Supplementary Information

Powder Metallurgy Processing of a W_xTaTiVCr High-Entropy Alloy and **Its Derivative Alloys for Fusion Material Applications**

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S1. WxTaTiVCrfor the Development of Reduced-Activation Alloys

The fusion plasma applications don't only exert harsh environment on the reactor materials, but it also expect the materials to show minimum or no activation¹, so that the reactor materials can be accessed for maintenance and recycling during service and at the end of their service lifetime¹, respectively. The management of radioactive waste of plasma facing materials is an important consideration¹ which will include transportation, disposal and/or recycling of the decommissioned materials². The whole waste management scenario depends upon the activation characteristics of the materials². Based upon the limit of the dose rate (25 µSv/h) of the materials employed in fusion plasma facing applications, the use of Mo, Nb, Ni, Co, Al, Ag³, Cu, N, Ho, Bi, Sm, Lu, Dy, Gd and $Cd¹$ is restricted to extremely low levels. Complying with these restrictions, the refractory W_x TaTiVCr system assures the reduced activation properties.

In addition to reduced activation properties, irradiation resistance of nuclear materials is also essential for the good performance of nuclear reactor materials⁴. The radiations

stimulate displacement of atoms which generates vacancy and interstitial sites⁵, which evolves towards cascade collision, recombination (of vacancy and interstitial) and absorption in dislocations and grain boundaries 6 . A popular way to reduce the irradiation induced defects is to generate high density of defect sinks⁷.

Lu et al. explained inherent irradiation resistance of HEA by relating this with enhanced scattering of displaced atoms due to lattice distortion⁷ which results in limited linear mobility of displaced atoms⁷, and the atoms are confined to vacancy concentrated area, as a result the probability of recombination increases, consequently, the density of defects in irradiated HEA reduces⁷. These kinetic constraints in the diffusion of atoms also decreases the irradiation-induced precipitation in HEA and promote stable structure⁴. Because of the difference in atomic sizes, the HEA lattice is more stressed at atomic level as compare to other alloys.

The successful nuclear applications of tungsten⁸, good performance of Ti and Cr in fusion neutron spectrum⁹, high irradiation resistance of Ta¹⁰ and V¹¹, no long term activation in any of the constituent^{1,3,9} in conjunction with phase stability (as the annealing of sintered samples at 1200, 1300, 1400 and 1500 $^{\circ}$ C up to 1 hour didn't cause any significant change in microstructure and hardness, as illustrated in Figure S1) and self-healing ability of HEA anticipate the improved irradiation resistance of W_xTaTiVCr system and make it a potential candidate for fusion and plasma facing material.

Figure S1. Representative SEM microstructures of 56Ws and Hardness annealed at (a) 1200^o C (b) 1300^o C (c) 1400^o C and (d) 1500^o C up to 01 hour

Several irradiation resistant refractory high entropy alloys have been reported, however, the published research lacks in HEA having refractory nature and reduced activation properties. A comparison of W_x TaTiVCr alloy, given in Table S1, with already reported HEAs emphasized upon the novel composition of W_xTaTiVCr complying with reducedactivation criteria.

Table S1

Comparison of HEA (32Ws) with other refractory HEAs.

S2. Optimization of sintering

Due to high melting points, the sintering of refractory metals and alloys is relatively difficult. In order to find out optimized conditions for improved diffusion and enhanced sintering, a series of experiments were carried out and effect of sintering temperature on promoting diffusion and enhancing sintering were studied.

The role of thermal diffusion in achieving improved sinterability of our HEA sample $W_{0.3}$ (TaTiVCr)_{0.7} was analyzed by carrying out SPS at 1300°C, 1400°C, 1500°C and 1600°C up to 10 minutes. The prominent effect of sintering temperature on enhanced diffusion was observed, as shown in Figure S2. The gradual homogenization of microstructure and increase in relative density was observed with increasing temperature. The sample sintered at 1600 $^{\circ}$ C achieved >99% density with homogeneous microstructure. Hence, 1600°C and 10 minutes were employed for SPS of further W_xTaTiVCr samples.

Figure S2. Representative SEM microstructures of W_{0.3}(TaTiVCr)_{0.7} sintered at (a) 1300^o C (b) 1400^o C (c) 1500^o C and (d & e) 1600^o C up to 10 minutes

Figure S3. The variation in the density of the xWs alloys with varying compositions.

Figure S4. *XRD patterns of the (a) powder mixture xW_p and (b) sintered samples xW_s and (c) Compositions of HEA phases in xWs (determined by EPMA)*

S3. Sintering mechanism of WxTaTiCrV alloy system

In addition to the higher configuration entropy of xW_s , the valence electron concentration (VEC) of $xW_s < 6.87^{23}$, and the negligible mixing enthalpy, which spontaneously led to the development of solid solution²⁴⁻²⁵, the liquid phase sintering (LPS) played a major role in sintering of xWs samples at 1600° C, similar to the sintering of AlCoCrFeNi²⁵, W-Ni-X powder (X = Fe, Cu, Cr, or Co)²⁶ and WC–Co where liquid phase formed due to melting of low melting point constituent and enhanced sintering of powders²⁷. A small fraction of liquid phase may cause drastic improvement in sintering²⁸ due to fast diffusion and the dissolution of solid particles²⁹. In xWs alloy systems, certain inhomogeneity which cannot be perfectly removed in simple mixing of powder, developed highly localized Ti-Cr and Ti-Cr-V based alloys having a low melting point in the range of sintering temperature (subject to the ratio of the constituents) 30 , as illustrated in Fig. S7. The liquid phase containing Ti, Cr and V seeped between the solid particles and causes wetting due to the mutual solubility of constituents among each other. Thus the liquid phase, which not only promoted re-arrangement of particles, but also improved diffusion of atoms 27 resulted in rapid sintering of xWs. The SEM microstructures and decrease in densities (Fig. 1 and Fig. S3, respectively) with increasing W content in xW_s also supports the role of Ti-Cr and Ti-Cr-V based liquid phase in rapid sintering. Due to a low fraction of liquid phase, reduction in grain size and density with increasing W content was observed.

