Interaction of Voids and Nanoductility in Silica Glass

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Multimillion-to-billion-atom molecular dynamics simulations are performed to investigate the interaction of voids in silica glass under hydrostatic tension. Nanometer size cavities nucleate in intervoid ligaments as a result of the expansion of Si-O rings due to a bond-switching mechanism, which involves bond breaking between Si-O and bond formation between that Si and a nonbridging O. With further increase in strain, nanocracks form on void surfaces and ligaments fracture through the growth and coalescence of ligament nanocavities in a manner similar to that observed in *ductile* metallic alloys.

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When a crack propagates under the influence of an external load, a part of the mechanical energy is dissipated ahead of the crack tip in a region called the process zone. The dissipation occurs through plastic deformation, damage, release of elastic waves, chemical processes, etc. [1]. Classical theories take these mechanisms into account through phenomenological constitutive relations and distinguish brittle from ductile and quasistatic from dynamic fracture [2]. However, experimental studies of the morphology of fracture surfaces for a variety of materials reveal scaling features that are independent of the precise nature of the material under consideration or conditions of loading [3]. This suggests that damage may play a generic role within the process zone.

Cavitation is a ubiquitous form of damage in the ductile fracture of metallic alloys [4]. Voids in metallic alloys nucleate at grain-boundary junctions and from decohesion or cracking of inclusions [5,6]. Argon *et al.* proposed that cavities could form if the inclusion diameter is greater than 10 nm and the interfacial stress exceeds a critical value [7]. The growth of an isolated void and various mechanisms by which voids join in metallic systems have been studied extensively for many decades [8–13]. Experimental studies reveal localized, microscopic plastic deformation in intervoid ligaments prior to coalescence and ligament failure by microcracking or shearing. In high strength AISI-4340 steel, ligament failure is observed to be due to the merging of a sheet of cavities that are an order of magnitude smaller than the voids around inclusions [14].

Brown and Embury [15] proposed a simple criterion for void coalescence in a perfectly plastic material under tension. According to them, a shear band forms and the ligament fractures when the void length equals the centerto-center separation between neighboring voids. Another criterion for the onset of void coalescence depends critically on porosity, which is regarded as a material constant [11]. Simulation studies of void growth and coalescence in metallic systems have been based mostly on continuum models [16,17]. Recently, however, molecular dynamics (MD) simulations have also been used to investigate the onset of void-void coalescence in copper under hydrostatic tension [18,19].

In this Letter, we report the results of multimillion-tobillion-atom MD simulations of void coalescence in an archetypal brittle material, i.e., silica glass, under hydrostatic tension. A long-held belief is that brittle materials fracture solely by decohesion of atomic bonds at the crack tip [20]. However, recent atomic force microscopy (AFM) studies have generated considerable controversy about the nature of damage in stress corrosion cracking of brittle amorphous solids. The Saclay group observes the nucleation, growth, and coalescence of nanometer scale cavities as the key mechanism for crack extension in silica and aluminosilicate glasses [21,22], whereas the NIST group finds no experimental evidence for cavitation around a crack in silica glass [23]. Our simulations show nucleation of nanometer scale cavities in intervoid ligaments, which is triggered by the coalescence of nearest-neighbor Si-O rings when a nonbridging oxygen atom binds with silicon atom and concurrently the latter severs its bond with another oxygen atom. At higher strains, nanocracks appear on void surfaces and ligaments fracture due to the growth and coalescence of ligament nanocavities. Many of these features in silica glass are surprisingly similar to those observed in ductile metallic alloys.

Two of the simulations reported here contain 500 voids in systems with a billion atoms each in a $319.5 \times 296.7 \times 179.7 \text{ nm}^3$ MD box. In addition, we have investigated growth and interaction between a pair of voids of varying sizes and separations in systems with 1×10^6 and 15×10^6 atoms in MD boxes of dimensions $(25.6 \text{ nm})^3$ and $(62.8 \text{ nm})^3$. We impose periodic boundary conditions and apply a dilatational strain at a constant rate of 10^8 or 10^9 sec^{-1} using the Parrinello-Rahman approach [24]. The equations of motion for the atoms are integrated with the velocity-Verlet algorithm [25]. Silica glasses are generated by the melt-quench method described in detail elsewhere [26]. After preparation, the amorphous systems are well thermalized at room temperature and spherical voids are created by removing atoms. These systems with voids are relaxed with the conjugate gradient method and subsequently heated gradually back to room temperature where they are well thermalized again. Each system with a million atoms was run for 550 ps and each billion-atom system for 120 ps.

