Introduction

The use of beryllium (Be) in structural applications has been mostly limited to that of an alloying element, owing to the extreme toxicity of Be dust produced in machining. It is, nonetheless, employed due to its low atomic mass and unique neutronic properties; most notably as a window for x-rays and a neutron reflector and moderator in fission reactors [1].

Recently, Be has been used as a first wall material in experimental nuclear fusion reactors [2, 3], since it causes relatively small radiative losses in the event it contaminates the plasma during a transient event. In future reactors, Be is proposed as a neutron multiplying material for tritium (3T) breeding [4–6], since 9Be exhibits a low threshold for the (n, 2n) reaction when bombarded with fast neutrons. In these applications, Be will be subject to temperatures of 600 °C [5, 7] and a high flux of neutrons resulting in the generation of 3T and helium (He) through transmutation reactions. Several studies have indicated that this will cause an unacceptable degradation of its mechanical and thermal properties [8–10], along with retention of a high 3T inventory, producing a radiological hazard [11, 12].

Be-rich intermetallics have been proposed as an alternative to elemental Be for nuclear applications, since they maintain similar neutronic properties to pure Be but perhaps offer a significant advantage in terms of 3T retention and radiation tolerance [13, 14]. In particular, the Be12X series, where X is a transition metal, have proved promising, with studies showing that Be12Ti and Be12V have adequate neutronic properties for use as a multiplier [15]. In comparison to Be, however, the irradiation response of Be intermetallics has not yet been adequately characterised, although several studies have investigated the response of Be12Ti, showing it to compare favourably to pure Be in terms of embrittlement, swelling and tritium retention [14].

Further work must be carried out to identify the fundamental processes occurring during radiation damage in Be.
intermetallics. In particular, a greater understanding is required of how the point defects generated in damage cascades interact and lead to macroscopic changes in the microstructure. Recent work by Allouche et al [16] on the isomorphic Be$_{12}$W structure used density functional theory to simulate the interactions of vacancies and hydrogen, finding that the intermetallic exhibits a significantly greater Be vacancy formation enthalpy in comparison to pure Be.

The study reported here contributes to our understanding of the fundamental processes occurring during radiation damage of Be intermetallics by predicting the formation and migration of intrinsic defects. It builds upon previous work focused on impurity behaviour in pure Be [17, 18].

After a brief description of the computational methodology, we review the crystal structure of the Be$_{12}$X series, identifying all stable interstitial sites for intrinsic defects. The formation energies of all intrinsic point defects are evaluated, identifying the mechanisms relevant to stoichiometric, nonstoichiometric and radiation damage conditions.

### Computational methodology

Density functional theory (DFT) simulations were mostly carried out using the Perdew, Burke and Ernzerhof (PBE) scheme of the generalised gradient approximation for the exchange-correlation functional [19]. Ultra-soft pseudo potentials with a consistent cut-off of 480 eV (converged to $10^{-3}$ eV atom$^{-1}$) were used throughout. All simulations were performed using the CASTEP code [20].

Defect calculations were performed in supercells constructed from $2 \times 2 \times 2$ full Be$_{12}$X unit cells containing 208 atoms. A high density of k-points, with spacing of approximately 0.3 nm$^{-1}$ was used for the integration of the Brillouin Zone, following the Monkhost-Packing scheme [21]. This corresponds to k-point grids of $2 \times 2 \times 4$ for defect calculations.

As these materials are metallic, density mixing and Methfessel-Paxton [22] cold smearing of bands were employed with a width of 0.1 eV. Calculations were not spin-polarised, and during defect and elastic calculations no symmetry constraints were applied. All parameters, including the k-point spacing were converged to at least $10^{-3}$ eV atom$^{-1}$.

For atomic relaxation in defective cells, the energy convergence criterion for self-consistent calculations was set to $10^{-7}$ eV and that for the forces on atoms to less than 0.01 eV Å$^{-1}$. The cell was relaxed the stress component less than 0.05 GPa.

### Crystallography

It has been established that the crystal structure of this family of materials exhibits tetragonal symmetry and spacegroup I$4/mmm$ [23]. Several studies also report Be$_{12}$Ti as being hexagonal with spacegroup P$6_3/mmm$ [24, 25]. In fact, Gillam et al [23], suggested that the large disordered hexagonal cell (with dimensions $a = 29.44$ and $c = 7.33$ Å) originally proposed by Raeuchle [25] is a derivative of the smaller tetragonal structure. This was confirmed in our recent work [26].

