

First Order Pyramidal Slip of $1/3 \langle \bar{1}2\bar{1}0 \rangle$ Screw Dislocations in Zirconium

NERMINE CHAARI, EMMANUEL CLOUET, and DAVID RODNEY

Atomistic simulations, based either on an empirical interatomic potential or on *ab initio* calculations, are used to study the pyramidal glide of a $1/3 \langle 1210 \rangle$ screw dislocation in hexagonal close-packed zirconium. Generalized stacking fault calculations reveal a metastable stacking fault in the first order pyramidal $\{10\bar{1}1\}$ plane, which corresponds to an elementary pyramidal twin. This fault is at the origin of a metastable configuration of the screw dislocation in zirconium, which spontaneously appears when the dislocation glides in the pyramidal plane.

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I. INTRODUCTION

HEXAGONAL close-packed (hcp) Zirconium is an important material for the nuclear industry where it is used as structural component in nuclear reactors. In particular, the cladding of nuclear fuel is made of zirconium alloys. Like most crystalline material, the mechanical behavior is mainly driven by dislocations motion.

In α -zirconium, dislocations with Burgers vector $\vec{a} = 1/3 [1210]$, named $\langle a \rangle$ dislocations, are the most frequently observed with transmission electron microscopy.^[1–3] These dislocations glide principally in prismatic $\{10\bar{1}0\}$ planes^[2,4,5] due to a lower critical resolved shear stress than in the basal and pyramidal planes.^[1,3,6–9] At low temperature, screw components of $\langle a \rangle$ dislocations can be distinguished as long rectilinear segments while mixed and edge components are observed in their equilibrium state as curved lines. This is because screw dislocations have a larger lattice friction opposing their motion and making them less mobile compared to mixed and edge dislocations.^[1–3] For this reason, screw dislocations with Burgers vector \mathbf{a} control the material plasticity at low temperature and are mostly considered in the literature. In addition, experiments show that the ease of glide of $\langle a \rangle$ screw dislocations in the prismatic planes is strongly temperature-dependent and also decreases when the amount of impurities such as oxygen, sulfur, and carbon, increases in the material.^[3,5,10–12]

At higher temperatures and strain levels, secondary slip systems are activated such as $1/3 \langle \bar{1}2\bar{1}3 \rangle$ first order pyramidal slip,^[13] which has been evidenced at room temperature as an important glide system to accommodate the crystal deformation along the $\langle 0001 \rangle$ direction. Thermal activation also enhances $\langle a \rangle$ dislocation cross-slip. Experimental evidence shows that above 300 K

(573 °C), screw dislocations with Burgers vector $\vec{a} = 1/3 [1210]$ initially gliding in the prismatic planes, may leave their habit plane to glide in a first order pyramidal $\{10\bar{1}1\}$ plane (π_1),^[3,10,14] or less frequently in a basal $\{0001\}$ plane.^[6,15–17] Screw $\langle a \rangle$ dislocations cross-slip is more frequently observed with increasing impurity content, especially with oxygen, while the hardening effect due to impurities manifests itself on the prismatic glide,^[3,5,10,11] as mentioned above. The same dislocation behavior has also been evidenced in titanium,^[18–23] a transition metal with similar properties to zirconium.

In agreement with the experiments, atomistic simulations have established that, in pure zirconium, a screw dislocation with Burgers vector \vec{a} dissociates spontaneously in the prismatic plane into two partial dislocations with Burgers vector $\vec{a}/2$.^[24,25] The dissociation is explained by a stable stacking fault with low energy in the prismatic plane.^[24,26,27] In turn, dissociation leads to a low lattice friction that makes screw dislocations glide easily in the prismatic planes.^[24,28] Considering pyramidal and basal slip of $\langle a \rangle$ dislocations in pure zirconium, it has been shown in a previous article that both slip systems share the same thermally activated mechanism involving a metastable core structure, where the screw dislocation with Burgers vector \vec{a} partially spreads in a pyramidal plane.^[29] The aim of the present paper is to study in more details pyramidal slip and to justify the glide mechanism suggested in Reference 29.

As dislocation mobility results from their core structure, accurate atomic-scale study of the dislocation core is required to understand their mobility. Besides, it has been shown that in hcp transition metals, the relative ease of dislocation glide is directly related to the stacking fault energies in the glide planes, which are in turn controlled by the electronic structure of the metal.^[30] Atomistic simulations incorporating a full description of the electronic structure are, therefore, necessary to model dislocations in zirconium. In the present work, we used both *ab initio* calculations and an empirical potential to calculate the energy associated with shearing the hcp lattice in a π_1 pyramidal plane, both homogeneously to determine generalized stacking faults,

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95 and inhomogeneously when a $\langle a \rangle$ dislocation, initially
 96 dissociated in a prismatic plane glides along a π_1
 97 pyramidal plane.