All of the simulations are based on an interatomic potential which incorporates ionic and covalent effects through a combination of two-body and three-body terms [27]. The interatomic potential has been validated extensively by comparing the MD simulation results for structural and mechanical properties of amorphous silica $(a-SiO_2)$ with experimental measurements [28–31] and quantum mechanical calculations based on density functional theory (DFT). The MD results are in excellent agreement with neutron scattering measurements of static structure factor and with DFT calculations of partial pairdistribution functions and bond angle distributions [32]. The calculated bulk and shear moduli deviate less than 10% from experimental values, and the fracture toughness $(1 \text{ MPa} \text{ m}^{1/2})$ also agrees well with experimental results which range between 0.8 and 1.2 MPa $m^{1/2}$ [33].

Figure 1(a) shows the growth of two voids in a millionatom a-SiO₂ system. In this simulation the initial diameter of the voids is 3 nm, the center-to-center void separation is 6 nm, and the applied dilatational strain rate is 10^8 sec^{-1} . With an increase in the applied strain, the void diameters grow slowly at first from their initial size of 3 nm to 3.5 nm and when the strain, ε , is about 4% nanometer size cavities nucleate in the intervoid ligament region. In order to delineate damage nucleation and evolution due to voidvoid interaction from that caused by independent void growth, we have also simulated the growth dynamics of one void under the same initial conditions (1×10^6 -atom system with a void of diameter 3 nm) and strain rate (10^8 sec^{-1}).

Figure 1(b) shows the ratio of the average volume per void, ϕ_2 , in the system with 2 voids to the void volume in the single-void system, ϕ_1 . Up to a strain of about 7%, the average growth rate of two voids is nearly the same as that of a single void but there are no damage cavities in the

latter system. Starting at a strain of 7%, nanocracks appear on the surfaces of the two voids and their average void growth rate far exceeds the growth rate of a single void; see Fig. 1(b). In the two-void case, intervoid ligament cavities grow and at $\varepsilon = 8\%$ the intervoid ligament fractures due to the coalescence of voids with the nanocavities. At coalescence the intervoid ligament distance is close to the radius of either void, which agrees qualitatively with the Brown-Embury criterion for ductile materials.

To determine the influence of the void-void interaction on structural changes in the intervoid ligament region prior to ligament fracture, we monitor the Si-O pair correlation function, $g_{Si-O}(r)$, and the Si-O-Si bond angle distribution, $P_{\text{Si-O-Si}}(\theta)$, as a function of the applied strain, ε . Figure 2(a) shows the changes in the first peak in $g_{Si-O}(r)$ at $\varepsilon = 8\%$ relative to that in the unstrained system. The height of the first peak drops significantly because of the decrease in the coordination of Si resulting from Si-O bond breaking. The height of the second peak in $g_{Si-O}(r)$ also drops, which indicates changes in the-Si-O-Si-O-Siring structure. These changes are also evident in the bond angle distribution $P_{\text{Si-O-Si}}(\theta)$ shown in Fig. 2(b): at $\varepsilon =$ 4%, $P_{\text{Si-O-Si}}(\theta)$ is narrower and shifted to higher angles compared to the unstrained system. At higher values of ε , Si-O bond breaking causes a partial shift in $P_{\text{Si-O-Si}}(\theta)$ back towards the unstrained case.

Detailed analysis of cavity nucleation reveals a novel mechanism involving strain-enhanced defect transport; see Fig. 3(a)-3(c). In the unstrained *a*-SiO₂, each Si atom (yellow) is connected to 4 O atoms (red) and these SiO_4 tetrahedra are linked into nanometer size-Si-O-Si-O-Si—rings through corner-sharing O atoms. In Fig. 3(a), blue, green, and gray regions are inside a 7-, 6- and 5-membered Si-O ring, respectively. The blue atom in Fig. 3(a) is a nonbridging O bonded to a Si in the 7-membered blue ring. The oxygen atoms, shown in green and white, play a pivotal role in the nucleation of a nanocavity. Figure 3(b) shows that at a strain of 1% the nonbridging O (blue) becomes fully coordinated by binding with a Si while the white O atom becomes undercoordinated by dissociating from that Si atom. As a result, the 5-membered gray ring becomes a 12-membered ring



FIG. 1 (color). (a) Snapshot of voids and nanocavities at a strain rate of 10^8 sec^{-1} . (b) Strain dependence of the average porosity per void in the two-void system, ϕ_2 , relative to the porosity of the single-void system ϕ_1 .