Within the I$4/mmm$ structure, the transition metal occupies the 2a lattice site (0,0,0) with 20 fold coordination by Be (see figure 1). Be occupies three symmetrically distinct sites within the structure, here named $Be_1$, $Be_2$ and $Be_3$. The $Be_1$ site ($\frac{1}{4},\frac{1}{4},\frac{1}{4}$) has 8f symmetry, coordinated by 10 Be sites and two transition metal sites. The $Be_2$ site ($x,0,0$) has 8i symmetry and is coordinated by 9 Be sites and one transition metal. Finally, the $Be_3$ site ($x,\frac{1}{2},0$) has 8j symmetry and is coordinated by 10 Be sites and two transition metal sites. Thus, the $Be_2$ and $Be_3$ sites exhibit special positions, so that different compounds with the same crystal structures have different position values.
To part validate the choice of the model, and in particular the choice of the exchange-correlation functional, the calculations of perfect crystals structures were performed using the local density approximation (LDA) and PBE functional, the results of which are compared with experimental data in table 1. It is clear that results generated using PBE are in closer agreement with experiment than LDA. (Further comparison between PBE and LDA results are discussed later: in figure 3 for phase stability and for the formation energies of vacancy and anti-site defects in Be₁₂Ti in the appendix—table A2.) The simulated lattice volumes are ~1% below their experimental volumes, typical for DFT predictions on metallic and intermetallic systems when using the PBE exchange correlation terms [19], and significantly closer to the experimental value than those predicted using the LDA functional.

Table 1. Lattice parameters, volumes and special positions calculated for the Be₁₂X system, where X = V, Ti, Mo and W. x(Be₂) and x(Be₃) denotes the fractional x coordinate of these sites, which are special positions. Results calculated using the LDA functional are presented for comparison.

| Lattice properties | Be₁₂V | Be₁₂Ti | Be₁₂Mo | Be₁₂W |
|--------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
|                   | Exp.   | PBE    | LDA    | Exp.   | PBE    | LDA    | Exp.   | PBE    | LDA    |
| a (Å)              | 7.266^a| 7.240  | 7.127  | 7.35^c| 7.361  | 7.250  | 7.251^d| 7.239  | 7.135  |
|                   | 7.278^b|        |        | 7.271^b|        |        | 7.34   | 7.362^b| 7.227  | 7.126  |
| c (Å)              | 4.194^a| 4.169  | 4.104  | 4.19^c| 4.163  | 4.098  | 4.232^d| 4.221  | 4.164  |
|                   | 4.212^b|        |        | 4.234^b|        |        | 4.216^e| 4.232^b| 4.223  | 4.167  |
| V (Å³)             | 221.4^a| 218.5  | 208.5  | 226.4^c| 225.6  | 215.4  | 222.5^d| 221.2  | 211.9  |
|                   | 223.1^b|        |        | 223.8^b|        |        | 227.1^e| 229.4^b| 220.6  | 211.6  |
| x(Be₂)             | 0.361^a| 0.349  | 0.348  | —      | 0.350  | 0.351  | 0.351^b| 0.350  | 0.350  |
| x(Be₃)             | 0.277^a| 0.288  | 0.289  | —      | 0.281  | 0.283  | 0.281^b| 0.289  | 0.289  |
  ^a Reference [27].
  ^b Reference [28].
  ^c Reference [29].
  ^d Reference [30].
  ^e Reference [31].
  ^f Reference [31].

Figure 2. Left: interstitial positions within a unit cell of the Be₁₂X structure as viewed along the c direction. Right: coordination environment of the four interstitial sites.

While the perfect structure of this family of materials has been well characterised, interstitial sites within the I₄/mmm structure are identified here for the first time. This is achieved using the brute force approach described by Murphy [32], by seeding a Be₁₂Ti unit cell with a dense grid of Be and Ti interstitials with 0.03 nm spacing and performing a single point calculation to find the energy of these (unrelaxed) sites. The 20 lowest energy and symmetrically distinct defects were reproduced in a 2 × 2 × 2 supercells and geometry optimised to find the final position of the interstitial site. Four interstitial sites were identified as present within the I₄/mmm structure in figure 2.