98 II. METHODS

99 As described in previous papers,^[24,29] we performed
 100 *ab initio* calculations based on the density functional
 101 theory using the PWSCF code.^[31] Atomistic simulations
 102 with the embedded atom method (EAM) potential
 103 developed by Mendeleev and Ackland (potential #3)^[32]
 104 were also performed to study the effect of simulation cell
 105 size. A comparison between results obtained with both
 106 energy models was established to assess the ability of
 107 this empirical potential to describe pyramidal slip.

108 Dislocation core structure and glide are directly
 9 related to the stacking fault energy in the glide plane.
 10 To characterize the shearing of the crystal in the
 11 pyramidal plane, we calculated the generalized stacking
 12 fault^[4] in this plane using fully periodic boundary
 13 conditions. Only one fault is introduced in the simula-
 14 tion cell, and the corresponding shift is applied to the
 15 periodicity vector perpendicular to the fault plane.
 16 Atom relaxation is only allowed in the direction
 17 perpendicular to the fault plane, but we also performed
 18 calculations with full atomic relaxation to identify stable
 19 stacking faults.

20 To model dislocations, we used a fully periodic
 21 arrangement of dislocations dipole described as an S
 22 arrangement in Reference 24. The dimensions of the
 23 simulation cells are $n \times \sqrt{3} \times a$ in the $[10\bar{1}0]$ direction,
 24 $m \times c$ in the $[0001]$ direction and a in the $[1\bar{2}10]$
 25 direction along the dislocation line (n and m are two
 26 integers). Atoms are relaxed until all components of the
 27 atomic forces are smaller than 10 meV/Å. We checked
 28 for some configurations that relaxation at 2 meV/Å does
 29 not change any of our results. We employed the Nudged
 30 elastic Band (NEB) method^[33] to determine the energy
 31 barrier against dislocation glide in the first order
 32 pyramidal plane. This method gives the minimum
 33 energy path between two stable states. All energy
 34 barriers are calculated while moving both dislocations
 35 composing the dipole in the same direction and the
 36 path is relaxed with a tolerance on atomic forces of
 37 20 meV/Å.

138 III. STACKING FAULT ENERGY IN THE 139 PYRAMIDAL PLANE

140 Since dislocation glide is directly related to the
 141 stacking fault energy in the corresponding plane, we
 142 started by investigating stacking fault energies in the
 143 first order pyramidal plane. In the hcp structure,
 144 pyramidal planes are corrugated. As a consequence,
 145 there are two different ways to shear the crystal along a
 146 pyramidal plane. The crystal might be sheared either
 147 inside a corrugated pyramidal plane, which we call a
 148 dense plane π_{1D} , or between two pyramidal corrugated
 149 planes, *i.e.*, inside a loose plane π_{1L} (Figure 1). The
 150 generalized stacking fault is calculated for both types of

pyramidal planes using both *ab initio* calculations and
 the EAM potential.

153 We used a simulation cell with a height $h = q \times \zeta$,
 154 where $\zeta \sim 5.9$ Å is the height of the elementary cell and
 155 $q = 4$ is the number of the atomic planes separating two
 156 faults. The convergence of our results with respect to the
 157 simulation cell height has been checked with the EAM
 158 potential.

159 The results obtained with *ab initio* calculations and
 160 with the EAM potential in both pyramidal π_{1D} and π_{1L}
 161 planes are in good agreement. We show in Figure 2 the
 162 γ -surfaces obtained with *ab initio* calculations in both
 163 pyramidal planes. From a general point of view, the
 164 γ -surfaces show that shearing the crystal in a π_{1D} plane
 165 costs higher energy than in the π_{1L} plane. This is a
 166 consequence of the fact that atoms are close to each
 167 other in this plane, and the shearing may bring them
 168 closer, which strongly increases the energy. But this high
 169 energy landscape is explored only when a $[10\bar{1}2]$ fault
 170 component is involved. Focusing now on the $[1\bar{2}10]$
 171 direction, which is the relevant direction for $\langle a \rangle$ dislo-
 172 cation glide, the γ -surfaces calculated in both π_{1L} and
 173 π_{1D} plane show a valley of low energy along this
 174 direction.

175 To compare both pyramidal planes, we plot in
 176 Figure 3 the generalized stacking fault energy only
 177 along the $[1\bar{2}10]$ direction for both planes. The energy
 178 obtained with *ab initio* calculations is higher than with
 179 the EAM potential in the case of the π_{1L} plane, while it
 180 is nearly the same for the π_{1D} plane. According to the
 181 EAM potential, the energy cost to shear the crystal
 182 along the $[1\bar{2}10]$ direction in a pyramidal plane is almost
 183 the same for both π_{1L} and π_{1D} planes. *ab initio* calcu-
 184 lations, however, predict that it is easier to shear in a π_{1D}
 185 plane than in a π_{1L} plane. Our work, therefore, shows
 186 that both π_{1L} and π_{1D} pyramidal planes may need to be
 187 considered when studying stacking faults in the first
 188 order pyramidal plane. This contrasts with the previous
 189 stacking fault calculations in hcp materials where only
 190 the π_{1L} plane was considered.^[27,34,35]

