

The Length Scales at Which Classical Elasticity Breaks Down for Various Materials

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At what characteristic length scale does classical continuum elasticity cease to accurately describe the small deformation mechanical behavior? The two dominant physical mechanisms that lead to size-dependency of elastic behavior at the nanoscale are surface energy effects and nonlocal interactions. The latter arises due to the discrete structure of matter and the fluctuations in the interatomic forces that are smeared out within the phenomenological elastic modulus at coarser sizes. While the surface energy effect has been reasonably well characterized in the literature, little is known about the length scales at which nonlocal effects manifest for different materials. Using a combination of empirical molecular dynamics and lattice dynamical methods (both empirical and *ab initio*), we provide estimates of the nonlocal elasticity length scales for various classes of materials: semiconductors, metals, amorphous solids and polymers.

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Classical elasticity is inherently size-independent. Most materials exhibit size-dependent elastic phenomena in the length scale range of 1-10 nm due to surface energy effects which become increasingly appreciable due to the large surface-to-volume ratios available at the nanoscale [1-3]. However, nonlocality of the stress-strain relationship introduces yet another length scale at which classical elasticity breaks down. A fundamental notion of classical continuum elasticity is that the length scale over which deformation varies is much larger than the discrete length of the matter. This argument would set the breakdown length scale to be in the region of the lattice parameter for most materials. However, discreteness is not the only cause of nonlocality. Long-ranged nature of interatomic forces (say in polar materials) also results in a nonlocal stress-strain relationship. Further, fluctuations in interatomic forces (say for example in amorphous solids) can result in large non-affine displacement fields upon deformation. The characteristic length scale over which the non-affine field is correlated serves as a lower limit beyond which classical continuum elasticity cannot be applied and can be significantly higher than the interatomic distance [4]. Thus, an assessment of the validity of classical elasticity must figure in accurate interatomic behavior.

The nonlocal stress-strain behavior can be mimicked in a continuum fashion by including strain-gradient terms in addition to the classical terms in the linearized elastic Lagrangian as shown in Eq. (1)[5-7]

$$L = \frac{1}{2}\rho\dot{u}_i\dot{u}_i - \frac{1}{2}C_{ijkl}e_{ij}e_{kl} - D_{ijklm}u_{i,j}u_{k,lm} - F_{ijklmn}^1u_{i,jk}u_{l,mn} - F_{ijklmn}^2e_{ij}u_{k,lmn} \quad (1)$$

ρ is the mass density of the solid, \mathbf{u} is the displacement field; the dot on top of u_i denotes differentiation

with respect to time and the commas denotes differentiation with respect to the spatial variables in the reference configuration. \mathbf{e} is the symmetric strain tensor. While \mathbf{C} in Eq. (1) represents the well-known elastic modulus tensor, \mathbf{D} , \mathbf{F}^1 and \mathbf{F}^2 are the newly introduced strain-gradient elastic moduli. At larger length scales (assuming small deformations and rotations), the term involving \mathbf{C} dominates the potential energy and the higher-order gradient terms involving the coefficients \mathbf{D} , \mathbf{F}^1 and \mathbf{F}^2 provide negligible contributions. However, in the presence of large strain gradients [8] the contributions due to these higher-order terms may prove to be significant and is in fact the *raison d'etre* for this theory.

From the equations of motion obtained from the Lagrangian of Eq.(1), the dispersion law for $\omega(\mathbf{k})$ (frequency ω vs. wave-vector \mathbf{k} relation for acoustic waves) can be written as Eq. (2)below:

$$\rho\omega^2u_i^0 = \left(c_{ijkl}k_jk_l + id_{ijklm}k_jk_lk_m - f_{ijklmn}k_jk_lk_mk_n \right) u_k^0 \quad (2)$$

Constants \mathbf{c} , \mathbf{d} and \mathbf{f} are called the dynamic elastic constants and are related to their static counterparts by a set of non-invertible equations Eqs.(3-5).

$$c_{ijkl} = sym_{(i,k)}sym_{(j,l)}C_{ijkl} \quad (3)$$

$$d_{ijklm} = asym_{(i,k)}sym_{(j,l,m)}D_{ijklm} \quad (4)$$

$$f_{ijklmn} = sym_{(i,k)}sym_{(j,l,m,n)}(F_{ijklmn}^2 - F_{ijklmn}^1) \quad (5)$$

The symbols '*sym*' and '*asym*' respectively denote symmetrization and anti-symmetrization with respect to the indices in the subscripts. A group-theoretical analysis to determine the number of independent components of tensors \mathbf{c} , \mathbf{d} and \mathbf{f} for crystals possessing point-group symmetry $43m$ (corresponding to a zinc-blende like crystal: say GaAs) has already been carried out by Divinzenzo [6]. The classical dynamical elastic constant \mathbf{c} has three independent components c_{1111} , c_{1212} and c_{1122} ; the fifth-order tensor \mathbf{d} possesses only one, d_{12223} while the sixth-order tensor \mathbf{f} has six independent components. For