Three interstitial sites can accommodate both Be and Ti, a 2b site labelled i₁, a 4b site labelled i₂, and an 8h site labelled i₃. The Wyckoff notation uniquely describes their location. A further site was found to be stable for the X species at (0,½,½) (4c symmetry) and is labelled i₄. Be interstitials placed on this...
site move to a neighbouring Be\textit{3} site, displacing the Be atom to the \( i \) site when geometry optimised. In all cases, these present as typical interstitials in a complex structure, remaining on high symmetry sites and perturbing the surrounding lattice in a roughly symmetrical manner rather than forming a dumbbell as is common in simple metallic structures [33, 34].

Point defects

The formation enthalpies \( (E_f) \) of a Be vacancy and interstitial, denoted in Kröger–Vink notation [35] \( \text{V}_{\text{Be}} \) and \( \text{Be}_i \), are presented relative to their elemental reference states in table 2, following for example:

\[
\text{Be}_i \rightarrow \text{V}_{\text{Be}} + \text{Be}_i
\]

For these materials, the \( \text{V}_{\text{Be}2} \) site systematically exhibits the lowest \( E_f \) of \( \text{V}_{\text{Be}1} \) has the next highest \( E_f \) for \( \text{Be}_{i2} \) where the order of the \( \text{Be}2 \) and \( \text{Be}3 \) sites is reversed. For all cases there is only a small relative difference in \( E_f \) between all three sites, reaching a maximum of 0.32 eV for \( \text{V}_{\text{Be}2} \) and \( \text{V}_{\text{Be}3} \) in \( \text{Be}_{i2} \text{Mo} \). For \( \text{Be} \text{ i2} \) site systematically exhibits the lowest \( E_f \) with the \( i1 \) and \( i3 \) sites significantly higher. All \( \text{Be}_i \) species have considerably higher \( E_f \) than \( \text{V}_{\text{Be}} \) species.

The formation energies of \( \text{V}_X \) and \( \text{X}_i \) have significantly higher \( E_f \) than \( \text{V}_{\text{Be}} \), are presented in table 3. Both \( \text{V}_X \) and \( \text{X}_i \) have significantly higher \( E_f \) than \( \text{V}_{\text{Be}} \) species.

Another important defect process resulting from radiation damage is antisite disorder, the \( E_i \) of which are presented in table 4. In all materials the accommodation of Be on a \( X \) site has a large energy penalty, likely due to the size mismatch between Be and the \( X \) species. The lowest \( E_f \) defect is \( \text{X}_{\text{Be}2} \), likely as this site is only coordinated with one \( X \) site rather

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
\text{Defect} & \text{Be}_{i2} & \text{Be}_{i2} & \text{Be}_{i2} & \text{Be}_{i2} & \text{Be}^a\
\hline
\text{Be vacancies} & \text{V}_{\text{Be}1} & 1.59 & 1.60 & 1.59 & 1.38 & \text{V}_{\text{Be}1} & 1.09\
\text{V}_{\text{Be}2} & 1.48 & 1.43 & 1.34 & 1.20 & 1.14 & \text{Be interstitials} & \text{Be}_{i} (\text{Oc}) & 5.06 & \text{Be}_{i} (\text{Te}) & 5.14\
\text{V}_{\text{Be}3} & 1.64 & 1.53 & 1.66 & 1.47 & 1.48 & \text{Be}_{i} (\text{Nb}) & 4.77 & \text{Be}_{i} (\text{Hx}) & 5.67 & \text{Be}_{i} (\text{Tr}) & 4.01\
\text{Be interstitials} & \text{Be}_{i1} & 2.95 & 3.19 & 3.54 & 3.81 & \text{Be}_{i2} & 2.03 & 1.86 & 2.37 & 2.50 & \text{Be}_{i3} & 3.54 & 3.69 & 3.92 & 4.14 & \text{Be}_{i4} & 4.69 & 4.19 & 4.84 & 5.95 & \text{Be}_{i4} &
\end{array}
\]

\( ^a \) Allouche et al [16] (DFT data).

