



**From nano to macro: Introduction to atomistic  
modeling techniques**

**IAP 2006**

# **Deformation of ductile materials using billion-atom simulations with massively parallelized computing techniques**

## **Lecture 2**



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# Behavior of different “kinds” of materials

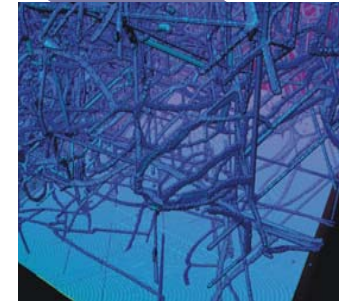


**“brittle”:** Materials that experience little, if any, plastic deformation before the onset of fracture



(Buehler et al., *Nature*, 2003, 2006)

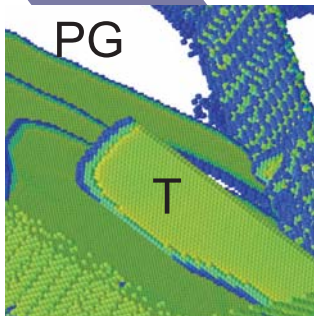
**“ductile”:** Materials that experience significant plastic deformation before the onset of fracture



(Buehler et al., *CMAME*, 2004)

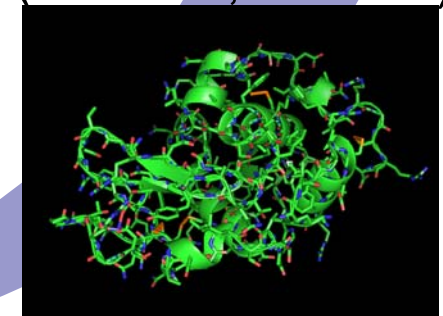
How to use large-scale computing in multi-scale modeling in order to develop fundamental understanding

**“geometric confinement”**  
Nanostructured materials, carbon nanotubes



(Buehler et al., *JMPS*, 2002)

**“biological materials”**  
(Proteins, DNA ...)



(Buehler et al., *MRS Proceedings*, 2004)



- Large-scale computing strategies and resources
  - Parallelization
  - TOP 500 list of fastest supercomputers
  - Usefulness of supercomputing
  
- Introduction to ductile materials and their deformation mechanisms, including
  - Dislocations (sources, geometry, interaction)
  - Mechanisms of hardening of materials
  
- **Objective:**

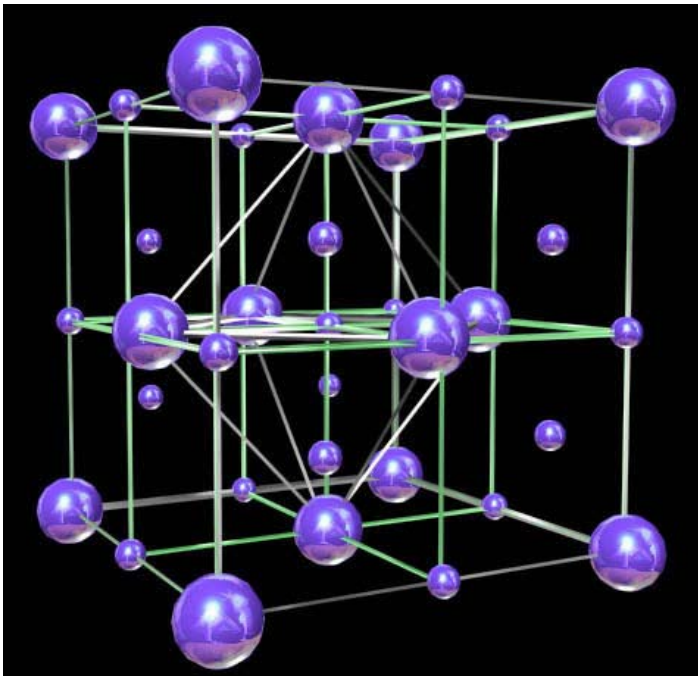
Demonstration of how large-large molecular dynamics can be applied to model ductile deformation



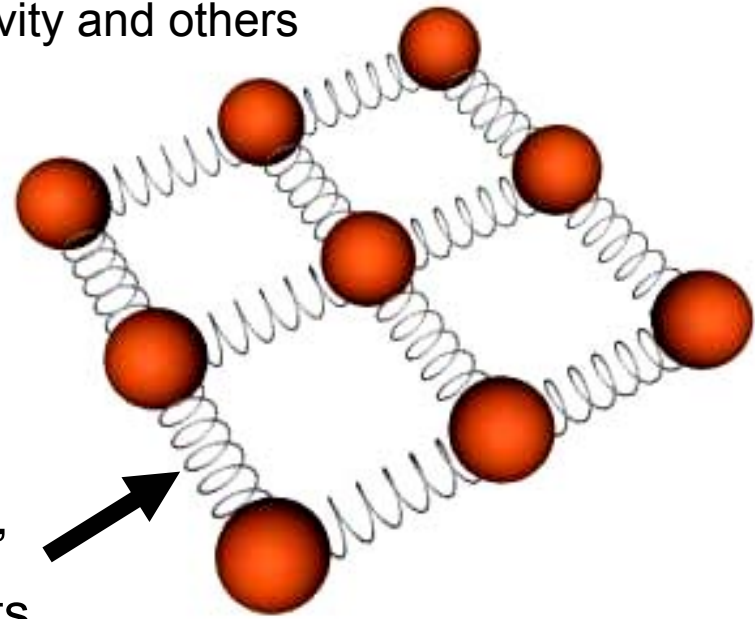
# The problem to solve



- In atomistic simulations, the goal is to understand and model the motion of each atom in the material
- The collective behavior of the atoms allows to understand how the material undergoes deformation (metals: dislocations), phase changes or other phenomena, providing links between the atomic scale to meso/macro phenomena



Vibration, change of location, connectivity and others



“Spring”  
connects  
atoms...

[http://www.sr.bham.ac.uk/xmm/images/structures/spherespring\\_300\\_248.jpg](http://www.sr.bham.ac.uk/xmm/images/structures/spherespring_300_248.jpg)





# The problem to solve

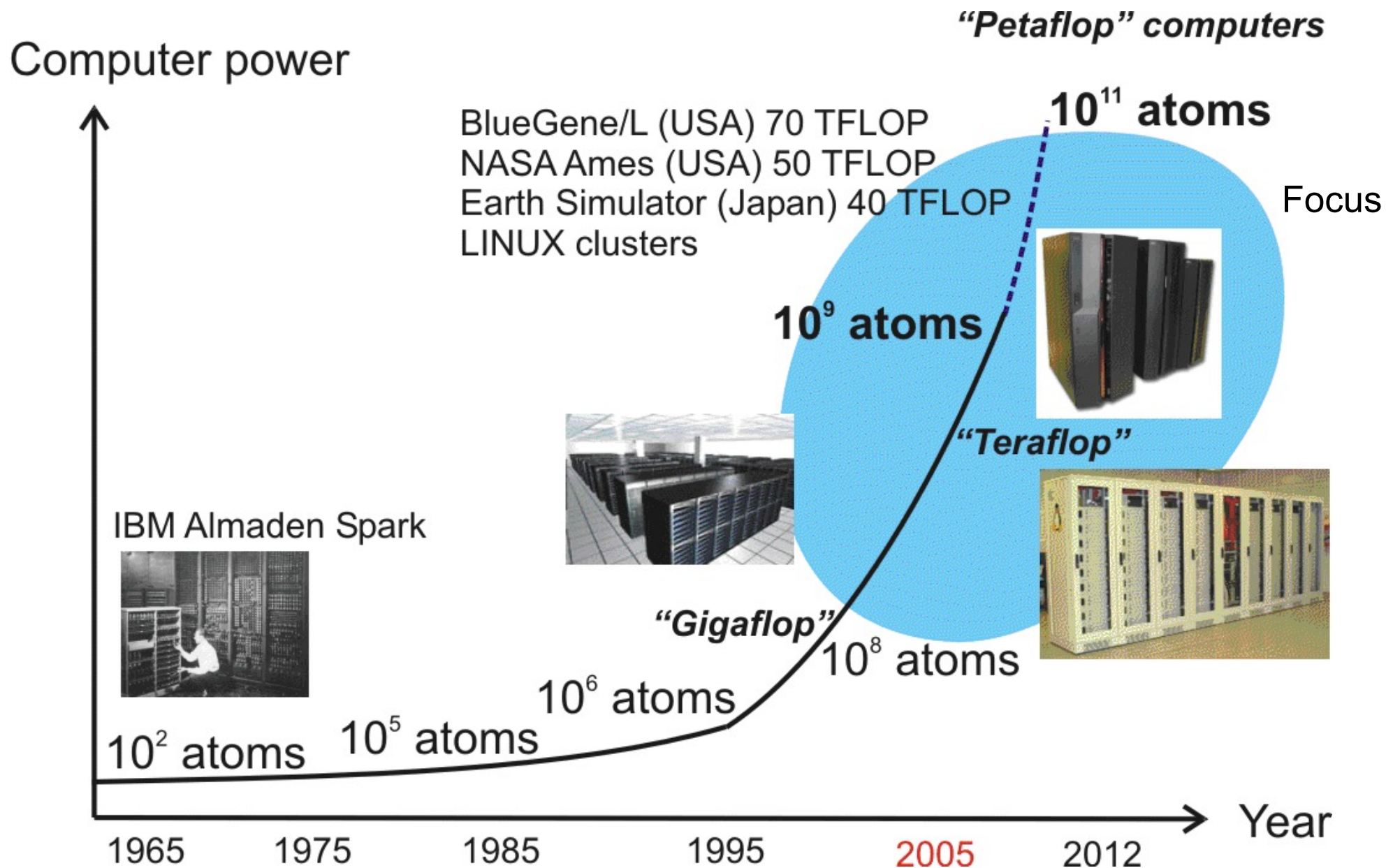


- Molecular dynamics of mechanics applications can be computationally challenging, due to
  - Complexities of force field expressions (calculation of atomic forces)
  - Large number of atoms and thus large number of degrees of freedom in the system ( $3N$ )
- To model realistic (macro-engineering) dimensions of materials with microstructural features: Need system sizes with  $\sim 10^{23}$  atoms
- This results in challenges for data analysis and visualization, or just for data handling and storage
- Much research has been done to advance data analysis techniques and visualization schemes  
(e.g., Vashishtha and coworkers at USC's center for Advanced Computing and Simulation, <http://cacs.usc.edu>)



# Increase in computing power

## Classical molecular dynamics



(Buehler *et al.*, to appear 2006)



# Parallel Molecular Dynamics

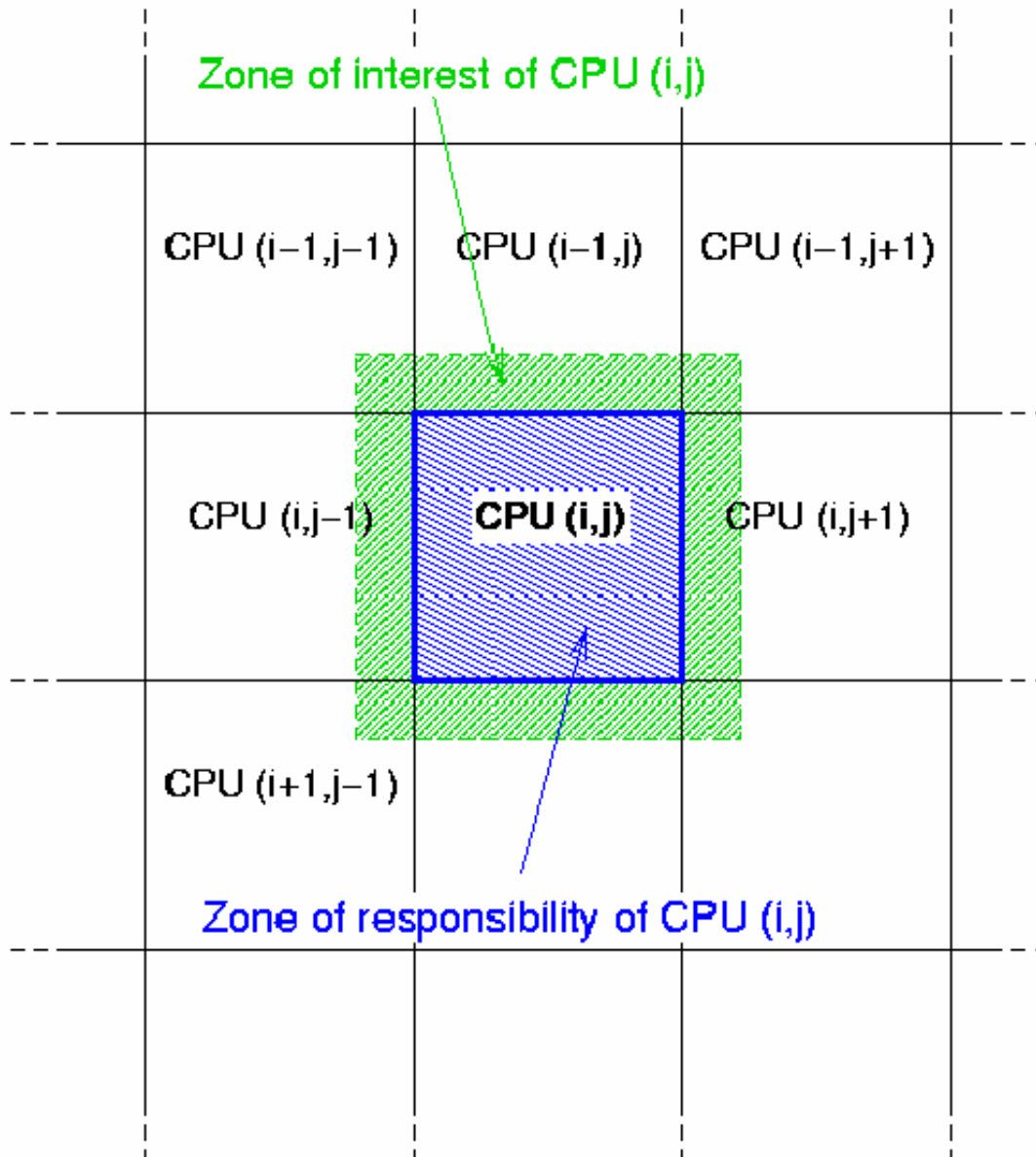


## Concept:

Divide the workload

No (immediate) long range interaction (only via dynamics)

- Each CPU is responsible for part of the problem
- Atoms can move into other CPUs (migration)
- Need to know topology or the geometric environment on other CPUs (green region)
- 1,000,000,000 particles on 1,000 CPUs: Only 1,000,000 atoms/CPU



(after Schiotz)



# Implementation of parallelization



- Shared memory systems (all CPUs “see” same memory)
  - OpenMP (easy to implement, allows incremental parallelization)
  - POSIX threads
- Distributed memory systems
  - MPI (=Message Passing Interface)  
Most widely accepted and used, very portable, but need to parallelize whole code at once
- Parallelization can be very tedious and time-consuming and may distract from solving the actual problem; debugging difficult
- **Challenges:** Load balancing, different platforms, input/output, compilers and libraries, modifications and updates to codes, “think parallel” as manager
- Strategy for your own code: Find similar code and implement your own problem



# TOP500 List Fall 2005

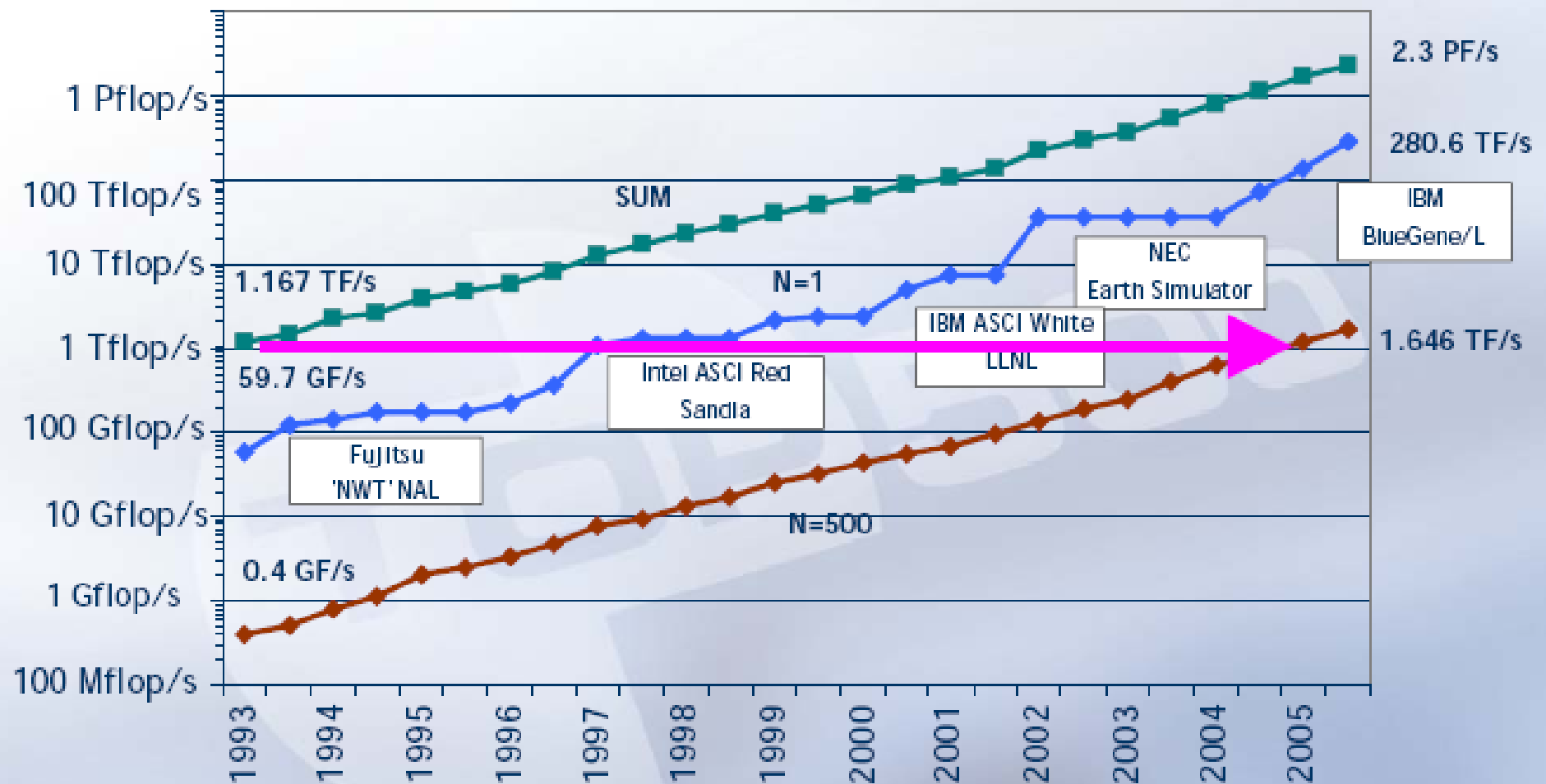
## The world's fastest supercomputers



	Manufacturer	Computer	Rmax [TF/s]	Installation Site	Country	Year	#Proc
1	IBM	BlueGene/L eServer Blue Gene	280.6	DOE/NNSA/LLNL	USA	2005	131072
2	IBM	BGW eServer Blue Gene	91.29	IBM Thomas Watson	USA	2005	40960
3	IBM	ASC Purple eServer pSeries p575	63.39	DOE/NNSA/LLNL	USA	2005	10240
<del>4</del> 3	SGI	Columbia Altix, Infiniband	51.87	NASA Ames	USA	2004	10160
5	Dell	Thunderbird	38.27	Sandia	USA	2005	8000
<del>6</del> 10	Cray	Red Storm Cray XT3	36.19	Sandia	USA	2005	10880
<del>7</del> 4	NEC	Earth-Simulator	35.86	Earth Simulator Center	Japan	2002	5120
<del>8</del> 5	IBM	MareNostrum BladeCenter JS20, Myrinet	27.91	Barcelona Supercomputer Center	Spain	2005	4800
<del>9</del> 6	IBM	eServer Blue Gene	27.45	ASTRON University Groningen	Netherlands	2005	12288
10	Cray	Jaguar Cray XT3	20.53	Oak Ridge National Lab	USA	2005	5200