191 Considering both Figures 2 and 3, no energy mini-
 192 mum is found along the $[1\bar{2}10]$ direction, or in its
 193 immediate vicinity. This is true for the *ab initio* calcu-
 194 lations and the EAM potential. One should notice that
 195 the present γ -surfaces were obtained by relaxing the
 196 atoms only perpendicularly to the fault plane. A full

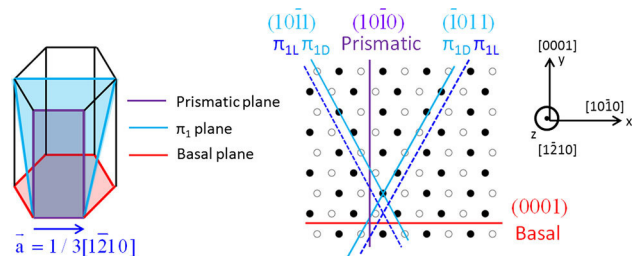


Fig. 1—Hexagonal close-packed structure showing the different potential glide planes for a screw dislocation of Burgers vector $\vec{a} = 1/3 [1\bar{2}10]$. A projection perpendicular to \vec{a} is shown on the right, where atoms are sketched by circles with a color depending on their (1210) prismatic plane. (color online).

197 atomic relaxation, however, allows for some atomic
 198 shuffling and reveals an energy minimum that corre-
 199 sponds to a metastable stacking fault in the π_{1D} plane.
 200 The corresponding fault vector, sketched by red arrow in
 201 Figure 2(b), is $\vec{f} = 1/2 \vec{a} + \vec{b}_e$, where $\vec{a} = 1/3 [1\bar{2}10]$
 202 and \vec{b}_e is a component orthogonal to \vec{a} to be detailed
 203 below. This minimum is obtained with both *ab initio*
 204 calculations and the EAM potential. On the other hand,
 205 no relevant minimum could be found for the π_{1L} plane,
 206 even with full atomic relaxations.

207 The atomic structure of the metastable stacking fault
 208 is shown in Figure 4. The displacement map shows that
 209 in the shearing direction $[1\bar{2}10]$, the atoms below the
 210 shearing plane S have their color switched, which means
 211 that they have been displaced by $a/2$. The shearing is
 212 thus perfectly localized in the S plane. Perpendicularly
 213 to the shearing direction, the blue arrows show a
 214 displacement of all the atoms below the S plane
 215 following one same vector \vec{b}_e , which corresponds to

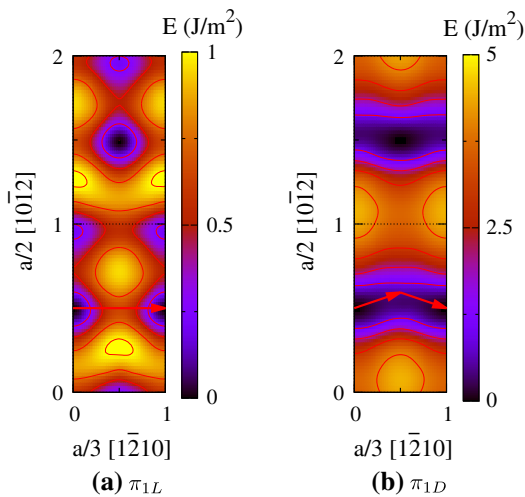


Fig. 2—Generalized stacking fault energy in the first order pyramidal plane (10 $\bar{1}1$) calculated with *ab initio*. The crystal is sheared either (a) in the loose plane π_{1L} , or (b) in the dense plane π_{1D} . The red arrows show the fault vector $a/3 [1\bar{2}10]$ in (a) and its decomposition in (b) corresponding to the metastable stacking fault obtained after a full relaxation of atoms in the π_{1D} plane. (color online).

