there is a significant concentration of Zr (> 1 at %). We hypothesize that a favorable attractive binding energy between Zr and Sb together with a favorable attractive binding energy of 0.30 eV [55] between Sb and vacancies accelerates the diffusion kinetics of Zr in Al, and thus the growth kinetics of the Zr-rich shell, but first-principle calculations need to be performed to confirm this model. While Wolverton et al. 7/1/16 11:35 p.m. calculate a repulsive binding energy between Zr and vacancies at first nearest- neighbors to be ~0.28 eV, it is possible that the Zr-Sb-vacancy trimers are energetically favorable. The Sb-Zr binary phase diagram indicates the existence of several equilibrium intermetallic compounds on the Zr-rich side, which support the idea that there is a favorable attractive binding energy between Zr and Sb. Zirconium precipitation in the Sb-free alloy is hampered by the formation of Zr-rich primary precipitates that form during solidification or homogenization and by segregation at the dendrites during solidification; the ability of Sb to promote incorporation of Zr into the precipitates is a desirable result [3,38,69]. Based on the data from isochronal and isothermal aging at 300 °C (Fig. 3), Sb does not appear to have any detectable effect on the formation kinetics of the Sc-rich precipitate cores, unlike Er and Si [47,53]. No Sc-Sb phase diagram exists in the literature, and it is unknown whether or not Sc and Sb atoms display attractive binding energies.

4.2. Precipitation kinetics

The Vickers microhardness and electrical conductivity measurements as a function of aging temperature during isochronal aging (Fig. 3) provide an indirect way to follow the evolution of the Al₃(Sc, Zr) precipitates in the alloy. Generally, for aging at low temperatures, increases in microhardness and electrical conductivity values correspond to nucleation and growth of the precipitates, which both improve an alloy's ability to resist plastic deformation and deplete the α-Al matrix of solute atoms as the volume fraction of precipitates increases [3,5,64]; solute atoms disrupt the three three-dimensional periodicity of the lattice and hence have a large cross-section for scattering electrons. For aging at high temperatures, a decrease in microhardness values corresponds to precipitate coarsening and the transition from particle shearing to Orowan dislocation looping, a phenomenon previously established in Refs. [3,22,27,38,43,47,54,60,64,70], while dissolution of the precipitates begins when the electrical conductivity starts to decrease as a result of electron-scattering by solute atoms dissolving in the matrix.

Samples aged isochronally tend to display a larger number density of precipitates as they are formed at the lowest possible temperature with a high driving-force for nucleation. The Al-Sc-Zr-Sb alloy has ~50 MPa higher microhardness values than the Al-Sc-Zr alloy for isochronal aging temperatures between 100 and 275 °C (Fig. 3), which may be the result of the formation of extremely fine Sb-rich nano-precipitates in the Sb-containing alloy during homogenization. Future LEAP tomography will need to be performed on as-homogenized samples to verify the existence of Sb-rich precipitates. These precipitates, if they exist, may act as heterogeneities for the nucleation of Al₃(Sc, Zr) precipitates created subsequently at higher temperatures,

and may explain why Sb is found, albeit in small quantities, in the cores of the precipitates (Fig. 5).

LEAP tomographic data on the Al-Sc-Zr-Sb sample aged isochronally to 450 °C (Fig. 4) indicate that there is a larger number density and volume fraction of precipitates compared to Al-Sc-Zr employing the same aging condition, suggesting that the accelerated precipitation kinetics is driven by an increase in the nucleation rate caused by Sb. Although no LEAP tomographic data for an alloy aged isothermally at 400 °C exist, it is likely that the Sb-containing alloy forms a much higher number density and volume fraction of precipitates than the Al-Sc-Zr alloy, based on the ~240 MPa discrepancy in microhardness values. Because Sb has an attractive nearest-neighbor binding energy of ~0.30 eV with vacancies in Al (higher than for Si), for which the attractive binding energy is ~0.03 eV [55]. The resulting vacancy clusters may act as heterogeneous nucleation sites for precipitates, which would explain the larger number density of precipitates in Al-Sc-Zr-Sb [55].