FIG. 2 (color). (a) Si-O pair-distribution functions and (b) Si-O-Si bond angle distributions in the middle of the intervoid ligament in the unstrained and strained systems.



FIG. 3 (color). Bond-switching mechanism involving nonbridging oxygens is shown in (a) and (b) by red and white dashed lines between blue and white atoms. In (c), the white dashed line indicates bond switching between white and green oxygens; (d) shows the Si-O-Si bond angle distribution for the rings involved in the bond-switching events. Yellow and red spheres represent Si and O atoms, respectively.

and the blue oxygen is now a part of a 3-membered ring. At a strain of 4%, the green O dissociates from a Si atom and the latter binds with the white O atom, thus creating an 11membered ring (gray) adjacent to a 10-membered ring (green); see Fig. 3(c). The transport of nonbridging O is driven by stress gradients. This mechanism introduces a natural length scale, i.e., ring diameter (~1 nm), into the nanocavity nucleation problem. Figure 3(d) shows a considerable change in $P_{\text{Si-O-Si}}(\theta)$ for the rings with bondswitching events involving nonbridging O: instead of a single broad peak at 143° [Fig. 2(a)], the distribution has another peak at 160° due to strain-induced growth of rings. Void-void coalescence studies in a 15×10^{6} -atom SiO₂ glass at a hydrostatic strain of 10^9 sec^{-1} reveal the same mechanisms for the nucleation and growth of damage nanocavities and intervoid ligament failure.

Figure 4 shows evolution and coalescence among multiple voids in a billion-atom system subjected to a dilatational strain of 10^9 sec^{-1} . The initial configuration is an array of 500 voids distributed at the center of the specimen, about 100 nm from the boundaries in the *x* and *y* directions and 60 nm from the boundaries in the *z* direction; see Fig. 4(a). The initial diameter of each void is 3 nm and the smallest center-to-center void separation is 9 nm. As the strain is increased to 4.5%, sheets of nanocavities nucleate in intervoid ligaments and small cracks appear



FIG. 4 (color). Voids in a billion-atom system under a strain rate of 10^9 sec^{-1} . (a) shows a slice of the entire system; (b) shows cracks on void surfaces at $\epsilon = 9\%$; (c), (d) show void coalescence and intervoid ligament failure at $\epsilon = 10.5\%$ and $\epsilon = 12\%$, respectively.

on void surfaces. Nanocavities form in ligaments between nearest neighbor as well as next nearest-neighbor voids (diagonal ligaments). The voids and ligament cavities grow and merge to fracture the ligaments. The ligaments first fail at a strain of 8% around the corner voids. With a slight increase in strain (9%), ligaments between many different voids fracture [Fig. 4(b)]. This releases the tensile stress on voids close to the fractured ligaments and as a result they shrink in size and cracks on their surfaces begin to heal. Figures 4(c) and 4(d) show intervoid ligament fracture and crack formation resulting from the coalescence of many voids at a strain of 12%.

We have also investigated the effect of an applied dilatational strain (at a strain rate of 10^9 sec^{-1}) on a random spatial distribution of 500 nonoverlapping voids in a billion-atom a-SiO₂ system. The initial size of each void is 3 nm and the void centers are chosen from a uniform random distribution. Figure 5 shows the porosity of this system, and for comparison the porosity of the system with regularly distributed voids, as a function of the applied strain. As the strain is increased, the voids first grow independently of one another without any significant damage around them. However, when the strain exceeds 8% small cracks appear on the surfaces of some voids along with the onset of void coalescence; see Fig. 5(a). The voidvoid interaction and eventual coalescence are again mediated by the nucleation and growth of intervoid ligament nanocavities. Figure 5(b) shows a mosaic of cracks result-



FIG. 5 (color). Porosity vs strain in billion-atom systems containing 500 identical voids distributed regularly and randomly; (a), (b) show volumes of coalesced cavities in the latter system at $\epsilon = 8\%$ and 10%, respectively.

ing from the percolation of voids through the system at a strain of 10%.

In summary, we have discovered that damage nanocavities in a-SiO₂ arise from the migration of nonbridging oxygen atoms in—Si-O-Si-O-Si—rings and that these nanocavities play an important role in void-void coalescence and intervoid ligament failure. Interestingly, Mott proposed the same mechanism for flow in silica glass [34]. It should be possible to experimentally verify our predictions regarding void-void interaction and coalescence by sculpting nanovoids in a silica membrane with a transmission electron microscope shirking technique [35] then subjecting the membrane to hydrostatic tension. Such experiments have been performed in the case of metals by laser drilling holes [36].

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