\( ^b \) Middleburgh and Grimes (DFT data) [17].
than two as for the Be1 and Be3 sites. In the case of Be12W the energy penalty for accommodating X on a Be site is noticeably larger than for other materials.

**Defect clustering**

Since larger defects such as voids might form through coalescence of smaller clusters, how defects interact, particularly whether there is a driving force for association, is a key indicator of how the microstructure of a material will evolve during irradiation. As an initial step towards cluster formation, the binding enthalpies $E_b$ of nearest neighbour vacancies and interstitials were calculated with respect to the lowest enthalpy isolated defect of each type, that is, two VBe2 or two Be2 (see table 5). Also, the cluster $X_{2Be}$ was considered, formed from $X_{Be}$ and $V_{Be}$ (which provides more volume for the larger X atom than a single vacancy). In all cases the propensity to form a cluster is indicated as a negative binding energy, for example,

| Cluster           | Binding enthalpy (eV) |
|-------------------|-----------------------|
| $Be_{12}Be_{12}$  | 0.38                  |
| $Be_{12}Be_{12}$  | 0.71                  |
| $Be_{12}Be_{12}$  | 0.37                  |
| $Be_{12}Be_{12}$  | 0.42                  |

Table 6. Binding enthalpies (where negative means bound and positive means unstable) of Be$_i$Be$_j$ with respect to two Be$_{12}$. In bold, the most favourable di-interstitial cluster.

Table 7. Binding enthalpy (where negative means bound and positive means unstable) of X$_{Be}$ with respect to X$_{Be2}$ and V$_{Be2}$. In bold, the most favourable cluster for each material.

Table 8. Normalised defect process formation energies, $E_f$, for Frenkel, Schottky and (simple) antisite disorder.

$V_{Be} + V_{Be} \rightarrow V_{Be2}V_{Be2}$ (Out of plane)

which is the lowest energy orientation cluster incorporating two lowest energy isolated vacancies (where out of plane indicates the two vacancies are orientated out of the basal plane). Alternately,

$V_{Be2} + V_{Be2} + Be_{Be1} + Be_{Be3} \rightarrow V_{Be1}V_{Be3} + 2Be_{Be2}$

will yield the binding energy to form the $V_{Be1}V_{Be3}$ cluster from two (lowest energy) isolated $V_{Be2}$ defects (which is positive and thus the cluster is not stable).

Table 5 shows that for all materials the strongest cluster association by far is between $V_{Be2}$ and $V_{X}$, while two $V_X$ defects are strongly repelled in all materials. That some orientations of the $V_{Be}V_{Be}$ and $V_{Be}V_{X}$ divacancy are favourable suggests such clusters may act as nucleation sites for void formation, however, given that this cluster energy is strongly orientation dependent, further simulations of larger clusters are required to validate such a hypothesis.

Values of $E_f$ for two Be$_i$ on nearest neighbour sites are presented in table 6. Be$_i$Be$_j$ clusters include those on the i4 site, despite this site not being stable for individual Be$_i$ defects. For most materials and interstitial combinations, $E_f(Be_iBe_j)$ is repulsive, thus there is usually no driving force to form such clusters. One exception to this is $E_f(Be_4Be_{14})$ which is slightly
negative in both Be$_{12}$Ti and Be$_{12}$V and only moderately repulsive in Be$_{12}$Mo and Be$_{12}$W. Thus, we predict no driving force for the formation of larger interstitial defect clusters, through a model where isolated interstitial defects associate initially into pairs, other than via two interstitials reorienting onto $i4$ sites.

The binding energies for VBe and XBe to form X$_2$Be are presented in table 7. $E_B$ ranges from strongly negative ($-4.55$ eV) to strongly positive ($4.26$ eV). The lowest energy sites are split between Be$_2$–Be$_3$ for Be$_{12}$V and Be$_{12}$Mo, and Be$_2$–Be$_2$ for Be$_{12}$Ti and Be$_{12}$W. The latter case might have been anticipated, as this position corresponds roughly to the arrangement of atoms in the Be$_{17}$Ti$_2$ Pc/mmm phase, which is closely related to the Be$_{12}$Ti $I_4/mmm$ phase [23].