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centrosymmetric crystals such as the diamond-like silicon (Si), and f.c.c pure metal copper (Cu) the odd-order tensor \mathbf{d} vanishes. Further, under isotropy these constants satisfy additional constraints [9] such that only two independent components of \mathbf{c} and \mathbf{f} remain while the tensor \mathbf{d} vanishes identically due to centrosymmetry. Now, following Eq.(2), the isotropic dispersion relations corresponding to the longitudinal and acoustic modes along $\mathbf{k}=[100]$ take the form $\rho\omega^2 = ck^2 - fk^4$ from which two isotropic nonlocal length scale parameters $l_1 = \sqrt{f_{111111}/c_{1111}}$ and $l_2 = \sqrt{f_{122122}/c_{1212}}$ can be identified. Quantification of these intrinsic length parameters provides a measure of the length scale at which it is no longer accurate to use classical elasticity (which corresponds to the situation when $l_1 = l_2 = 0$). At present very little work exists on the evaluation of these lengths and certainly no clear consensus exists on their variation for various groups of materials and the reasons for why certain materials may possess higher length scales than others.

Eq. (2) represents the phonon dispersion relations predicted by our extended continuum elasticity theory and can be written as Eq. (6) below.

$$\rho\omega^2 u_i^0 = R_{ik}(\mathbf{k})u_k^0 \quad (6)$$

$R(\mathbf{k})$ is the dynamical matrix derived in a purely elastic continuum framework. In the absence of \mathbf{d} and \mathbf{f} from Eq.(2), the relationship between ω and \mathbf{k} would be linear. The terms involving \mathbf{d} and \mathbf{f} in Eq.(2) provide a dispersive correction to this linear relationship. Measuring this dispersion can provide an estimate of these nonlocal dispersive constants. Thus one could, in principle, generate phonon dispersion curves for various materials from either empirical or *ab initio* lattice-dynamics and estimate the values of the independent components of tensors \mathbf{d} and \mathbf{f} . However, the identification between the 3×3 dynamical matrix obtained via continuum nonlocal elasticity Eq. (6) and the discrete $3N \times 3N$ dynamical matrix obtained by empirical or *ab initio* lattice dynamics techniques (N being the number of atoms in the unit cell) is not readily apparent [6]. The $3N \times 3N$ dynamical matrix obtained by discrete means needs to be block-diagonalized and its 3×3 acoustic sub-block can be identified with the 3×3 continuum dynamical matrix of Eq. (6); the components of the tensors \mathbf{c} , \mathbf{d} and \mathbf{f} can be subsequently isolated and the nonlocal length scales can be extracted. While this can be achieved analytically for empirical lattice dynamical models [6], the analogous procedure for *ab initio* lattice dynamics has to proceed numerically. The details involved will be discussed in a subsequent publication [10]. Fig.1 shows the phonon dispersion curves predicted by classical elasticity, nonlocal elasticity and those generated by *ab initio* techniques for copper. It can be seen that nonlocal elasticity can model the dispersion behavior much better than classical elasticity.

Lattice-dynamics based procedures cannot be employed to extract the nonlocal length scale parameters of materials possessing a non-homogeneous microstruc-

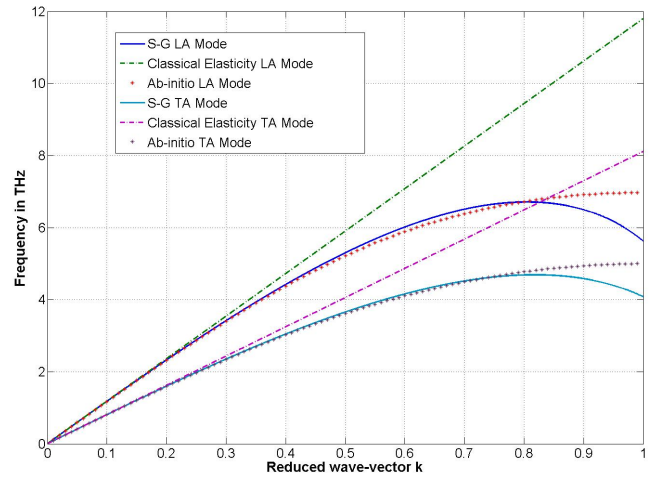


FIG. 1: Shows the comparison of phonon dispersion curves of copper (Cu) predicted by strain-gradient elasticity (S-G modes) and classical elasticity to those obtained by *ab initio* calculations for the transverse acoustic (TA) and longitudinal acoustic (LA) modes along $\mathbf{k}=[100]$.

