

A thermodynamic study on the effect of solute on the nucleation driving force, solid-liquid interfacial energy and grain refinement of Al alloys

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Abstract

Chemical composition is known to have significant effects on the grain refinement behavior of inoculated Al alloys during solidification. In this study, the influences of solute contents on the thermodynamic nucleation driving force and solid-liquid interfacial energy of binary Al alloys have been studied by CALPHAD method. The solute effect on the nucleation barrier and nucleation rate, thus on the grain refinement of Al alloys both with and without high potency nucleation particles, was analyzed based on the classical heterogeneous nucleation theory and free growth concept. Based on the classical heterogeneous nucleation theory, the calculation results reveal that Si has the effect of increasing the nucleation barrier of heterogeneous nucleation of grains and thus reduce the nucleation rate significantly. Alloying elements Cu and Mg have the effect of promoting heterogeneous nucleation and grain refinement. However, peritectic forming elements, e.g., Ti, Zr, V, have only negligible effects on the nucleation barrier. For solidification of Al alloys inoculated with high potency nucleation particles, the effect of nucleation driving force caused by different solute elements on the grain size of inoculated aluminum alloys has been quantitatively studied by a grain size prediction model for isothermal melt solidification. It is revealed that the solute dependent Gibbs-Thompson coefficients of Al-Cu, Al-Mg and Al-Si alloys have the influence of promoting the grain refinement by reducing the free growth undercooling.

Key words: Nucleation driving force, Solid-liquid interfacial energy, Solute effect, Grain refinement, Grain size

1. Introduction

It has been well recognized that solute elements, for instance, Ti, play a significant role in grain refinement of Al alloys during casting of aluminum since the 1930s [1]. As stated by Cibula [2] in 1949, there are mainly two kinds of grain refinement mechanisms: the first is the restriction of crystal growth by concentration gradients in the liquid around solidifying dendrites and thus allowed the interior of the casting to undercool and therefore new crystallites could form, e.g., Cu has such an effect; the second is formation of nuclei, such as intermetallic compound or carbide particles, which facilitate nucleation, e.g., addition of Ti, B, Nb or Zr has such an effect.

Based on the constitutional supercooling concept for equiaxed formation proposed by Winegard and Chalmers [3], Tarshis et al. [4] found that the addition of solute led to substantial grain refinement in a variety of Ni- and Al-based alloys and proposed the supercooling parameter P , defined below, to correlate with the grain size.

$$P = \frac{mC_0(k-1)}{k}, \quad (1)$$

41 where C_0 is the bulk melt solute content, m is the liquidus slope and k is the partition
 42 coefficient. The grain structure and grain size showed a strong dependence on this parameter
 43 for dilute binary alloys both with and without addition of potent inoculation particles [4-6].
 44 This parameter represents the equilibrium melting temperature distribution ahead of an
 45 advancing solid/liquid interface under steady state [4, 7], which numerically equals to the
 46 solidification range [4, 5] for dilute alloys where the liquidus and solidus lines are straight.
 47 However, if the solute content C_0 is larger than the maximum solubility C_m , as suggested by
 48 Xu et al. [8], P should be modified as $m(C_0 - C_E)$, since maximum solute concentration at
 49 the S/L interface changes from C_0/k to eutectic composition C_E when $C_0 > C_m$. Such a new
 50 parameter P^* or solidification interval ΔT was supposed to correlate well with the
 51 experimentally measured grain size [8] in Al-Cu alloys without inoculation except for the
 52 grain size minimum point (~10.5 wt.% in their experiment rather than C_m , 5.65wt.%).
 53 However, different researchers reported different experimental results in Al-Cu [5, 9] alloys,
 54 where grain size monotonically decreases as copper content increases. In addition, it is well
 55 known that the grain size evolution of Al-Si [9-14] alloys (without inoculation) as a function
 56 of Si content shows a ‘V’ type shape with a transition point at 3wt.% Si, which is far from the
 57 maximum solubility or maximum ΔT point. Also, the experimental minimum grain size point
 58 also varies when different solidification conditions (temperature gradient and cooling rates)
 59 are used, indicating that other parameters than constitutional parameter or solidification
 60 interval could also influence the final grain size. The V-shape grain size evolution as a
 61 function of solute content has been ascribed to dendrite growth morphology change [11, 15]
 62 and the nucleation activation energy increase with further increasing Si contents after the
 63 bottom point of ‘V’ type curve [13]. However, up to now, it is still short of rigorous
 64 theoretical investigation and compelling mechanism.

65 Another parameter to predict the relative grain size was proposed by Moriceau [16],
 66 originally called alloy system dependent parameter X [17], and the inverse of this parameter
 67 $1/X$ was taken as an inhibitor to growth. Similar to the Cibula [2]’s theory, the restriction of
 68 grain growth at a high value of $1/X$, reduces the latent heat generation and gives longer time
 69 for further nucleation to occur. This leads to the nucleation of more grains and thus a smaller
 70 final grain size. The parameter $1/X$ was termed as the growth restriction factor by Johnsson
 71 [18, 19], based on the suggestions that the growth velocity of dendrite tip is inversely
 72 proportional to the factor $mC_0(k-1)$ [20, 21]. Later, the growth restriction factor has also
 73 been termed as GRF [22] and Q [23], as described by Eq.(2).

$$\frac{1}{X} = Q = mC_0(k-1) \quad (2)$$

74 It has been verified experimentally that grain size decreases with increasing Q values for
 75 inoculated low solute concentration Al alloys [19, 23-25]. But, as reported by Hutt et al. [9]
 76 and Xu et al. [8], the relationship between the grain size and Q is not monotonic in the whole
 77 range of hypoeutectic Al-Si and Al-Cu alloys.

78 Since growth restriction factor and constitutional supercooling have indirect influences on the
 79 nucleation process, approaches were also proposed to directly evaluate the effect of solute
 80 elements on the nucleation barrier and nucleation rate of grains. Based on the regular solution
 81 assumption, Youdelis [26] calculated the nucleation entropy for binary alloys and found out
 82 that for binary eutectic systems, the absolute value of the molar entropy of nucleation
 83 increases progressively with solute concentration up to the eutectic limit. It showed that the
 84 nucleation rate and grain refinement should increase with solute concentration. Yang and

85 Youdelis [27, 28] calculated the nucleation entropy for Al-Ti alloys and an increase of
 86 nucleation entropy with Ti content up to 0.15wt.% was predicted. Later, Yao et al.[29]
 87 reported composition-dependent nucleation driving force ΔS_f in Al-Si and Al-Cu alloys
 88 based on Youdelis's model [26] but with many simplifications. It was shown that ΔS_f
 89 decreases steadily with Si content but remains almost constant with Cu content, which means
 90 that Si could reduce the barrier for nucleation to enhance the possibility of nucleation but Cu
 91 has no significant effect. Such calculation results are not identical to the Youdelis [26]'s
 92 original prediction results for Al-Cu alloys and the experimental results of Al-Si alloys
 93 reported in the literature [9, 13, 14]. In a recent work, Wang et al.[30] studied the effect of
 94 solute on the thermodynamic driving force for solidification (including nucleation and
 95 growth) in Al alloys by CALPHAD method. It reveals that addition of solute reduces the
 96 driving force for solidification at a given undercooling. For a constant Q value, the
 97 solidification driving force is reduced more substantially when adding eutectic forming
 98 solutes than peritectic forming elements. However, the grain refinement is a result of
 99 competition between nucleation and grain growth, where faster nucleation while lower
 100 growth rate are beneficial to grain refinement. Hence, the driving force of solidification, as a
 101 combined process of both nucleation and grain growth, is difficult to be linked directly to the
 102 grain refinement effect and the final grain size.