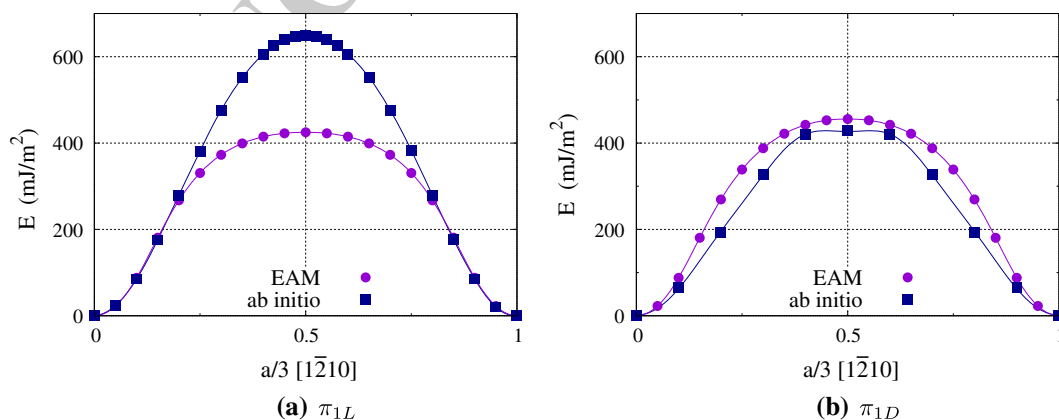


Fig. 3—Generalized stacking fault energy in the first order pyramidal plane (10 $\bar{1}1$) along the $[1\bar{2}10]$ direction calculated with *ab initio* and with the EAM potential. The crystal is sheared either (a) in the loose plane π_{1L} , or (b) in the dense plane π_{1D} . (color online).

216 the orthogonal component of the fault vector, as well as
 217 a shuffling of the atoms which is extended to several
 218 planes at both sides of the S plane. This shuffling
 219 explains why the metastable fault did not appear on the
 220 γ -surfaces of Figure 2, where only atomic relaxation
 221 perpendicularly to the fault plane was allowed.

222 Analysis of this metastable core structure reveals that it
 223 corresponds to an elementary two-layer pyramidal
 224 $\{10\bar{1}1\}$ twin^[29] bordered by the M and M' mirror planes,
 225 as illustrated by the broken line on Figure 4. We also
 226 looked at the positions of the first nearest neighbors for
 227 each atom and compared the obtained pattern with the
 228 ones existing in a perfect hcp structure, both for the parent
 229 and the twinned lattices. We thus managed to characterize
 230 whether an atom belongs to the parent or the twinned hcp
 231 lattice. On Figure 4, atoms plotted with diamonds corre-
 232 sponds to the atoms belonging to the twin layer.

233 The twin is produced by the glide of a two-layer
 234 disconnection with a Burgers vector that corresponds to
 235 the fault vector $\vec{f} = 1/2 \vec{a} + \vec{b}_e$ where the edge com-
 236 ponent of the disconnection is defined by
 237 $f_e = a(4\gamma^2 - 9)/2\sqrt{3 + 4\gamma^2}$ (γ is the c/a ratio).^[36,37]
 238 Two-layer disconnections are well-known to be stable
 239 on pyramidal twins,^[36-42] but the stability of the
 240 corresponding two-layer twin was so far unknown.

241 The stacking fault energy deduced from *ab initio*
 242 calculations is $\Delta E = 163 \text{ mJ m}^{-2}$. It is lower than the
 243 energy of the prismatic stacking fault ($\Delta E = 211$
 244 mJ m^{-2}).^[24] Compared to the *ab initio* value, the EAM
 245 potential overestimates the pyramidal stacking fault
 246 energy ($\Delta E = 243 \text{ mJ m}^{-2}$). This leads to a higher
 247 energy than for the prismatic fault ($\Delta E = 135 \text{ mJ m}^{-2}$).

IV. PEIERLS BARRIER IN THE PYRAMIDAL PLANE

248 Considering the results for the generalized stacking
 249 faults, we conclude that it is important to include both
 250 pyramidal π_{1L} and π_{1D} planes in our study. We thus
 251 investigate in this part the glide of an $\langle a \rangle$ screw
 252 dislocation in first order pyramidal planes, for both
 253 π_{1L} and π_{1D} planes.
 254
 255