The nucleation current (number of nuclei formed per unit time per unit volume) is determined by the net reversible work, W_R , required to make a nucleus (precipitate) of radius R [66,71]. Classical nucleation theory states that the supersaturation of an element in an alloy depends on a Helmholtz free energy expression, which has both a chemical energy component, ΔF_{ch} (which is negative), and an elastic strain energy component, ΔF_{el} (which is always positive). The Helmholtz free energy expression also contains an interfacial free energy term, $\sigma^{\alpha/\beta}$, which is always positive. The net reversible work required for the formation of a spherical nucleus, W_R , as a function of the nucleus' radius, R , is given by:

$$W_R = (\Delta F_{ch} + \Delta F_{el}) \frac{4\pi}{3} R^3 + 4\pi R^2 \sigma^{\alpha/\beta} \quad (2)$$

The critical radius, R^* , for nucleation is given by:

$$R^* = -\frac{2\sigma^{\alpha/\beta}}{\Delta F_{ch} + \Delta F_{el}} \quad (3)$$

and the critical net reversible work required for the formation of a critical spherical nucleus, W_R^* , is given by:

$$W_R^* = \frac{16\pi}{3k_B T} \frac{(\sigma^{\alpha/\beta})^3}{(\Delta F_{ch} + \Delta F_{el})^2} \quad (4)$$

The nucleation current is proportional to:

$$\exp\left(-\frac{16\pi}{3k_B T} \frac{(\sigma^{\alpha/\beta})^3}{(\Delta F_{ch} + \Delta F_{el})^2}\right) \quad (5)$$

where k_B is Boltzmann's constant and T is the absolute temperature. Therefore, the nucleation current is very sensitive to the cube of the interfacial free energy and square of the sum of the chemical and elastic free energy terms.

Segregation of Sb at the matrix/nucleus interface decreases the interfacial free energy as demanded by the Gibbs adsorption isotherm, which concomitantly increases the nucleation current [66,72]. First-principles calculations need to be performed to obtain the magnitude of the effect of Sb on the matrix/nucleus (precipitate) interfacial free energy.

Our Al-Sc-Zr-Sb alloy has a consistently higher microhardness compared to Al-Sc-Zr during isochronal aging between 475 and 575 °C (Fig. 3), which indicates a slower coarsening and dissolution rate of the Sb-containing precipitates. The Lifshitz-Slyozov-Wagner (LSW) model indicates that the diffusion-limited coarsening rate of nuclei (precipitates) is proportional to the diffusivity of the slowest moving solute species and the matrix/nucleus (precipitate) interfacial free energy [15]. One possible explanation for the seemingly contradictory combination of faster precipitation kinetics and slower coarsening kinetics is that Sb acts via two separate mechanisms depending on its location: (i) in solid-solution in the Al-matrix, Sb may increase the diffusivity of Zr by decreasing the migration energy of Zr in Al due

to an attractive binding energy between Sb atoms and vacancies, similar to the effects of Si on increasing scandium's diffusivity [53], resulting in faster nucleation kinetics and growth kinetics of the Zr-rich regions of the precipitate; (ii) Sb atoms segregating at the matrix/precipitate decrease its interfacial free energy, which concomitantly decreases the coarsening rate. A careful combined experimental and modeling study, which is beyond the scope of the present article, is needed to test this hypothesis.

4.3. Strengthening mechanisms at ambient temperature

The equations for the four precipitation strengthening mechanisms anticipated for the Al-Sc-Zr system are given in the Appendix A: (i) modulus; (ii) coherency; (iii) order, and (iv) Orowan dislocation looping [27,39,60,64]. The first three mechanisms are observed for shearable precipitates, while Orowan dislocation looping is observed for unsharable precipitates [27,43,60,68]. Our Al-Sc-Zr-Sb alloy has an approximately 50 MPa higher microhardness than does Al-Sc-Zr for isochronal aging temperatures between 100 and 275 °C, which is unlikely due to solid-solution strengthening because the difference in solute atom concentrations between the Sb-free and Sb-containing alloys is only 200 at. ppm, Table 4. The difference in microhardness between the two alloys at low isochronal aging temperatures may be the result of the formation of Sb-rich nanoscale precipitates, although we need additional atom-probe tomography experiments to confirm this.