**Defect disorder processes**

Defects can be generated in a material through several different processes (disorder reactions) that can occur thermally, or be driven by radiation damage cascades. Table 8 shows the energies associated with Frenkel, Schottky and Antisite processes (normalised by the number of defects for each process).

The range of $E_f$ values for vacancy, interstitial and antisite defects leads to a range of values for each disorder process, which can vary by as much as 2 eV or as little as 0.2 eV. While the minimum value could be the most significant in equilibrium processes, radiation damage is not an equilibrium process and thus higher enthalpy configurations may also be important.

For all of these materials, Schottky disorder is the lowest enthalpy disorder process, while Be Frenkel disorder exhibits a similar albeit slightly higher energy. Indeed for Be$_{12}$Ti, Schottky and Frenkel disorder energies are essentially identical. Conversely, X Frenkel disorder is a much higher energy process in all materials. Thus, we predict a strong thermodynamic driving force for the removal of X$_i$ species from a damaged lattice. In the case of Be$_{12}$V, antisite disorder will also be significant, being within 0.3 eV/defect of the Schottky process.

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**Figure 3.** Convex hull analysis of the Be–Ti, Be–V, Be–Mo and Be–W systems as calculated using the LDA and PBE functionals. Phases exhibiting positive formation energies are not included.
Nonstoichiometry

In neutron multiplier materials $^7$Be atoms are depleted to generate additional neutrons. Thus, it is important to understand the stability of Be-X phases at different Be contents. First we investigate a wide range of Be-X compositions through convex hull analyses, then we focused on small deviation of stoichiometry from the Be$_{12}$X composition. Figure 3 shows the convex hulls obtained for all four Be-X series. For completeness, these calculations were repeated with LDA exchange-correlation functional.

Within this analysis, all phases that lie on the line of lowest-energy phases are predicted to be stable, while those that lie above the convex hull are predicted to be unstable (notwithstanding temperature effects). Formation energies obtained with the PBE functional are significantly lower than those obtained with LDA, consistent with the fact that LDA calculations are known to over-delocalise electrons, which may lead to an apparent increase in stability of the parent metals. Nevertheless, except for Be$_{22}$X, the two methods are qualitatively in agreement with one-another. Be$_{22}$X is consistently predicted unstable with LDA and stable with PBE, while experimentally it is known to be stable (at room temperature) for W and Mo but unstable for Ti and V [36–39].

The PBE convex hulls for Be-Mo and Be-W are in perfect agreement with experimental phase diagrams [37, 38], reporting only three stable compositions: Be$_{22}$X, Be$_{12}$X and Be$_2$X, with all other candidate phases lying well above the convex hull. A single study also reports the formation of BeMo$_3$ [40], but this has not been confirmed by subsequent experiments. Our calculations predict this phase to be unstable.

Figure 4. Predicted phase field lines based on total defect concentrations predicted through the Arrhenius approximation for materials with an excess of Be and the X species.
The Be-Ti and Be-V phase diagrams are more complex: the simulation results are in agreement with the experimental literature regarding the stability of Be$_{12}$Ti, Be$_{12}$V, Be$_{17}$Ti$_2$, Be$_{17}$V$_2$, Be$_2$Ti and Be$_2$V, but in contrast to the experimental observation, Be$_{22}$Ti, Be$_{22}$V and Be$_2$V are also predicted to be stable (with the PBE functional), while Be$_2$Ti is predicted to be unstable by a small margin [36]. It is important to note that the formation energies of these phases lie within meVs of the boundary of stability. Thus, these discrepancies are likely attributed to temperature effects (both enthalpy and entropy), as was shown to be the case for the closely-related Be-Fe and Be-Fe-Al systems [18].

To assess the possible deviation from stoichiometry that Be$_{12}$X phases may accommodate, one needs to consider the formation of defects that lead to non-stoichiometry against the formation of a phase with neighbouring composition. This is quantified by the energy to dissolve a formula unit of the nearest 0 K reference state into Be$_{12}$X, creating defects in the Be$_{12}$X lattice. For instance in the case of Be$_{12}$Ti, where Be$_{17}$Ti$_2$ phase incorporation results in V$_{Be}$ formation:

$$\text{Be}_{17}\text{Ti}_2 + 7\text{Be}_{Be} \leftrightarrow 7\text{V}_{Be} + 2\text{Be}_{12}\text{Ti}$$

where Be$_{Be}$ are Be atoms on Be sites in the host Be$_{12}$Ti lattice. A full list of these equations and reference states (which are chosen using a convex hull analysis) is presented table A1 in the appendix. The minimum energy for the incorporation of reference states is shown in table 9. The number of defects formed can then be calculated at temperature using the Arrhenius approximation and total deviation from stoichiometry calculated, as presented in figure 4.

