Atomistic calculations of surface and interfacial energies of Mg$_{17}$Al$_{12}$–Mg system

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Abstract

It is well known that precipitation hardening in magnesium (Mg) alloys is far less effective than in aluminum alloys. Thus, it is important to understand the surface and interfacial structure and energetics between precipitates and matrix. In upscale modeling of magnesium alloys, these energy data are of great significance. In this work, we calculated the surface and interfacial energies of Mg$_{17}$Al$_{12}$–Mg system by carefully selecting the surface or interface termination, using atomistic simulations. The results show that, the higher fraction of Mg atoms on the surface, the lower the surface energy of Mg$_{17}$Al$_{12}$. The interfacial energy of Mg/Mg$_{17}$Al$_{12}$ was calculated in which the Burgers orientation relationship (OR) was satisfied. It was found that the (011)$_p$$//$(0002)$_{Mg}$ interface has the lowest interfacial energy (248 mJ/m²). Because the Burgers OR breaks when [1012] twin occurs, which reorients the matrix, the interfacial energy for Mg$_{17}$Al$_{12}$ and a [1012] twin was also calculated. The results show that after twinning, the lowest interfacial energy increases by 244 mJ/m², and the interface becomes highly incoherent due to the change in orientation relationship between Mg$_{17}$Al$_{12}$ and the matrix.

Keywords: Mg$_{17}$Al$_{12}$; Surface energy; Interfacial energy; Atomistic simulation.

1. Introduction

In recent years, magnesium (Mg) and its alloys have received significant attention due to their low densities and high specific strength. These properties make Mg alloys attractive for structural applications where improved fuel efficiency is needed [1–4]. Mg–Al alloys are the most common commercial Mg alloys, and have been used as model alloys for fundamental research on deformation mechanisms and mechanical behavior. The $\beta$-phase (Mg$_{17}$Al$_{12}$) is the primary equilibrium precipitates which act as strengthening phase for Mg alloys. Generally, Mg$_{17}$Al$_{12}$ precipitates increase the strength of Mg alloys by interacting with dislocation motion [5–7]. Discontinuous precipitation of Mg$_{17}$Al$_{12}$ may take place along high angle grain boundaries and grow into a cellular morphology [8,9]. In contrast, continuous precipitation occurs inside the matrix of individual grains by forming large plates parallel to the basal plane of the matrix [10]. Continuous precipitates follow the Burgers orientation relationship (OR) with respective to the matrix: (0001)$_{Mg}$$//$(011)$_p$, [2110]$_{Mg}$$//$(111)$_p$ [8,11–14].

The effect of Mg$_{17}$Al$_{12}$ on mechanical behavior of Mg alloys has been studied by a number of researchers. Robson et al. [15] calculated the hardening effect based on Orowan’s mechanism in terms of precipitate shape and habit plane. Their results suggested that the plate-like precipitates parallel to the basal plane are ineffective to impede basal slip; however, they may hinder twin growth, because precipitates inside a twin can provide a back-stress that prevents the plastic relaxation. This calculation was based on interaction between precipitates and “twinning dislocations” that can only glide on the [1012] twinning plane. Such interaction was questioned by recent works that have suggested that [1012] mode

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is not mediated by twinning dislocations but by atomic shuffling [16]. Li and Zhang showed that the twinning shear for \((10\overline{1}2)/(10\overline{1}1)\) mode should be zero [16]. Consequently, twin-precipitate interaction should be minimal, which explains why precipitate hardening in magnesium alloy is not as effective as alloys with cubic structures [6]. Liao et al. [17,18] simulated interactions between a Mg\(_{17}\)Al\(_{12}\) precipitate and prismatic slip and basal slip in magnesium using atomistic simulations. Their results indicated that a basal dislocation is able to bypass the precipitate without creating a dislocation loop around the precipitate, suggesting a rather weak interaction. In contrast, a prismatic dislocation may cut through the precipitate. They also showed that the interface between the precipitate and the matrix is incoherent and the interfacial strength is weak. Mg/Mg\(_{17}\)Al\(_{12}\) interfaces can act as a source of crack initiation to influence the fracture behavior [19]. Mg/Mg\(_{17}\)Al\(_{12}\) interface also significantly influences the corrosion behavior [20,21] of Mg alloys because the free corrosion potential of Mg\(_{17}\)Al\(_{12}\) phase is relatively positive in a NaCl solution.