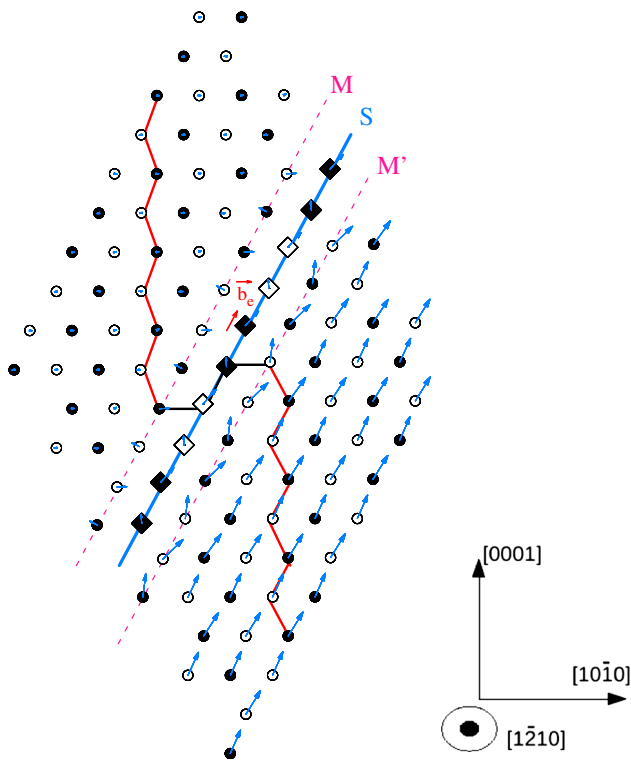


Fig. 4—Atomic structure of the metastable pyramidal stacking fault: The displacement in the shearing $\langle a \rangle = [1\bar{2}10]$ direction is shown by the projection of atoms in this direction, where atoms are sketched by black and white symbols depending on their position at half or full $\langle a \rangle$ vector, respectively. The blue arrows show atom displacements perpendicular to the shearing direction in the $(\bar{1}210)$ plane with a magnification factor of 3. The metastable fault corresponds to a pyramidal $\{10\bar{1}1\}$ twin bordered by two mirror planes M and M' sketched by pink dashed lines. The blue line S corresponds to the shearing plane. The mirror planes symmetry is highlighted by a broken line corresponding to the corrugated prismatic plane, in red in the parent hcp crystal and in black in the twinned crystal. Atoms with a neighborhood corresponding to the twinned crystal are sketched by diamonds, while the circles corresponds to atoms in the parent crystal. (color online).

256 A. EAM

257 Starting from a dislocation in its equilibrium configuration, *i.e.*, initially spread in a prismatic plane
 258 (Figure 7(a)), we calculated the energy encountered by the dislocation to overcome a Peierls valley in the
 259 pyramidal plane, moving to a final equilibrium state where the dislocation spreads in the next prismatic
 260 plane. We used the NEB method to calculate the Peierls barrier in both pyramidal π_{1L} and π_{1D} planes with the
 261 EAM potential. The initial path of the dislocation is obtained by a linear interpolation between the initial
 262 and the final states with the cut created by the dislocation glide localized in the chosen first order
 263 pyramidal plane.

270 The results are shown in Figure 5. The energy barrier in the π_{1L} plane is twice higher than in the π_{1D} plane.
 271 Thus, according to the EAM potential, it is easier for the dislocation to glide in the π_{1D} plane than in the π_{1L}
 272 plane.
 273
 274

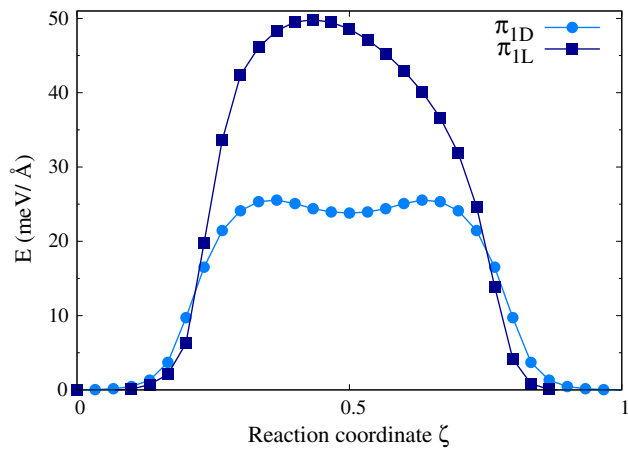


Fig. 5—Energy barrier encountered by a screw dislocation dissociated in a prismatic plane and gliding in a pyramidal π_{1L} and π_{1D} planes calculated with the EAM potential. (color online).

The energy path obtained in the π_{1D} plane shows a local minimum at halfway across the migration. This minimum corresponds to an intermediate metastable configuration of the screw dislocation (Figure 7(b)), to be described in more details below.

280 B. *Ab initio*

281 We only consider dislocation glide in the π_{1D} plane for the *ab initio* calculations. This is motivated by the
 282 *ab initio* results for the generalized stacking faults, showing that the π_{1D} plane is easier to shear in the
 283 $[1\bar{2}10]$ direction than the π_{1L} plane (Figure 3), as well as by the Peierls barrier obtained with the EAM
 284 potential, showing that dislocation glide in the π_{1D} plane costs less energy than in the π_{1L} plane
 285 (Figure 5).

286 *Ab initio* calculations of the Peierls barrier in the π_{1D} plane were performed for different simulation cell sizes.
 287 The minimum energy paths obtained are illustrated in Figure 6. They all show a local minimum halfway across
 288 the migration, in agreement with the EAM results. This minimum corresponds to the same intermediate meta-
 289 stable configuration of the screw dislocation as found with the EAM potential.

290 The *ab initio* energy barrier is twice lower than with the EAM potential. The difference in energy between
 291 *ab initio* and EAM is related to the fact that the Mendeleev potential overestimates the energy of the
 292 pyramidal metastable stacking fault. As a consequence this empirical potential leads to a higher Peierls barrier
 293 in the pyramidal plane.