Figure S5. EDS area mapping of the sintering of xWs at 1600^o C.

S4. Formation of TiC in WxTaTiVCr alloy system

Koc et al. reported the synthesis of TiC occurs between 1200 $\rm ^{o}C$ and 1600 $\rm ^{o}C^{\rm 31}$ through direct carbonization of Ti (Ti + C \rightarrow TiC)³². The thermodynamics of TiC supports its insitu formation³². The comparison of free energies of the carbides of constituents, as reported by Shatynski³³, reveals that the most negative heat of formation (i.e., -44.1) kcal/mol) of TiC in the sintering temperature range as compared to that of the carbides of other constituent elements (W, Ta, $V^{33\text{-}34}$ and $Cr^{35})^{32}$ results in the presence of TiC in sintered samples. The heats of formation of constituent elements are given in table $S1^{34}$.

Table S2

Heats of formations of expected carbides in W_xTaTiVCr system³⁴.

The carbon taken up from the graphite mold reacts with Ti to form $TiC^{31,36-40}$. The microstructural analysis revealed an 80-µm-thick TiC-rich surface layer, whereas the rest of the sample showed evenly distributed TiC (as shown in Fig. S6).

Figure S6. The distribution of TiC from surface to center.

Due to the attractive properties including high melting point, high thermal shock resistance, and good physical and chemical sputtering resistance 41 , TiC is added in several alloys as a reinforcement³².

Table S3

Calculated weight fractions of TiC in xW.

Figure S7. (a) TEM microstructure, (b) elemental mapping, (c & d) SADP of TiC and (e & f) SADP of the W-rich phase as observed in 56Ws.

S5. Laves phases

The transition metallic elements having highly negative heat of mixing can form the intermetallic Laves⁴² having non-metallic bonding (i.e. ionic or covalent bonding). More than one type of bond can also be present in Laves intermetallics⁴². The atomic architecture of Laves phases is represented as $AB₂$, where A is the element having high electropositivity and a large Gold-schmidt radius⁴³⁻⁴⁴. In C15 Laves phase, A is surrounded by 12 B atoms and B is surrounded by 6 atoms of each element⁴⁴. The lattice parameter of Laves phases may experience slight variation with the varying temperature⁴⁵. The relatively low liquid phases during the sintering of xW_s when $x=71$ to 90 may be related to the segregation and formation of Laves intermetallics in the samples with higher at.% levels of W^{46-48} . The expected Laves phases in W_xTaTiVCr system are giving in Table S2

Table S4

Possible C15 (cubic) Laves phases in the WxTaTiVCr alloy system.

The high temperature properties of Laves phases are attractive⁵² such as good oxidation resistance⁵⁸ but they are very brittle at room temperature^{14,52}. The even

distribution of fine Laves particles in the grain or along grain boundaries are known to impart strengthening in the materials⁵⁹. The improvement in creep resistance⁶⁰⁻⁶¹ and yield strength by forming Laves phases has been reported⁶¹. However, the non-uniform occurrence of Laves in larger size with increased inter-particle spacing⁵⁹ is not favorable as it can drastically reduce mechanical properties including strength, impact resistance and fracture toughness^{14,62-63}. Acting as the sites for dislocation pinning and crack initiation, the Laves phases reduces fatigue limit as well 62 . A reduction in creep resistance due to Laves phases has also been reported 62 . The localized melting minimized the content of Laves HEAs and its derivatives. The decreasing amount of Ti, V and Cr in xW_s with increasing W content, reduces localized melting, therefore the $71W_s$, $77W_s$ and $90W_s$ showed laves phases. However, the effects of Laves in xW_s is expected to be insignificant as their content was lower even than the detectable limit of XRD.

Figure S8. BSE image of (a) 32W_s, and TEM image of (b) 90W_S showing the grain size.

Table S2

Name (xW_s)	Real Samples		Volume fraction of TiC (%)
$32W_s$	$W_{0.32}$ Ta _{0.18} Ti _{0.18} V _{0.20} Cr _{0.19}	HEA	2.24
$42W_s$	$W_{0.42}$ Ta _{0.15} Ti _{0.14} V _{0.14} Cr ₀ . ₁₄		8.50
$56W_s$	$W_{0.56}$ Ta _{0.15} Ti _{0.09} V _{0.11} Cr _{0.09}		6.05
$63W_s$	$W_{0.63}$ Ta _{0.09} Ti _{0.09} V _{0.09} Cr _{0.09}	HEA	6.20
$71W_s$	$W_{0.71}$ Ta _{0.04} Ti _{0.07} V _{0.07} Cr _{0.07}	derivatives	3.30
$77W_s$	$W_{0.77}$ Ta _{0.05} Ti _{0.07} V _{0.05} Cr _{0.06}		2.50
$90W_s$	$W_{0.90}$ Ta _{0.03} Ti _{0.02} V _{0.03} Cr _{0.02}		1.10

Calculated weight fractions of TiC in xWs.

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