According to phase field simulation results by Han et al. [22–24], the competition between interfacial energy and elastic strain energy determines the morphology of Mg\(_{17}\)Al\(_{12}\) phase [7]. In their simulation, anisotropic interfacial energy and interface mobility, and elastic strain energy incorporated in their phase field model, how the energy data was obtained was not available. Hutchinson et al. [14] calculated the Mg/Mg\(_{17}\)Al\(_{12}\) interfacial energies, but the effect of surface termination of Mg\(_{17}\)Al\(_{12}\) was not considered. Xiao et al. [25] calculated the surface energies of Mg\(_{17}\)Al\(_{12}\) but surface termination was not considered as well.

In this work, we performed atomistic simulations to calculate the surface and interfacial energies of Mg/Mg\(_{17}\)Al\(_{12}\) system. Surface termination and interfacial structure were taken into consideration. Such data are of importance for further understanding the mechanical properties of Mg alloys and for upscale simulation and modeling.

2. Simulation method

We used XMD molecular dynamics (MD) simulation package to perform our calculations. The embedded atom method (EAM) [26,27] interatomic potential for Mg and Al developed by Liu et al. [28] was used. This potential has been used in extensive MD simulations of mechanical properties for Mg and Mg alloys [29–31]. More recently, Wu and Curtin [32] developed a modified EAM (MEAM [33]) potential for Mg, in which the stacking fault energy has a better accuracy. Ovito [34] was used for graphic visualization.

The method for our calculations is schematically shown in Fig. 1 [35]. First, we constructed a Mg\(_{17}\)Al\(_{12}\) crystal which has a complex structure. They system contains a total of 928,000 atoms. The dimension of the system was 42(X) × 42(Y) × 11(Z) nm. The X, Y and Z are along the [100], [010] and [001] directions, respectively. The temperature in the simulation was kept constant at 10 K. Free surface conditions was applied to all three dimensions. The system was relaxed for 30 ps to minimize the potential energy of the system. To calculate the surface energy, first, we select atoms inside Box A which is in the center of the system and away from the free surfaces. The average potential energy of Al and Mg atoms were calculated. These energies were used as the baseline energy for calculating the surface energy. Because the system is sufficiently large, the effect of free surfaces on the baseline energy can be neglected. Second, we selected another Box B which contains a portion of the free surface of interest [35], and the average potential energy of Al and Mg atoms inside Box B were calculated. Then the surface energy \(\gamma_{surf}\) can be calculated as:

\[
\gamma_{surf} = \frac{(E'_{Mg} - E_{Mg}) \times N_{Mg} + (E'_{Al} - E_{Al}) \times N_{Al}}{A}
\]

where \(E_{Mg}\) and \(E_{Al}\) are the average potential energies per atom for Mg and Al from box A; \(E'_{Mg}\) and \(E'_{Al}\) are the average potential energies per atom for Mg and Al from box B; \(N_{Mg}\) and \(N_{Al}\) are the number of Mg and Al atoms in box B; \(A\) is the area of the free surface that is contained in box B (in the case of Fig. 1, the area is on the bottom XY-surface in box B).

The calculation of the surface energies of Mg\(_{17}\)Al\(_{12}\) is complicated by the fact that there are many possible surface terminations or configurations. This complication is shown in Fig. 2. Thus, all the possible surface terminations should be considered in the calculation. We calculated each surface energy of different terminations by removing the outermost atoms of each surface plane layer by layer to find the lowest surface energy termination. The highest surface energy termination was obtained as well. Fig. 2(a) shows the (010) surface structure with the viewing direction being [010]. It can be observed that the structure presents repeating units in all three dimensions, as indicated by the yellow arrows, and this simplifies our calculations. For instance, along the Z-[001],

![Fig. 1. Schematic of calculation method for surface energies of Mg\(_{17}\)Al\(_{12}\). A Mg\(_{17}\)Al\(_{12}\) precipitate was constructed. Atoms inside Box A are used for calculating the baseline energy of Al and Mg atoms, and Box B for calculating the surface energies.](image-url)
the structure repeats itself every unit length as indicated by the yellow arrow. Similar repetition can be seen along the X-[100] direction.