The contribution of each mechanism is displayed in Table 4 for the Sb-free and Sb-containing alloys isochronally aged to 450 °C. Prior studies on the Al-Sc-Zr system have demonstrated that the critical mean radius for the transition from shearable to unsharable precipitates is ~2–3 nm, and a similar trend is anticipated for Al-Sc-Zr-Sb [3,43].

Following Refs. [60,68,73] the total increase in an alloy's yield strength due to aging is obtained by subtracting the homogenized state's microhardness after aging, and dividing it by three. Coherency, modulus, and order strengthening mechanisms operate in sequence and the dominant mechanism is the one that has the highest calculated yield strength increment; in this case the coherency and modulus strengthening are the dominant mechanisms. Since the Orowan dislocation looping and shearing mechanisms operate in parallel, the one with smaller strengthening contribution is dominant. Thus, as shown in Table 4, coherency/modulus strengthening and Orowan dislocation looping dictate the strengthening of the alloy for average precipitate radii below and above the critical transitional radii, respectively. The discrepancy between our observations and the calculations may be the result of an inhomogeneous distribution of precipitates due to the dendritic structure; Zr is concentrated in the dendrites and depleted in it between them, which leads to deleterious effects on the overall alloy strength [5,38]. It is also possible that the measured volume fraction of the precipitates from the LEAP tomographic nanotip is greater than the overall alloy volume fraction, since the tip may have been taken from a region that is solute-enriched due to segregation.

After two months of aging at 300 °C, the Sb-containing alloy

Table 4

Experimental yield strength increments, and calculated yield strength increments for four different mechanisms: (1) modulus strengthening $\Delta\sigma_{ms}$ (Eq. (1)); (2) coherency strengthening $\Delta\sigma_{cs}$ (Eq. (2)); (3) order strengthening $\Delta\sigma_{os}$ (Eq. (3)); and Orowan dislocation looping, $\Delta\sigma_{or}$ (Eq. (4)). The values are reported for the Sb-free²¹ and Sb-containing alloys after homogenization at 640 °C for 72 h and isochronal aging through 450 °C with a heating rate of 8 K h⁻¹.

Alloy	$\Delta HV/3$ (MPa)	$\Delta\sigma_{os}$ (MPa)	$\Delta\sigma_{cs}+\Delta\sigma_{ms}$ (MPa)	$\Delta\sigma_{or}$ (MPa)
Al-Sc-Zr ²¹	132 ± 4	118 ± 1	165 ± 5	112 ± 20
Al-Sc-Zr-Sb	123 ± 5	197 ± 2	319 ± 32	206 ± 20

displays a microhardness that is ~80 MPa higher than the Sb-free alloy (corresponding to an increase in yield strength of ~27 MPa), which may be the result of the formation of a Zr-rich shell at much earlier aging times for the Sb-containing alloy. The formation of the Zr-rich shell creates regions within the precipitate with the ordered L1₂ Al₃Zr structure, which adds to the order strengthening contribution. Similarly, the ~80 MPa yield strength discrepancy between the Sb-free and Sb-containing alloy after aging at 400 °C for 4 h is because of the higher number density and volume fraction of precipitates in the latter caused by a larger nucleation current.

4.4. Creep resistance

The creep behavior of the Al-0.066Sc-0.050Zr-0.021Sb at% specimen aged isochronally to 450 °C with 25 °C/1 h steps (corresponding to the highest hardness, Fig. 3) is compared to an Sb-free alloy with similar Sc and Zr composition (Al-0.067Sc-0.052Zr at%) specimen aged isochronally to 400 °C with 25 °C/3 h steps [3]. While the Sb-containing alloy has a threshold stress (~10 MPa) similar to that of the Sb-free alloy (~12 MPa) at 300 °C, the former exhibits a significantly lower steady-state strain-rates for applied compression stresses above ~15 MPa. The improvement in creep resistance from Sb microalloying may be the result of the following: (i) increased lattice parameter mismatch between the precipitates and the matrix as a result of Sb segregation to the Zr-rich shell of the precipitates, leading to an increased elastic interaction between the precipitates and dislocations [67]; and/or (ii) accelerated formation of a Zr-rich precipitate shell during creep at 300 °C, which leads to coarser Al₃(Sc, Zr) precipitates that exhibit greater resistance to dislocation shearing and climbing [60,66]. Without in situ observations of precipitate-dislocation interactions via TEM and/or computational dislocation dynamics simulations for the Sb-containing alloy during creep at 300 °C, we are only able to propose some possible mechanisms responsible for the different observed creep behavior. Further experiments are necessary to confirm the actual mechanisms controlling creep, which are beyond the scope of this paper whose focus is on precipitate evolution.