ture such as amorphous solids and polymers. In a classical paper by Parrinello and Rahman [11], it was shown that the fluctuations in elastic strain in a (σ, H, N) ensemble (constant stress σ , constant enthalpy H and constant number of particles N) are a direct measure of the elastic compliances in a general anisotropic medium. More recently, Meyers et al. [12] (based on Landau and Lifshitz [13] and Pratt [14]) have proposed a methodology to determine the classical elastic moduli from the atomic displacement correlation function in an NVT (constant number of particles N , constant volume V and constant temperature T) molecular dynamics (MD) ensemble using the long-wavelength approximation. We have extended this technique to be applicable in regime of relatively high-energy wave-vectors so that the dispersive elastic constants can also be extracted from the displacement correlation functions [details to be published in a subsequent publication, Ref. 10]. This method proves advantageous over methods involving strain-strain fluctuations (or stress-stress fluctuations) in that it involves atomic displacements which are easily determined during the course of a simulation as opposed to local strain and stress measures. Our derivations indicate that if an NVT MD simulation is carried out in a cubic simulation box with an edge of length L , then the thermal average of the displacement correlations can be related to the dynamic elastic constants as [10]:

$$\begin{aligned} & \langle \tilde{u}_i(\mathbf{k}) \tilde{u}_k(-\mathbf{k}) \rangle \\ &= \frac{k_B T}{L^3} \left(\begin{array}{c} c_{ijkl} k_j k_l + i d_{ijklm} k_j k_l k_m \\ - f_{ijklmn} k_j k_l k_m k_n \end{array} \right)^{-1} \quad (7) \end{aligned}$$

k_B is the Boltzmann constant. To obtain the requisite dynamic elastic constants from Eq. (7), an NVT MD simulation is carried out at low temperature (50 K) for

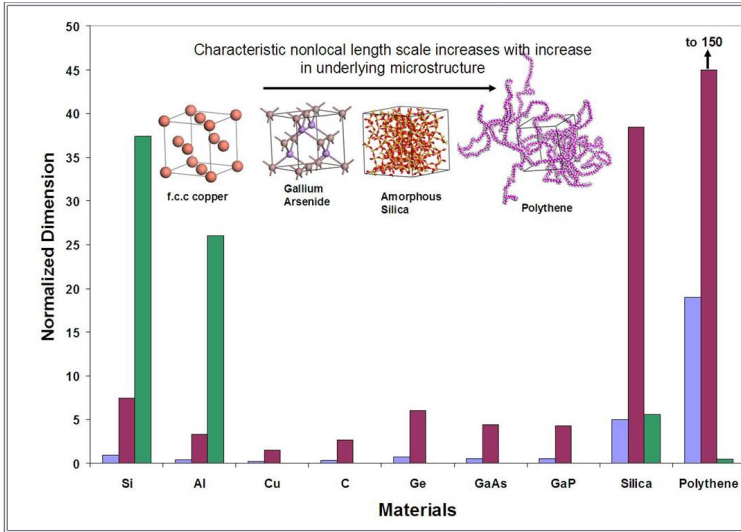


FIG. 2: In the above map some important dimensions normalized with respect to the average nearest neighbor distance [26] for different materials are represented. The blue bars represent the larger of the two normalized isotropised nonlocal length scale parameters. The magenta bars represent the normalized dimension (breadth) of a beam with a square cross section (length=10 times the breadth) for which the size-dependent bending rigidity due to nonlocal effects differs from the bulk value by 10% as predicted by a model due to Park and Gao [27]. The green bars represent the normalized dimension (breadth) of a beam with a square cross-section for which the size-dependent bending rigidity becomes 10% higher (or 10% lower depending upon the sign of the surface elastic moduli) of the bulk value as predicted by a model incorporating surface elastic effects due to Miller and Shenoy [3].

atoms enclosed in a cubic simulation box. The displacements of all the atoms are obtained at each time-step. These displacements in real space can be discrete Fourier-transformed and the correlations given by the left hand-side of Eq. (7) can be calculated for wave-vectors along high-symmetry directions. The thermal average of the displacement correlations can be obtained for different \mathbf{k} -vectors and can be numerically fitted (by a non-linear least square minimizing technique) to the right-hand side of Eq. (7) to obtain the dynamic elastic constants \mathbf{c} , \mathbf{d} and \mathbf{f} . In this work, we have used the three methods described above namely empirical lattice dynamics, *ab initio* lattice dynamics [15] and empirical *NVT* MD [16] to determine the dispersive elastic constants and the associated nonlocal length scales. For f.c.c metals Cu and Al we have employed both *ab initio* lattice dynamics and our fluctuations based empirical MD simulation method. For Si we have employed all the three methods i.e. *ab initio* and empirical lattice dynamics and empirical MD. For C (diamond) and GaAs we have used *ab initio* and empirical lattice dynamics to estimate the dispersive constants while for Ge and GaP we have used only empirical lattice dynamics. Lastly, for the non-crystalline systems investigated viz. amorphous silica and polythene only our fluctuations-based MD method is applicable. *Ab initio* phonon dispersions of Cu and diamond (C) were calculated within density-functional perturbation theory in the generalized gradient approximation (GGA). An ultrasoft pseudopotential generated by Favot and Dal Corso [17] using an approach outlined by Kresse and Hafner [18] was employed. *Ab initio* phonon dispersions of Al and Si were calculated in the GGA using a norm-conserving pseudopotential generated by Favot and Dal Corso [17], while those of GaAs were calculated in the Local Density Approximation (LDA) using a norm-conserving pseudopotential generated by Giannozzi et al. [19]. For empirical lattice dynamics, Shell Model param-