In the Burgers OR, i.e., \((0001)_{\text{Mg}}||\langle011\rangle_p, [\overline{2}1\overline{1}0]_{\text{Mg}}||\langle\overline{1}\overline{1}\overline{1}\rangle_p\), the surfaces of \(\text{Mg}_{17}\text{Al}_{12}\) are normal to the [011], [111] and [211], thus, the energies of these surfaces also need to be calculated. The system was reoriented to obey a Burgers OR precipitate, and the surface energies termination was determined using the above method [35]. Fig. 2(b) shows the structure of \(\text{Mg}_{17}\text{Al}_{12}\) when the viewing direction is reoriented to the [211]. Similarly, the repeating units along each direction can be observed.

To calculate the energies of Mg/\(\text{Mg}_{17}\text{Al}_{12}\) interfaces that satisfies the Burgers OR, we constructed a big system with dimensions of \(29 \times 29 \times 56\) nm (~2.25 million atoms). The system contains both the Mg matrix and the \(\text{Mg}_{17}\text{Al}_{12}\) precipitate, as shown in Fig. 3. The temperature condition and the surface condition were same as in the surface energy calculation. They system was relaxed for 6 ps. Atoms inside Box A which is inside the Mg matrix were selected to calculate the baseline energy of the Mg atoms of the matrix. Atoms inside Box B were selected to calculate the baseline energy of Al atoms and Mg atoms of the \(\text{Mg}_{17}\text{Al}_{12}\). Another Box C which comprises the Mg/\(\text{Mg}_{17}\text{Al}_{12}\) interface was selected to calculate the interfacial energy. The interfacial energy \(\gamma_{\text{int}}\) can be calculated as:

\[
\gamma_{\text{int}} = \frac{(E_{\text{Mg}\text{Mg}} - E_{\text{Mg}\text{Mg}}) \times N_{\text{Mg}} + (E_{\text{Al}\text{Mg}} - E_{\text{Al}\text{Mg}}) \times N_{\text{Al}} + (E_{\text{Mg}\text{Al}} - E_{\text{Mg}\text{Al}}) \times N_{\text{Al}}}{A}
\]

where \(E_{\text{Mg}\text{Mg}}\) and \(E_{\text{Al}\text{Mg}}\) are the average potential energies per atom for Mg and Al in Box A; \(E_{\text{Mg}\text{Mg}}\) is the average potential energy per atom for Mg in Box B; \(E_{\text{Mg}\text{Al}}\) and \(E_{\text{Al}\text{Al}}\) are the average potential energies per atom for Mg and Al in the precipitate in Box C; \(E_{\text{Mg}\text{Al}}\) is the average potential energy per atom for Mg in the matrix in Box C; \(N_{\text{Mg}}\) and \(N_{\text{Al}}\) are the number of Mg and Al atoms in the precipitate in box C; \(N_{\text{Mg}}\) is the number of Mg from the matrix in box C; \(A\) is the area of the Mg/\(\text{Mg}_{17}\text{Al}_{12}\) interface contained in Box C [35].

After \(\{012\}\{101\}\) twinning, the matrix was reoriented by \(90^\circ\) around the [2110] axis. The \(\text{Mg}_{58}\text{Mg}/\text{Mg}_{17}\text{Al}_{12}\) interfacial energy was then calculated.