103 Nevertheless, in addition to the growth restriction effect, solute elements can also influence
 104 the grain refinement behavior of Al alloys by affecting the nucleation entropy ΔS_N and the
 105 volumetric Gibbs free energy difference between the liquid and solid phase ΔG_v . According
 106 to the classical nucleation theory, the solid-liquid interfacial energy σ_{SL} also contributes to the
 107 nucleation barrier. However, most of the previous theoretical investigations have been based
 108 on a constant σ_{SL} assumption, without considering the solute effect on it. Therefore, the
 109 present work is aimed at a theoretical investigation on the effect of solute additions on the
 110 nucleation driving force, in terms of both σ_{SL} and ΔG_v by using the CALPHAD approach with
 111 sophisticated Gibbs free energy functions. CALPHAD has been widely applied in
 112 solidification [31-33], additive manufacturing [34], solid-state phase transformation [35, 36]
 113 and materials design [37], e.g., calculating growth restriction factor Q of multicomponent
 114 alloys [38], coupling with phase-field model to simulate microstructure evolution [39, 40],
 115 phase evolution prediction during heat treatment and precipitation modelling[35, 36, 41, 42].
 116 Based on the calculation results, the effects of different solute elements on the grain
 117 refinement was analysed and discussed for binary Al alloys with and without adding high
 118 potency inoculation particles.

119 2. Thermodynamic modelling

120 According to the classical nucleation theory, the nucleation rate for heterogeneous nucleation
 121 can be calculated by [43] :

$$I = I_0 \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta G_n^0}{k_B T}\right) = v_0 p_c n_p \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{16\pi \cdot f_\theta}{3k_B} \frac{\sigma_{SL}^3}{(\Delta G_v)^2 \cdot T}\right), \quad (3)$$

122

123 where I_0 is a prefactor determined by the atomic vibration frequency v_0 , the probability of
 124 capturing an atom at the surface of solid phase p_c and the density of particles in the melt n_p ,
 125 k_B is Boltzmann constant, T is the melt temperature, ΔG_n^0 is the nucleation barrier of
 126 heterogeneous nucleation, which is a function of the contact angle factor f_θ , σ_{SL} and ΔG_v . It

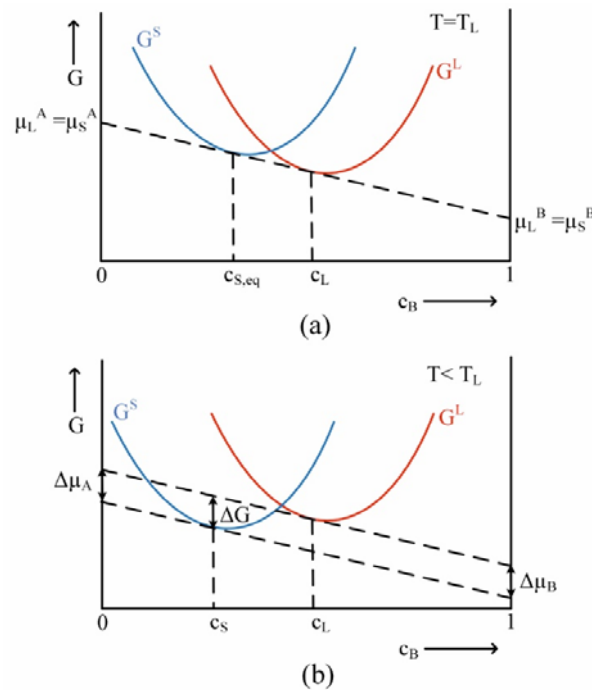
127 is obvious that the nucleation rate is mainly controlled by the exponential term Ψ in the
 128 bracket ($\Psi = -\frac{16\pi \cdot f \theta}{3k_B} \frac{\sigma_{SL}^3}{(\Delta G_v)^2 \cdot T}$).

129 The Gibbs free energy difference for nucleation ΔG_v in alloys is calculated based on the
 130 suggestion by Thompson and Spaepen [44]. As shown in Fig. 1(a), for a liquid with a
 131 concentration of c_L , at liquidus temperature T_L , the equilibrium concentration of solid phase
 132 is $c_{S,eq}$. In the undercooled liquid, the composition of the nucleated solid crystal, c_S , should
 133 be determined by maximizing the Gibbs free energy change for the formation of per mole
 134 nucleus, ΔG . The maximum of ΔG is obtained when the chemical potential change of
 135 component A and B, $\Delta\mu_A$ and $\Delta\mu_B$ are equal to each other. And therefore, the composition c_S
 136 is found by drawing a tangent line to the free energy curve of the solid G^S , which is parallel
 137 to the tangent line of the free energy curve of liquid G^L at c_L , as depicted in Fig. 1(b), so that

$$\Delta G = \Delta\mu_A = \Delta\mu_B \quad (4)$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial G^L}{\partial c_L}\right)_{c_L} = \left(\frac{\partial G^S}{\partial c_S}\right)_{c_S} \quad (5)$$

138



139

140 Fig. 1. Schematic mole Gibbs free energy-composition diagram: (a) at the liquidus
 141 temperature, T_L , (b) below T_L , at arbitrary nucleation temperature. The free energy change ΔG
 142 associated with forming a small nucleus of composition c_S in the liquid of composition c_L is
 143 obtained by the parallel tangent construction [44, 45]. Adapted from [44] with additional data
 144 from [45].

145 Therefore, given the composition and temperature dependence of the liquid and solid free
 146 energies, one can calculate the solid nucleus composition and the free energy for the
 147 formation of the nucleus as a function of initial liquid composition c_L and undercooling $\Delta T =$

148 $T_L - T$. For an accurate calculation of ΔG , the Gibbs free energy for α -Al solid solution (G^S)
 149 and liquid phases (G^L) are described by the substitutional solution model as follows:

$$G^\phi = \sum_i c_i \cdot G_i^{0,\phi} + RT \sum_i c_i \cdot \ln c_i + \sum_{i,j>1} c_i \cdot c_j \cdot \sum_v L_{i,j}^{v,\phi} (c_i - c_j)^v, \quad (6)$$

150 where ϕ is the state of phase (S represents solid and L represents liquid), c_i (c_j) represents
 151 the mole fraction of element i (j), with i (j) = Al, Cu, Mg, Si, Ti, Zr, V; R is the gas constant
 152 ($R = 8.3143 \text{ J mol}^{-1}\text{K}^{-1}$) and $L_{i,j}^{v,\phi}$ is the Redlich-Kister parameter representing the interaction
 153 between elements i and j , the value of which can be obtained from COST 507 database [46].
 154 Meanwhile, the temperature-dependent Gibbs free energy function $G_i^{0,\phi}$ for pure element i in
 155 any phase is available and can be taken from SGTE (Scientific Group Thermodata Europe)
 156 tabulated data by Dinsdale [47].

157 After solving Eq. (5), c_S is obtained, then ΔG can be calculated by [48]:

$$\Delta G = \mu_A^L - \mu_A^S = G^L - c_L \frac{\partial G^L}{\partial c_L} - \left(G^S - c_S \frac{\partial G^S}{\partial c_S} \right). \quad (7)$$

158 Eq. (7) gives Gibbs free energy per mole (J/mol), but in the classical nucleation theory, Gibbs
 159 free energy per unit volume (J/cm³ or J/m³) of crystal is needed, so

$$\Delta G_v = \Delta G / V_{s,m}, \quad (8)$$

160 where $V_{s,m}$ is the average molar volume of the solid, and herein is assumed to vary linearly
 161 between the molar volumes of the pure solid systems V_m^A and V_m^B [44, 49]:

$$V_{s,m} = c_s^A V_m^A + (1 - c_s^A) V_m^B. \quad (9)$$

162 The temperature dependence of molar volume of the pure element can be found in Ref. [50].

163 The composition and temperature dependence of σ_{SL} is calculated by the thermodynamic
 164 model proposed by Granasy and Tegze [51, 52], considering both the melting enthalpy and
 165 melting entropy:

$$\sigma_{SL} = \alpha \frac{\Delta H_{f,m} + T_m \Delta S_{f,m}}{2 \cdot (N_A \cdot V_{s,m}^2)^{\frac{1}{3}}}, \quad (10)$$