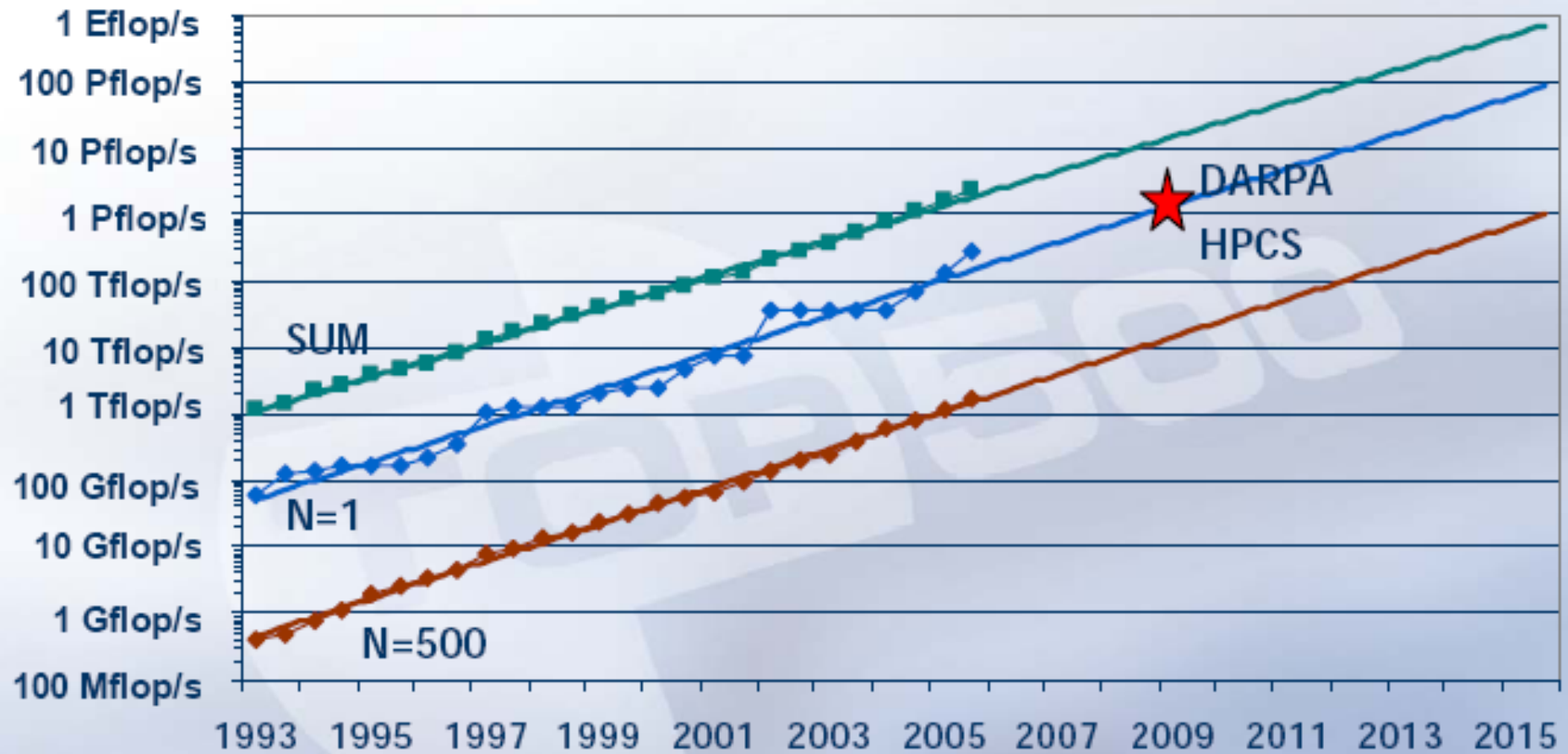
# Performance history





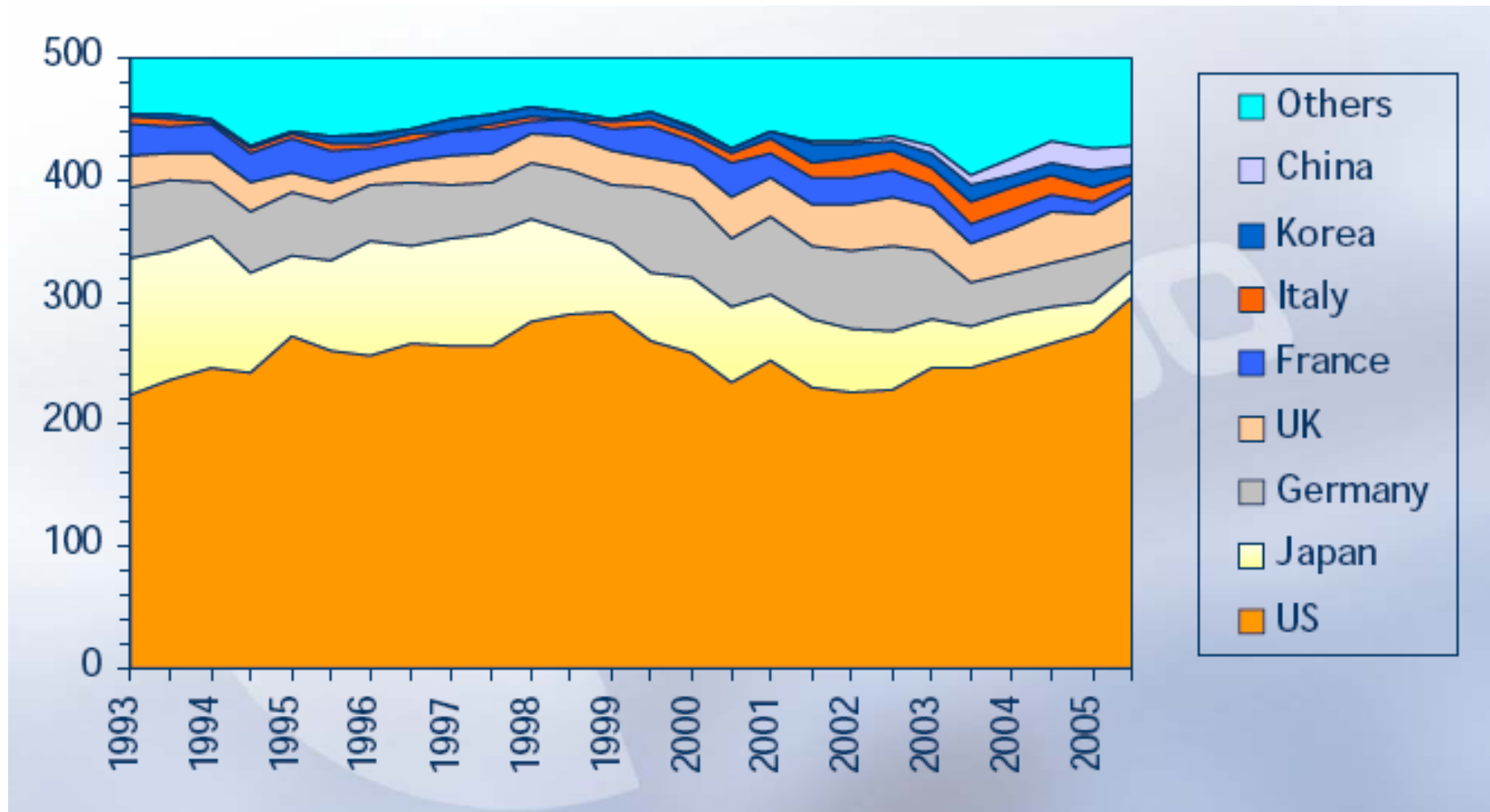


# Performance projection



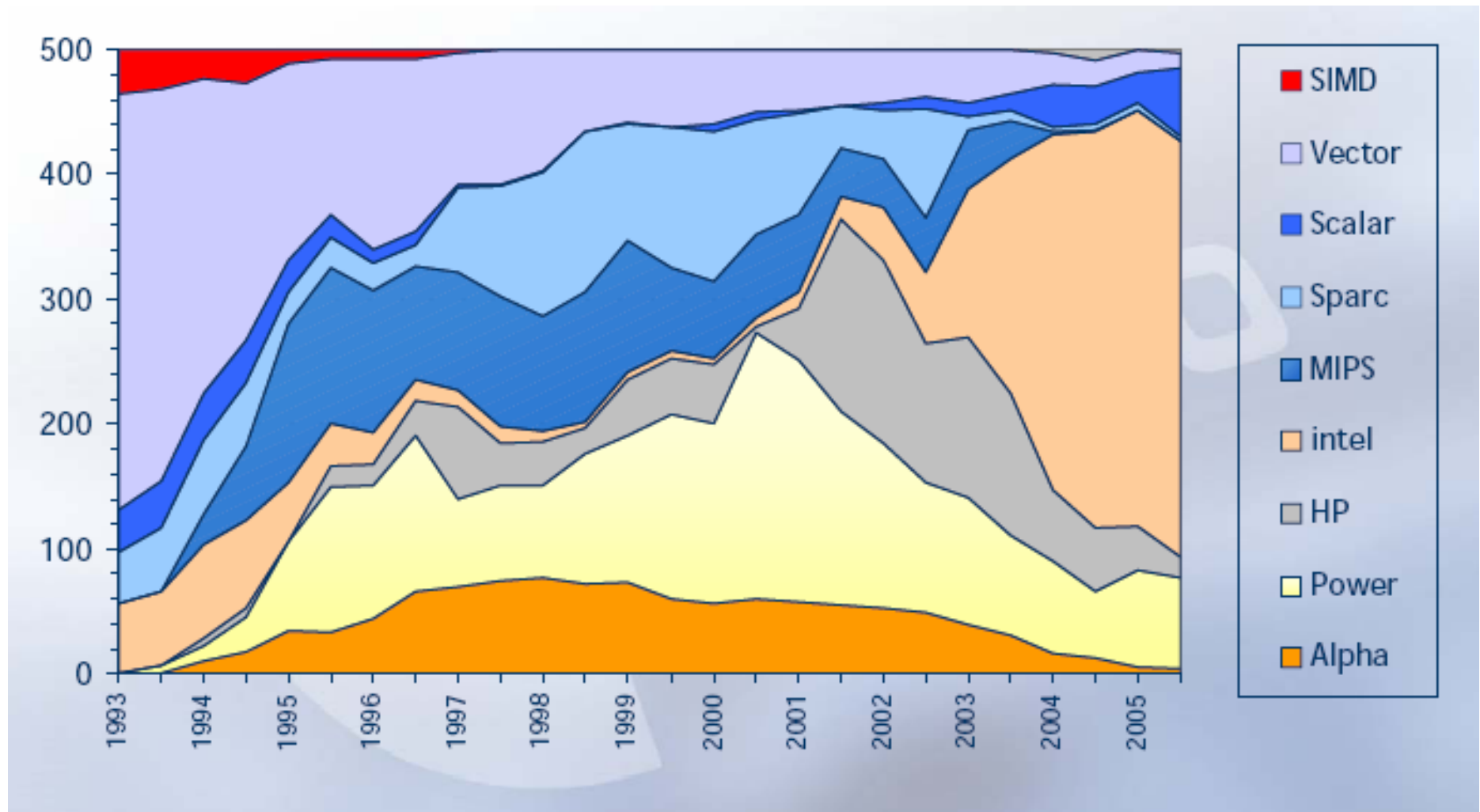


# Computing capacity distribution worldwide





# Architecture distribution



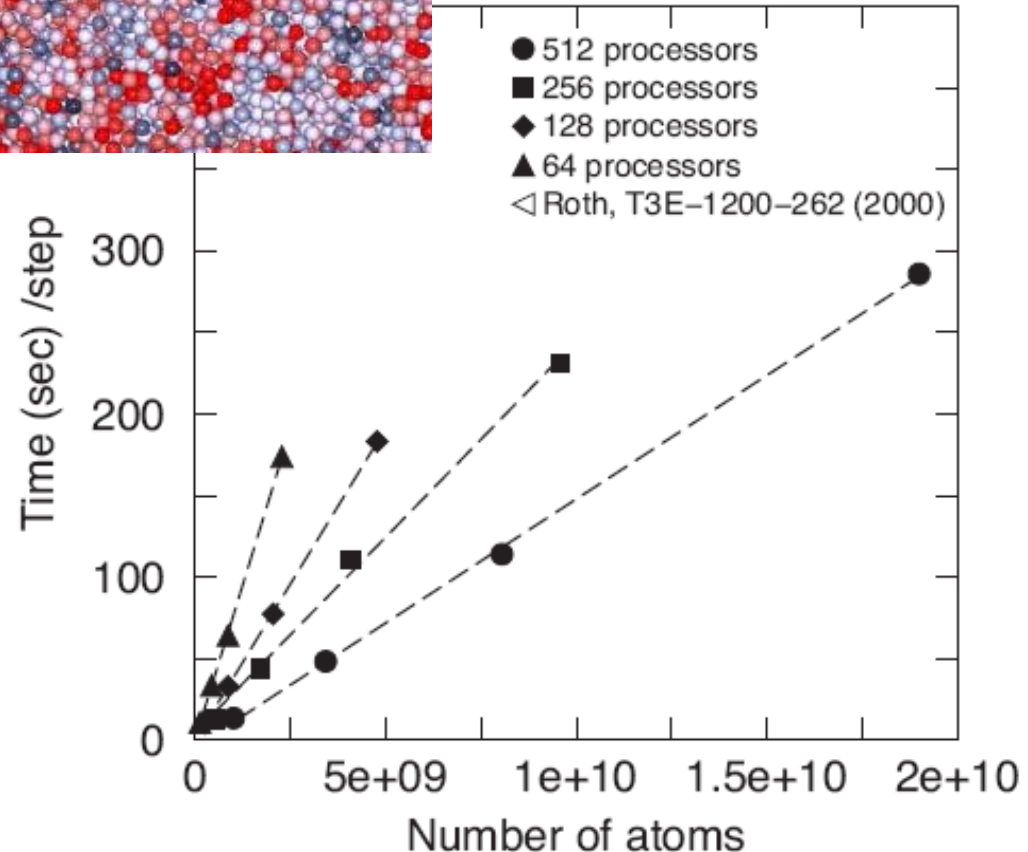
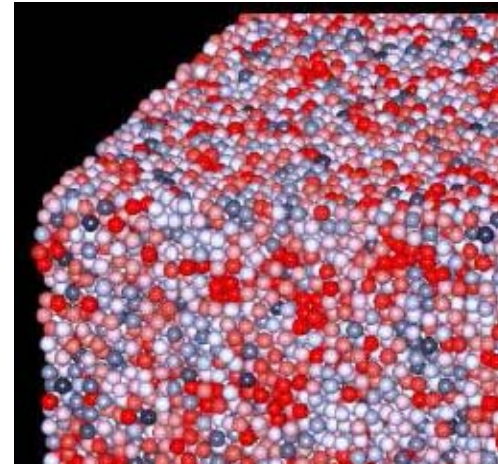
Dominance of LINUX clusters



# World's largest MD simulation



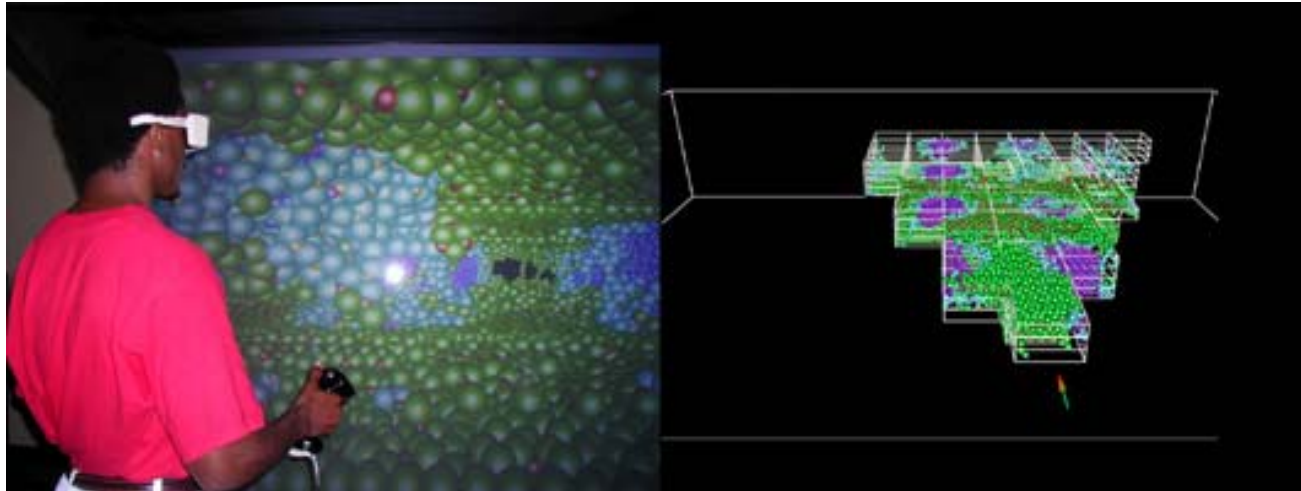
- Largest MD simulation: 19,000,000,000 atoms by Kai Kadau
- The memory needed to save one configuration of one billion atoms in single precision is more than 15 GByte (regular PC: 1 GByte), which makes it inconvenient to save all the raw data and analyze the data in a postprocessing fashion, even on modern platforms with Tbytes of hard-disc capacity
- Coventional analysis techniques don't work any more





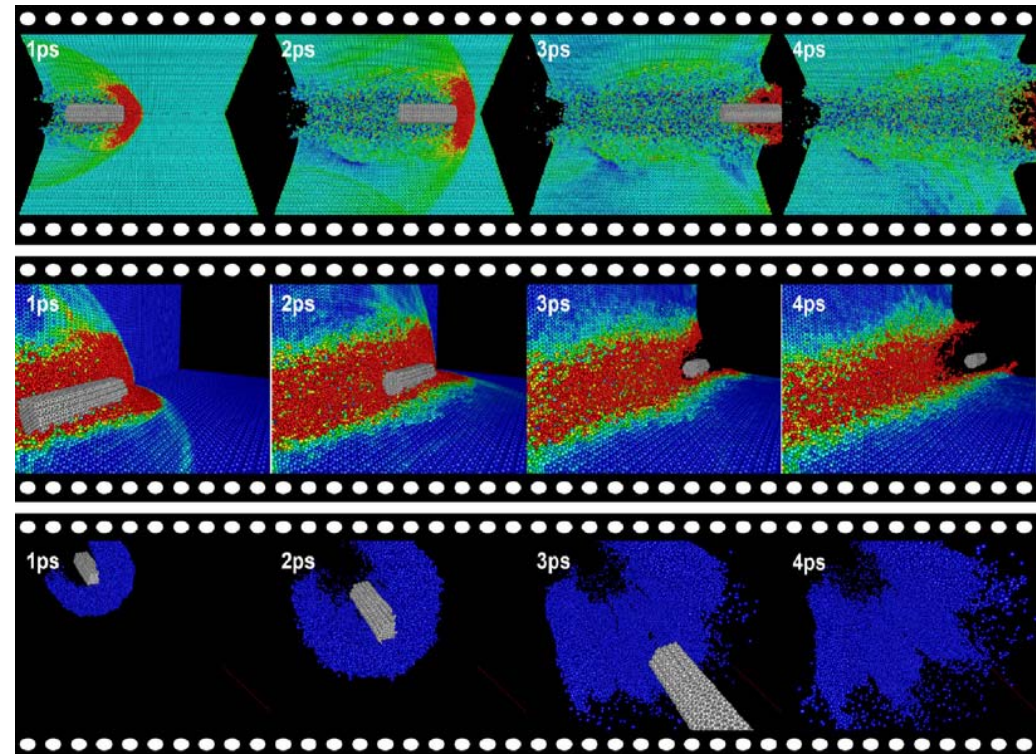


# More examples..



Immersive and interactive visualization of large datasets to achieve billion-atom walkthrough.

Molecular modeling of fracture and projectile impact





# Why is large-scale modeling useful?



- Bridging length scales by direct numerical simulation (DNS)
- Understand the behavior of complex many-particle systems, without imposing constraints or boundary conditions
- Discover new physical phenomena, e.g. collective events that involve a large number of particles

## Caution:

- Need to make sure that model produces useful results, *i.e.* includes new scientific content and discoveries
- Pictures may be pretty, but what do we learn?

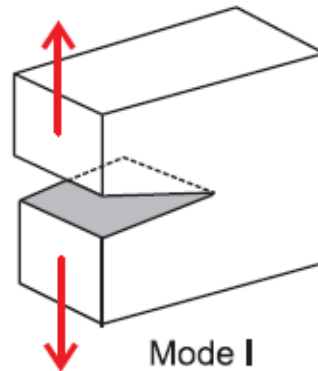




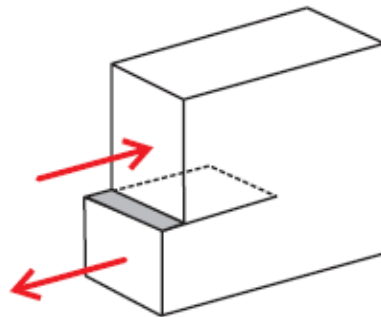
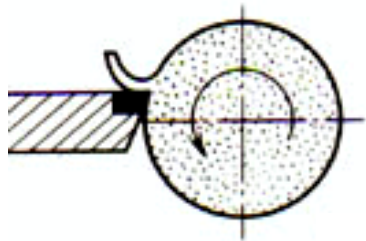
# How “stuff” deforms?



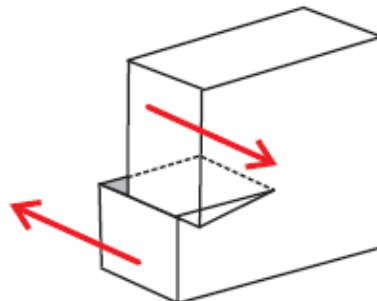
## Modes of loading



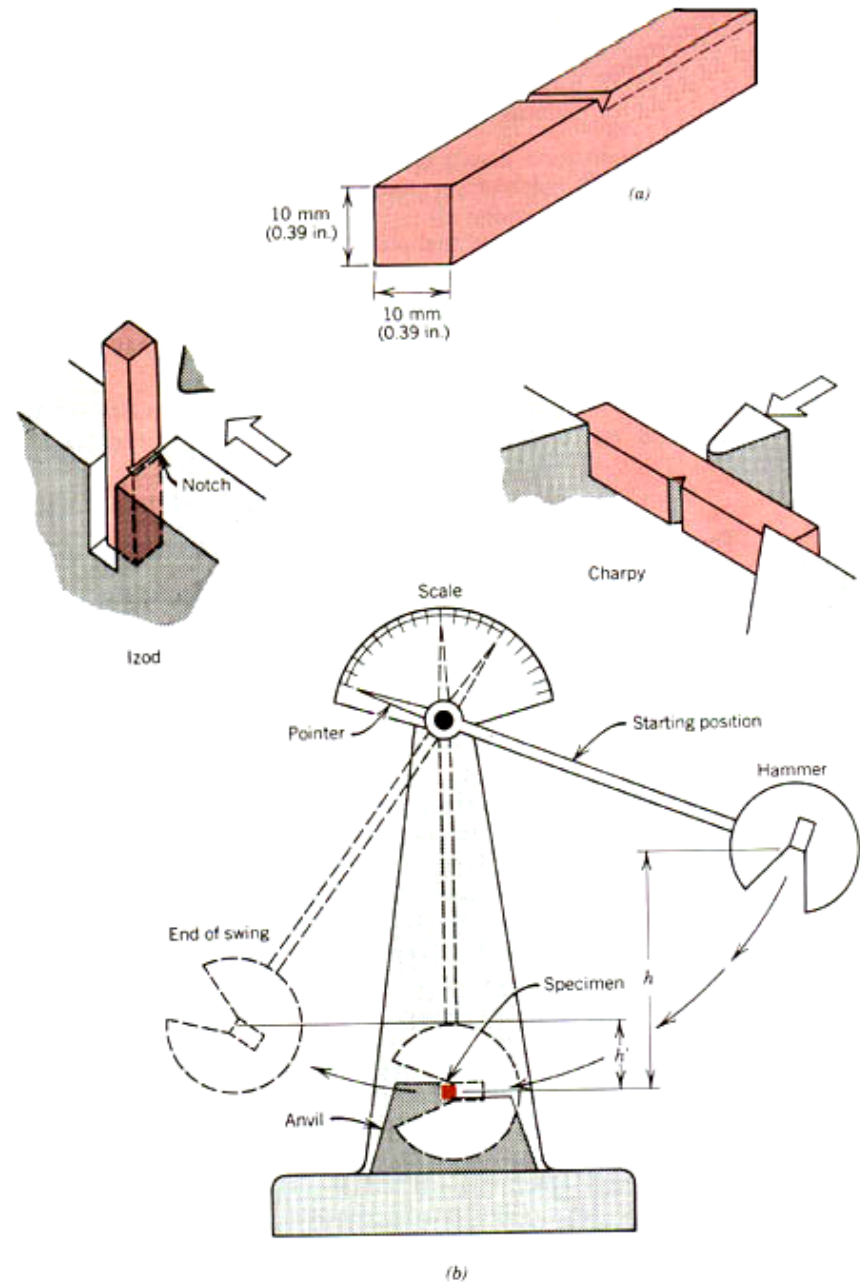
Mode I



Mode II



Mode III





# Increase in computing power: Parallelization



Modeling of mechanical behavior of materials is highly demanding and requires models with millions and billions of atoms

**2000**

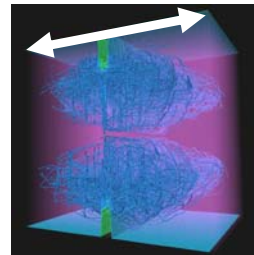
1,000,000,000  
particles  
10 TFLOP  
computers