305 V. METASTABLE CONFIGURATION OF THE SCREW DISLOCATION IN ZIRCONIUM

306 Both *ab initio* calculations and the EAM potential showed that pyramidal glide involves an intermediate
 307 metastable configuration of the screw dislocation
 308
 309

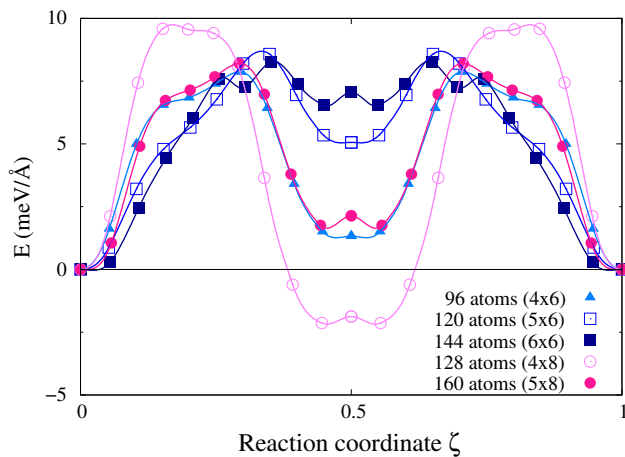


Fig. 6—Energy barrier encountered by a screw dislocation dissociating in a prismatic plane when gliding in a pyramidal π_{1D} plane. *Ab initio* calculations are performed for different simulation cell sizes $n \times m$. (color online).

310 appearing halfway across the migration. In the follow-
 311 ing, a detailed description of this metastable configura-
 312 tion is proposed.

313 A. Core Structure

314 Figure 7 shows the core structure of the two possible
 315 configurations obtained for the $\langle a \rangle$ screw dislocation
 316 with *ab initio* calculations and with the EAM potential.
 317 The differential displacement maps have been superim-
 318 posed to the Nye tensor distribution calculated following
 319 the method of Hartley and Mishin.^[43] Only the screw
 320 component of the Nye tensors is plotted in each
 321 structure. This Burgers vector density is deduced from
 322 the position variation of the nearest neighbors for each
 323 corresponding atom. In a perfect hcp structure each
 324 atom has twelve nearest neighbors forming a defined
 325 pattern. However, in a faulted structure, this number of
 326 nearest neighbors can be different with different corre-
 327 sponding patterns. In the figure, atoms belonging to a
 328 pattern that corresponds to a prismatic stacking fault
 329 have been plotted as squares while those belonging to a
 330 pattern that corresponds to the pyramidal twin described
 331 before are plotted as diamonds. We can see through
 332 Figure 7 that *ab initio* calculations and EAM potential
 333 results are in good agreement with the same metastable
 334 core obtained in both cases.

335 The equilibrium configuration of the dislocation
 336 (Figures 7(a) and (c)) shows a spread in the prismatic
 337 plane in agreement with the literature.^[24,25] The disso-
 338 ciation of the dislocation into two partials is illustrated
 339 by two local extrema in the Nye tensor distribution and
 340 the prismatic stacking fault in the core is highlighted by
 341 the squares showing the atoms involved in the fault.

342 Analyzing the displacement maps of the metastable
 343 core structure (Figures 7(b) and (d)), we show that the
 344 dislocation is spread in three different crystallographic
 345 planes at the same time: in the core center, the

346 dislocation lies in a pyramidal plane while it lies in
 347 two adjacent prismatic planes at the extremities. The
 348 two central atoms sketched by black and white dia-
 349 monds (Figures 7(b) and (d)) witness of the presence of
 350 the pyramidal twin pattern, while the squares result
 351 from a local shearing in the prismatic plane.

352 The pyramidal spreading in the core center is
 353 explained by the metastable stacking fault evidenced
 354 above in the pyramidal π_{1D} plane with a fault vector
 355 $\vec{f} = 1/2 \vec{a} + b_e$. The central part of the core thus
 356 corresponds to an elementary two-layer twin of a finite
 357 extension. Since the screw component of the fault
 358 vector, $1/2 \vec{a}$, is identical in both the prismatic and
 359 pyramidal faults, there is no discontinuity in the screw
 360 direction at the intersection between the faults. The
 361 pyramidal fault is thus bordered at its intersections with
 362 the prismatic fault by two edge disconnections of slip
 363 vectors $\pm b_e$, while the prismatic faults end with screw
 364 partial dislocations with $1/2 \vec{a}$ Burgers vectors. This
 365 can be seen through the Nye tensor distribution plot in
 366 Figures 7(b) and (d) where two partial dislocations are
 367 distinguished in two neighboring prismatic planes.

368 The metastable core may thus be described as two
 369 partial dislocations spread in two adjacent prismatic
 370 planes, separated by two prismatic stacking faults and a
 371 pyramidal nanotwin in-between.^[29] The prismatic stack-
 372 ing faults are linked to the nanotwin by stair-rods
 373 forming a dipole of disconnections (b_e). The corre-
 374 sponding decomposition of the total Burgers vector is

$$\frac{1}{3} a[\bar{1}2\bar{1}0] \rightarrow \frac{1}{6} a[\bar{1}2\bar{1}0] + \frac{b_e}{\sqrt{3+4\gamma^2}} [10\bar{1}2] - \frac{b_e}{\sqrt{3+4\gamma^2}} [10\bar{1}2] + \frac{1}{6} a[\bar{1}2\bar{1}0],$$

where γ is the c/a ratio.