166 where α is the dimensionless interfacial energy and $\alpha = 0.561$ [53] for FCC Al, T is the
 167 temperature, N_A is the Avogadro's number, and $\Delta S_{f,m}$ is the molar entropy of fusion for
 168 alloys. $\Delta S_{f,m}$ can be determined by calculating the entropy difference between the nucleated
 169 solid and liquid metal, using available Gibbs free energy function directly without regular
 170 solution assumption:

$$\Delta S_{f,m} = S_l(T, c_l) - S_s(T, c_s) = \left(\frac{\partial G_l}{\partial T} \right)_{c_l} - \left(\frac{\partial G_s}{\partial T} \right)_{c_s} = -\Delta S_N \quad (11)$$

171 ΔS_N is the nucleation entropy. Besides, $\Delta H_{f,m}$ is the molar enthalpy of fusion of the solid
 172 layer, and it can be calculated by the following equation:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta H_{f,m} &= H_l(T, c_l) - H_s(T, c_s) \\ &= \left(G_l(T, c_l) + T \left(\frac{\partial G_l}{\partial T} \right)_{c_l} \right) - \left(G_s(T, c_s) + T \left(\frac{\partial G_s}{\partial T} \right)_{c_s} \right). \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

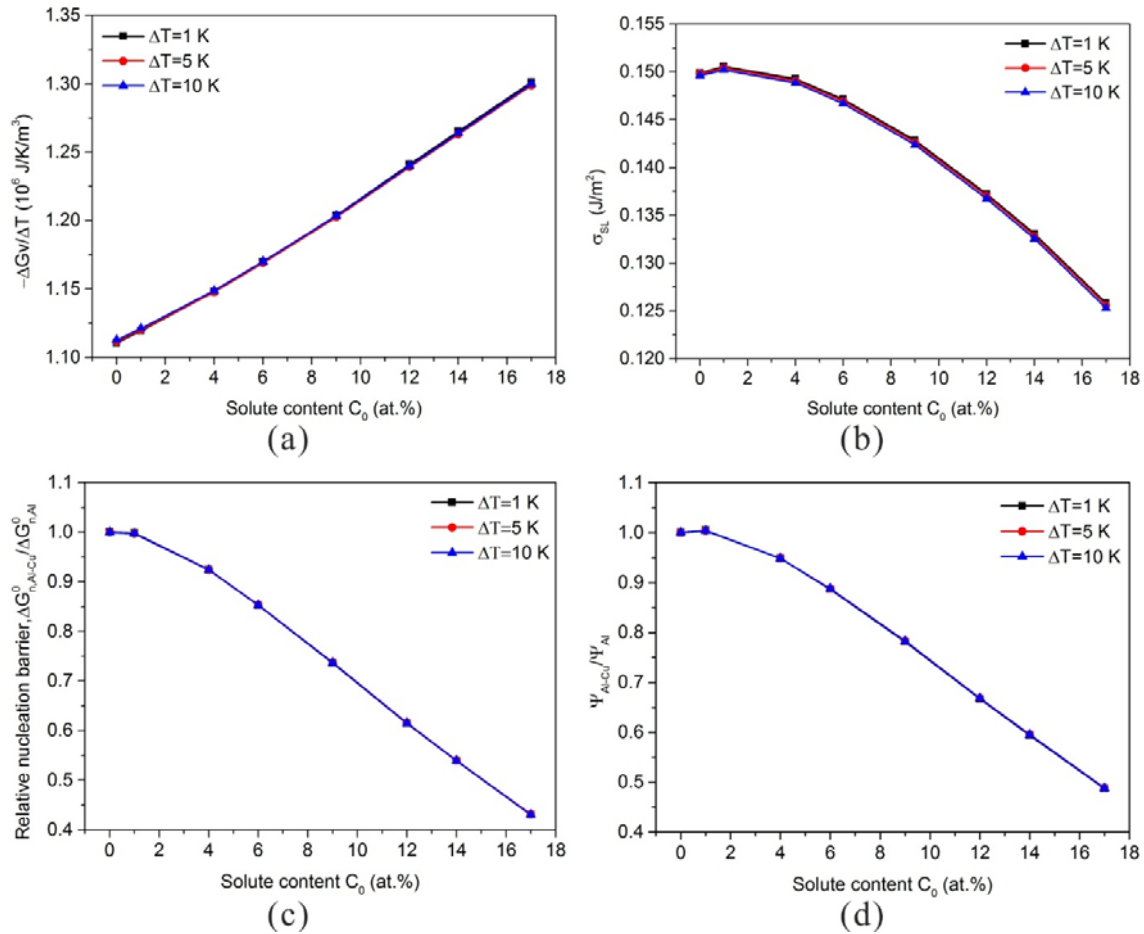
173 In the present work, commercial software Thermo-Calc [54] has been used to calculate the
 174 liquidus temperature of the binary Al alloys and the equilibrium concentration of solid phase
 175 $c_{s,eq}$ based on equilibrium condition (Fig. 1a). The calculation was made based on the COST
 176 507 thermodynamic database [46]. Further thermodynamic calculation (solving Eq.(4)-(12))
 177 is realized by Matlab [55] programming using the same database.

178 3. Results and discussion

179 3.1. Influence of solute content on heterogeneous nucleation of uninoculated aluminum 180 alloys

181 The ΔG_v and σ_{SL} at different undercoolings ΔT as a function of solute content of different Al
 182 alloys were calculated firstly. According to the classical theory for heterogeneous nucleation,
 183 the critical nucleation activation energy or nucleation barrier ΔG_n^0 is $(\frac{16\pi}{3}) \cdot (\frac{\sigma_{SL}^3}{(\Delta G_v)^2}) \cdot f_\theta$. The
 184 contact angle θ and thus f_θ are influenced by many factors, such as substrate particle type and
 185 property, solid-liquid interfacial energy, etc. It is generally difficult to determine the values of
 186 θ . Therefore, f_θ is assumed as the same but independent of solute contents in this work (the
 187 same assumption as in Ref. [29, 56]). Then, the relative value of ΔG_n^0 of Al alloys to pure Al,
 188 $\frac{\Delta G_{n,Al-X}^0}{\Delta G_{n,Al}^0}$, were also calculated. A value of $\frac{\Delta G_{n,Al-X}^0}{\Delta G_{n,Al}^0} > 1$ indicates that the nucleation barrier
 189 increases with increasing solute concentration of the alloys, namely, a higher concentration
 190 will reduce the nucleation driving force. On the other hand, when $\frac{\Delta G_{n,Al-X}^0}{\Delta G_{n,Al}^0} < 1$, an increased
 191 composition can decrease the nucleation barrier and enhance the possibility of nucleation in
 192 the undercooled liquid. It should be noted that since the liquidus temperature of the alloy T_l
 193 varies with the solute species and concentration, under the same undercooling $\Delta T = T_l - T$,
 194 the melt temperature T may also have a contribution to the nucleation rate, as indicated by
 195 Eq. (3). Therefore, the relative value of the exponential term to pure Al, $\frac{\Psi_{Al-X}}{\Psi_{Al}}$ could be
 196 obtained as well.

197 After calculating these parameters at different undercoolings, Al-Cu binary alloy was taken
 198 as an example to show the undercooling effect (Fig. 2). It is found that ΔG_v increases with
 199 undercooling ΔT while other parameters are not influenced much by ΔT . By further dividing
 200 ΔG_v with ΔT , it can be seen that $-\Delta G_v/\Delta T$ at different undercoolings are almost the same
 201 (Fig. 2a). Thus, the calculation results at $\Delta T = 1 K$ are representative and are adopted in this
 202 section.