0.3  $\mu\text{m}$

**2005**

70,000,000,000  
particles  
70 TFLOP  
computers

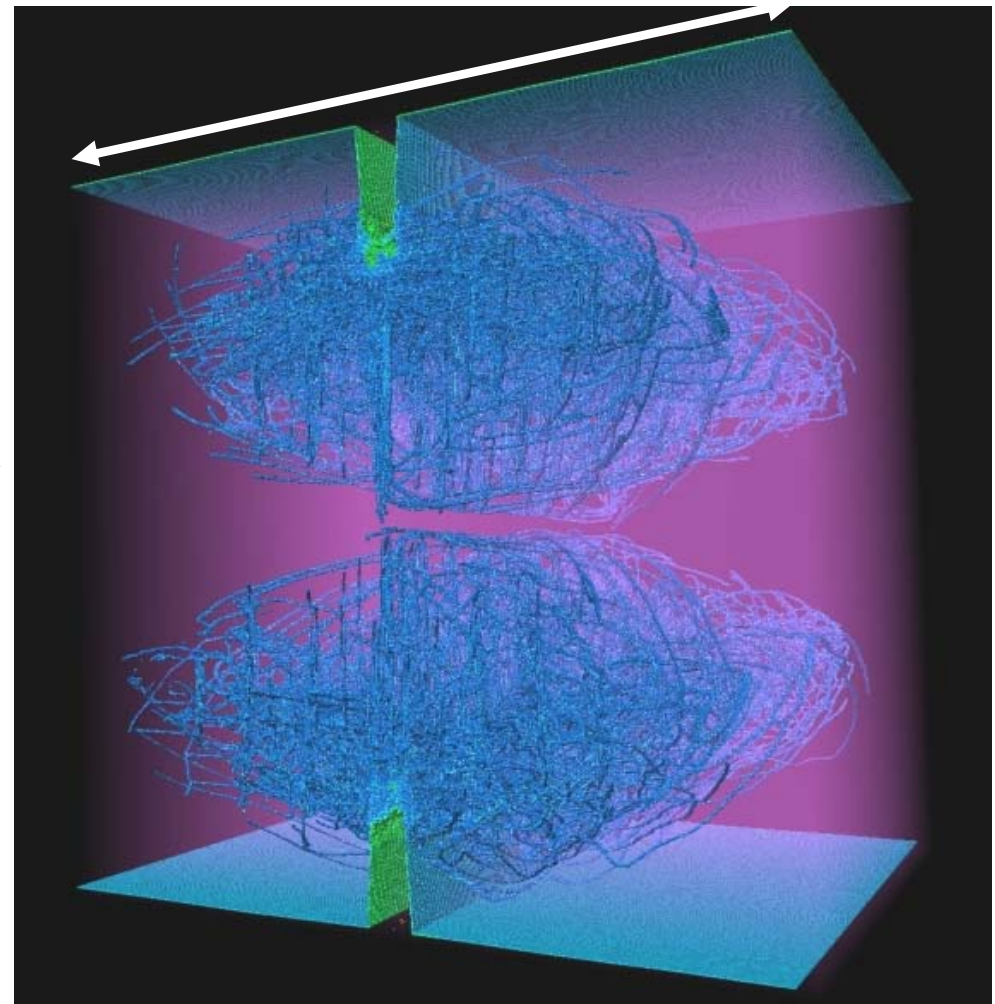


1.2  $\mu\text{m}$

**2010**

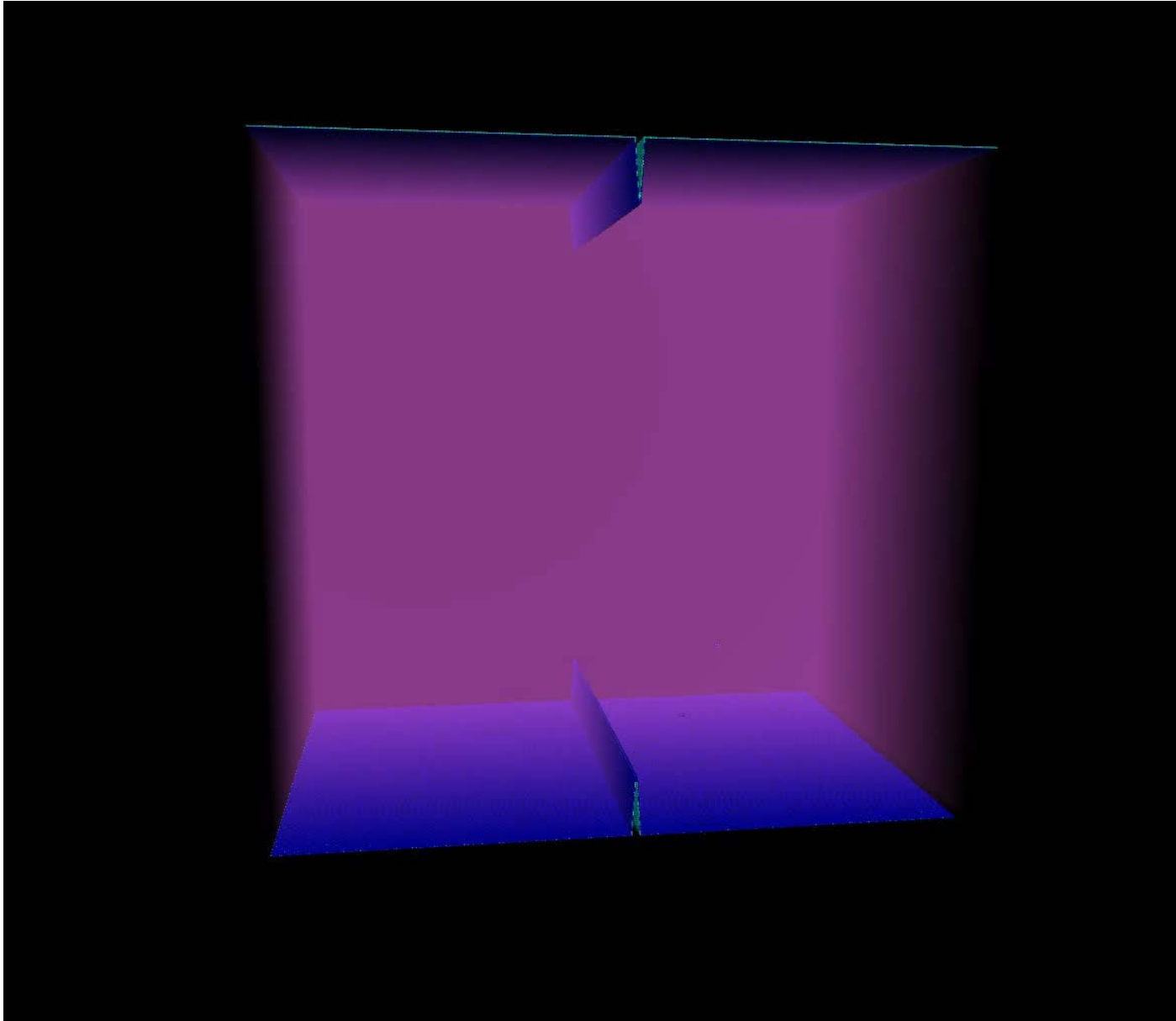
7,000,000,000,000 particles  
1,000 TFLOP computers

5  $\mu\text{m}$





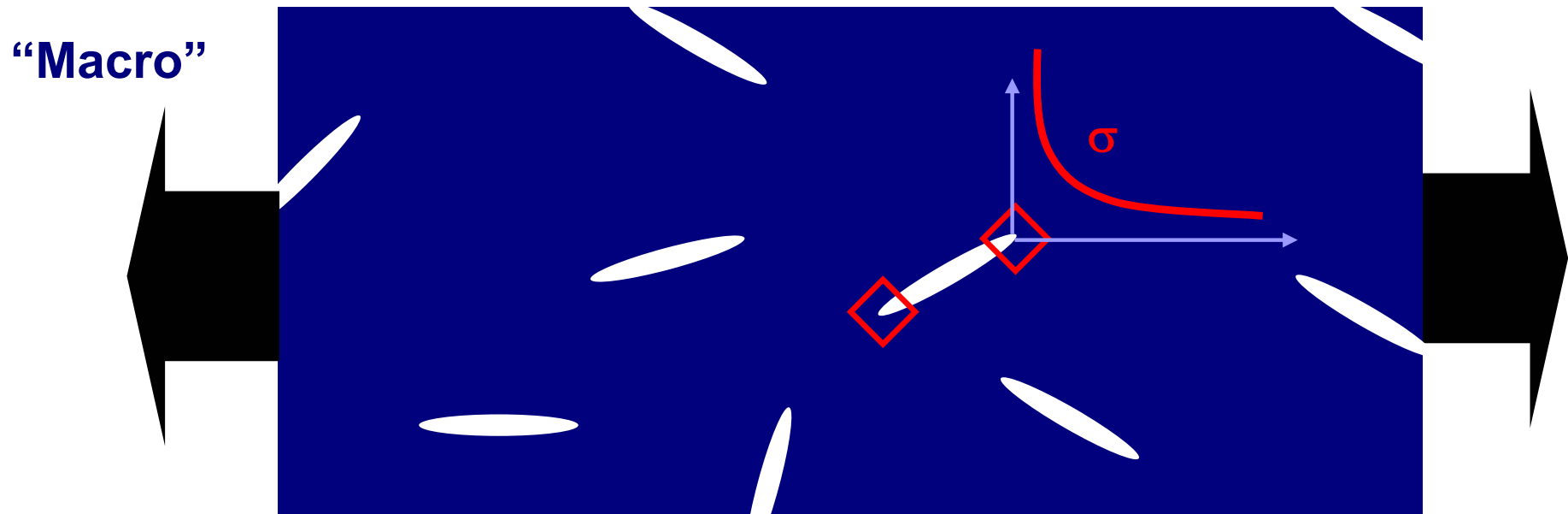
# A simulation with 1,000,000,000 particles



(Abraham, Buehler, Gao, Hartmaier *et al.*)



# Deformation of materials: Flaws or cracks matter

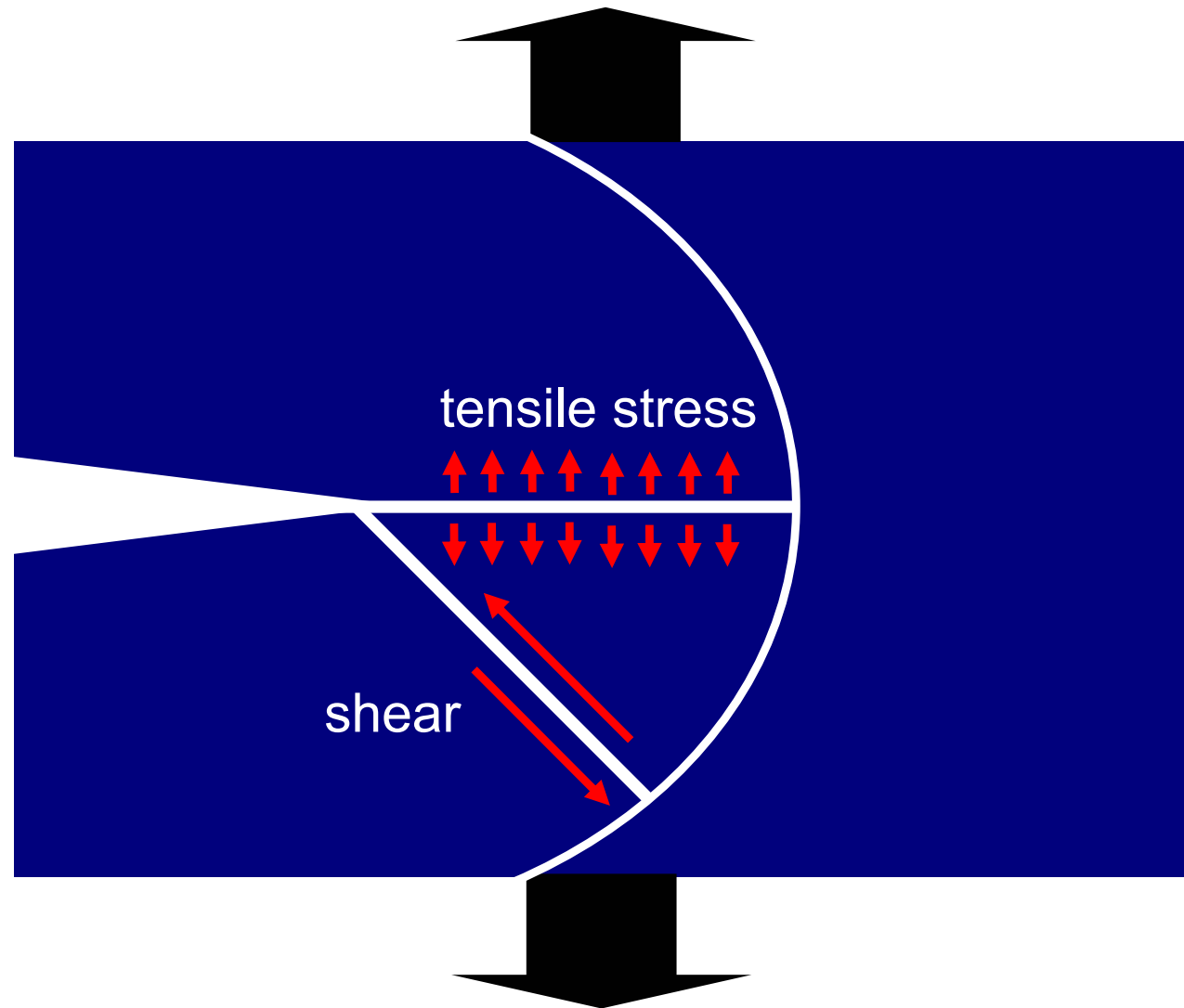


## Failure of materials initiates at cracks

Griffith, Irwine and others: Failure initiates at defects, such as cracks, or grain boundaries with reduced traction, nano-voids



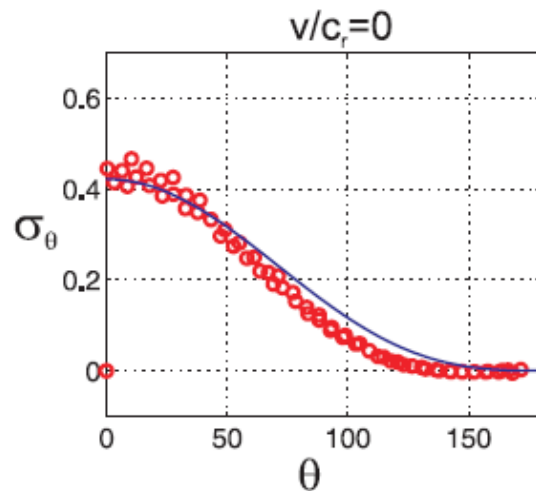
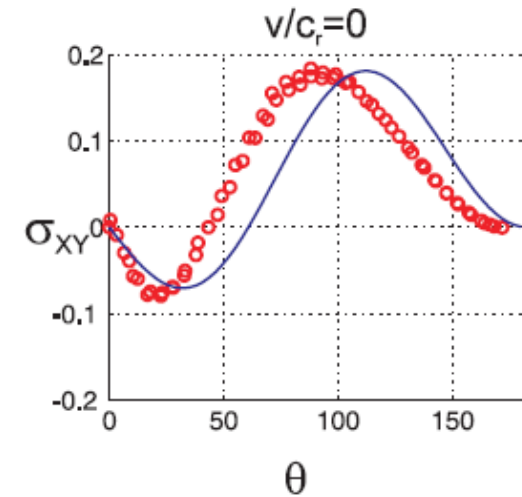
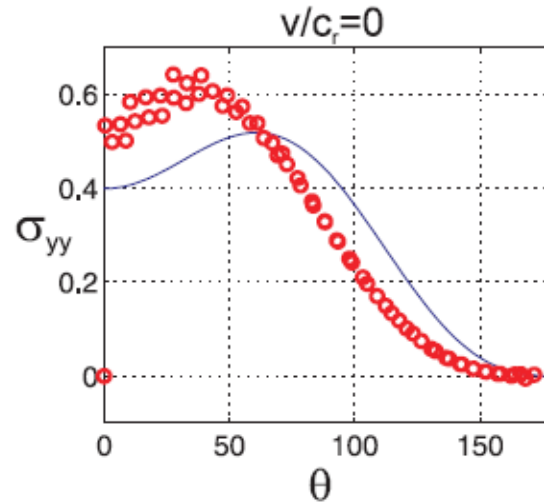
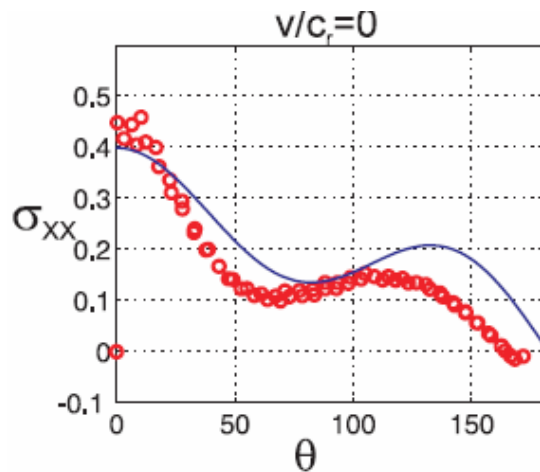
# Schematic of stress field around a single (static) crack



- The stress field around a crack is complex, with regions of dominating tensile stress (crack opening) and shear stress (dislocation nucleation)

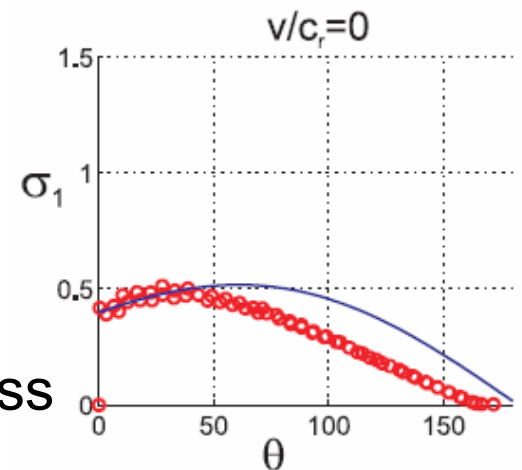


# Stress field around a (static) crack



Hoop or opening stress

Maximum principal stress



— Continuum theory  
○ MD modeling



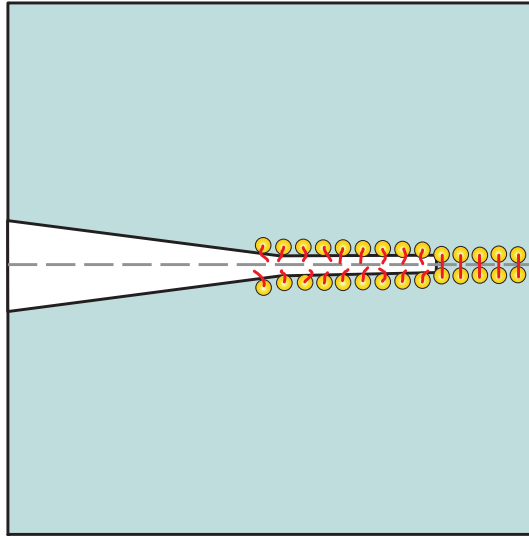


# Ductile versus brittle materials

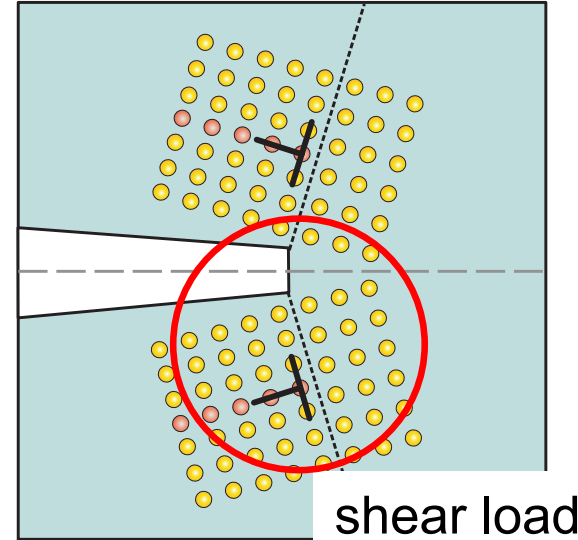


Glass,  
Polymers,  
Ice...

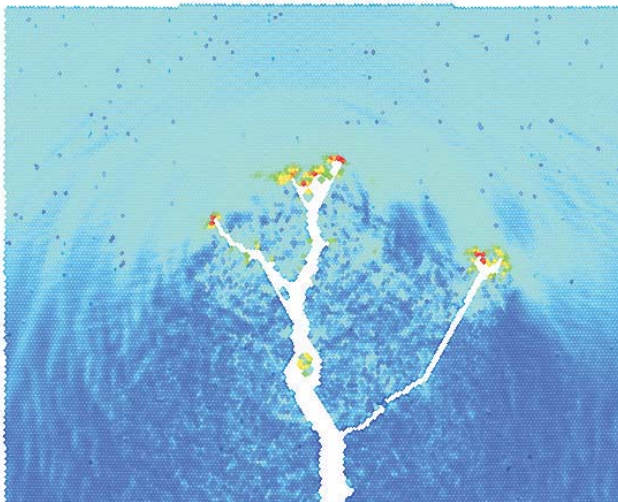
brittle



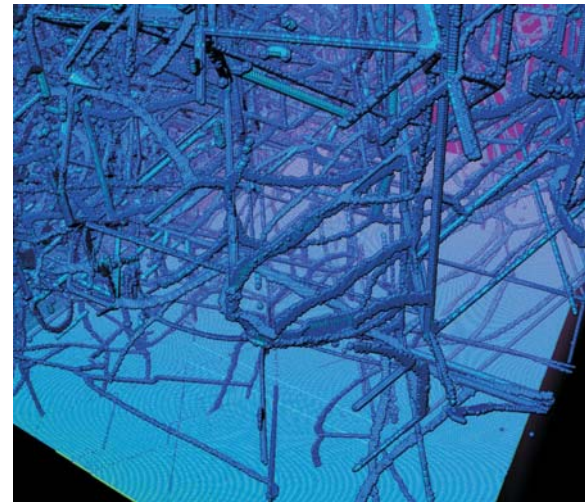
ductile



Copper,  
Gold,  
...



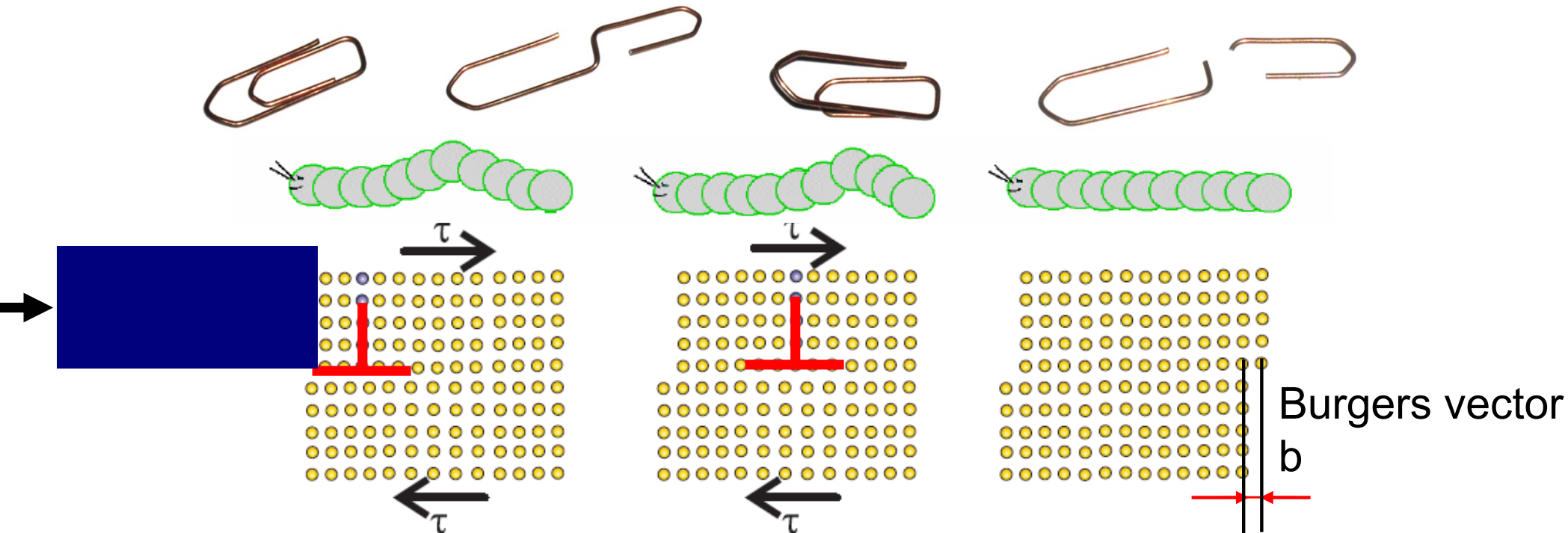
(a)



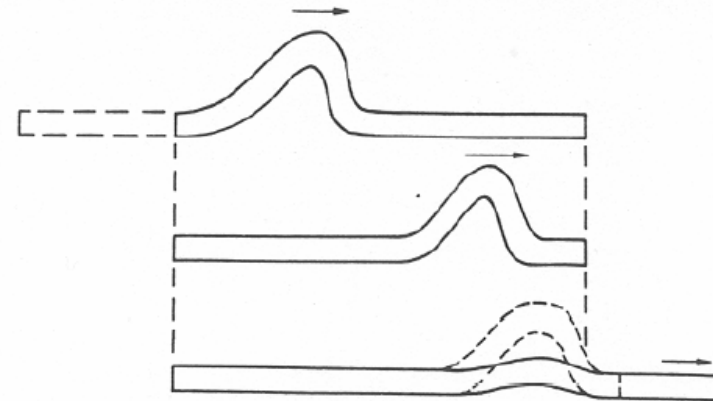
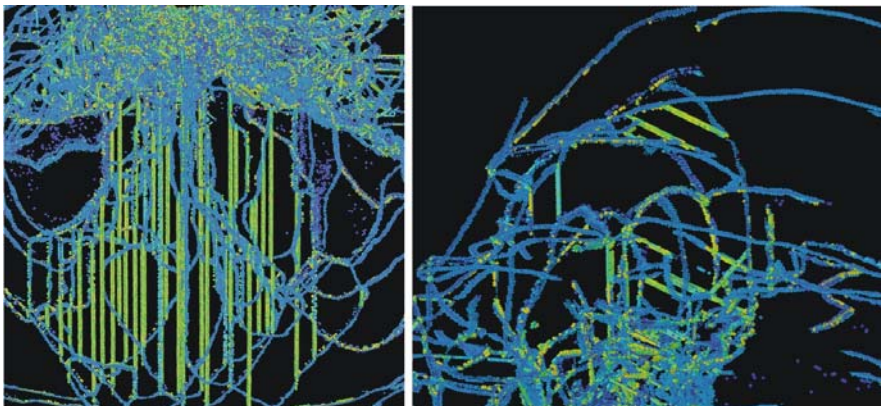
(b)



# Ductile materials are governed by the motion of dislocations: Introduction



Dislocations are the discrete entities that carry plastic (permanent) deformation

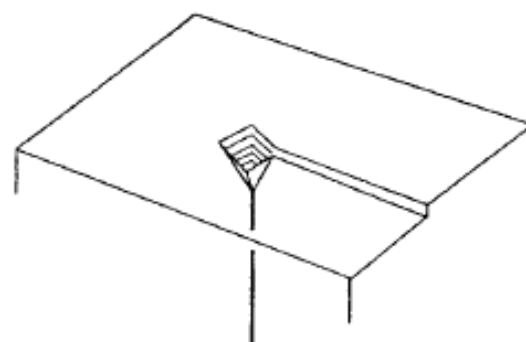
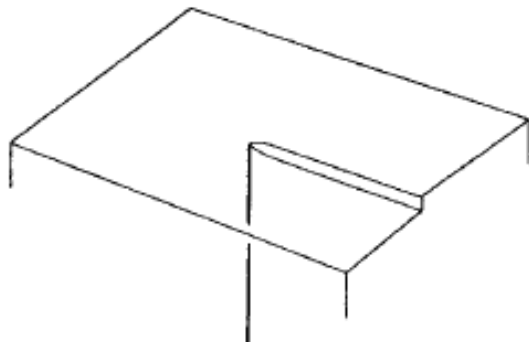




# Dislocations: Introduction



- A dislocation is a linear crystallographic defect, or irregularity, in crystal structure. The presence of dislocations strongly influences many of the properties of real materials. The theory was originally developed by Vito Volterra in 1905.
- Some types of dislocations can be visualized as being caused by the termination of a plane of atoms in the middle of a crystal.
- In such a case, the surrounding planes are not straight, but instead bend around the edge of the terminating plane so that the crystal structure is perfectly ordered on either side.
- The analogy with a stack of paper is apt: if a half a piece of paper is inserted in a stack of paper, the defect in the stack is only noticeable at the edge of the half sheet.