377 B. Core Energy

378 Figure 8 summarizes, for different cell sizes, the excess
 379 energy of the metastable configuration, with respect to
 380 the energy of the equilibrium configuration fully disso-
 381 ciated in the prismatic plane. With the EAM potential,
 382 this excess energy is always positive, confirming that the
 383 metastable core is less favorable than the prismatic
 384 configuration. Convergence of the results is obtained
 385 for simulation cells containing more than 2000 atoms
 386 (Figure 8(a)), with an excess energy of $\Delta E = 24$ meV/
 387 Å. Different simulation cell shapes lead to different
 388 convergence behaviors. At small sizes, an upper bound
 389 of the converged excess energy is obtained with shapes
 390 defined by $m = n$, whereas a lower bound is obtained
 391 with $m = 2n$.

392 *Ab initio* calculations lead to a lower excess energy
 393 (Figure 8(b)). As a consequence, stability inversion was
 394 observed for very small simulation cells (4×8 cell
 395 containing only 128 atoms). However, larger simulation
 396 cells confirm that the configuration partially spread in
 397

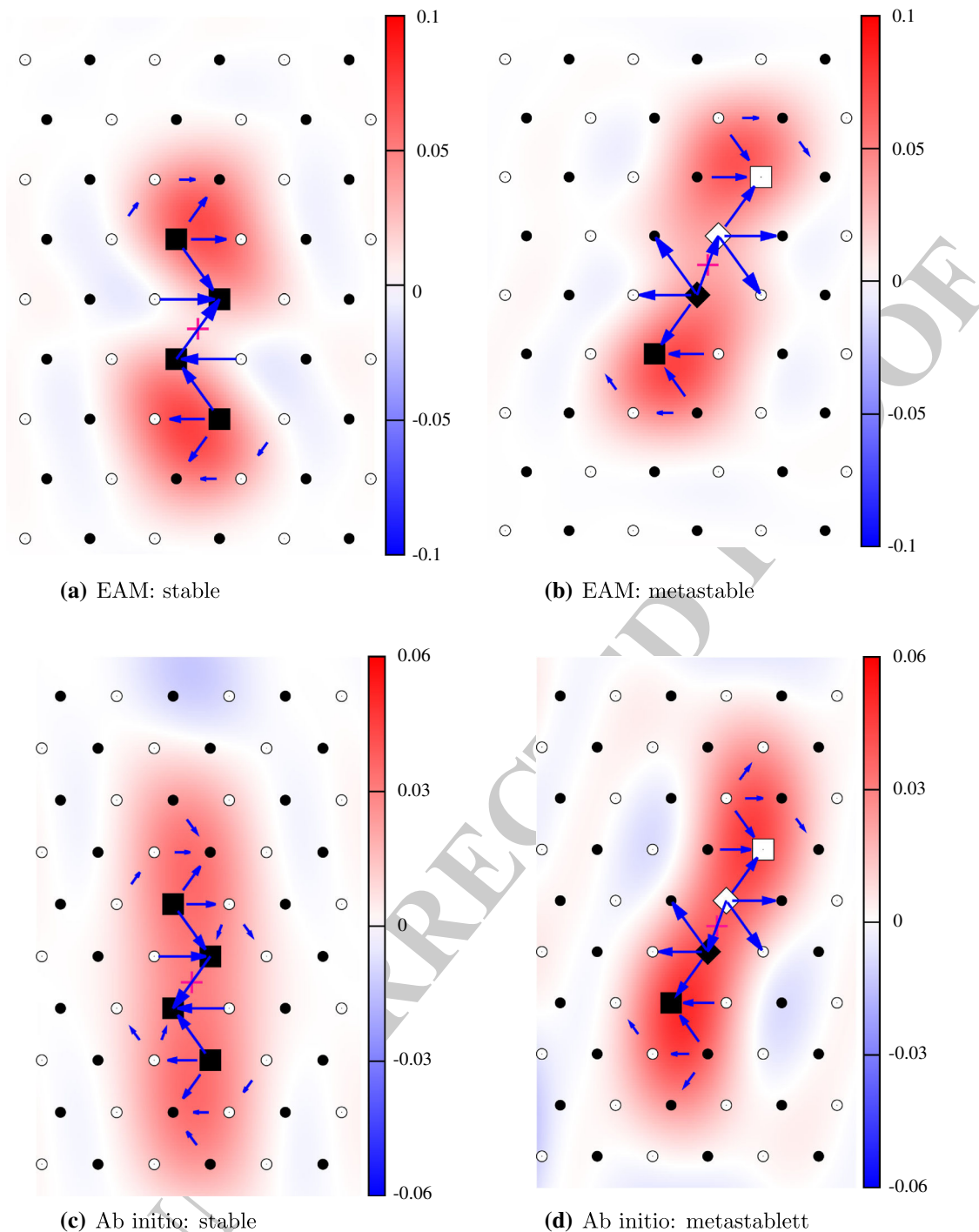


Fig. 7—Differential displacement map of the screw dislocation in its equilibrium and metastable configuration deduced from *ab initio* calculations and EAM potential. The black and white symbols corresponds to atoms depending on their position along the $\langle a \rangle = [1\bar{2}10]$ direction in the perfect crystal, while the blue arrows corresponds to the differential displacement between two columns of atoms in the $\langle a \rangle$ direction after relaxation with dislocations. The pink cross indicates the dislocation center obtained by symmetry. The screw component of the Nye tensor distribution is superimposed. Squares correspond to atoms in a prismatic fault neighborhood while diamonds correspond to atoms in the pyramidal twin neighborhood. (color online).

398 the pyramidal plane is metastable. Since *ab initio* calcula-
 399 tions are more expensive and limited to few hundred
 400 atoms, it was not possible to reach a converged value of
 401 the energy. However, the same dependence of the

convergence rate with the cell shape was observed with 402
 the *ab initio* calculations and with the EAM potential. 403
 An upper limit of the energy is thus given by the $m = n$ 404