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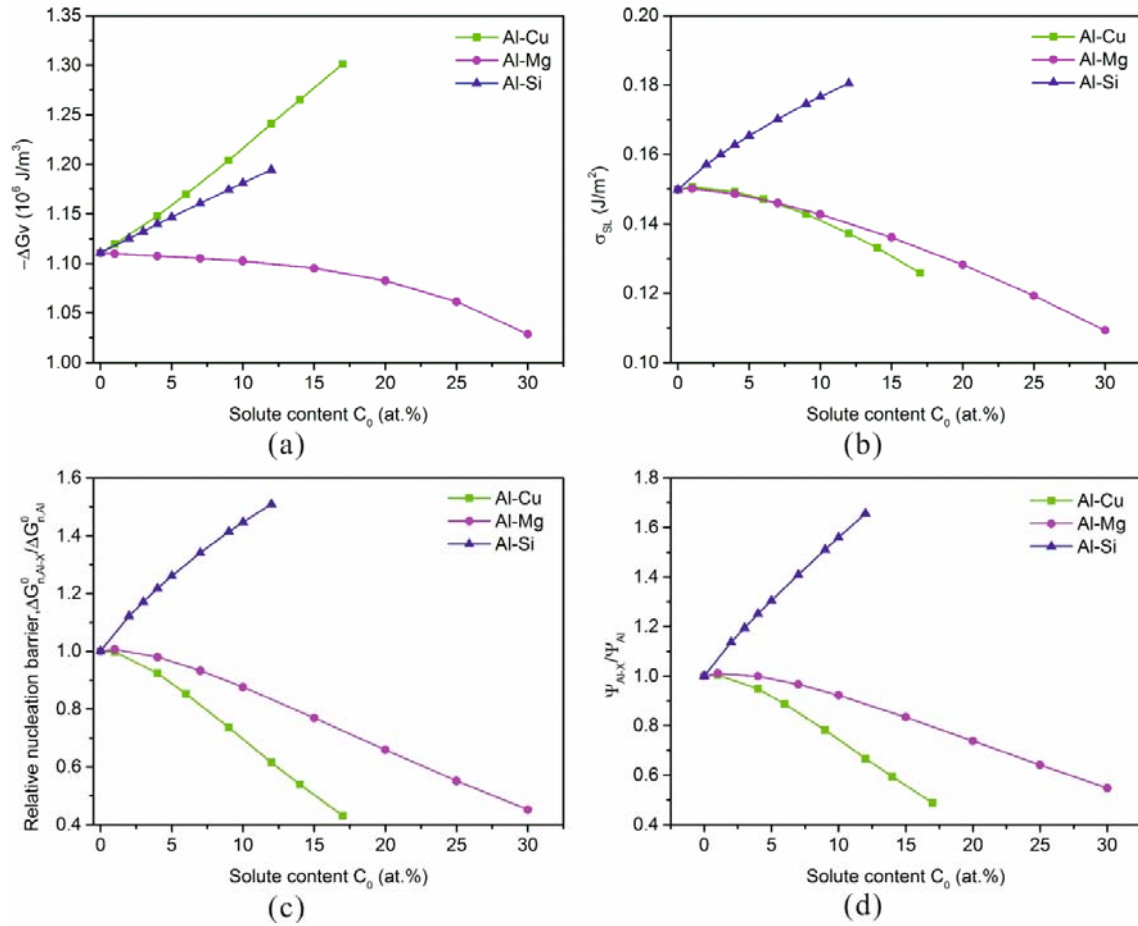
204 Fig. 2. Calculated Gibbs free energy change per undercooling $\Delta G_v/\Delta T$, solid-liquid
 205 interfacial energy σ_{SL} , relative critical nucleation energy and relative Ψ to pure Al, $\frac{\Delta G_{n,Al-X}^0}{\Delta G_{n,Al}^0}$
 206 and $\frac{\Psi_{Al-X}}{\Psi_{Al}}$, with different solute contents (at.%) at three different undercoolings $\Delta T =$
 207 1, 5, 10 K for hypo-eutectic Al-Cu alloys.

208 3.1.1. Influence of eutectic forming elements

209 The calculated $-\Delta G_v$, σ_{SL} , $\frac{\Delta G_{n,Al-X}^0}{\Delta G_{n,Al}^0}$, $\frac{\Psi_{Al-X}}{\Psi_{Al}}$, of hypo-eutectic Al-Cu, Al-Mg and Al-Si alloys
 210 with different solute contents (at.%) at an undercooling of $\Delta T = 1$ K are shown in Fig. 3.
 211 The absolute value of ΔG_v increases with solute content for Al-Cu and Al-Si alloys, but
 212 shows an opposite trend for Al-Mg alloys. The present calculation results for Al-Cu is
 213 different from the calculation results by Yao et al. [29], who used ideal solution model to
 214 calculate nucleation entropy for alloys. According to present calculation, Cu solute also
 215 increase the driving force for nucleation. Also different from the calculation results by Wang
 216 et al.[30], which showed a reduction of solidification driving force ΔG_v with increasing the
 217 addition level of solutes, either eutectic forming or peritectic forming elements. The present
 218 work shows that the ΔG_v can both increase or decrease with solute content, which is alloy
 219 dependent, for example, Al-Cu and Al-Mg alloys show opposite trends at a given
 220 undercooling.

221 Besides the nucleation driving force ΔG_v , the solid-liquid interfacial energy σ_{sl} plays an
222 important role in nucleation, since it is one of the major nucleation barriers. As can be seen
223 from Fig. 3b, the solid-liquid interfacial energy σ_{SL} of Al alloy decreases with the amount of
224 Cu and Mg solute, but increases with Si solute content, showing the same trend with the
225 results calculated by Lippmann et al. [52] using FactSage [57]. As already discussed by the
226 authors [52], a reliable evaluation of the concentration dependence of solid/liquid interfacial
227 energies of alloys is difficult since the available experimental data of Al alloys are very
228 limited. Nevertheless, the calculation can reproduce qualitatively the trends shown by
229 experimental data [52].

230 From Fig. 3c and 3d, it can be seen that adding Si to pure Al would increase the critical
231 nucleation energy and thus reduce the nucleation rate significantly. It is consistent with the
232 experimental results [9-14] that the grain size of non-inoculated Al-Si alloys increases with
233 increasing Si content when Si content is larger than about 3 wt.%. The decrease of grain size
234 with increasing Si content in the low Si content alloys (< 3 wt.%) should be attributed to the
235 grain growth restriction effect, which may play a more important role than increasing critical
236 nucleation energy. For other two eutectic forming elements, Cu and Mg, both would promote
237 nucleation rate based on present thermodynamic calculation results. Together with the
238 increasing of the growth restriction factor Q , both Cu and Mg would promote grain
239 refinement in Al-Cu and Al-Mg alloys. Such kind of prediction is supported by the
240 experimental results reported by Hutt and StJohn [9], Yang et al. [58] for Al-Cu alloys and
241 Birol [59] for Al-Mg alloys until the near eutectic point (~30wt.%). Different from the above
242 results, Xu et al. [8] found that the grain size first decreases and then increases with Cu
243 content at higher concentration (> 10wt.% Cu). They argued that dendrite fragmentation is
244 mainly responsible for the formation of equiaxed grains in high-purity Al-Cu alloys rather
245 than heterogeneous nucleation. Such dendrite fragmentation is influenced by the maximum
246 constitutional undercooling or the solidification interval ΔT . Since pouring method, instead of
247 TP-1 type casting, was used to cast samples in their experiments, dendrite fragmentation was
248 more pronounced in their solidification experiments. Nevertheless, as summarized by Spittle
249 [60], in reality, it is likely that several mechanisms may be operative in a particular casting
250 situation. For instance, for the normal casting with pouring, big bang nucleation at the mold
251 wall, dendrites fragmentation, and heterogeneous nucleation would be operative at the same
252 time. However, for TP-1 type solidification, heterogeneous nucleation dominates. In other
253 words, constitutional undercooling parameter P , solidification interval ΔT , growth restriction
254 factor Q , and heterogeneous nucleation rate have a combination effect on the equiaxed grains
255 formation and thus the final grain size. This is the reason why different trends for grain size
256 evolution as a function of solute contents were observed under different solidification
257 conditions for the same alloy system.