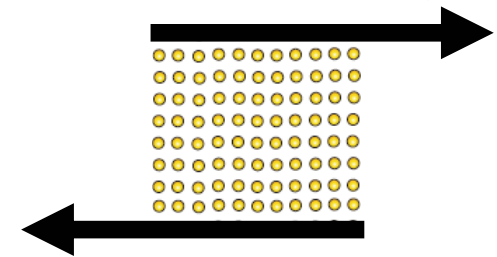


# Theoretical shear strength



- Dislocations play an important role in reducing the critical applied shear stress to plastically deform a material compared to the theoretical shear strength
- Perfect crystal: Deformation needs to be cooperative movement of all atoms; the critical shear stress for this mechanism was calculated by Frenkel (1926):

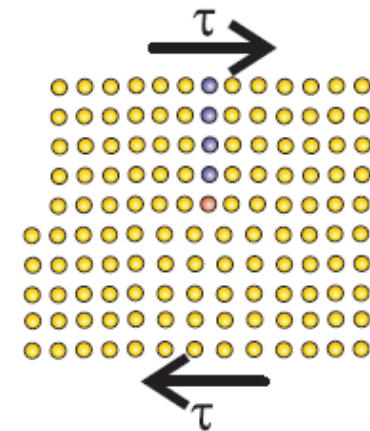
$$\tau_{th} = \frac{b}{a} \frac{G}{2\pi} \approx \frac{G}{30}$$



- Although this is an approximation, the shear strength measured in experiment is much lower:

$$\tau_{exp} = \frac{G}{10,000 \dots 100,000,000}$$

- Difference explained by existence of dislocations by Orowan, Polanyi and Taylor in 1934
- Confirmed by experiments with whiskers (dislocation free crystals)



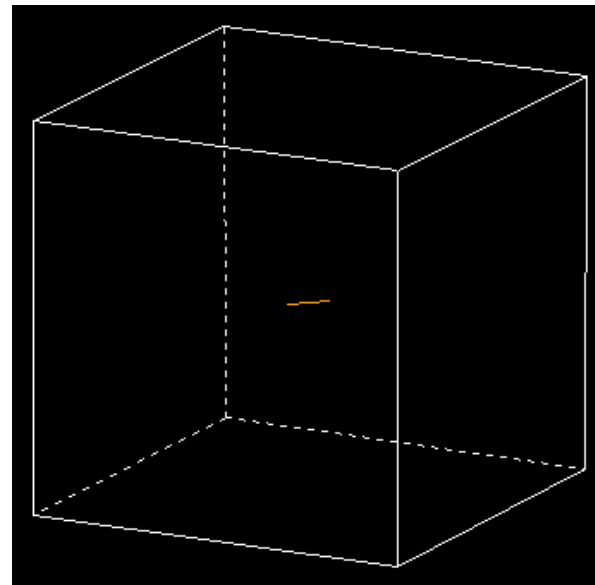
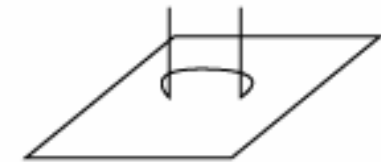
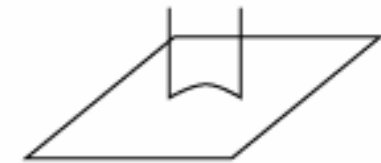
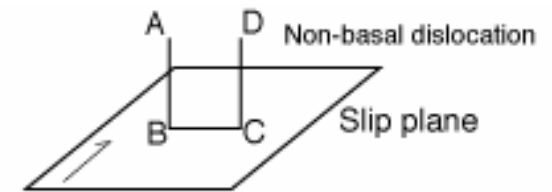




# Sources of dislocations



- Dislocation densities can vary from  $10^5 \text{ cm}^{-2}$  in carefully solidified metal crystals to  $10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-2}$  in heavily deformed metals
- Most metals have dislocations intrinsically present (statistical dislocations), e.g. due to deformation or manufacturing history
- During deformation, dislocations are nucleated from cracks (see earlier slides), grain boundaries, other dislocations, or surface defects/surfaces
- Frank-Read sources

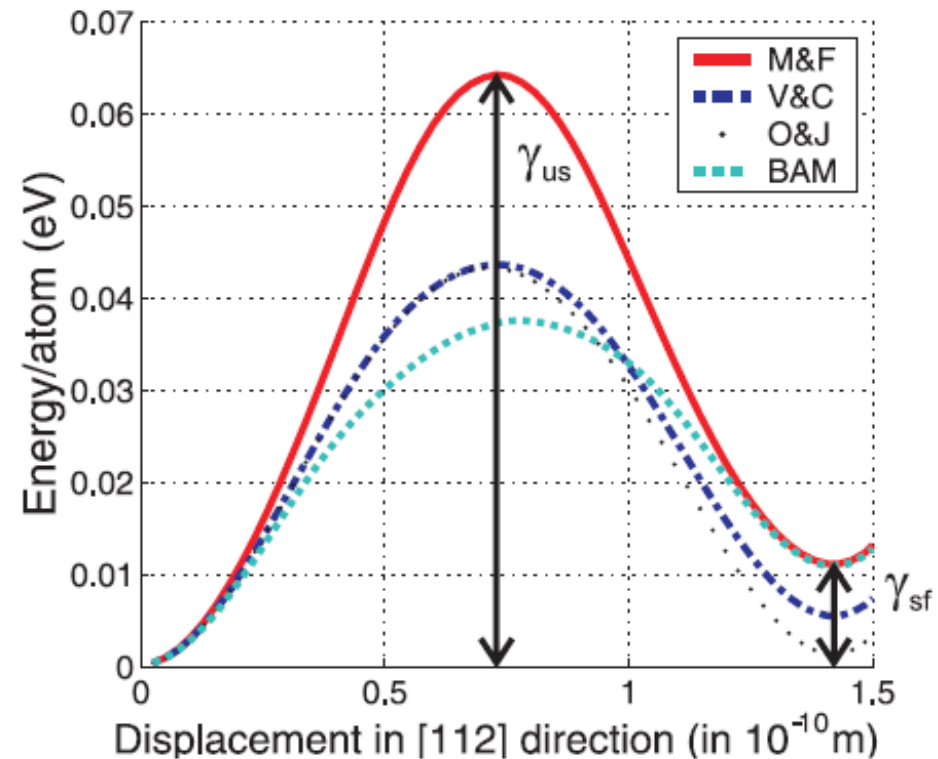
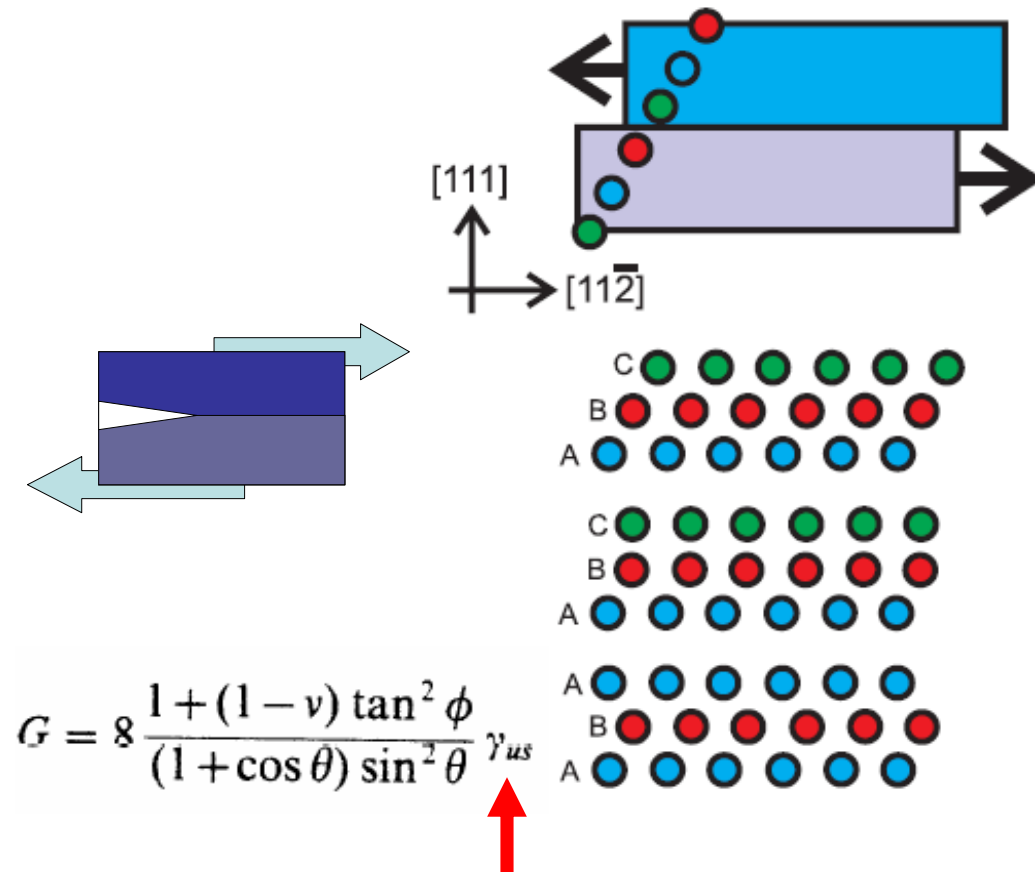




# Stacking fault energy



Difficulty of creating a dislocation ( $\gamma_{us}$ ) and moving a dislocation through the crystal ( $\gamma_{sf}$ )



(Buehler, 2006)

Calculation of stacking fault energy for different interatomic potentials





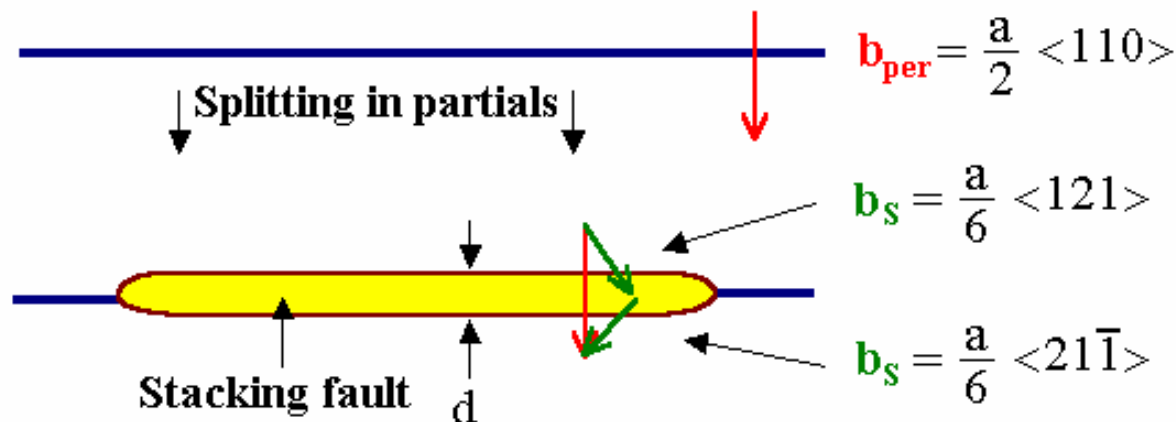
# Partial dislocations



- In FCC, dislocations with Burgers vector  $[110]$  split up into two “partial dislocations” with Burgers vector  $1/6[112]$

$$\begin{array}{lll} \text{Energy of the} & & \\ \text{perfect dislocation} & = G \cdot b^2 = G \cdot (a/2\langle 110 \rangle)^2 & = \frac{G \cdot a^2}{2} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{lll} \text{Energy of the} & & \\ \text{two partial dislocations} & = 2G \cdot (a/6\langle 112 \rangle)^2 = 2G \cdot a^2/36 \cdot (1^2 + 1^2 + 2^2) & = \frac{G \cdot a^2}{3} \end{array}$$



Metals with low SFE and materials under geometric confinement have large stacking faults



# Ductile versus brittle materials



- Ductile failure: Nucleation of dislocations at crack tip ( $\gamma_{us}$ )
- Brittle fracture: Creation of two new surfaces ( $\gamma_s$ )
- Rice and others (1990s) have quantified this transition from brittle to ductile for various materials, by investigating the relative ease of either crack propagation or shear and dislocation nucleation:

Use energy argument

$$G = 8 \frac{1 + (1 - \nu) \tan^2 \phi}{(1 + \cos \theta) \sin^2 \theta} \gamma_{us} \quad \text{“ductile”}$$

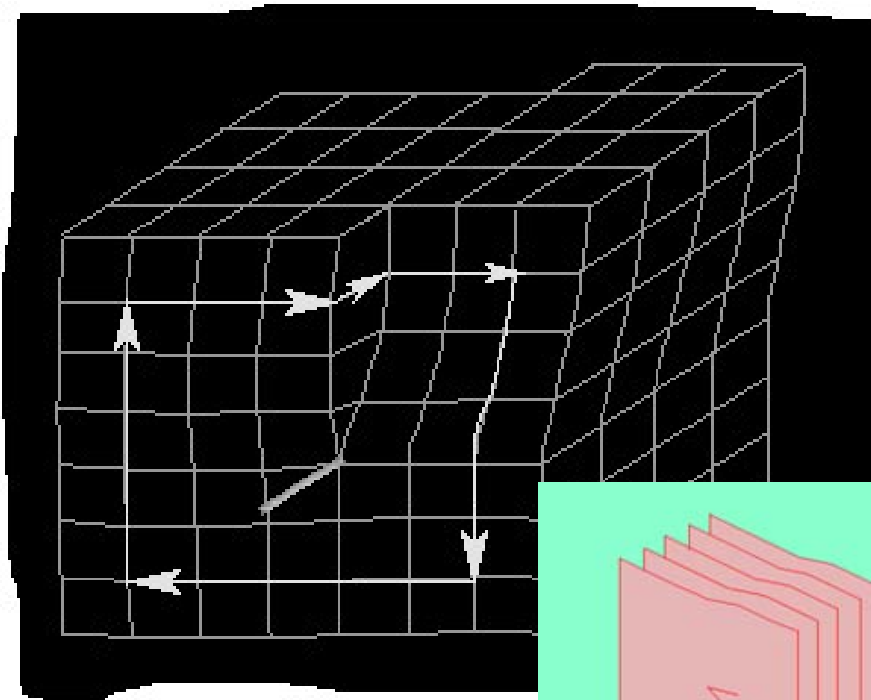
$$G = 2\gamma_s \quad \text{“brittle”}$$

$$\frac{\gamma_s}{\gamma_{us}} > 4 \frac{1 + (1 - \nu) \tan^2 \phi}{(1 + \cos \theta) \sin^2 \theta}$$

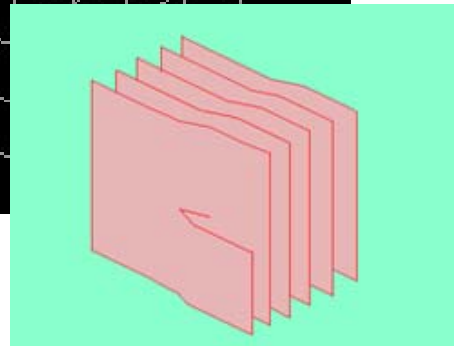
- These early results already suggested the great importance of the atomic interaction in determining the materials behavior.
- This was later verified in many studies, including for cases of brittle fracture



# Edge and screw dislocations



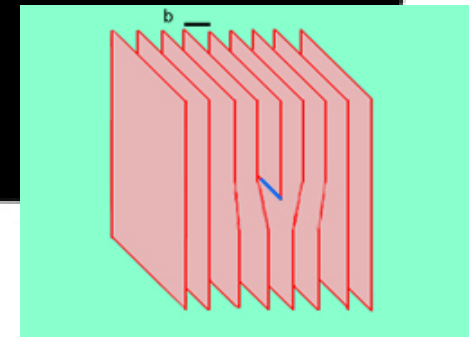
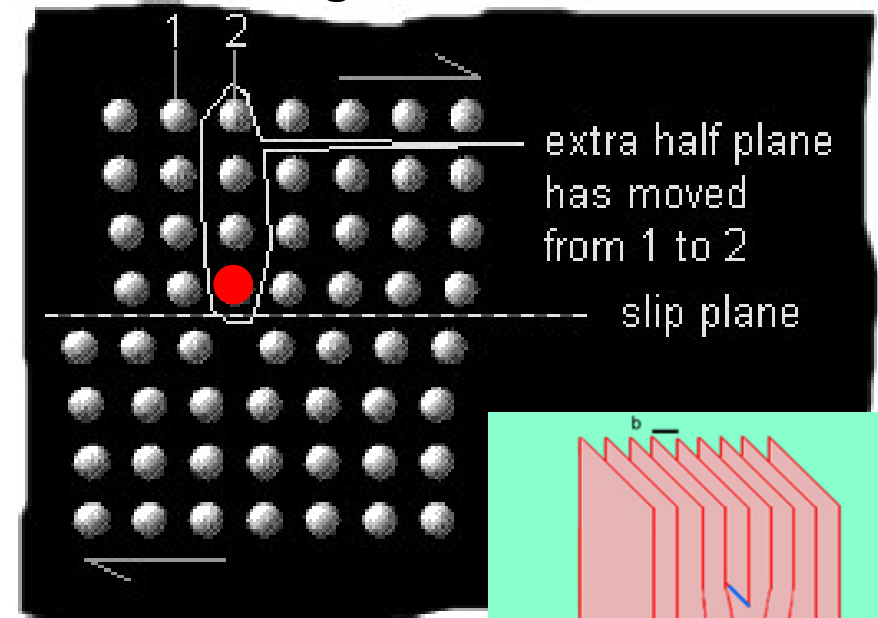
**Screw dislocation**



Dislocation line  $\parallel$  Burgers vector

Screw dislocation

**Edge dislocation**



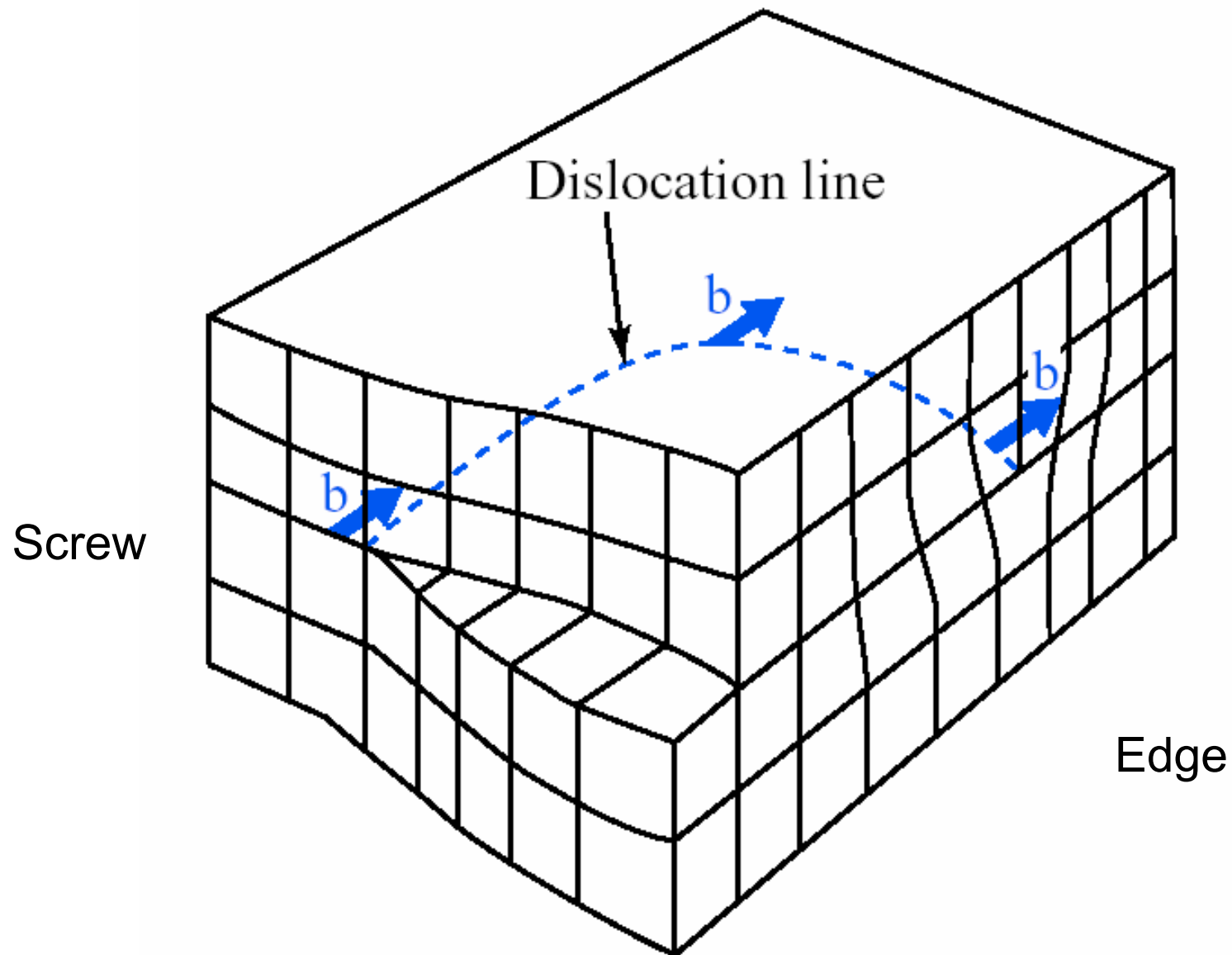
Dislocation line  $\perp$  Burgers vector

Other crystal defects

Grain boundaries, vacancies, interstitials



# Edge and screw dislocations

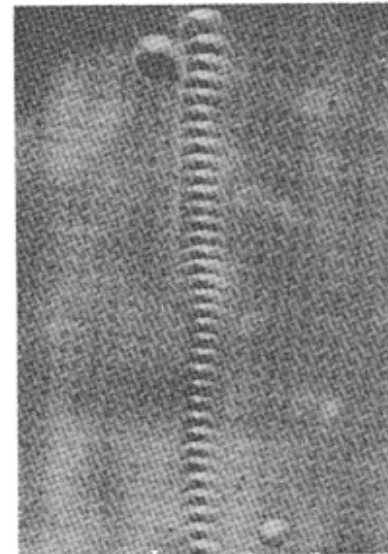




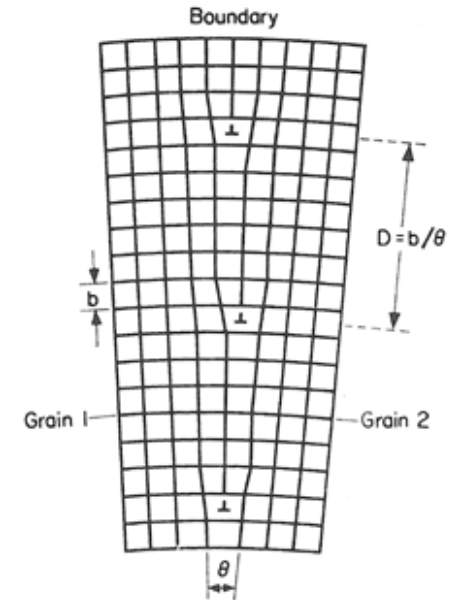
# Experimental observation



Transmission Electron  
Micrograph of  
Dislocations



(a)