3. Results

As shown in Fig. 2(a), the \(\text{Mg}_{17}\text{Al}_{12}\) \(\beta\)-phase presents repeating structural unit in all three dimensions. For the viewing direction of [010] in Fig. 2(a), each structural unit contains
twelve (001) planes or atomic layers. Therefore, we calculated the surface energies for all the twelve different surface terminations for (010). The results show that, when the 8th atomic layer was exposed as the surface termination, the surface energy is the lowest which equals 742.7 mJ/m². The highest surface energy appears when the 10th atomic layer was exposed as the surface termination, and has a value of 980 mJ/m². The structures with the lowest and the highest surface energy are shown in Fig. 4(a) and (b), respectively.

As shown in Fig. 2(a), the low index configuration along the [100], [010] and [001] directions present centrosymmetry that simplifies our calculation of the surface energy. However, this is not the case for the [211], [111] and [011] directions. The structure in the new orientation also shows repeating units along each direction, but only along the [011] direction the structure has centrosymmetry. Additionally, for different directions, the number of atomic layers in the repeating unit varies. The lack of centrosymmetry is demonstrated in Fig. 5(a) and (b). Along the viewing direction of [211], although the bottom (111) and the top (111) surface have exactly the same atomic structure, the underlying atomic layers are very different. For example, the structures of layer 2 in Fig. 5(a) and layer 9 in Fig. 5(b) differ significantly. Therefore, although the (111) surface layers in Fig. 5(a) and (b) have the same atomic structure, the surface energy is expected to differ. When atomic layer 1 was exposed as the bottom (111) surface (Fig. 5(a)), this termination gives a surface energy of 829 mJ/m². In contrast, when atomic layer 1 was exposed as the top (111) surface (Fig. 5(b)), this termination gives a surface energy of 820 mJ/m². Our results show that due to the difference in underlying atoms, the surface energy may change by as much as 150 mJ/m² for a specific surface layer.

By incorporating all the possible surface configurations, we calculated the surface energies and the results are summarized in Table 1. In terms of (111) bottom surface, the lowest surface energy appears when the 6th atomic layer becomes the bottom surface (776 mJ/m² as in Fig. 6(a)). When the 9th atomic layer becomes the bottom surface, the surface energy is the highest (960 mJ/m² as in Fig. 6(b)). In terms of (111) top surface, when the 2nd atomic layer becomes the top

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plane</th>
<th>Direction of layer removal</th>
<th>Lowest (mJ/m²)</th>
<th>Highest (mJ/m²)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>(001)</td>
<td>[001]</td>
<td>743</td>
<td>980</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(211)</td>
<td>[211]</td>
<td>789</td>
<td>1053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(211)</td>
<td>[211]</td>
<td>765</td>
<td>953</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(111)</td>
<td>[111]</td>
<td>776</td>
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<tr>
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<td>[111]</td>
<td>761</td>
<td>898</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(011)</td>
<td>[011]</td>
<td>716</td>
<td>1009</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
surface, the surface energy has the lowest value (761 mJ/m$^2$ as in Fig. 6(c)). When the 3rd atomic layer becomes the top surface, the surface energy is the highest (898 mJ/m$^2$ as in Fig. 6(d)).

For (011) surface, only the energies from removing atomic layer in one direction is shown because of the symmetry. Fig. 6(e) shows the (011) bottom surface that has the lowest surface energy (716 mJ/m$^2$), and Fig. 6(f) shows the (011) bottom surface which has the highest surface energy (1009 mJ/m$^2$).

The interfacial energies were calculated based on the Burgers OR. The effect of (111) surface termination of Mg$_{17}$Al$_{12}$ on the interfacial energy was examined and the results are summarized in Table 2, which shows the interfacial energies when different atomic layers become the free surface layer (both top and bottom) of the precipitate. We also calculated the interfacial energies of different (111) terminations after
two phases bonded together, and the interface becomes rather incoherent, as shown in Fig. 7(b).