All compounds exhibit almost no deviation from stoichiometry (note that the full range of the ordinate axis corresponds to a compositional variation of 0.08 at%). This is especially true for Be$_{12}$Ti, while Be$_{12}$V may accommodate limited Be sub-stoichiometry, Be$_{12}$W may accommodate very minor levels of Be hyper-stoichiometric, and Be$_{22}$Mo may accommodate small deviation on both side of the stoichiometric composition. This difference in behaviour can be attributed to the relative energy of the three lowest energy defect reactions resulting in V$_{Be}$, X$_{Be}$ and X$_{3Be}$ formation. In Be$_{12}$Ti the lowest energy defect is Ti$_{12Be}$ with energy 1.48 eV, considerably higher than for other materials thereby promoting little deviation from stoichiometry. In the case of Be$_{12}$V, V$_{3Be}$ has a lowest energy, 0.84 eV, so that any non-stoichiometry will be accommodated by an excess of the transition metal. A similar profile occurs in Be$_{12}$Mo, where Mo$_{3Be}$ has energy 0.88 eV, however Be$_{3Be}$ has formation energy 0.81 eV which also allows for some non-stoichiometry in the Be rich region. Be$_{12}$W becomes hyper-stoichiometric as Be$_W$ has energy 0.88 eV.

The extent of non-stoichiometry predicted in these materials is such as they may be considered line compounds. Thus, upon depletion of Be due to the $(n,2n)$ reaction, these materials are likely to form secondary phases with composition Be$_{17}$V$_2$, Be$_{17}$Ti$_2$, Be$_2$W and Be$_2$Mo, to accommodate excess X. From this point of view, Be$_{12}$V and Be$_{12}$Ti are likely to be the least affect by the formation of secondary phases, not because of their ability to accommodate deviations from stoichiometry, but because the secondary phases have structural similarities to the parent phase [23] and not too dissimilar composition. Following the same logic, Be$_{22}$W and Be$_{22}$Mo should be considered as possible candidates over Be$_{13}$W and Be$_{13}$Mo.

Conclusions

Density functional theory simulations have been carried out to predict defect properties of Be$_{12}$X materials. The PBE functional yielded better agreement with experiment compared to the LDA functional, both in terms of phase stability and lattice parameters (within 1% for PBE). Formation enthalpies of all possible vacancies, interstitials and anti-site point defects were calculated for all four materials. Four stable sites for intrinsic interstitials are identified for the first time in the I4/mmm structure: the i4 (4b) is most stable for Be self-interstitials but for X species, the i4 (4c) site offers a similar or lower energy. In all cases, the Be sub-lattice accommodates defects more readily than the X sub-lattice. Formation energies of point defects were combined to predict the energies of intrinsic disorder processes. Of these, Schottky disorder was identified as the lowest energy process, while Be Frenkel disorder exhibited only slightly higher energy for the V and Ti containing materials.

Small clusters including V$_{Be}$, V$_{3Be}$, X$_{Be}$ and X$_{3Be}$ were investigated, with some combinations exhibiting favourable binding enthalpy, particularly for X$_{3Be}$, which in some cases has a notably lower enthalpy than that of simple antisite disorder. This is likely due to the large size discrepancy between Be and the X species. Be$_{12}$Mo, Be$_{12}$V and Be$_{12}$W can only exhibit modest non-stoichiometry at elevated temperatures, while Be$_{12}$Ti is essentially a true line compound due the relatively high energy required to form a defect relative to its nearest reference state. The ability to accommodate the removal of Be atoms (X excess) without severely affecting the compounds stability is a noteworthy property for neutron multiplier purposes, where Be atoms are continually consumed to maintain the necessary neutron flux. Consideration of which secondary phases might form is therefore important.