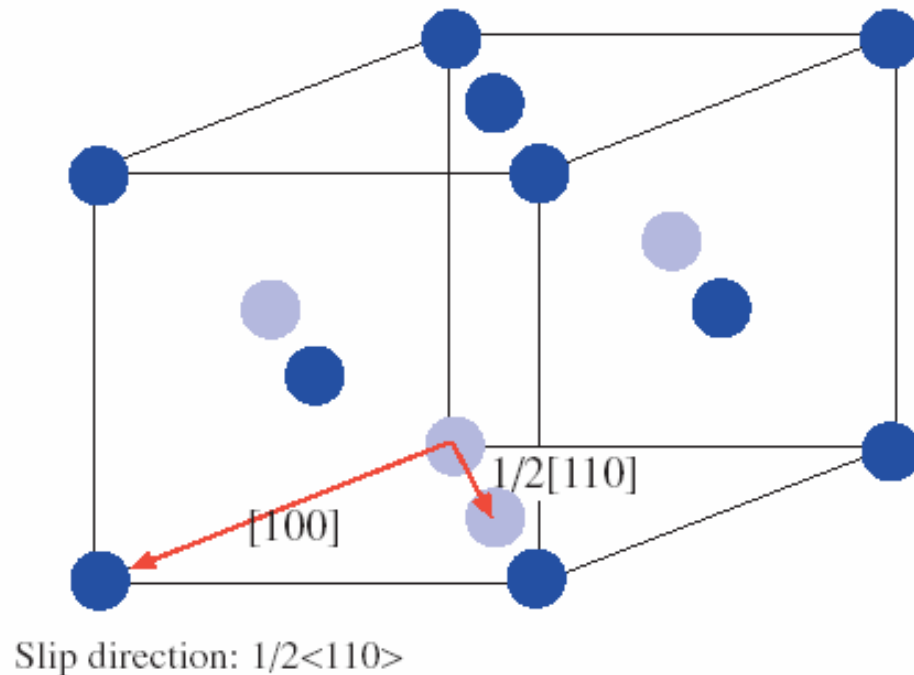
(b)

Grain boundary misfit  
dislocations

- Dieter, G. E. (1988) *Mechanical Metallurgy* ISBN 0071004068  
Honeycombe, R.W.K. (1984) *The Plastic Deformation of Metals* ISBN 0713121815  
Hull, D. & Bacon, D. J. (1984) *Introduction to Dislocations* ISBN 0080287204  
Read, W. T. Jr. (1953) *Dislocations in Crystals* ISBN 1114490660



# Slip direction and plane in FCC



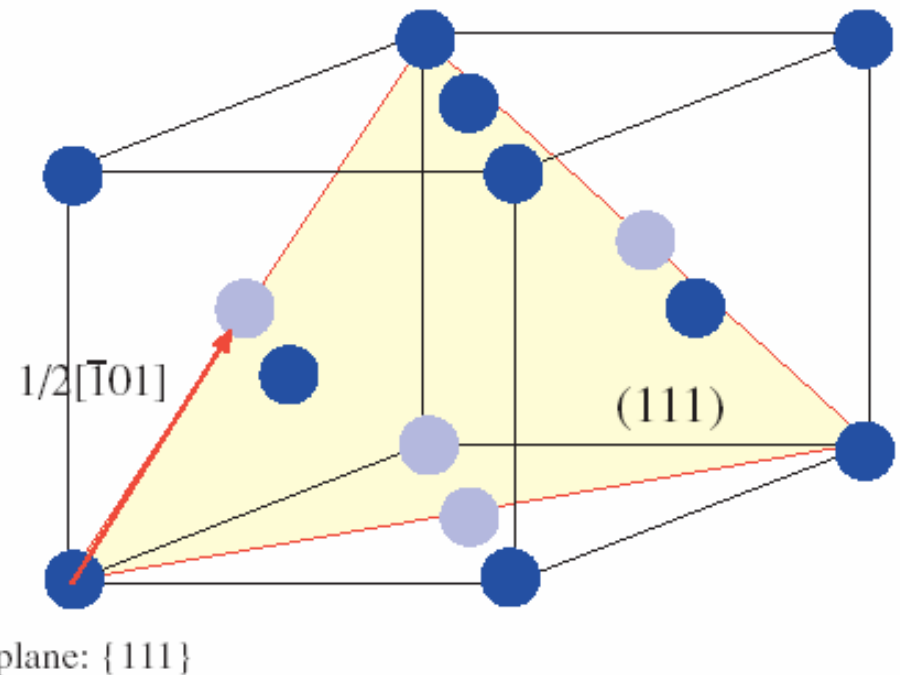
For specific crystals, there are certain directions of Burgers vectors and slip planes that are energetically favored

FCC:

Slip directions are  $\frac{1}{2}\langle 110 \rangle$

Glide planes are  $\{111\}$

**The slip planes and directions are those of highest packing density**







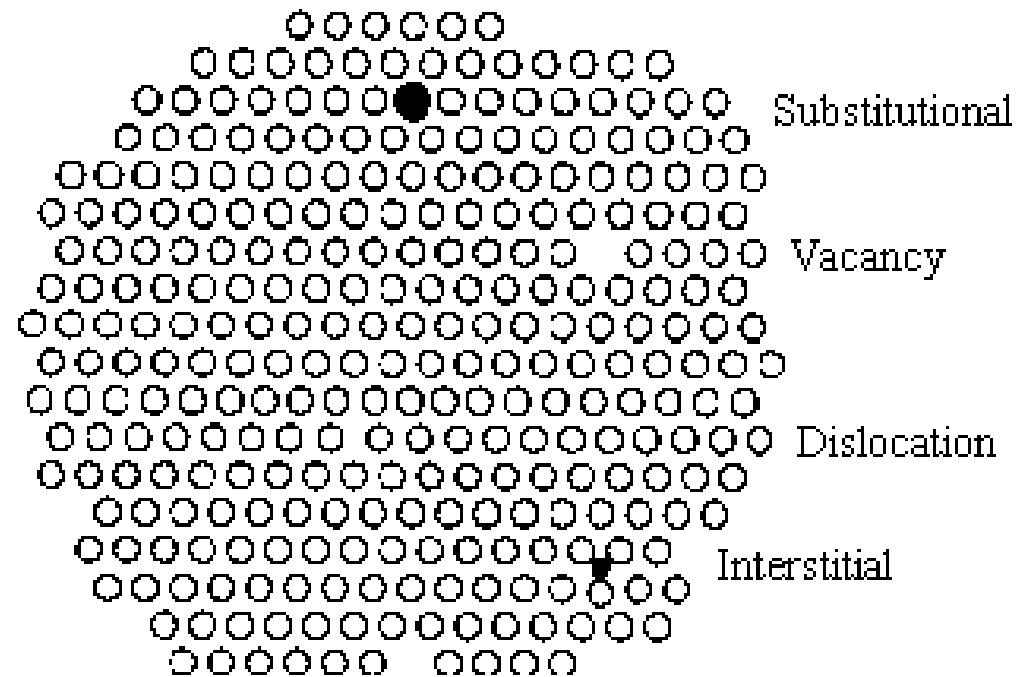
# Other crystallographic defects



- Point defects: Vacancies and interstitials
- Can be produced by plastic deformation

- Vacancy formation energy ca.  
 $E_v \sim 1\text{--}3 \text{ eV/atom}$ , scale with  
melting temperature  $T_m$ :  
 $E_v \sim 8kT_m$

- Impurity either substitutional  
(other atom species on lattice  
site) or interstitial (non-lattice  
site)

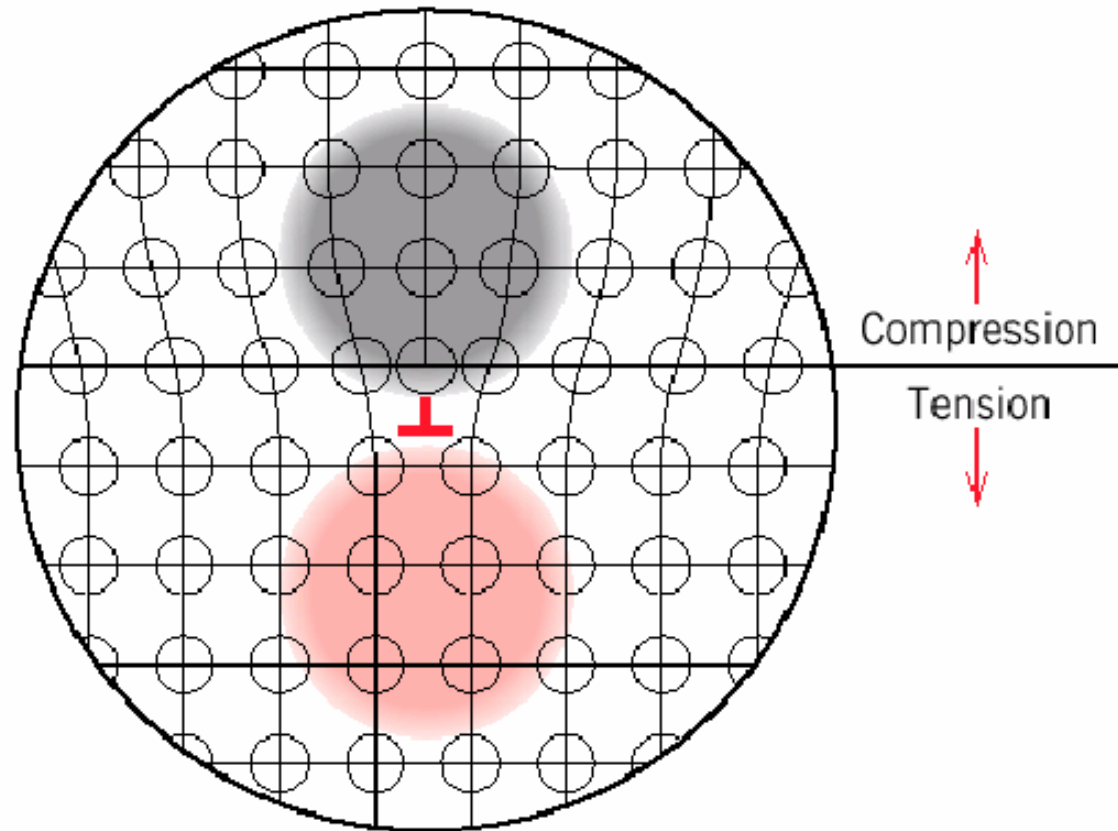




# Dislocations: Stress field around a dislocation



- Each dislocation induces a long-range stress field in the crystal
- Around the dislocation core:

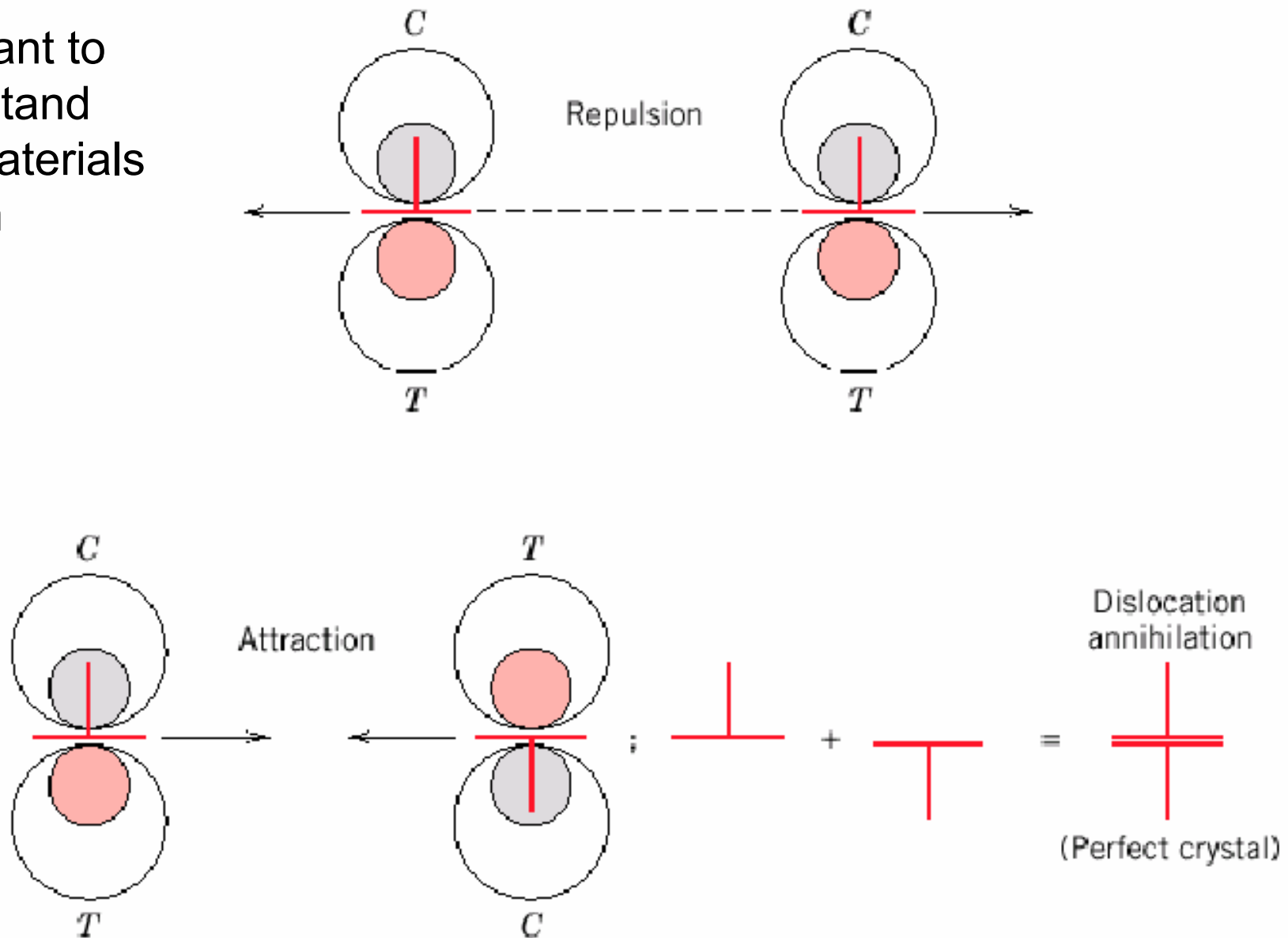




# Dislocations: Interaction

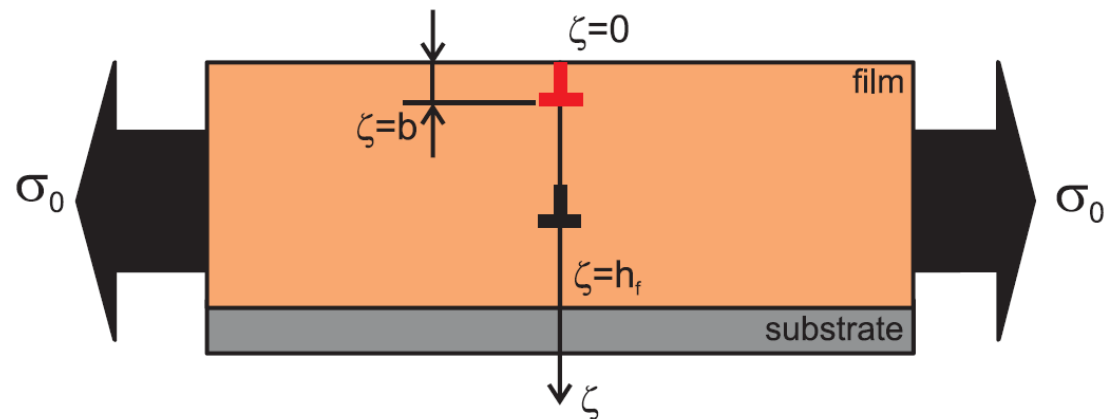
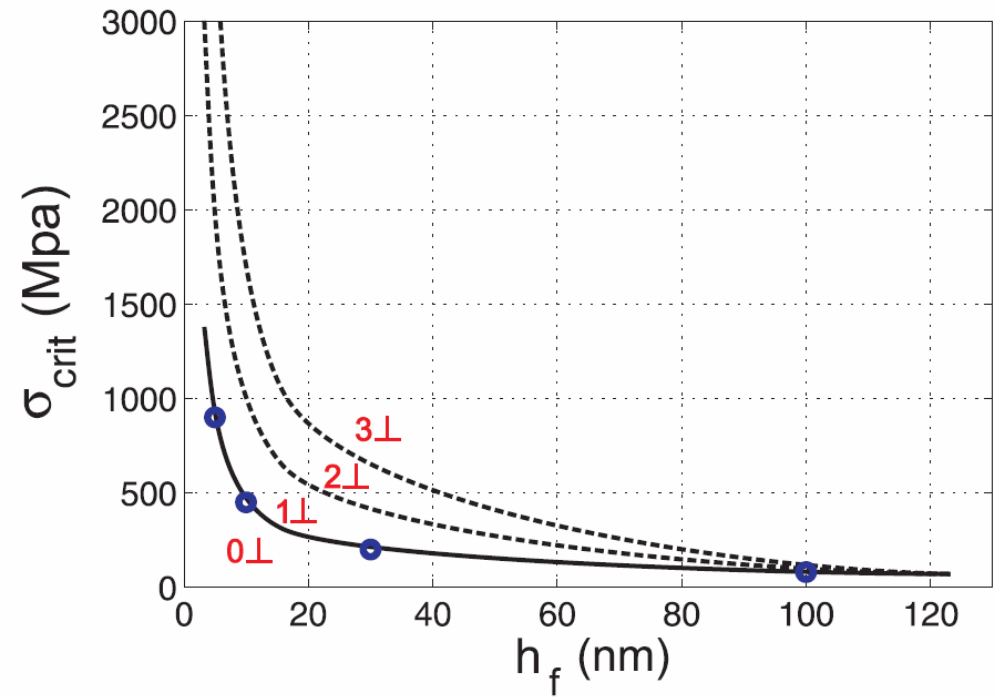
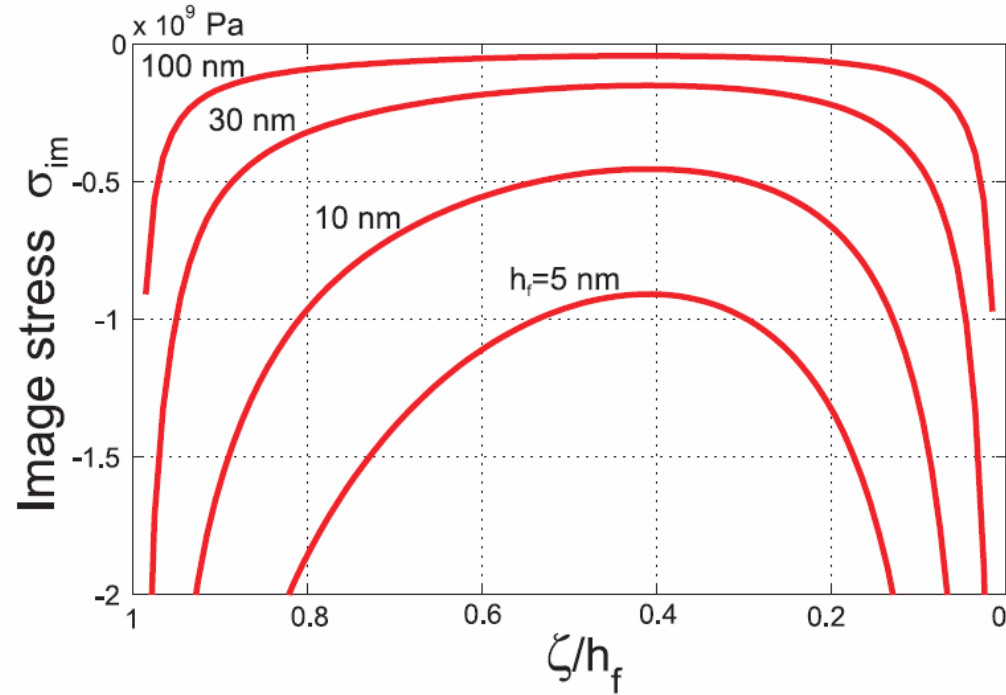


Important to understand how materials deform





# Nano-confinement of dislocations in ultra thin films on substrates

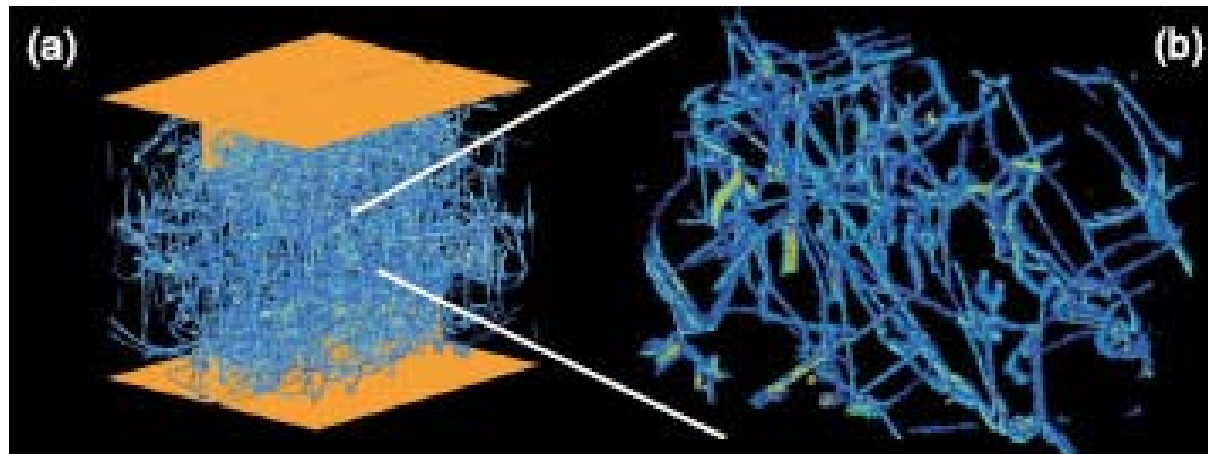




# Summary: The nature of dislocations



- Dislocations are complex line defects with complicated interaction with each other and other defects and the crystal lattice
- They are made up out of atoms, but all atoms are not necessary to describe their behavior unless they undergo reactions; long-range interactions
- Dislocations are critical to understand the behavior of many materials, in particular metals
- Modeling of atomistic dislocations with realistic material dimensions of micrometers and beyond has so far been elusive
- Current research efforts e.g. at SNL/LANL are geared towards developing models that describe deformation of materials based on fundamental principles
- Dislocations also appear in molecular crystals; but their role remains unclear

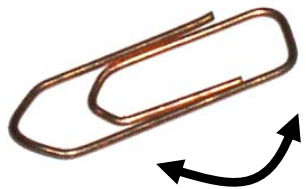




# Analysis of a one-billion atom simulation of work-hardening

- Can computer simulation be used to study work-hardening (“feasibility study”)?
- How can the results of ultra-large scale atomistic computer simulation be analyzed (1,000,000,000 atoms!) – reach cube w/  $\mu\text{m}$  side length
- What are the fundamental, atomistic mechanisms of work-hardening in ductile materials, and how do these mechanisms compare with the classical picture of work-hardening?