From the results in Table 2, it can be observed that the change in surface termination of Mg\textsubscript{17}Al\textsubscript{12} does not alter the interfacial energy significantly. Thus, the interfacial energy is relatively insensitive to surface termination of the precipitate. Therefore, for other interfaces, to reduce the amount of calculation, we used the lowest and highest surface energy terminations of the Mg\textsubscript{17}Al\textsubscript{12} to calculate the interfacial energies. So, except for (011)\(\parallel\)(0002)\textsubscript{Mg} interface, each interface has two data points. The results are shown in Table 3. Fig. 8(a) shows the initial structure (i.e., before relaxation) when a (011) plane of the Mg\textsubscript{17}Al\textsubscript{12} was bonded to a (0002) plane of the Mg matrix. After relaxation (Fig. 8(b)), it can be seen that the interface retains a good registry with minimal distortion to the lattice at the vicinity of the interface.

After (1012)/(10\overline{1}1) twinning, the interface in Fig. 8 is altered by twinning. The original (011)\(\parallel\)(0002)\textsubscript{Mg} interface is now changed to (011)\(\parallel\)(01\overline{1}0)\textsubscript{Mg} interface, as shown in Fig. 9(a), which is the initial structure before relaxation. After relaxation, as shown in Fig. 9(b), the relaxed interface structure is rather disordered, indicating that the interface structure is highly incoherent.

4. Analysis and discussion

4.1. Surface energy of Mg\textsubscript{17}Al\textsubscript{12}

From the surface energies shown in Table 1, it can be seen that the lowest surface energy termination appears in the (011) surface which gives a value of 716 mJ/m\textsuperscript{2}. This is likely due to the complex body-centered-cubic (BCC) structure of Mg\textsubscript{17}Al\textsubscript{12} in which the (011) plane is the closed packed plane and gives the low surface energy [36]. Xiao et al. [25] showed in their work that the (110) surface energy of Mg\textsubscript{17}Al\textsubscript{12} \(\beta\)-phase is 716 mJ/m\textsuperscript{2}. Thus, the agreement is very good. Additionally, Xiao et al. [25] also reported surface energies of (100) plane (806 mJ/m\textsuperscript{2}) and (111) plane (790 mJ/m\textsuperscript{2}) of the \(\beta\)-phase. It can be seen that these values fall in the range of our calculations (743–980 mJ/m\textsuperscript{2} for (100) and 776–960 mJ/m\textsuperscript{2} for (111)). Because no details of surface termination was provided in [25], discrepancies can be expected. Ning et al. [37] performed density functional

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Number of atomic layer</th>
<th>Matrix</th>
<th>Twin</th>
<th>Number of atomic layer</th>
<th>Matrix</th>
<th>Twin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>425</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>441</td>
<td>462</td>
</tr>
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<td>438</td>
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<td>440</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>433</td>
<td>417</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2
Effect of (111) surface termination on the Interfacial energy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of interface</th>
<th>Interfacial energy (mJ/m\textsuperscript{2})</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mg/Mg\textsubscript{17}Al\textsubscript{12}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(211)(\parallel)(01\overline{1}0)\textsubscript{Mg}</td>
<td>390</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(21\overline{1})(\parallel)(01\overline{1}0)\textsubscript{Mg}</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(11\overline{1})(\parallel)(2\overline{1}1\overline{0})\textsubscript{Mg}</td>
<td>449</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1\overline{1}1)(\parallel)(2\overline{1}1\overline{0})\textsubscript{Mg}</td>
<td>440</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(01\overline{1})(\parallel)(0002)\textsubscript{Mg}</td>
<td>248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mg\textsubscript{6}\textsubscript{Mg}/Mg\textsubscript{17}Al\textsubscript{12}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(211)(\parallel)(0002)\textsubscript{Mg}</td>
<td>397</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(21\overline{1})(\parallel)(0002)\textsubscript{Mg}</td>
<td>352</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(11\overline{1})(\parallel)(2\overline{1}1\overline{0})\textsubscript{Mg}</td>
<td>424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1\overline{1}1)(\parallel)(2\overline{1}1\overline{0})\textsubscript{Mg}</td>
<td>462</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(01\overline{1})(\parallel)(01\overline{1}0)\textsubscript{Mg}</td>
<td>492</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 7. (a) The initial structure before relaxation when a (111) surface of the Mg\textsubscript{17}Al\textsubscript{12} was bonded to a (2\overline{1}1\overline{0}) plane of the Mg matrix. (b) The interfacial structure after relaxation, which is rather incoherent.