 cells and a lower limit by the $m = 2n$ cells. Our *ab initio* 405

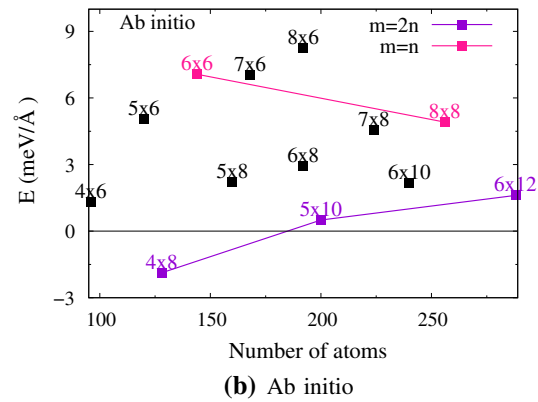
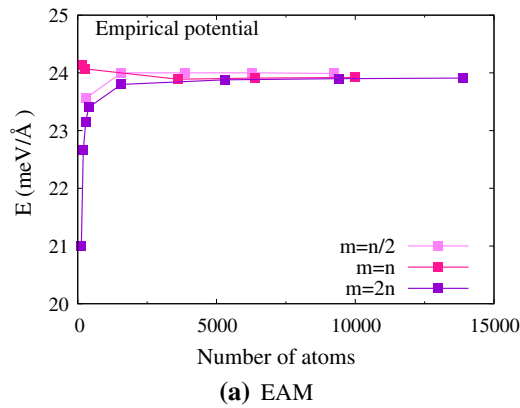


Fig. 8—Difference between the energy of the metastable configuration and the equilibrium configuration of the screw dislocation for different simulation cell sizes $n \times m$ obtained with the EAM potential on the left and with *ab initio* calculations on the right. (color online).

406 calculations, therefore, lead to an excess energy
407 $\Delta E = 3.2 \pm 1.6$ meV/Å.

in Barcelona Supercomputing Center (project DI- 443
MAIM). 444

408 VI. CONCLUSION

409 In the present work, based on generalized stacking
410 fault calculations in the first order pyramidal plane,
411 we demonstrated that shearing along the [1210]
412 direction inside a dense pyramidal plane costs less
413 energy than between two corrugated planes. In addition,
414 calculations showed a metastable stacking fault
415 in the pyramidal plane, which corresponds to an
416 elementary pyramidal two-layer twin. This metastable
417 stacking fault is at the origin of the new metastable
418 core configuration of the $\langle a \rangle$ screw dislocation in
419 zirconium, which appears halfway across the migration
420 path when the dislocation glides in a pyramidal
421 plane. This metastable configuration presents an
422 unusual core structure with an incipient two-layer
423 twin in its center.

424 We conclude that there are two possible configurations
425 of the screw dislocation in zirconium. The one with
426 the lower core energy, is dissociated in the prismatic
427 plane and responsible for the easy glide in this plane.^[24]
428 The second configuration is metastable and appears
429 during pyramidal and basal slips.^[29] The results show a
430 good agreement between *ab initio* calculations and the
431 Mendeleev empirical potential since, qualitatively, both
432 lead to the same glide mechanism and metastable core.
433 This work is a first step toward understanding cross-slip
434 in zirconium, showing a new and unexpected relation
435 between dislocation glide and twinning, two essential
436 motors for hcp plasticity.

437

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442 awarding access to the Marenstrum resources based

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