„bending a paper clip until it breaks“



1



2



3



4



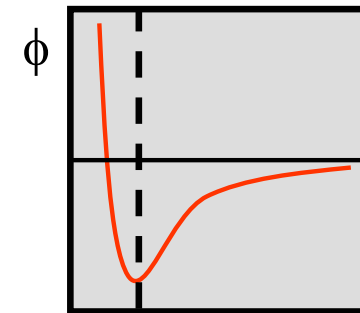
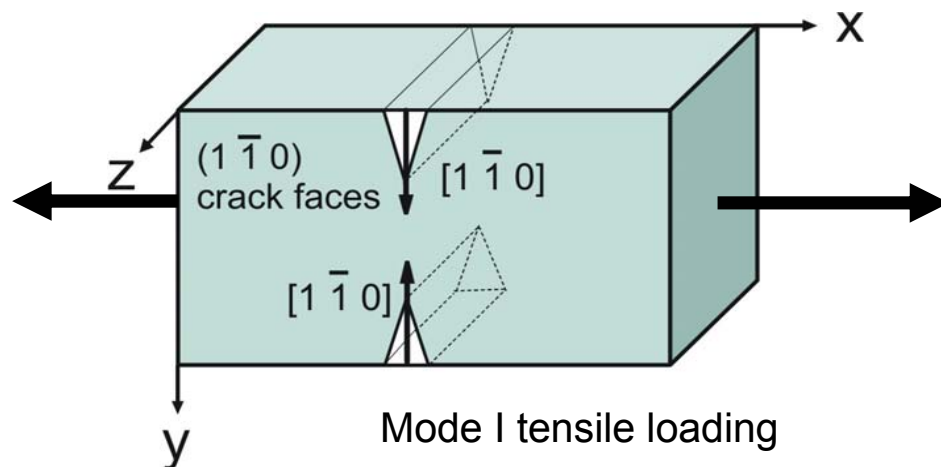


# Analysis of a one-billion atom simulation of work-hardening

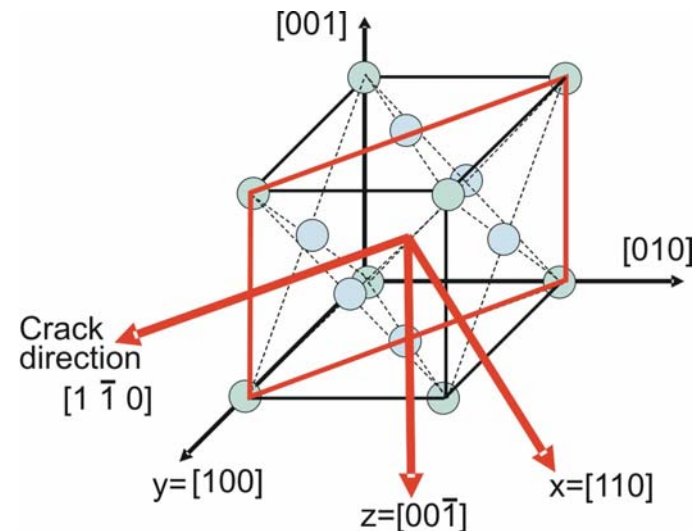


## Simulation details

- 1,000,000,000 atom simulation carried out at ASCI WHITE, LLNL (PNAS, 2002)
- Lennard-Jones ductile “model material”



Generic features of atomic bonding: „repulsion vs. attraction“



The purpose of scientific computing is insight, not numbers.

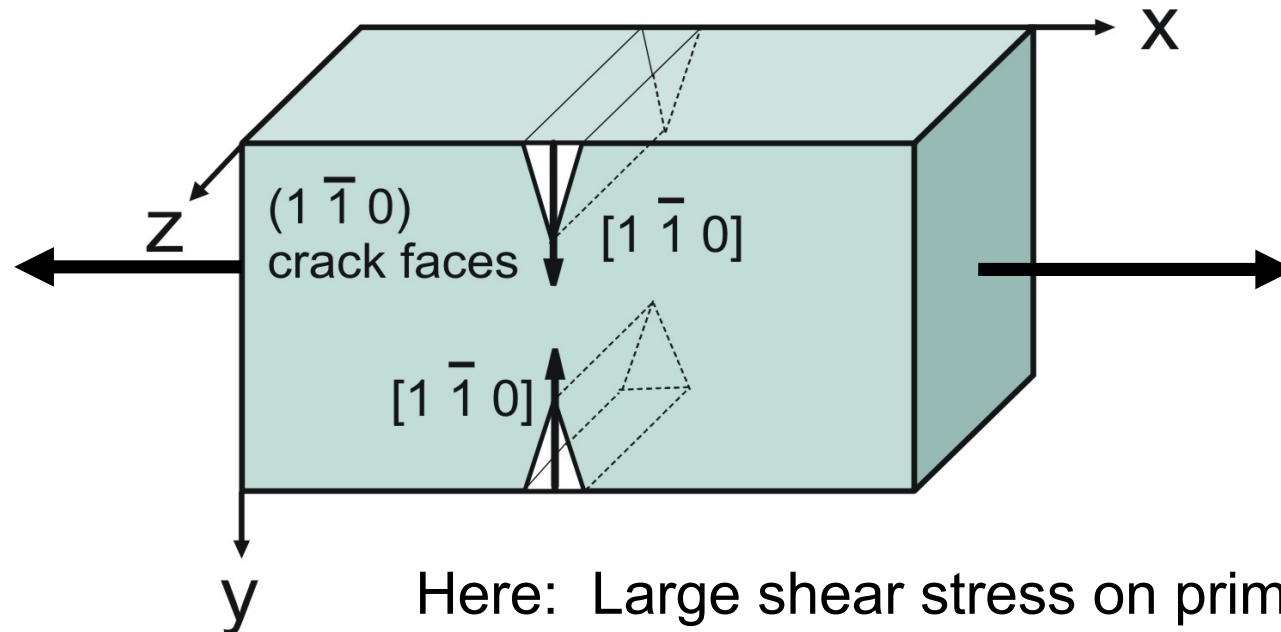
(Richard Hamming)



# Choosing a “smart” model



- Choosing the “right” model is the key
- Overly complex models, e.g. “brute force QM” or ultra-large scale models may not lead to insight
- Overly simple models, “harmonic bonds” may lead to irrelevant results, if not interpreted correctly
- Goal: A balance between accuracy and simplicity to achieve maximized insight into the physical problem



Here: Large shear stress on primary glide planes  
Obtain many dislocations



# Case study: Cracking of a copper crystal...



- Critical load for cracking
- What happens when the load becomes large?
- How to analyze the complex data?
- Limitations of modeling...



# Chemical bonding in metals

## “metallic bonding”

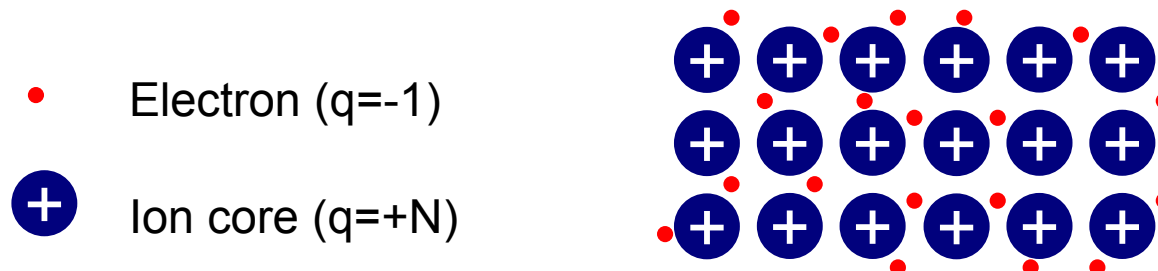


- Bonding between atoms with low electronegativity 1,2 or 3 valence electrons, therefore there are many vacancies in valence shell.
- When electron clouds overlap, electrons can move into electron cloud of adjoining atoms.
- Each atom becomes surrounded by a number of others in a three-dimensional lattice, where valence electrons move freely from one valence shell to another.
- Delocalized valence electrons moving between nuclei generate a binding force to hold the atoms together

positive ions in a sea of electrons

### Consequences:

- Electron gas model
- Mostly non-directional bonding, but the bond strength indeed depends on the environment of an atom, precisely the electron density imposed by other atoms





# Properties of metals



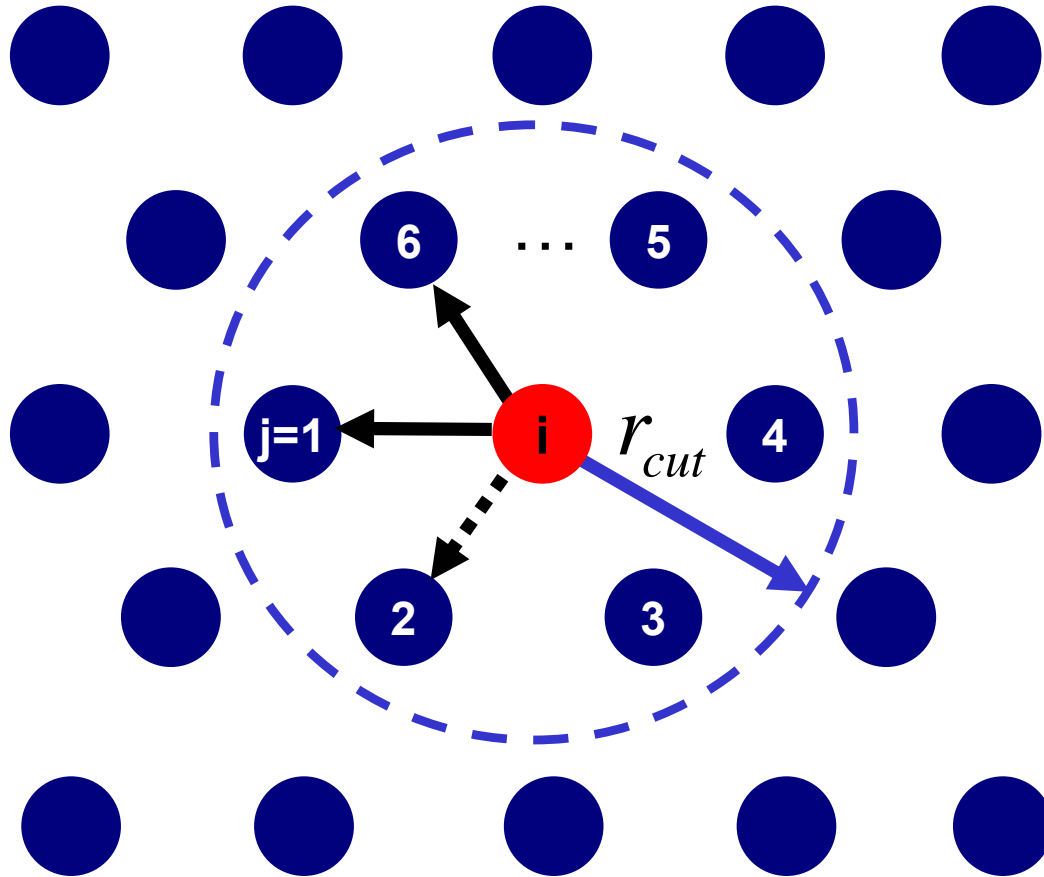
Property	Physical/atomic reason
High density	Tightly packed FCC, BCC, HCP
High melting temperature	Strong forces between ion core and delocalized electrons
Good conductors of heat	Vibration transport via delocalized electrons (+phonons)
Good electrical conductors	Delocalized electrons (flow in and out)
Many metals are ductile	Glide (and climb) of dislocations
Lustrous	Reflection of light by electron gas



# Modeling attempts: Pair potential



- First attempts using pair potentials



Good for noble gas Ar  
(FCC in 3D)

$$\phi_i = \sum_{j=1..N_{neigh}} \varphi(r_{ij})$$

Lennard-Jones 12:6

$$\varphi(r_{ij}) = 4\varepsilon \left[ \left( \frac{\sigma}{r_{ij}} \right)^{12} - \left( \frac{\sigma}{r_{ij}} \right)^6 \right]$$

Morse

$$\varphi(r_{ij}) = D \{ 1 - \exp[-\beta(r_{ij} - r_0)] \}^2$$

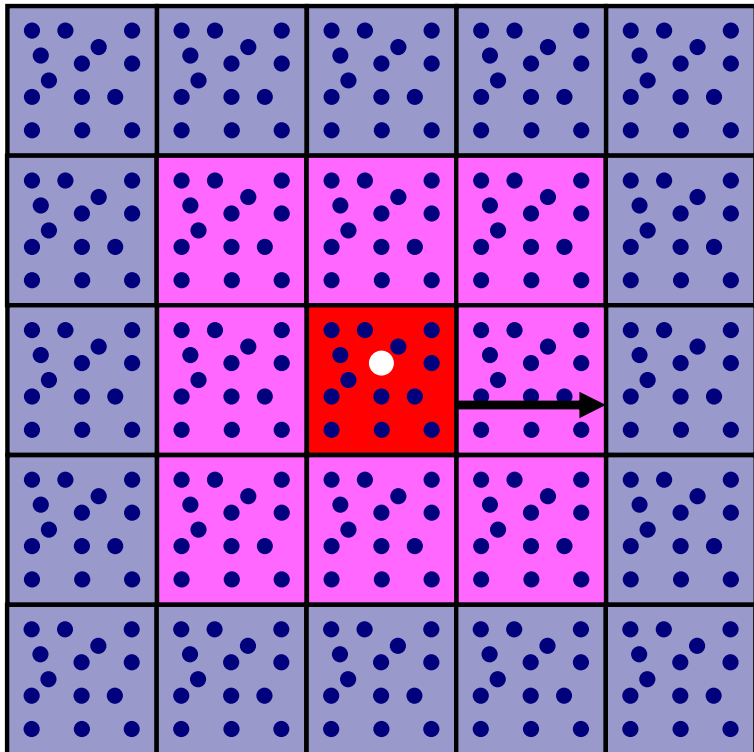




# Numerical implementation of neighbor search: Reduction of $N^2$ problem to $N$ problem



- Need nested loop to search for neighbors of atom  $i$ : Computational disaster
- Concept: Divide into computational cells (“bins”, “containers”, etc.)
- Cell radius  $R > R_{\text{cut}}$  (cutoff)

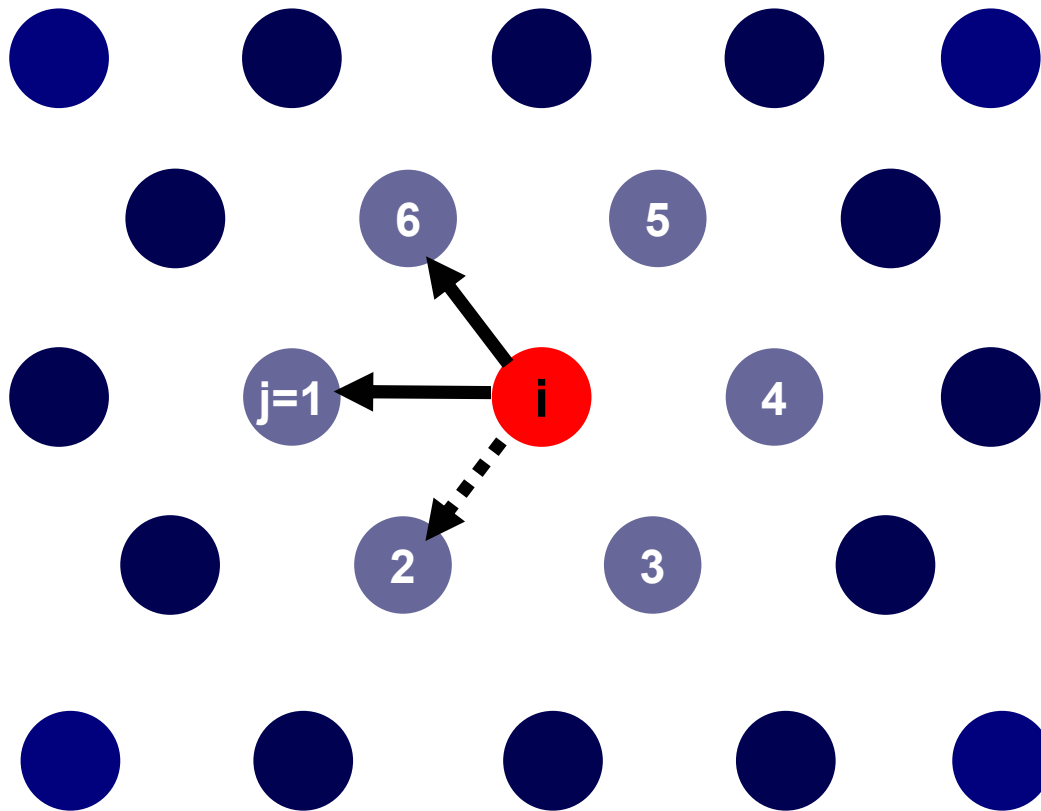


- Search for neighbors within cell atom belongs to and neighboring cells (8+1 in 2D)
- Most classical MD potentials/force fields have finite range interactions
- Other approaches: Neighbor lists
- Bin re-distribution only necessary every 20..30 integration steps (parameter)



# Modeling attempts: Multi-body potential

- Multi-body potential depend on more than pairs of atoms, but instead also on the environment of each atom
- Important for metals due to existence of “electron gas”



$$\phi_i = \underbrace{\sum_{j=1..N_{neigh}} \frac{1}{2} \varphi(r_{ij})}_{\text{Pair potential energy}} + \underbrace{F(\rho_i)}_{\substack{\text{Embedding} \\ \text{energy} \\ \text{as a function of} \\ \text{electron density}}}$$

new

$\rho_i$  Electron density at atom  $i$  based on a pair potential:

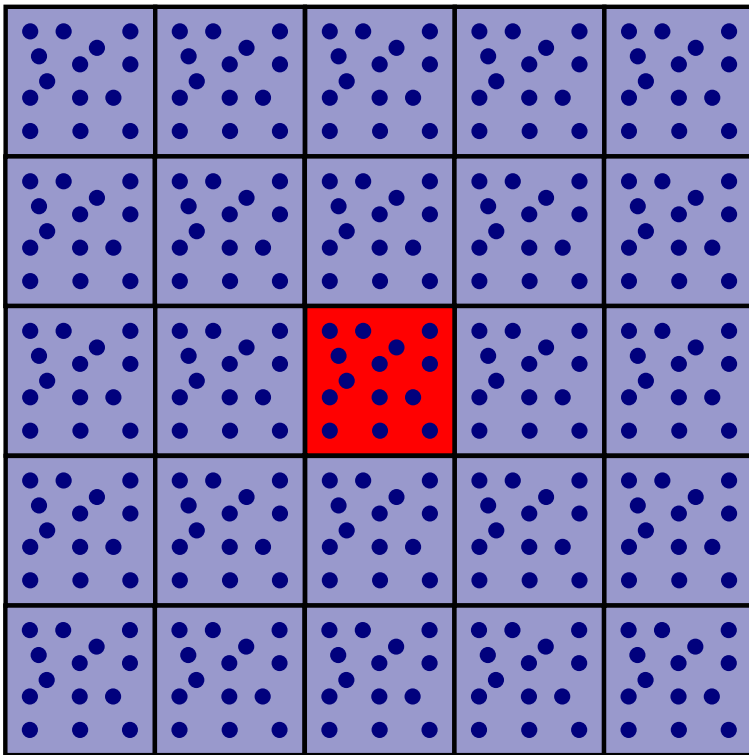
$$\rho_i = \sum_{j=1..N_{neigh}} \pi(r_{ij})$$



# Numerical implementation of multi-body EAM potential



- Requires two loops over atoms within each cell



Loop 1:

(i) Pair contributions (derivatives and potential)

(ii) Calculate electron density

Loop 2:

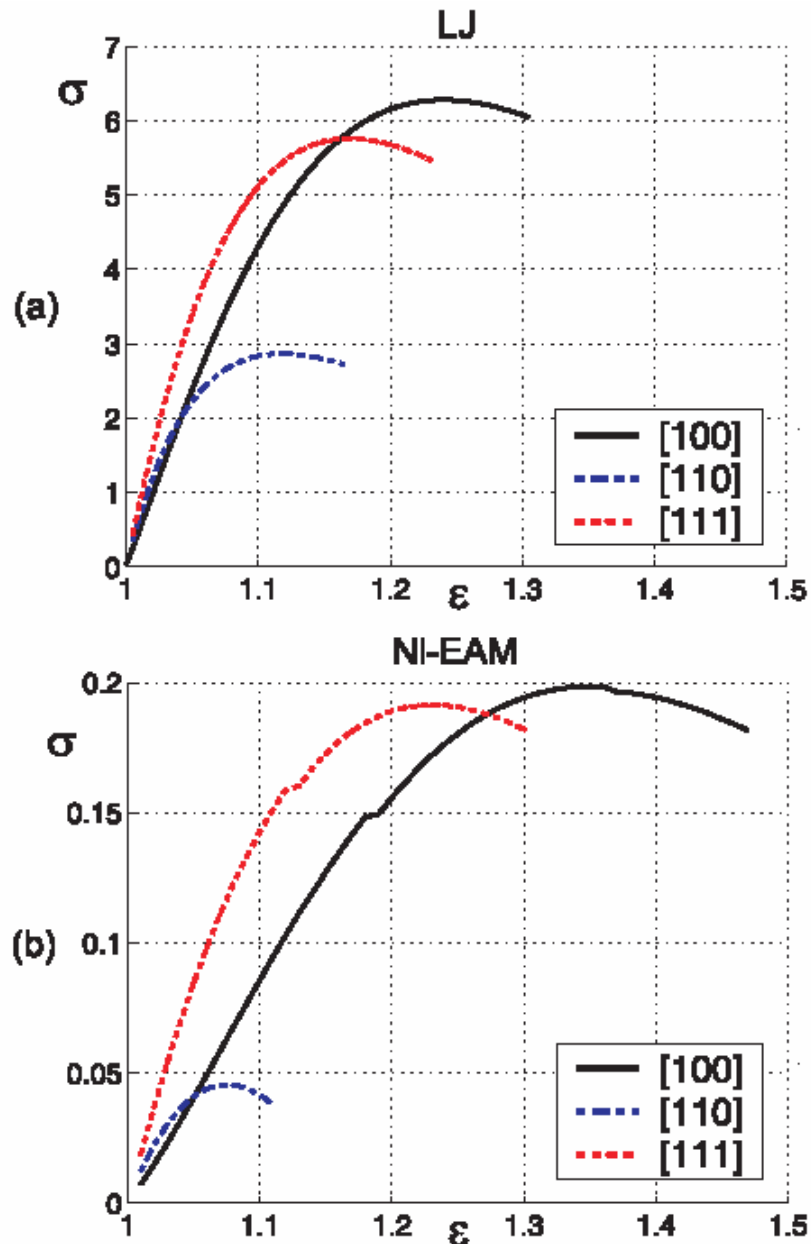
(iii) Calculate embedding function and derivatives

$$\mathbf{F}_i = - \sum_{j \neq i} \left( \phi'(r_{ij}) + [U'(n_i) + U'(n_j)] \rho'(r_{ij}) \right) \frac{\mathbf{r}_{ij}}{r_{ij}}$$

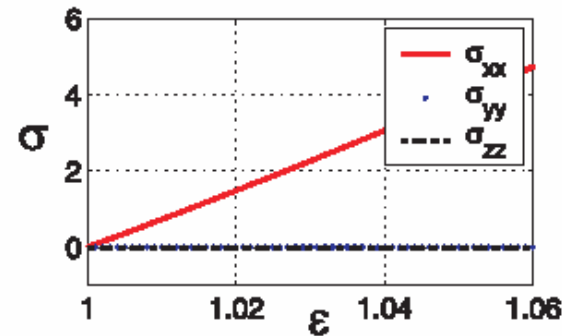
Due to additional (i) calculation of electron density and (ii) embedding contribution EAM potentials are 2-3 times slower than pure pair potentials