[(10\overline{1}2)/(10\overline{1}1)] twinning which reorients the Mg matrix, and the results are shown in Table 2 as well. Fig. 7(a) shows one of the initial interface configurations (i.e., before relaxation) in which a (111) plane of the Mg\textsubscript{17}Al\textsubscript{12} was bonded to a (2\overline{1}1\overline{0}) plane of the Mg matrix. After relaxation, the
theory (DFT) calculation for the surface energy of (001) plane of Mg\textsubscript{17}Al\textsubscript{12}, and the value is 799 mJ/m\textsuperscript{2}. From the (001) surface structure used for the surface energy calculations in\textsuperscript{[25,37]}, we can see that the surface termination in these calculations is identical to our case in which the atomic layer 1 is the surface (Fig. 2(a)), and our result is 783 mJ/m\textsuperscript{2}. Again, the agreement is satisfactory.

Our results in Table 2 also show that, when centrosymmetry is absent, the surface energy also relies on the subsurface atoms next to the surface atoms. For example, for the (111) surface of Mg\textsubscript{17}Al\textsubscript{12}, the thickness of the atomic layers 6–9 is about 0.026 nm (Fig. 2(b)). These atoms can be considered as on the same surface that has the highest atomic density. This surface termination gives lowest surface energy for the bottom (111) plane (Fig. 6(a)). However, when these atoms become the top (111) surface, the surface energy is not the lowest due to the different subsurface atomic layers. Actually, the surface with the lowest energy is when the atomic layer 2 becomes the top (111) surface (Fig. 6(c)).

Furthermore, Figs. 4(b) and 6(b), (d), and (f) show that the high surface energy terminations contain more Al atoms. This can be understood from the difference in potential energy of Al atoms (~0.0274 eV/atom) and Mg atoms (~0.0198 eV/atom). Therefore, the number of Al atoms becomes a more significant factor contributing to the surface energy. In contrast, surfaces with a higher fraction of magnesium atoms generate lower surface energies.

4.2. Interfacial energy of Mg/Mg\textsubscript{17}Al\textsubscript{12}

The interfacial energies for Mg/Mg\textsubscript{17}Al\textsubscript{12} in Table 3 clearly show that, in the Burgers OR, (011)\textsubscript{p}|(0002)\textsubscript{Mg} type of interfaces gives the lowest interfacial energy (248 mJ/m\textsuperscript{2}). In the work by Han et al.\textsuperscript{[38]}, the estimated interfacial energy value falls in the range of 140–390 mJ/m\textsuperscript{2}. In the thermodynamics calculations by Hutchinson et al.\textsuperscript{[14]}, the interfacial energy was shown as 430 mJ/m\textsuperscript{2}, which is close to the
values of other types of interfaces, e.g., (211)\(\bar{p}\)(0110)\(_{Mg}\) and (111)\(\bar{p}\)(2110)\(_{Mg}\). Thus, our calculation result is reasonable. Li et al. [39] reported an energy value of 100 mJ/m\(^2\) for incoherent interfaces. This value appears to be rather low and how this value was obtained was not provided. As shown in Fig. 8, after relaxation, the (011)\(\bar{p}\)(0002)\(_{Mg}\) interface has a good registry and lattice distortion near the interface is much less severe if compared to other types of interfaces. Because the interfacial energy and the elastic strain between a precipitate and a matrix largely determine the morphology of the precipitates [7], accordingly the (011)\(\bar{p}\)(0002)\(_{Mg}\) interface is energetically more favorable. This well explains why equilibrium Mg\(_{17}\)Al\(_{12}\) precipitates in Mg–Al alloys generally assume a plate-like morphology with the plate plane parallel to the basal plane of the Mg matrix.