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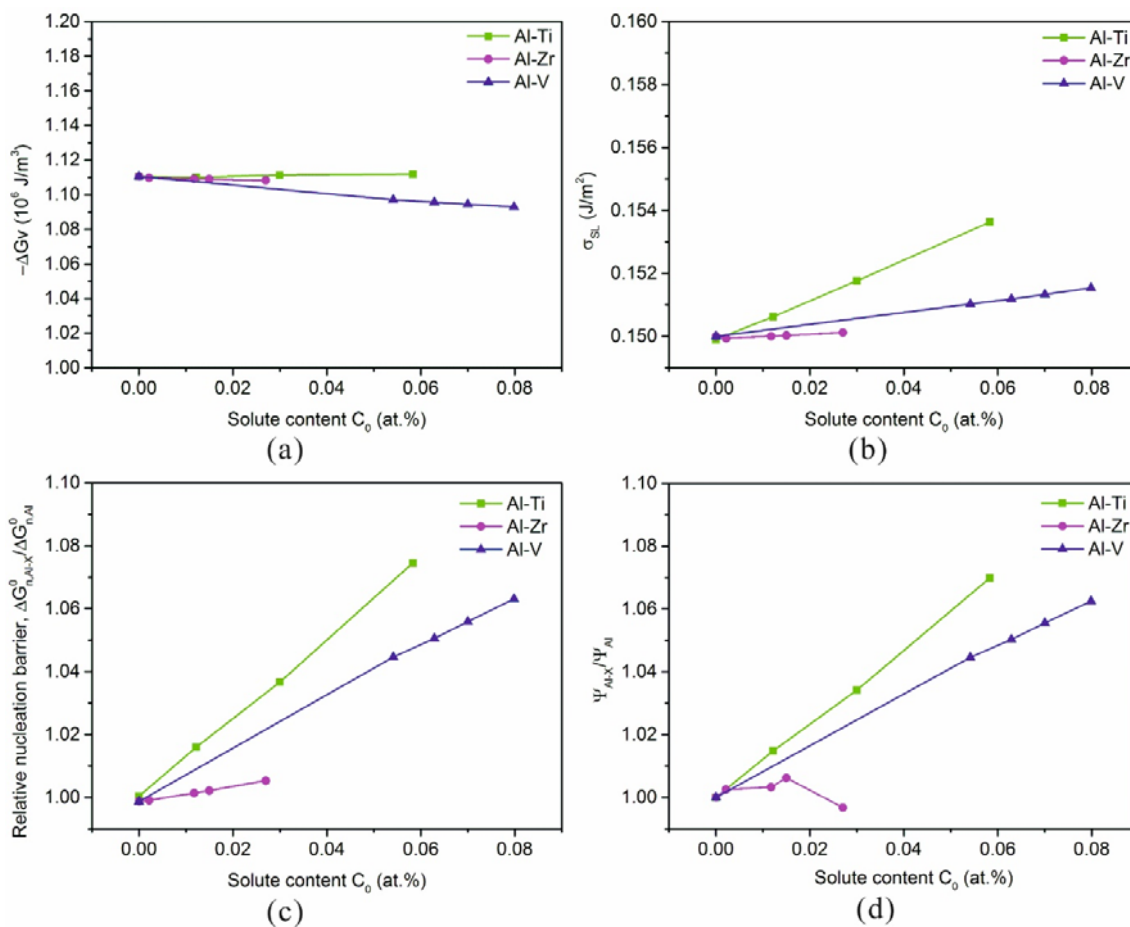
259 Fig. 3. Calculated Gibbs free energy change ΔG_v , solid-liquid interfacial energy σ_{SL} , relative
 260 critical nucleation energy and relative Ψ to pure Al, $\frac{\Delta G_{n,Al-X}^0}{\Delta G_{n,Al}^0}$ and $\frac{\Psi_{Al-X}}{\Psi_{Al}}$, with different solute
 261 contents (at.%) at undercooling $\Delta T = 1$ K for hypoeutectic Al-Cu, Al-Mg and Al-Si alloys.

262 3.1.2. Influence of peritectic forming elements

263 The calculated $-\Delta G_v$, σ_{SL} , $\frac{\Delta G_{n,Al-X}^0}{\Delta G_{n,Al}^0}$, $\frac{\Psi_{Al-X}}{\Psi_{Al}}$ as a function of solute contents (at.%) at an
 264 undercooling of $\Delta T = 1$ K for hypoperitectic Al-Ti, Al-Zr and Al-V alloys are shown in Fig.
 265 4. As can be seen from Fig. 3a, for the three peritectic alloy systems investigated, Ti can
 266 increase the nucleation driving force (ΔG_v); However, Zr and V both reduce the nucleation
 267 driving force. Regarding the effect of Ti, the present result is consistent with the prediction
 268 by Yang and Youdelis [27]. This result is different from the solidification driving force
 269 results calculated by Wang et al.[30], which always decreases with increasing the solute
 270 contents. Fig. 3b shows the calculated solid-liquid interfacial energy σ_{sl} of different alloys as
 271 a function of solute contents. All of three peritectic forming elements, Ti, Zr and V, would
 272 increase the value of σ_{sl} slightly.

273 From Fig. 4c and 4d, it can be seen that the present three peritectic forming elements tend to
 274 increase the nucleation barrier slightly and may reduce the heterogeneous nucleation rate. If
 275 no Al-V, Al-Ti or Al-Zr intermetallic particles form in the melt, the final grain size of the
 276 alloys will be controlled by the competition between growth restriction, constitutional

277 undercooling and thermodynamic nucleation barrier. According to the experimental results
 278 reported by Wang et al.[61], below the peritectic composition, Zr and V have little or no
 279 effect on the grain refinement of commercial-purity Al, but Ti significantly refines the grain
 280 size. Our calculation results support the experimental results for Al-Zr and Al-V systems but
 281 not for Al-Ti alloys. According to present thermodynamic calculation, it is clear that adding
 282 Ti solute itself can neither increase the nucleation driving force significantly nor reduce the
 283 nucleation barrier. The strong grain refinement effect of Ti solute below the peritectic point
 284 should be attributed to other reasons. Cibula et al. [2] firstly proposed the TiC hypothesis,
 285 where Ti reacted with C in aluminium melt to form potent TiC particles, acting as the
 286 nucleation substrate of aluminum grains. As reviewed by Guzowski et al. [62], some
 287 researchers believed that $TiAl_3$ acted as the nucleation substrate. However, no direct
 288 observations have been reported in the literature. Easton and StJohn et al. [63, 64] suggested
 289 the strong segregation power and the extremely high growth restriction factor of Ti is crucial
 290 for the grain refinement. In a recent work, Chen et al.[65, 66] reported that a large number of
 291 fine grains which are in a twin, or near-twin, relationship with their nearest neighbors in the
 292 as-cast Al-0.1%Ti and Al-5%Cu-0.1%Ti alloys. This result is similar to that in [67, 68].
 293 Therefore, the authors speculated that Ti-containing quasicrystals may have formed in the
 294 melt and worked as potential nucleation sites in the alloys. Thus, the exact mechanism is still
 295 an unsolved question and more studies are necessary.



296

297 Fig. 4. Calculated Gibbs free energy change ΔG_v , solid-liquid interfacial energy σ_{SL} , relative
 298 critical nucleation energy and relative Ψ to pure Al, $\frac{\Delta G_{n,Al-X}^0}{\Delta G_{n,Al}^0}$ and $\frac{\Psi_{Al-X}}{\Psi_{Al}}$, with different solute
 299 contents (at.%) at undercooling $\Delta T = 1 K$ for hypoperitectic Al-Ti, Al-Zr and Al-V alloys.