Alloys with trialuminide-forming rare-earth elements (e.g., Yb, Er, and Gd) have yielded improvements in creep resistance, while those with transition elements (e.g. Ti, Zr) and Li and Mg reduce creep resistance [33,34,52,70,74–79]. Van Dalen et al. [78,80] studied Al-Sc alloys with Yb and Gd additions and found that the greater the matrix-precipitate lattice parameter mismatch resulting from these rare-earth elements partitioning to the precipitates lead to superior creep resistance as a result of increased elastic interactions between the precipitates and dislocations. The same conclusion was reached by Booth-Morrison et al. [52] who studied Al-Sc-Zr-Si alloys with Er additions. Alternatively, Krug et al. [81,82] studied the effects of Li on Al-Sc alloys and found that the resulting decreased lattice parameter mismatch due to the replacement of Sc by Li on the Sc sublattice of the L1₂ structure leads to a lower threshold stresses; they found a similar trend for alloys with transition elements such as Zr and Ti.

In the present alloys, Sb additions appear to have less of an effect on creep resistance than rare-earth elements, since Sb additions do not produce a significant change in the threshold stress (~10 MPa) as compared with rare-earth elements (~20–23 MPa for Yb). Antimony additions have, however, the effect of improving the coarsening resistance of the precipitates at elevated temperatures, which may help maintain the alloy's creep resistance. This opens the door to further improving the creep resistance of an Al-Sc-Zr-Sb alloy with rare-earth additions by increasing the lattice parameter mismatch; however, additional studies are necessary to ensure that the rare-earth additions do not hinder the incorporation of Sb into the Al₃(Sc, Zr) precipitates.

5. Conclusions

The effects of Sb micro-additions to a dilute Al-Sc-Zr alloy upon the

Al₃(Sc, Zr) precipitate composition and growth and coarsening kinetics have been studied in a Al-0.066Sc-0.050Zr-0.021Sb at% alloy by Vickers microhardness and electrical conductivity measurements, and LEAP tomographic three-dimensional reconstructions, for alloys aged for different times and temperatures during isochronal and isothermal aging experiments. The following conclusions are reached concerning the effect of Sb additions to dilute Al-Sc-Zr alloys:

1. Antimony accelerates the formation kinetics of the Zr-rich precipitate shell, as compared to a control Sb-free alloy. This is supported by: (i) a lack of microhardness decrease during isochronal aging between 350 and 450 °C; (ii) an increase in microhardness following two weeks of isothermal aging at 300 °C (iii) achievement of increased microhardness values when aged isothermally at 400 °C (~450 MPa in the Sb-containing and ~230 MPa in the Sb-free alloy). The faster kinetics of Zr precipitation may be due to an attractive interaction between Sb and Zr atoms, and/or attraction between Sb and vacancies, which leads to a formation of vacancy clusters that serve as heterogeneous nucleation sites for Zr precipitation.
2. Antimony is incorporated within the Al₃(Sc, Zr) precipitates and is enriched where Zr atoms are present. LEAP tomographic observations demonstrate that Sb atoms in the Zr-rich shell of the precipitates achieve concentrations as high as 0.35 at%. This is consistent with the above hypothesis of an attractive Sb-Zr interaction.
3. Antimony improves the coarsening resistance of the alloy, leading to a decrease in the microhardness and conductivity, during isochronal aging, which is more sluggish than in the control Sb-free alloy. This

may be the result of Sb decreasing the interfacial free energy of the matrix/precipitate interface.