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Appendix

Table A1. Reference states and defect equations evaluated to calculate non-stoichiometry.

| Material     | Reference states | \[Be_{12}W\] and \[Be_{12}Mo\] |
|--------------|------------------|-------------------------------|
| \(V_{Be}\)  | \(Be_{2}X + 10Be_{Be} \leftrightarrow 10V_{Be} + Be_{12}X\) | \(Be_{17}X_{2} + 7Be_{Be} \leftrightarrow 7V_{Be} + 2Be_{12}X\) |
| \(V_{X}\)   | \(6Be_{2}X + 5X_{2} \leftrightarrow 5V_{X} + 11Be_{12}X\) | \(12Be + X_{2} \leftrightarrow V_{X} + Be_{12}X\) |
| \(Be_{i}\)  | \(Be_{2}X \leftrightarrow 10Be_{i} + Be_{12}X\) | \(Be_{17}X_{2} + 8Be \leftrightarrow 2Be_{12}X + Be_{i}\) |
| \(X_{i}\)   | \(2Be_{2}X \leftrightarrow 5X_{i} + Be_{12}X\) | \(2Be_{17}X_{2} \leftrightarrow 7X_{i} + 17Be_{12}X\) |
| \(2V_{Be}\) | \(Be_{2}X + 10Be_{Be} \leftrightarrow 5(2V_{Be}) + Be_{12}X\) | \(2Be_{17}X_{2} + 14Be_{Be} \leftrightarrow 7(2V_{Be}) + 4Be_{12}X\) |
| \(2V_{X}\)  | \(12Be_{2}X + 5X_{2} \leftrightarrow 5(2V_{X}) + 22Be_{12}X\) | \(24Be + 2X_{2} \leftrightarrow (2V_{X}) + 2Be_{12}X\) |
| \(V_{Be}V_{X}\) | \(11Be_{2}X + 10X_{2} + 10Be_{Be} \leftrightarrow 10V_{Be}V_{X} + 21Be_{12}X\) | \(11Be + Be_{Be} + T_{Ti} \leftrightarrow V_{Be}V_{X} + Be_{12}Ti\) |
| \(2Be_{i}\) | \(Be_{2}X \leftrightarrow 5(2Be_{i}) + Be_{12}X\) | \(2Be_{17}Ti_{3} + 16Be \leftrightarrow 4Be_{12}Ti + (2Be_{i})\) |
| \(Be_{X}\)  | \(13Be_{2}X + 10X_{2} \leftrightarrow 10Be_{X} + 23Be_{12}X\) | \(13Be + Be_{Be} + T_{Ti} \leftrightarrow Be_{X} + 2Be_{12}Ti\) |
| \(X_{Be}\)  | \(13Be_{2}X + 10Be_{Be} \leftrightarrow 10X_{Be} + 3Be_{12}X\) | \(2Be_{17}Ti_{2} + Be_{Be} + Be \leftrightarrow T_{Ti} + 3Be_{12}Ti\) |
| \(X_{2Be}\) | \(14Be_{2}X + 20Be_{Be} \leftrightarrow 10X_{2Be} + 4Be_{12}X\) | \(2Be_{17}Ti_{2} + 2Be_{Be} \leftrightarrow T_{Ti}Be_{2} + 3Be_{12}Ti\) |

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Table A2. Defect formation energies of vacancies and anti-sites in \(Be_{12}Ti\) calculated with PBE and LDA, showing qualitative agreement between the two functionals.

| \(E_{PBE}^{\text{Pe}} (\text{eV})\) | \(E_{LDA}^{\text{Pe}} (\text{eV})\) |
|------------------|------------------|
| \(V_{Be_{1}}\)   | 1.60              | 1.81              |
| \(V_{Be_{2}}\)   | 1.43              | 1.62              |
| \(V_{Be_{3}}\)   | 1.53              | 1.73              |
| \(V_{X}\)       | 4.10              | 4.32              |
| \(Be_{i}\)      | 3.55              | 3.56              |
| \(T_{Be_{1}}\)  | 3.26              | 3.52              |
| \(T_{Be_{2}}\)  | 0.92              | 1.08              |
| \(T_{Be_{3}}\)  | 2.50              | 2.62              |

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