300 3.2. Influence of solute content on heterogeneous nucleation of inoculated aluminum 301 alloys

302 The heterogeneous nucleation of α -Al grains in Al alloys inoculated by high potency Al-Ti-B
 303 or Al-Ti-C master alloys is a deterministic process [23, 69]. The heterogeneous nucleation on
 304 inoculation particles is instantaneous, and the rate-limiting step for the successful formation
 305 of α -Al grain is the initiation of free growth, which occurs at the geometrically dependent
 306 undercooling ΔT_{fg} , given by

$$\Delta T_{fg} = \frac{4\Gamma}{d} = \frac{4\sigma_{SL}}{\Delta S_v d} \quad (13)$$

307

308 where σ_{SL} is the solid-liquid interfacial energy, ΔS_v is the entropy of fusion per unit volume
 309 and Γ is the Gibbs-Thomson coefficient. Hence, the ratio between σ_{SL} and ΔS_v (Γ)
 310 determines the undercooling needed for the onset of free growth of given inoculant particles.
 311 In most of the previous grain size prediction models [31, 70-76], the σ_{SL} and ΔS_v data of pure
 312 Al is used for Al alloys. Some researchers [77] chose different Γ values for different alloy
 313 system, but neglected the concentration dependence of the solute elements. In the present
 314 work, the influence of solute elements and contents on Γ was calculated by the
 315 thermodynamic approach combined with the solid-liquid interface model. It should be noted
 316 that the undercooling has negligible influences on ΔS_v , σ_{SL} and Γ . Therefore, only the
 317 calculation results at liquidus temperature are presented here.

318 3.2.1. Influence of eutectic forming elements

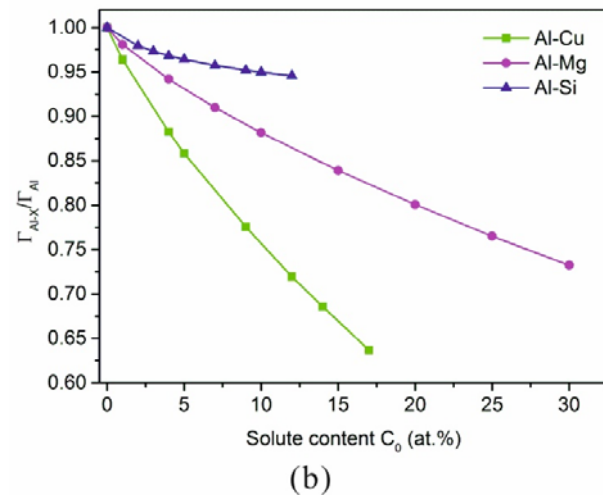
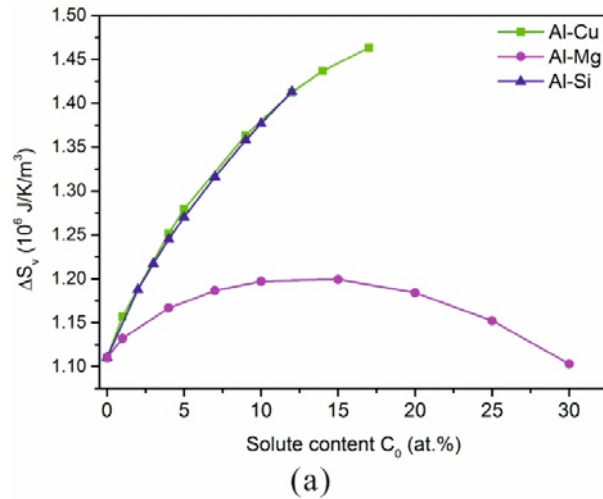
319 The calculated ΔS_v as a function of solute content C_0 , for three eutectic binary Al alloys, Al-
 320 Cu, Al-Mg and Al-Si alloys, at respective liquidus temperature are shown in Fig. 5a. It can be
 321 seen that the value of ΔS_v for eutectic alloy systems are larger than that for pure Al. It is
 322 interesting to note that, for Al-Mg alloys, ΔS_v curve shows a parabolic shape, namely, it
 323 firstly increases and then decreases with the solute content. This is different from the
 324 calculation result by Youdelis [26], which showed a monotonic increase of ΔS_v with Mg
 325 content. It should be noted that the calculation by Youdelis [26] is based on the regular
 326 solution assumption but no such assumption is used in the present calculation. However, the
 327 reason for such a parabolic evolution of ΔS_v as a function of Mg content needs further study.
 328 By comparing ΔS_v to the Gibbs free energy change curve shown in Fig. 3a, it can be seen that
 329 $\Delta G_v \neq \Delta S_v \cdot \Delta T$ for alloys. In terms of solid-liquid interfacial energy at respective liquidus
 330 temperature, it is just nearly the same as the previous results at 1 K undercooling shown in
 331 section 3.1.

332 The relative Gibbs-Thomson coefficient defined as the ratio between Γ_{Al-X} of alloy and Γ_{Al} of
 333 pure Al, $\frac{\Gamma_{Al-X}}{\Gamma_{Al}}$, is plotted in Fig. 5b. As shown in Fig. 5b, through adding eutectic-forming
 334 solute elements like Cu, Mg and Si, the relative Gibbs-Thomson coefficient is always smaller
 335 than 1 and can decrease to 0.63 as solute content is approaching the eutectic composition.
 336 This indicates that addition of eutectic-forming solute elements can reduce Γ and therefore
 337 the free growth undercooling ΔT_{fg} . According to the free growth model, a smaller value of

338 ΔT_{fg} means the nucleation of α -Al grains on the same sized inoculant particles is easier. In
339 addition, the growth restriction factor Q increases monotonically with the solute content.
340 Therefore, for the solidification of Al melt inoculated with high potency grain refiners,
341 eutectic-forming solute elements can simultaneously promote nucleation and suppress grain
342 growth.

343 It is interesting to note that solute Si has different effects on nucleation of grains for non-
344 inoculated and inoculated Al-Si alloys. It inhibits heterogeneous nucleation of grains for the
345 former case (Fig. 3c), while promotes the nucleation for the latter case (Fig. 5b). The reason
346 for the different influences can be explained as follows. For non-inoculated alloys, the critical
347 nucleation barrier increases and therefore the nucleation rate decreases with increasing Si
348 content in the alloy. However, for the inoculated alloys, according to the athermal nucleation
349 theory by Greer et al, the formation rate of spherical caps of nuclei on inoculant particles is
350 not controlled by the nucleation barrier but rather the free growth undercooling, which is
351 determined by Gibbs-Thompson coefficient Γ and the diameter of inoculant particles. A
352 decrease of Γ with increasing Si content means that the free growth of grains is promoted.
353 Such calculation results are supported by many experimental results reported in the literature.
354 For aluminium alloys containing low content of Si (no poisoning of TiB₂ or TiC inoculant
355 particles by solute Si), it is found that adding Si solute promotes grain refinement [14]. For
356 Al-B master alloy inoculated Al-Si alloys, the grain refinement effect is also shown to
357 increase with increasing Si content [14, 78].

358

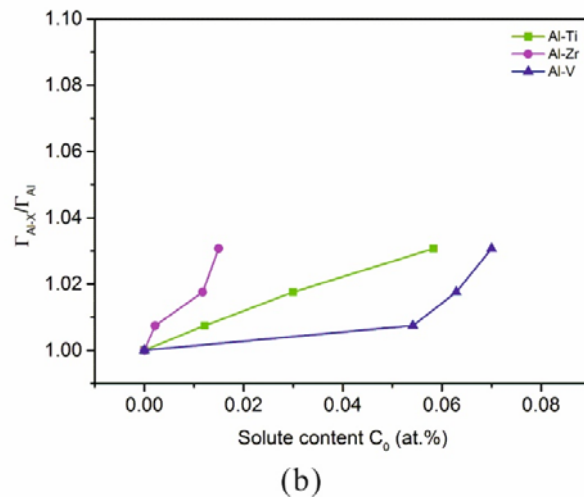
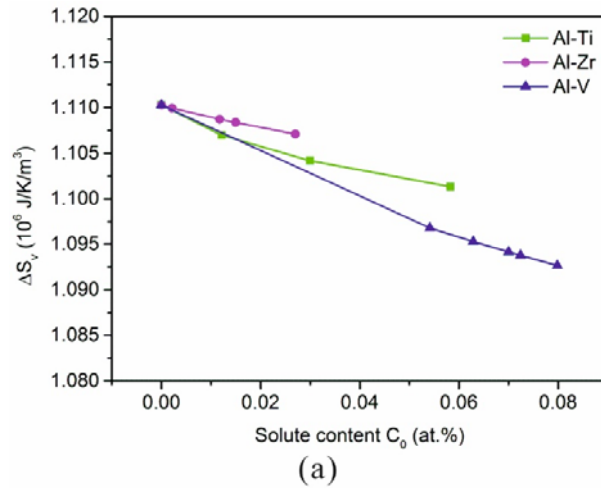


359

360 Fig. 5. Calculated entropy of fusion per unit volume ΔS_v , and relative Gibbs-Thompson
 361 coefficient Γ to pure Al, $\frac{\Gamma_{Al-X}}{\Gamma_{Al}}$, with different solute contents (at.%) at respective liquidus
 362 temperature for hypoeutectic Al-Cu, Al-Mg and Al-Si alloys.