4. Antimony improves the creep resistance of the alloy for compressive stresses above ~15 MPa at 300 °C. This may originate from an increased precipitate-matrix lattice mismatch due to the Sb presence in the precipitates, and/or further growth of the Zr- and Sb-rich precipitate shell during creep testing. However, more experiments beyond the scope of this paper are needed to confirm the creep mechanisms.

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Appendix A

Following Refs. [3,5,21,27,43,47,54,83], we describe herein briefly the equations used to calculate theoretical strengthening contributions from both shearable and unshearable precipitates.

Modulus strengthening, $\Delta\sigma_{ms}$, arises from the mismatch in shear moduli between the Al₃(Sc,Zr) precipitates and the α -Al matrix; the contribution from this mechanism is calculated from the following equation:

$$\Delta\sigma_{ms} = M0.0055(\Delta G)^{3/2} \left(\frac{2f}{Gb^2} \right)^{1/2} b \left(\frac{\langle r \rangle}{b} \right)^{(3m/2)-1} \quad (A1)$$

where $M=3.06$ is the matrix orientation factor, G_m is the shear modulus of Al, ΔG is the mismatch of moduli between the precipitate and the matrix ($G_p - G_m$), b is the magnitude of aluminum's Burgers vector, $m=0.85$ is a constant, and f is the volume fraction of the precipitates [11,43,60,64]. The matrix modulus is taken as $G_m=25.4$ GPa, $G_p=68$ GPa assuming that Al₃(Sc,Zr) and Al₃Sc precipitates have the same shear moduli, and $b = 0.286$ nm for pure Al [11,27,43,60,64].

Coherency strengthening, $\Delta\sigma_{cs}$, comes from the interaction between the strain fields of the mismatched lattice parameters of the matrix and precipitate, and dislocations [60,64,68]. Eq. (A2) models this strengthening mechanism [27,43]:

$$\Delta\sigma_{cs} = M\chi(\varepsilon G)^{3/2} \left(\frac{\langle r \rangle f}{0.18Gb} \right)^{1/2} \quad (A2)$$

The lattice parameter misfit term ε is equal to $(2/3)\delta$ where $\delta=(a_p-a_m)/a_m$, and a_p and a_m are the lattice parameters for the precipitate and matrix, respectively [11,27,43,60,68]. The lattice parameter of the matrix from literature is 4.050 Å, while the lattice parameter of the precipitate is 4.103 Å, taken as that of Al₃Sc [1]. Finally, the $\chi=2.6$ term is taken to be a constant [43,64].

Order strengthening, $\Delta\sigma_{os}$, occurs when a dislocation shears an ordered intermetallic-precipitate, disrupting the favorable bonding of the ordered atomic arrangement within the secondary phase [60,64,68]. The resistance to precipitate shearing by this mechanism is modeled by using following equation [27,43,60,64,68]:

$$\Delta\sigma_{os} = M0.81 \frac{\gamma_{apb}}{2b} \left(\frac{3\pi f}{8} \right)^{1/2} \quad (A3)$$

The energy penalty for creating an antiphase boundary by disrupting low-energy state arrangements of atoms within the precipitate manifests itself in an antiphase boundary interfacial energy, γ_{apb} , term [60,64]. This mechanism is prevalent in nickel-based superalloys strengthened by ordered and coherent $\gamma'(L1_2)$ -precipitates, and thus resistance to antiphase boundary formation is expected to provide significant strengthening in Al-Sc-Zr alloys.

Orowan strengthening, $\Delta\sigma_{or}$, by dislocation bowing around precipitates occurs when the precipitate becomes too big or too strong to be sheared [60,64,68]. This strengthening mechanism is modeled by the following equation [27,43,60,64,68]:

$$\Delta\sigma_{or} = M \frac{0.4Gb \ln(2\bar{r}/b)}{\pi\lambda \sqrt{1-\nu}} \quad (A4)$$

Poisson's ratio ν for aluminum is 0.345, the mean radius of a circular cross-section in a random plane for a spherical precipitate is given by $\bar{r} = \sqrt{2/3} \langle r \rangle$, and the inter-precipitate spacing, λ , is given by the following equation [12,16,43,64,84]:

$$\lambda = 2\bar{r} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\pi}{4f}} - 1 \right) \quad (A5)$$

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