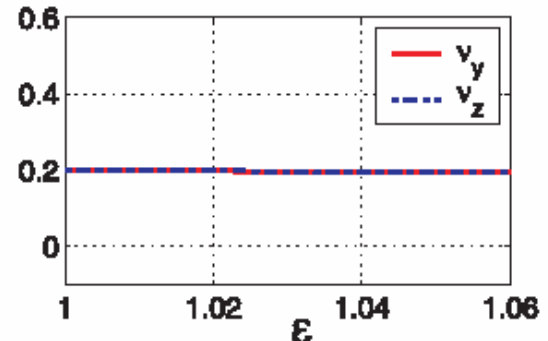
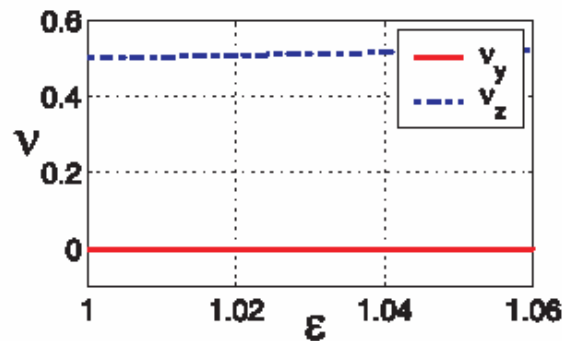
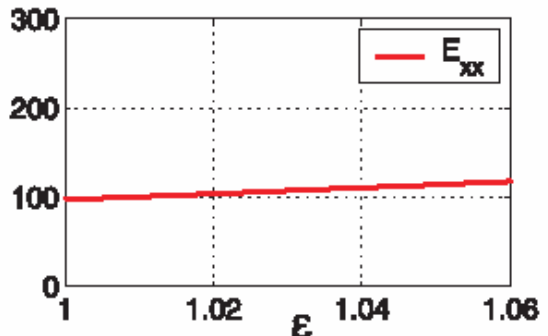
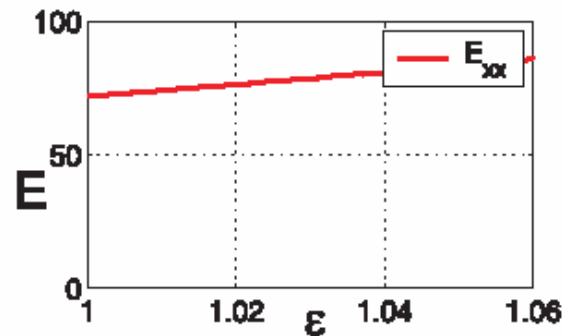
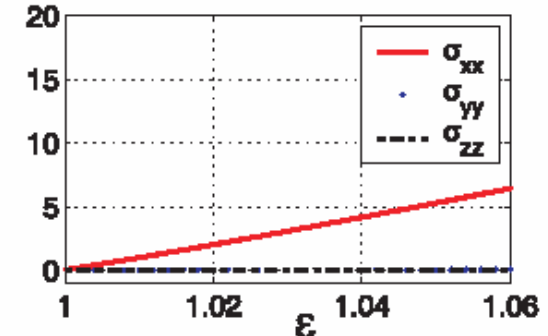
# Large-strain elasticity: No dislocations



uniaxial loading in [110] direction  
with Poisson relaxation



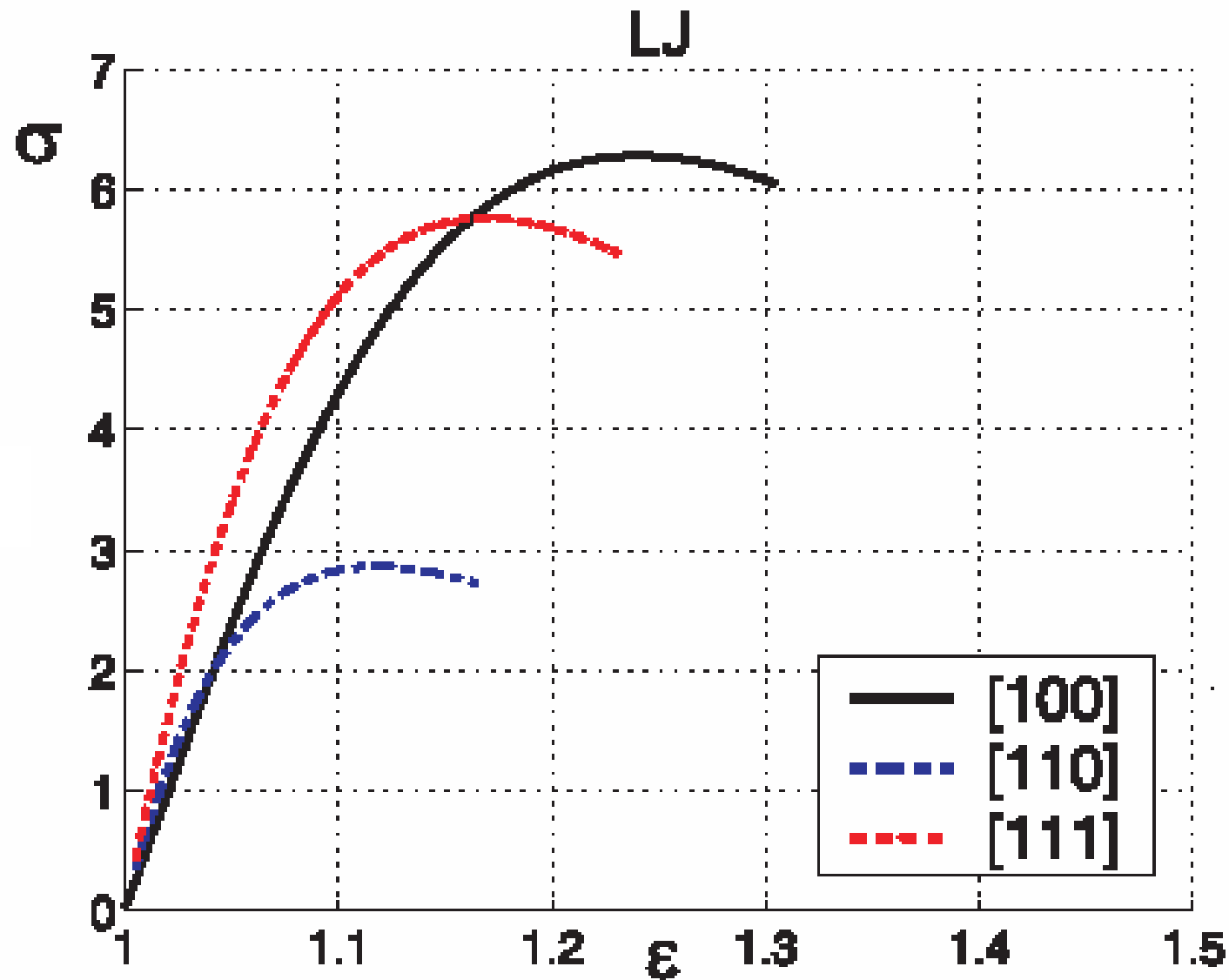
uniaxial loading in [111] direction  
with Poisson relaxation



Harmonic potential

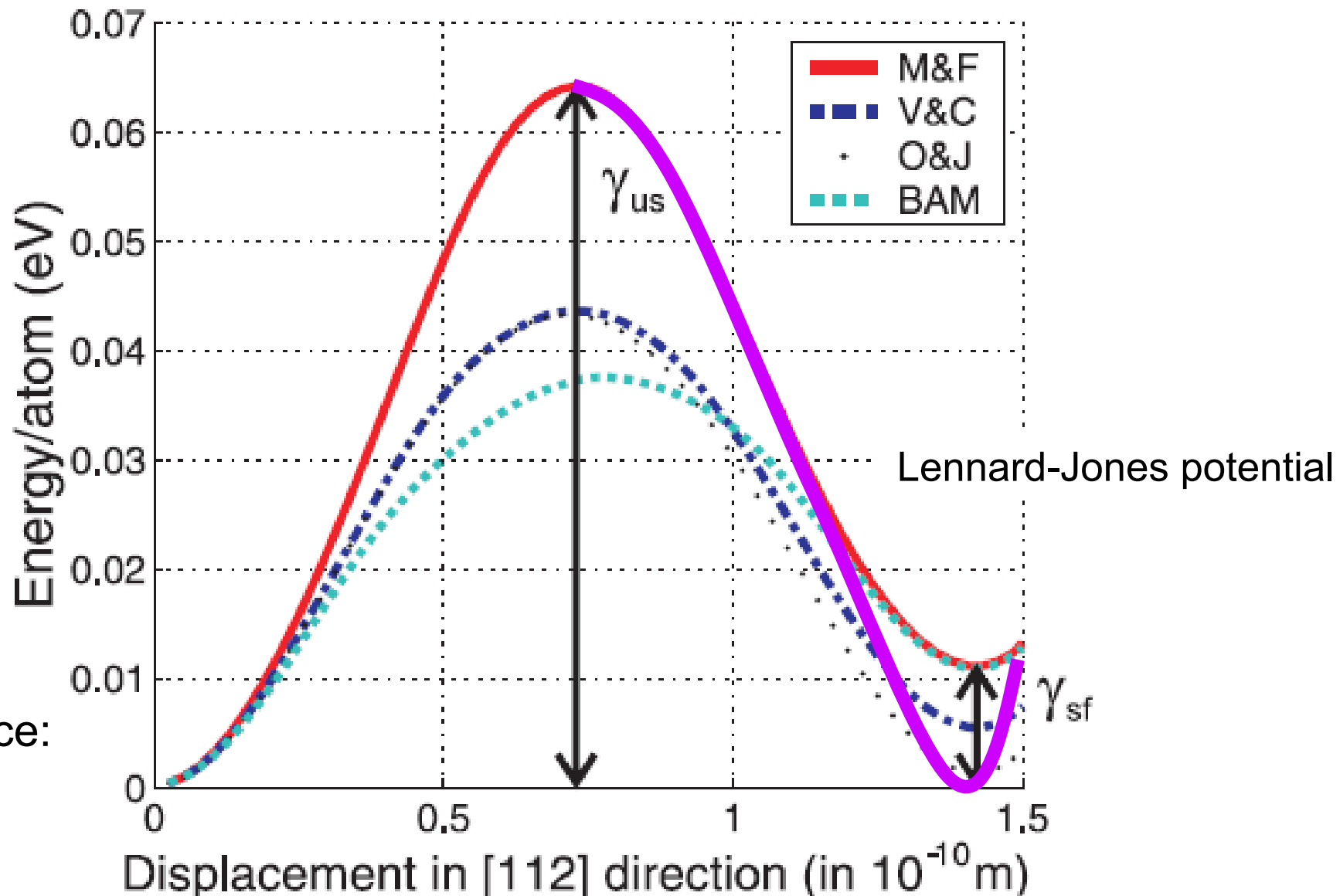


# Elasticity associated with the LJ potential





# Stacking fault energy: LJ potential vs. EAM potential



Consequence:

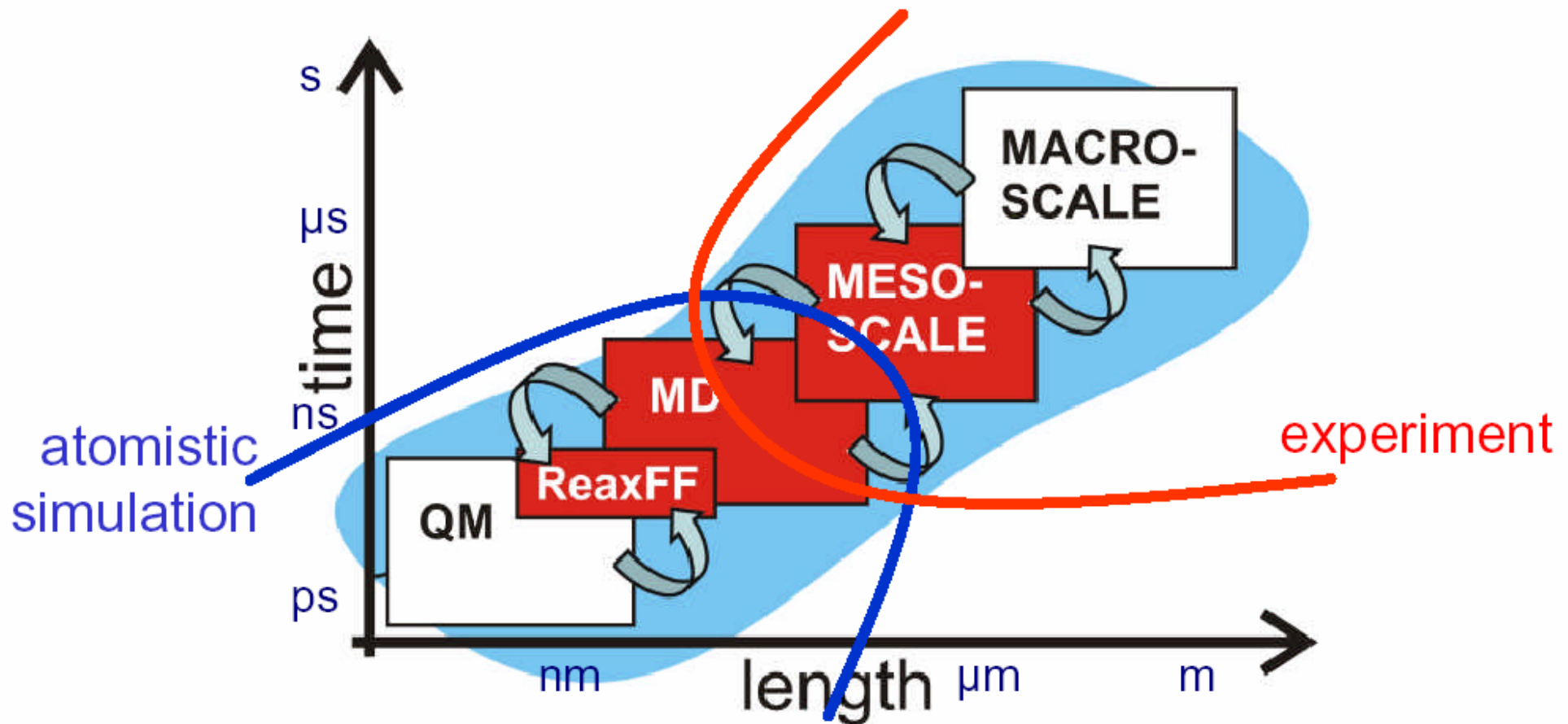
Only partial  
dislocations  
expected

(schematic)





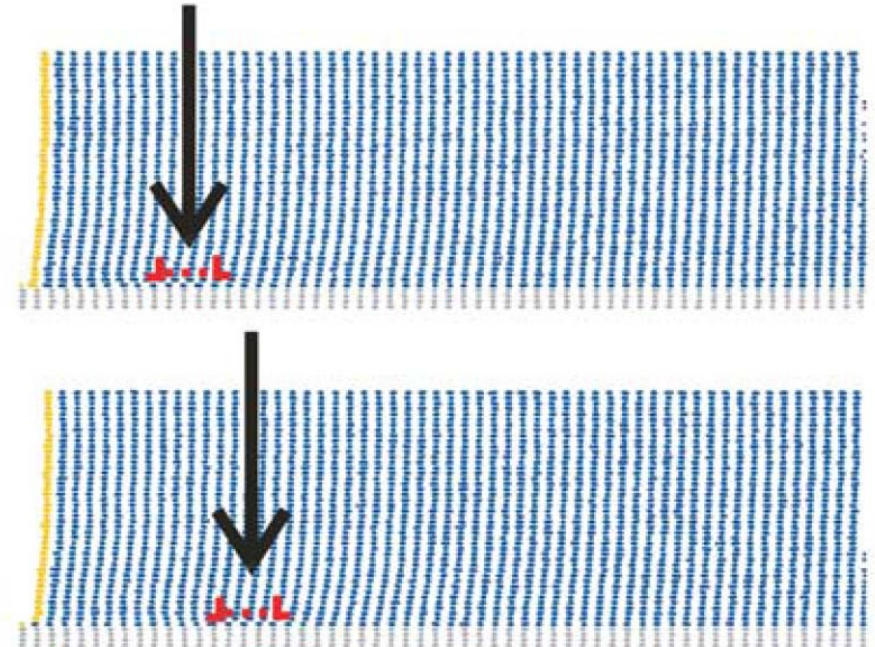
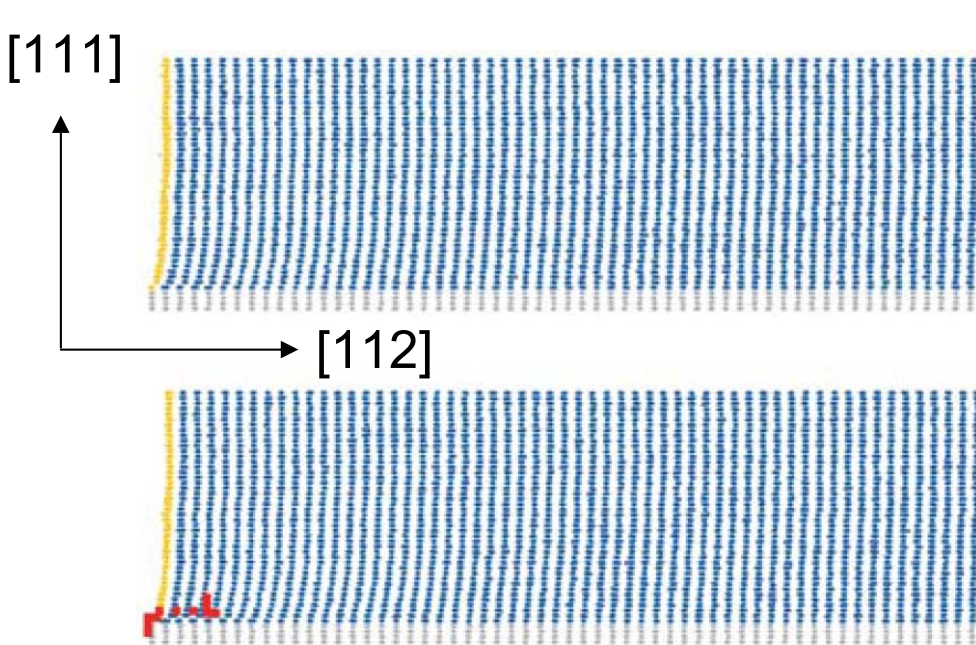
# Approach: Overall multi-scale modeling scheme



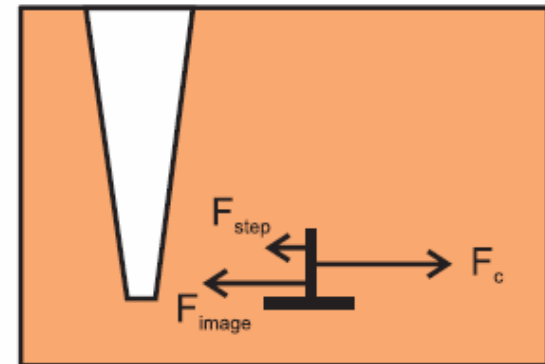
- QM trains ReaxFF, which is used in a hybrid scheme with MD to obtain parameters for mesoscale simulations
- Mesoscale simulations relate to macroscopic scales
- Focus on three methods: **ReaxFF, MD, and mesoscale methods**



# Atomistic details of dislocation nucleation

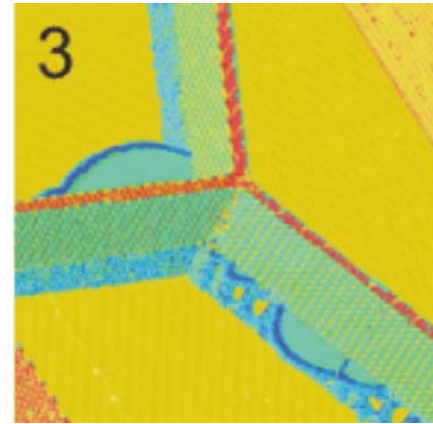
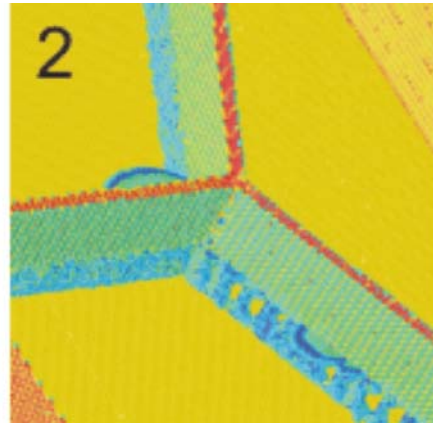
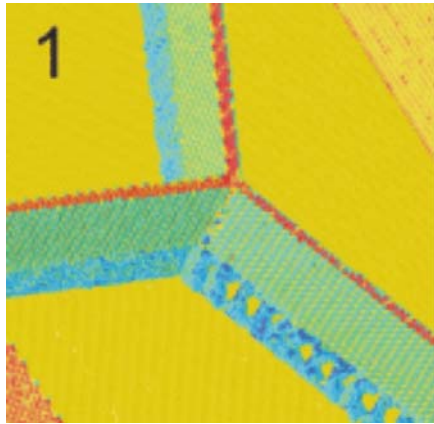


- Dislocation nucleation from a traction-free grain boundary in an ultra thin copper film
- Atomistic results depict mechanism of nucleation of partial dislocation

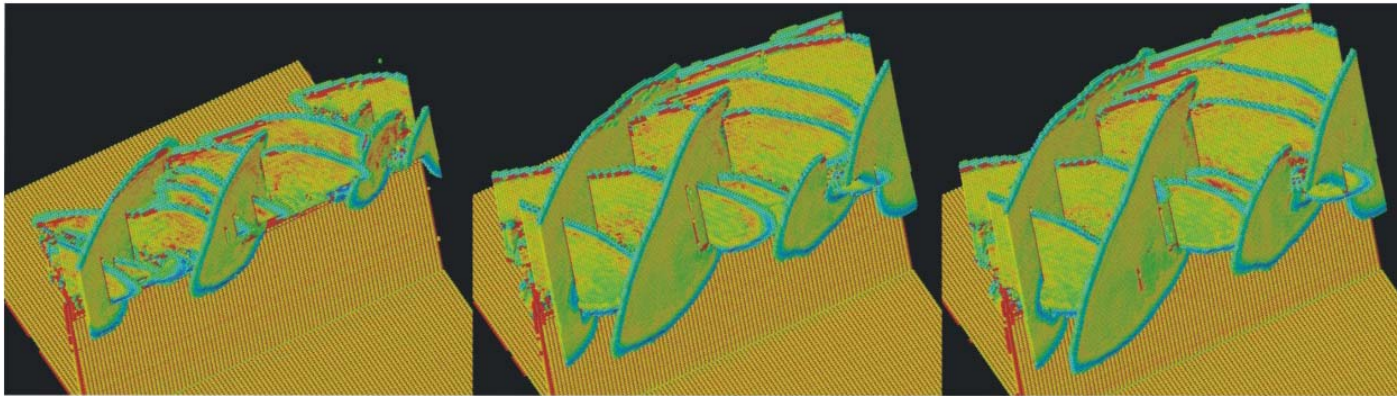




## ... more dislocations



Dislocation nucleation at grain triple junction

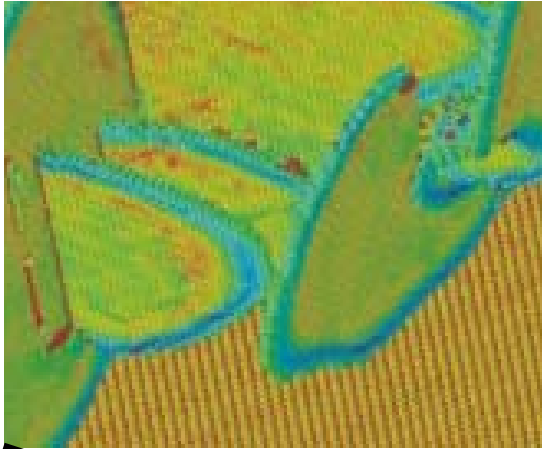


Single crack

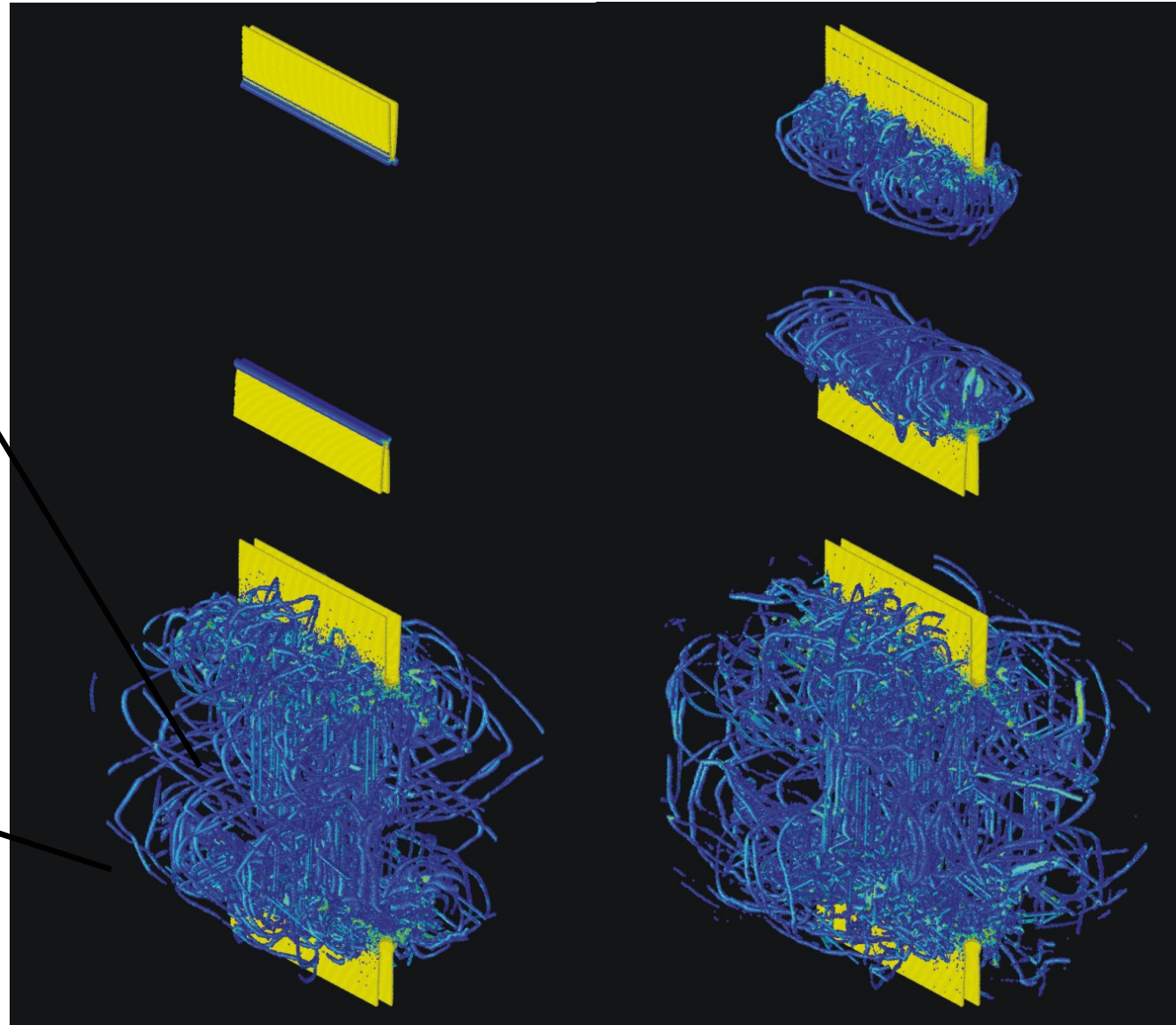




# Cracking of a copper crystal: Thousands of dislocations



Critical:  
Atomic interaction  
(potential)