363 3.2.2. Influence of peritectic forming elements

364 The calculated ΔS_v and relative Gibbs-Thompson coefficient Γ to pure Al, $\frac{\Gamma_{Al-X}}{\Gamma_{Al}}$, as a
 365 function of solute content C_0 , for three peritectic binary Al alloys, Al-Ti, Al-Zr and Al-V, at
 366 respective liquidus temperature are shown in Fig. 6. As can be seen, the value of ΔS_v for the
 367 peritectic alloy systems decreases slowly with increasing alloying element contents. Since
 368 these elements slightly increase σ_{SL} of the alloys, an addition of these elements only slightly
 369 increases the Γ values of the alloys (Fig. 6b). As the maximum increase of Γ is only about
 370 3%, the effect of addition of the three elements on the free growth undercooling ΔT_{fg}
 371 probably can be neglected. Therefore, in the inoculated Al alloys, peritectic-forming solute
 372 elements below peritectic composition should not have a direct influence on the
 373 heterogeneous nucleation but mainly contribute to the growth restriction effect (see further
 374 verification in Section 3.2.3), which also benefits the grain refinement.



375

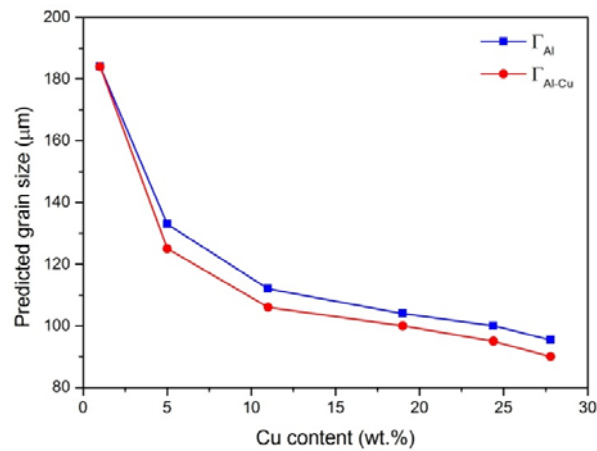
376 Fig. 6. Calculated entropy of fusion per unit volume ΔS_v , and relative Gibbs-Thompson
 377 coefficient Γ to pure Al, $\frac{\Gamma_{Al-X}}{\Gamma_{Al}}$, with different solute contents (at.%) at respective liquidus
 378 temperature for hypoperitectic Al-Ti, Al-Zr and Al-V alloys.

379 3.2.3 Quantitative investigation of solute dependent Γ on grain size

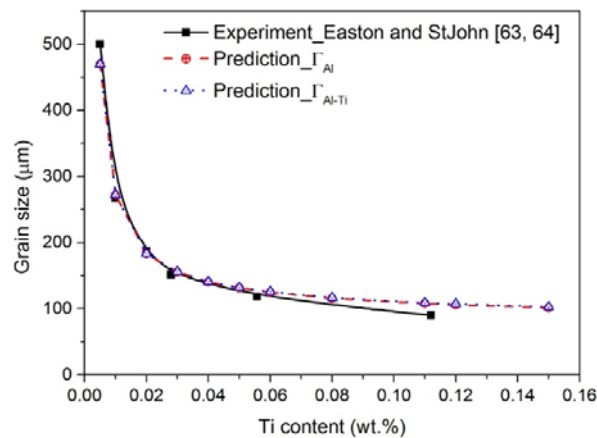
380 To examine the effect of Gibbs-Thomson coefficient Γ on the final grain size of inoculated
 381 aluminium alloys, quantitative grain size prediction was carried out by using a recently
 382 proposed grain size prediction model [76, 79]. In the model, Γ is set as constant or solute
 383 concentration dependent to compare the solute effect on grain nucleation. The parameters for
 384 pure Al were used as reference: $\sigma_{SL} = 0.15 \text{ J/m}^2$, $\Delta S_v = 1.1 \times 10^6 \text{ J/k/m}^3$ and thus $\Gamma_{Al} =$
 385 $1.36 \text{ K} \cdot \text{m}$.

386 For eutectic system, Al-Cu alloys with different Cu content inoculated by 0.1 wt.% Al-5Ti-
 387 1B, with constant cooling rate of 1 K/s during isothermal solidification conditions were used
 388 as calculation cases. The predicted grain sizes are shown in Fig. 7a. It can be seen that, as Cu
 389 content increases, the predicted grain size decreases significantly even when the Gibbs-
 390 Thomson coefficient Γ is constant, which is a result of grain growth restriction effect. When a
 391 composition dependent Γ is included in the numerical model, a smaller value of grain size is
 392 obtained. It confirms that Cu solute has the influence of enhancing the grain nucleation by
 393 reducing the interfacial energy σ_{SL} , and increasing entropy of fusion ΔS_v .

394 For peritectic system, the solidification cases of Al-Ti alloys with different Ti contents
 395 inoculated by 0.03% TiB₂, with initial cooling rate of 0.8 K/s solidified in the heated cast iron
 396 mould [63, 64] were simulated based on recalescence nucleation stifling mechanism. The
 397 simulation results are compared with the experimental results, as shown in Fig. 7b. As can be
 398 seen, the prediction results based on constant Γ are nearly coincident with those based on Ti
 399 dependent Γ , which confirms the solute elements almost have no influence on free growth
 400 undercooling and grain refinement behaviour. Besides, the prediction results are in a good
 401 agreement with the experimental measurements, and both show that the grain size decreases
 402 with increasing Ti solute content. According to the present model mechanism, it can be
 403 concluded that this grain refinement of Ti solute should be due to the growth restriction effect
 404 (Q increases with solute content, and $Q=22$ K at 0.15 wt.%Ti).



(a)



(b)

405

406 Fig. 7. (a) Predicted grain size of 0.1 wt.% Al-5Ti-1B inoculated Al-Cu alloy as a function of
 407 Cu content during isothermal melt solidification under a constant cooling rate of 1 K/s. (b)
 408 Predicted and measured [63, 64] grain size of 0.03% TiB₂ inoculated Al-Ti alloy as a
 409 function of Ti content solidified under an initial cooling rate of 0.8 K/s. The model prediction
 410 used composition dependent Gibbs-Thomson coefficient Γ_{Al-x} and the Gibbs-Thomson
 411 coefficient of pure Al, Γ_{Al} .