From our results (Tables 2 and 3), it is noticeable that the interfacial energies do not change dramatically when Mg\(_{17}\)Al\(_{12}\) surface termination changes and after twinning re-orient the Mg matrix. However, for the (011)\(\bar{p}\)(0002)\(_{Mg}\) interface that has the lowest interfacial energy, twinning significantly changes the interfacial structure and the interfacial energy, as shown in Figs. 8 and 9. After twinning, the interfacial energy for this particular interface increases by 244 mJ/m\(^2\). Interfacial energy of phase boundaries and grain boundaries is predominantly determined by the interaction of atoms that are located at the interface. Thus, the structure of the interface strongly influences the interfacial energy. In general, the more coherent of an interface, the lower the interfacial energy. For instance, coherent twin boundaries always have low interfacial energies (with one exception of (1121) twin boundary in hexagonal close-packed metals in which a coherent twin boundary has a much higher energy than an incoherent twin boundary because of the strong repulsive atomic interaction in a coherent twin boundary due to the small interplanar spacing [40]). Thus, the interfacial energy is a measure of coherency of an interface. The significant increase in interfacial energy of (011)\(\bar{p}\)(0002)\(_{Mg}\) interface after twinning may have important implications for the mechanical properties of Mg–Al alloys.

It is well known that precipitate strengthening effect in Mg–Al alloys is much less than that in Al alloys. This has been attributed to geometry factors of Mg\(_{17}\)Al\(_{12}\) phase [5,9]. When the Mg\(_{17}\)Al\(_{12}\) precipitates assume plate-like morphology parallel to the basal plane, the effect of hindering basal slip, which is the easiest slip system in Mg alloys, is limited. Large spacing between the plates also reduces the strengthening effect. Efforts have been made [6,9] to modify the orientation of precipitates such that they are inclined or perpendicular to the basal plane. The improvement in strengthening is still insignificant. Thus, the Mg/Mg\(_{17}\)Al\(_{12}\) interfacial structure and energetics need to be considered as well. Liao et al. [18] showed in their simulations that when a basal dislocation glides in contact with a Mg\(_{17}\)Al\(_{12}\) precipitate, no dislocation loop was generated. Instead, the interface acts as a dislocation sink, likely due to the highly incoherent interface structure and the relatively high interfacial energy.

In fact, after \{1012\}(101\(\bar{1}\)) twinning, the Mg\(_{17}\)Al\(_{12}\) plates that are originally parallel to the basal plane become perpendicular to the basal plane. However, as seen in Fig. 9, after twinning, the original, low energy (011)\(\bar{p}\)(0002)\(_{Mg}\) interface becomes a more disordered, incoherent (011)\(\bar{p}\)(0110)\(_{Mg}\) with a much higher interfacial energy. This type of interfaces may reduce the strengthening effect in terms of dislocation-precipitate interaction. Thus, to design precipitate strengthened Mg alloys, interfacial structure and energy between the precipitates and the matrix should be considered as well.

5. Conclusion

In this work, we conducted atomistic calculations of surface and interfacial energies of Mg/Mg\(_{17}\)Al\(_{12}\) system, by taking into account the effect of Mg\(_{17}\)Al\(_{12}\) surface termination. The following conclusions can be reached:

1. The surface energy of Mg\(_{17}\)Al\(_{12}\) is sensitive to the surface termination. Generally, surfaces with higher fraction of magnesium atoms generate lower surface energies.

2. The Mg/Mg\(_{17}\)Al\(_{12}\) interfacial energy is relatively insensitive to the surface termination of Mg\(_{17}\)Al\(_{12}\). (011)\(\bar{p}\)(0002)\(_{Mg}\) interface generates the lowest interfacial energy, and the interfacial structure has a good registry and minimal lattice distortion near the interface. This explains why equilibrium Mg\(_{17}\)Al\(_{12}\) phase prefers a plate-like morphology parallel to the basal plane.

3. After twinning, the original Burgers OR breaks and the interfacial structure and energies change. The original (011)\(\bar{p}\)(0002)\(_{Mg}\) interface that has the lowest interfacial energy now becomes (011)\(\bar{p}\)(0110)\(_{Mg}\) interface with a more incoherent structure and the interfacial energy increases by 244 mJ/m\(^2\). Such a change in interfacial structure and energy may have important implications on the mechanical behavior of Mg–Al alloys.

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References