eters for Si, Ge and C provided by Price et al. [20] were used. Similar parameters for GaAs and GaP were obtained from Kunc et al. [21]. While an embedded atom potential [22] was adopted to carry out MD simulations of the metals Cu, Al and Ni, the Tersoff potential [23] was for the semiconductor Si and the Vashishta potential [24] was used to simulate SiO_2 . Empirical MD simulations of multi-component semiconductors like GaAs etc. were avoided since reliable inter-atomic potentials are unavailable. Despite slow convergence of the elastic constants using Meyers et al.'s method [12] (compared to some other schemes such as in Ref. [25]), it was nevertheless employed since it is quite simple to extend this technique to include the effects of strain-gradients. Including strain-gradient effects is not straight-forward in other fluctuation-based techniques to calculate elastic constants: for example the Parrinello-Rahman [11] technique uses a (σ, H, N) ensemble wherein a constant external stress is applied and the fluctuations in the strain (which is the conjugate variable to stress) are in turn related to the classical elastic constants. Trying a similar approach to determine the strain-gradient elastic constants would require application of an external "couple-stress" (conjugate variable to strain-gradient): how one can achieve this in a computational ensemble is currently unclear.

Our main results are encompassed in Fig.2 in which we present the dimensionless nonlocal length scales (normalized with respect to the average nearest neighbor distance [26]) for different materials. Using a Bernoulli-Euler beam model predicated on strain-gradient elasticity [27], we also plot the normalized dimension (breadth) of a beam with a square cross section (length=10 \times breadth) for which the size-dependent bending rigidity due to nonlocal effects differs from the value at the bulk by 10%. As one can see, size-effects will be observed in beams with dimensions as high as 30 nm for polythene

and 8 nm for silica. However, for crystalline Si the corresponding beam dimension is 1.7 nm while for Cu it is even lower at 0.4 nm. From these results, one can infer that while nonlocal elasticity is irrelevant for most crystalline metals and semiconductors even at sizes down to a lattice parameter, it becomes important for materials possessing a non-homogeneous microstructure like amorphous silica and polymers. In order to compare nonlocal elastic and surface energy effects in materials, we have also plotted results for beams similar to ones mentioned earlier using a model due to Miller and Shenoy [3] incorporating surface energy effects. As one can see, for crystalline systems surface elastic effects are the dominant contributors to breakdown of classical elasticity while for amorphous systems they are generally negligible. The high nonlocality in amorphous solids possessing an underlying inhomogeneous microstructure possibly stems from a group of strongly bonded atoms behaving as a unit. Under such circumstances, parts of the material system may undergo considerable non-affine deformation and high moment stresses may result. Liquid crystal elastomers have also been investigated under the context of Frank elasticity and experimental evidence suggests that their length scales may lie in the 10 nm regime [28]. However, experiments on size-effects on polystyrene by Stafford et al. [29] did not reveal any size effects down to 150 nm. A recent work by Nikolov et al. [30] estimated that rubbers should have nonlocal length scale in the neighborhood of 4.5 nm. Since crystalline materials are highly ordered, they very possibly undergo negligible non-affine deformations as a consequence of which the nonlocal elastic effects are unimportant for such systems. Further, among crystalline materials, covalent semiconductors like Si tend to possess higher nonlocal length scales compared to metals which may be attributed to the short-ranged nature of inter-atomic forces in metals. Although our results appear to indicate that strain gradient elasticity is irrelevant for most crystalline metals and semiconductors, we wish to point out that under certain circumstances, it is quite useful even in materials exhibiting small nonlocal characteristic length scales e.g. in the analysis of defects in graphene [31].

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 $f_{122133} = \frac{f_{122122}}{3}$, $f_{211222} = \frac{f_{111111} + f_{122122}}{6}$
 $f_{112222} = \frac{f_{111111} - f_{122122}}{4}$, $f_{112233} = \frac{f_{111111} - f_{122122}}{12}$
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