412 3.2.4. Comparing to the experimental data of Γ

413 It is difficult to precisely determine the Γ value by experimental methods. The available
 414 experimental data of Gibbs-Thomson coefficient Γ for Al alloys were mostly measured by
 415 the grain boundary groove method [80]. While for pure Al, Γ was determined indirectly by
 416 measuring the solid-liquid interfacial energy using homogeneous nucleation theory [81] or
 417 dihedral angle approach [82]. If the maximum value of σ_{SL} (188 mJ/m² [83]) measured by
 418 experiment is used for estimating the Gibbs-Thomson coefficient Γ for pure Al, it can be
 419 obtained that $\Gamma_{Al} = 1.71 K \cdot m$. Based using the grain boundary groove method [84], it was
 420 determined that $\Gamma_{Al-17.3at.\%Cu} = 2.41 K \cdot m$, $\Gamma_{Al-12.1at.\%Si} = 1.96 K \cdot m$, $\Gamma_{Al-37.4at.\%Mg} =$
 421 $1.30 K \cdot m$ and $\Gamma_{Al-0.0169at.\%Ti} = 1.31 K \cdot m$, showing $\Gamma_{Al-17.3at.\%Cu}$ and $\Gamma_{Al-12.1at.\%Si}$ are
 422 larger than $\Gamma_{Al-37.4at.\%Mg}$ and $\Gamma_{Al-0.0169at.\%Ti}$. This is not consistent with our calculation
 423 results. Pompe and Rettenmayr [85, 86] analyzed the influence of quenching rate on the
 424 microstructure change, and found out that a cooling rate of larger than 80 K/s is needed for a
 425 grain boundary groove analysis of Al-Cu alloys. Hence, as discussed by Lippmann and
 426 Rettenmayr [52], the shape of the grain boundary grooves would be influenced by the limited
 427 cooling rates by using the radial heat flow apparatus [80]. Another limitation for the grain
 428 boundary groove method [52] is that segregation will happen during long time holding which
 429 is required for the grain boundary groove experiments. Such a segregation was observed by
 430 Bulla et al. [87], which would influence the measured σ_{SL} and therefore the Gibbs-Thompson
 431 coefficient. All these reasons may lead to different results between predicted and
 432 experimental values. In reality, if the values of entropy of fusion for Al alloys are calculated
 433 by the regular solution model or present CALPHAD approach, rather than the ideal solution
 434 model used in the grain boundary groove method [84], the calculated σ_{SL} will be much larger
 435 than those experimentally measured [88] or calculated by molecular dynamics [89].

436 4. Conclusions

437 The influences of solute contents in aluminum alloy on the nucleation driving force (Gibbs
 438 free energy change for formation of per unit volume of solid ΔG_v) at a specific undercooling,
 439 solid-liquid interfacial energy σ_{SL} , entropy of fusion ΔS_v have been quantitatively
 440 investigated. Both eutectic and peritectic forming elements have been evaluated. The critical
 441 nucleation activation energy or nucleation barrier of a series of binary alloys was obtained
 442 based on the classical heterogeneous nucleation theory. Also, the composition dependent
 443 Gibbs-Thomson coefficient Γ was calculated. The conclusions are summarized as follows:

- 444 1. The nucleation driving force ΔG_v for Al-Cu and Al-Si is always larger than that for
 445 pure Al and increases with increasing solute content for a given undercooling.
 446 However, adding Mg will decrease the nucleation driving force. For the three
 447 peritectic forming elements below peritectic composition, Ti can increase the
 448 nucleation driving force; However, Zr and V both reduce the nucleation driving force.
- 449 2. The solid-liquid interfacial energy of aluminum alloys decreases with increasing Cu
 450 and Mg solute contents, but increases with Si contents. All of the three peritectic
 451 forming elements, Ti, Zr and V, increase the value of σ_{sl} slightly.
- 452 3. Based on the classical nucleation theory, adding Si to pure Al increases the nucleation
 453 barrier of heterogeneous nucleation and thus reduce the nucleation rate significantly,
 454 which could well explain the grain size of un-inoculated Al-Si alloys increases with Si
 455 contents at higher Si concentrations reported in the literature.
- 456 4. Adding Cu or Mg to pure Al promotes heterogeneous nucleation of aluminum grains.
 457 Together with growth restriction and constitutional undercooling effect, Cu and Mg
 458 are shown to have the influence of promoting the grain refinement.

- 459 5. Three peritectic forming elements Ti, Zr, V have the influence of slightly increasing
 460 the nucleation barrier and may reduce the heterogeneous nucleation rate. However,
 461 due to the strong growth restriction effect, these solutes will still facilitate nucleation.
 462 6. For solidification of Al alloys inoculated with high potency grain refiner particles, it is
 463 revealed that addition of eutectic-forming solute elements can reduce the Γ and thus
 464 free growth undercooling ΔT_{fg} , but peritectic-forming solute elements almost have no
 465 influence on the Γ and ΔT_{fg} .

466

467 Acknowledgments

468 This research work has been supported by a KPN Project, PRIMAL (project number:
 469 236675), in Norway. The financial support by The Research Council of Norway and the
 470 industrial partners, Hydro Aluminum AS, Alcoa Norway AS, is gratefully acknowledged.

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603 List of Figure Captions

604 Fig. 1. Schematic mole Gibbs free energy-composition diagram: (a) at the liquidus
605 temperature, T_L , (b) below T_L , at arbitrary nucleation temperature. The free energy change ΔG
606 associated with forming a small nucleus of composition c_S in the liquid of composition c_L is
607 obtained by the parallel tangent construction [44,45]. Adapted from [44] with additional data
608 from [45].

609

610 Fig. 2. Calculated Gibbs free energy change per undercooling $\Delta G_v/\Delta T$, solid-liquid
611 interfacial energy σ_{SL} , relative critical nucleation energy and relative Ψ to pure Al, $\frac{\Delta G_{n,Al-X}^0}{\Delta G_{n,Al}^0}$
612 and $\frac{\Psi_{Al-X}}{\Psi_{Al}}$, with different solute contents (at.%) at three different undercoolings $\Delta T =$
613 1, 5, 10 K for hypoeutectic Al-Cu alloys.

614

615 Fig. 3. Calculated Gibbs free energy change ΔG_v , solid-liquid interfacial energy σ_{SL} , relative
616 critical nucleation energy and relative Ψ to pure Al, $\frac{\Delta G_{n,Al-X}^0}{\Delta G_{n,Al}^0}$ and $\frac{\Psi_{Al-X}}{\Psi_{Al}}$, with different solute
617 contents (at.%) at undercooling $\Delta T = 1 K$ for hypoeutectic Al-Cu, Al-Mg and Al-Si alloys.

618

619 Fig. 4. Calculated Gibbs free energy change ΔG_v , solid-liquid interfacial energy σ_{SL} , relative
620 critical nucleation energy and relative Ψ to pure Al, $\frac{\Delta G_{n,Al-X}^0}{\Delta G_{n,Al}^0}$ and $\frac{\Psi_{Al-X}}{\Psi_{Al}}$, with different solute
621 contents (at.%) at undercooling $\Delta T = 1 K$ for hypoperitectic Al-Ti, Al-Zr and Al-V alloys.

622

623 Fig. 5. Calculated entropy of fusion per unit volume ΔS_v , and relative Gibbs-Thompson
624 coefficient Γ to pure Al, $\frac{\Gamma_{Al-X}}{\Gamma_{Al}}$, with different solute contents (at.%) at respective liquidus
625 temperature for hypoeutectic Al-Cu, Al-Mg and Al-Si alloys.

626

627 Fig. 6. Calculated entropy of fusion per unit volume ΔS_v , and relative Gibbs-Thompson
628 coefficient Γ to pure Al, $\frac{\Gamma_{Al-X}}{\Gamma_{Al}}$, with different solute contents (at.%) at respective liquidus
629 temperature for hypoperitectic Al-Ti, Al-Zr and Al-V alloys.

630

631 Fig. 7. (a) Predicted grain size of 0.1 wt.% Al-5Ti-1B inoculated Al-Cu alloy as a function of
632 Cu content during isothermal melt solidification under a constant cooling rate of 1 K/s. (b)
633 Predicted and measured [63, 64] grain size of 0.03% TiB2 inoculated Al-Ti alloy as a
634 function of Ti content solidified under an initial cooling rate of 0.8 K/s. The model prediction
635 used composition dependent Gibbs-Thomson coefficient Γ_{Al-X} and the Gibbs-Thomson
636 coefficient of pure Al, Γ_{Al} .