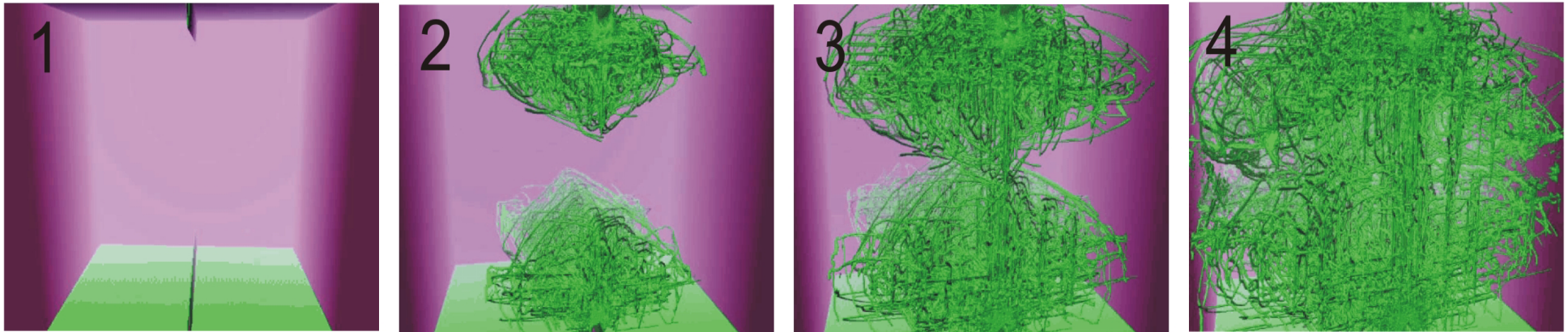
(Buehler, 2006)



# Analysis of a one-billion atom simulation of work-hardening



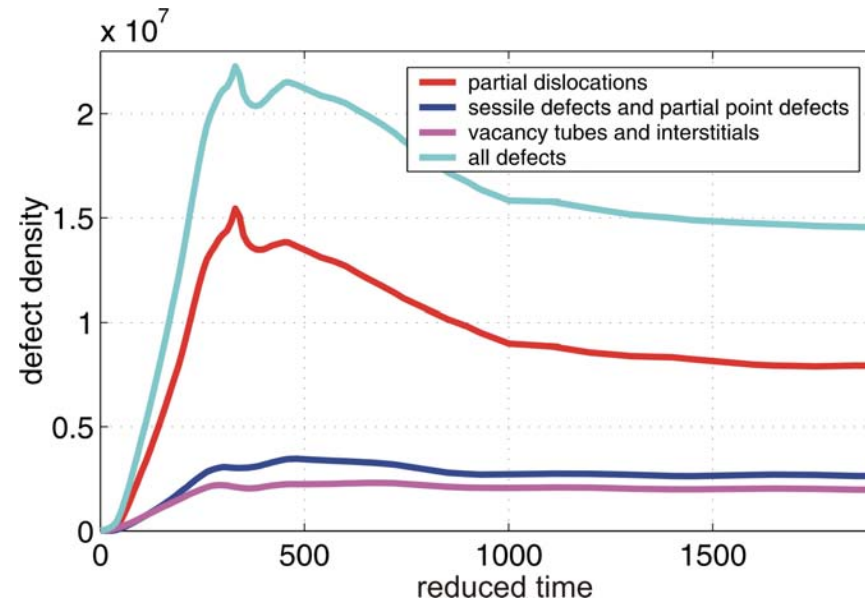
## Overview over total simulation time



(Abraham et al., 2002)

Within a few nanoseconds, a rigid, sessile time-independent network develops...

- How can the particular structure be explained?
- What are the atomic mechanisms that lead to the regular structure?



Defect densities

stage I    stage II    stage III

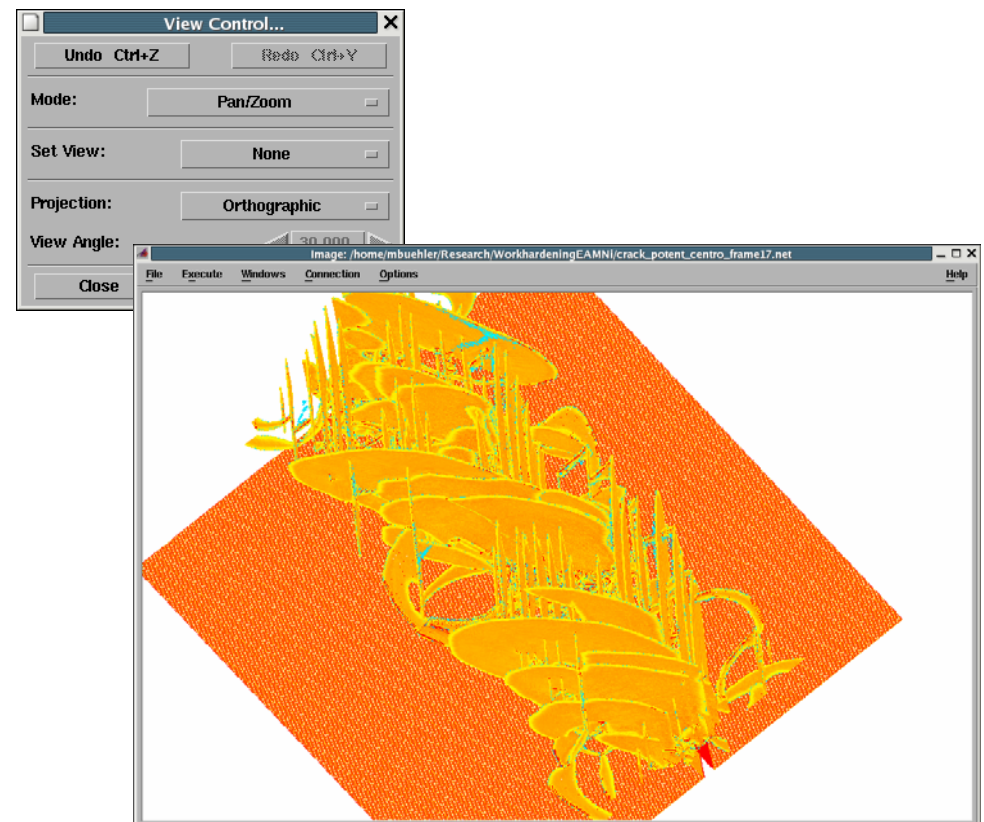
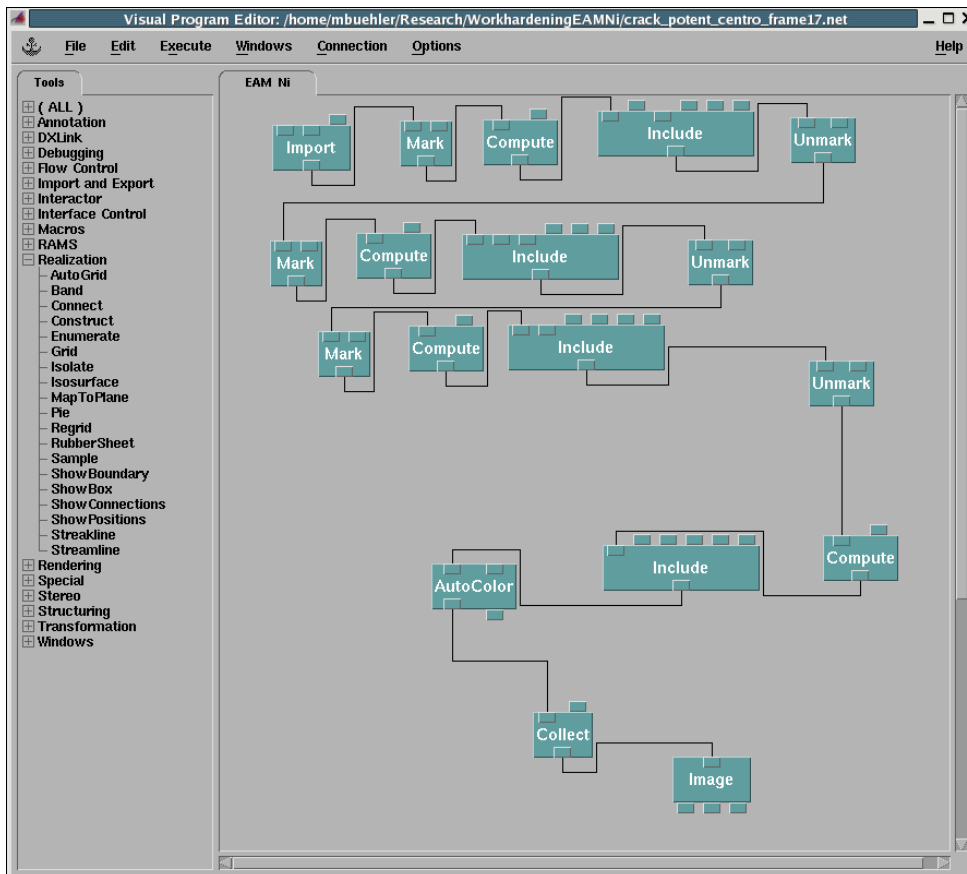


# Visualization strategy



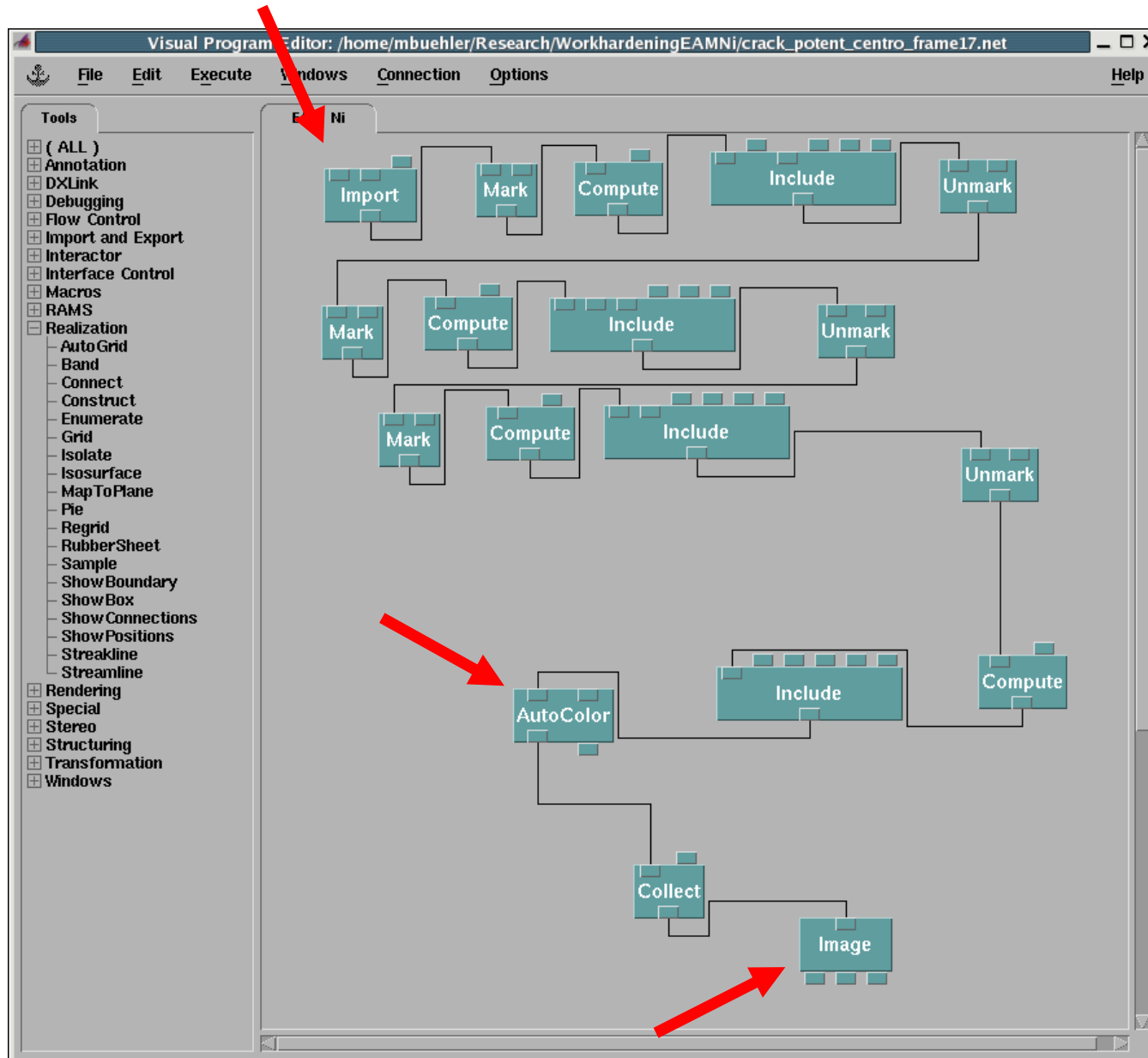
- Use IBM OpenDC data explorer to filter and process data
- Very flexible and generally applicable to any kind of data
- Handles several millions of particles
- Open source / freeware: [www.opendx.org](http://www.opendx.org)
- Other programs: AtomEye, Rasmol, VMD...

**OpenDX**





# OpenDX – Data Explorer



- Different tools for data loading, processing and visualization can be coupled together visually
- Enables efficient development of new visualization programs





# Strengthening mechanisms



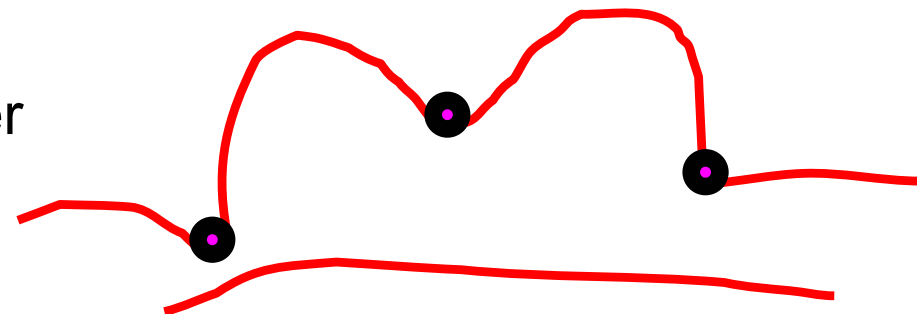
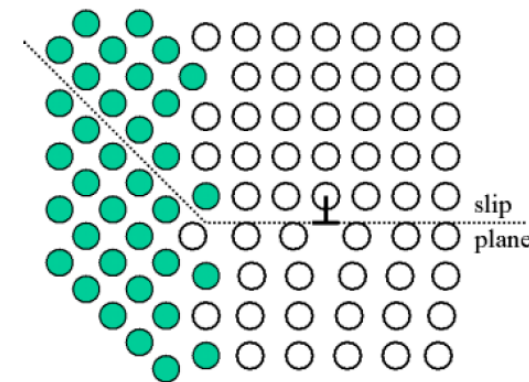
- Remember: Theoretical shear strength of materials is not reached due to the existence of dislocations
- By hindering the motion or the possibility to create dislocations, the material becomes stronger, approaching the theoretical strength
- Mechanisms:

- ☐ Grain boundary strengthening

- ☐ Grain size reduction (Lecture 4)

- ☐ Introduction of foreign atoms that create strain field (solid-solution strengthening)

- ☐ Introduction of particles that pin/hinder dislocation motion

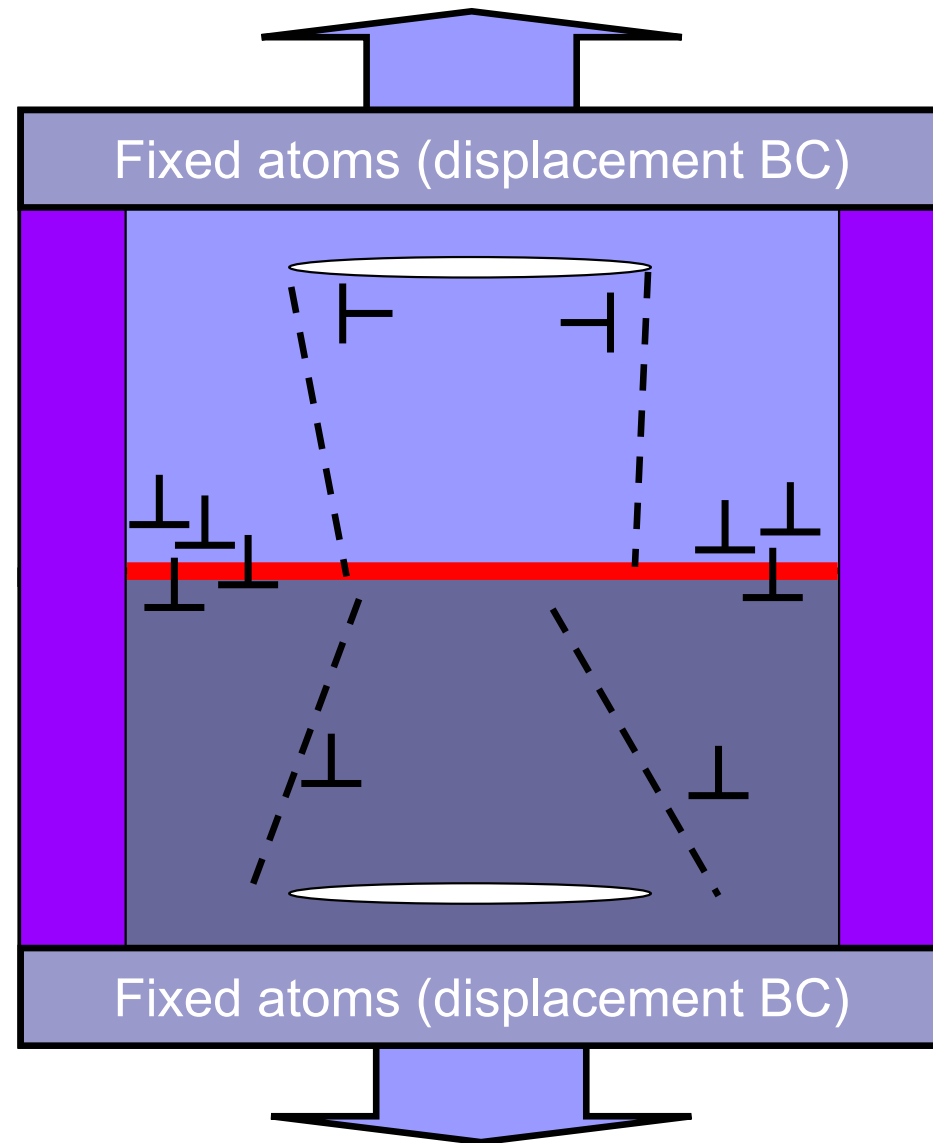




# Dislocation pileups at GBs



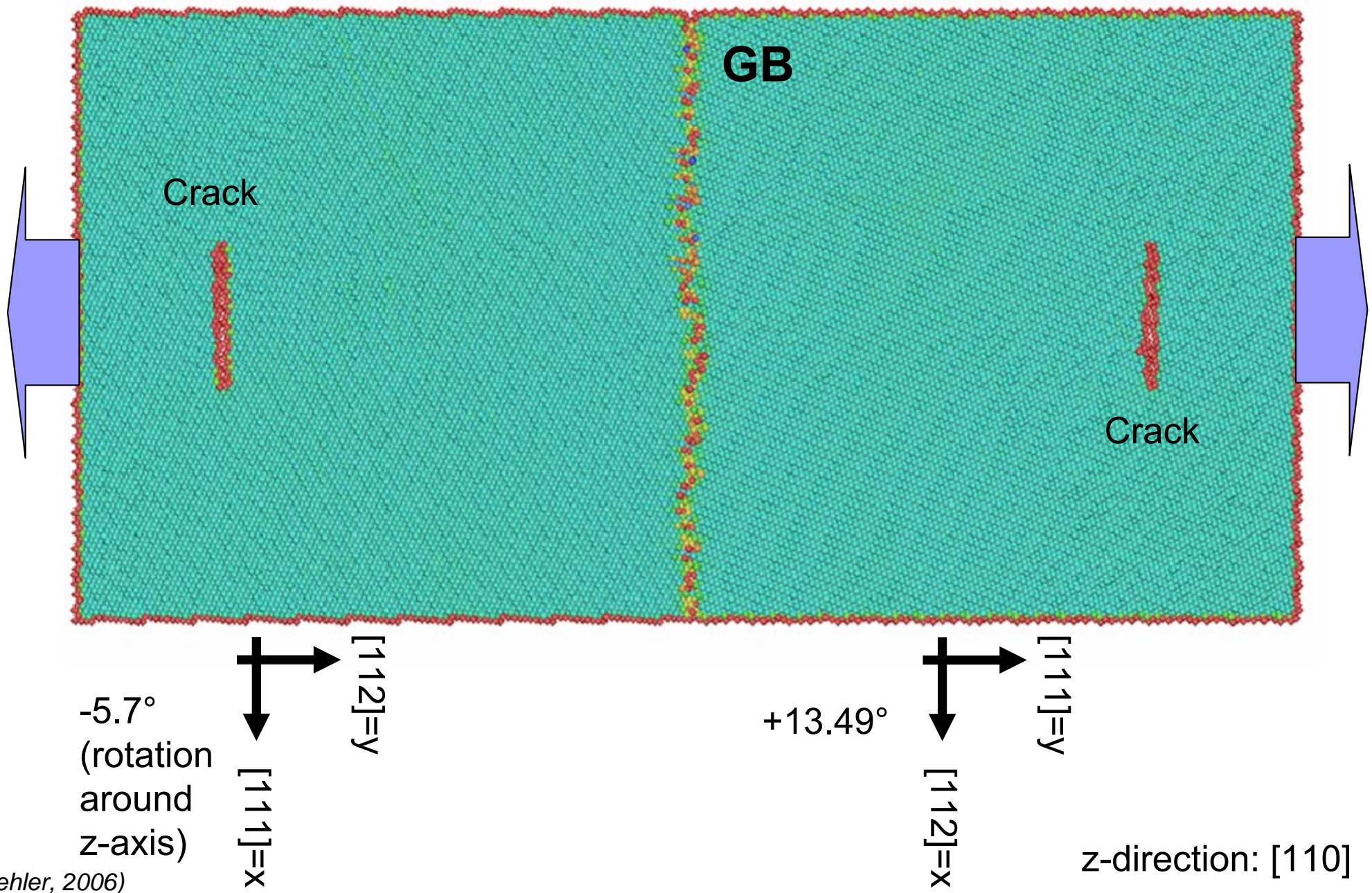
No displacement in  
x-direction  
("substrate" or  
diffusion barrier)



$[110]=y$   
 $[110]=x$



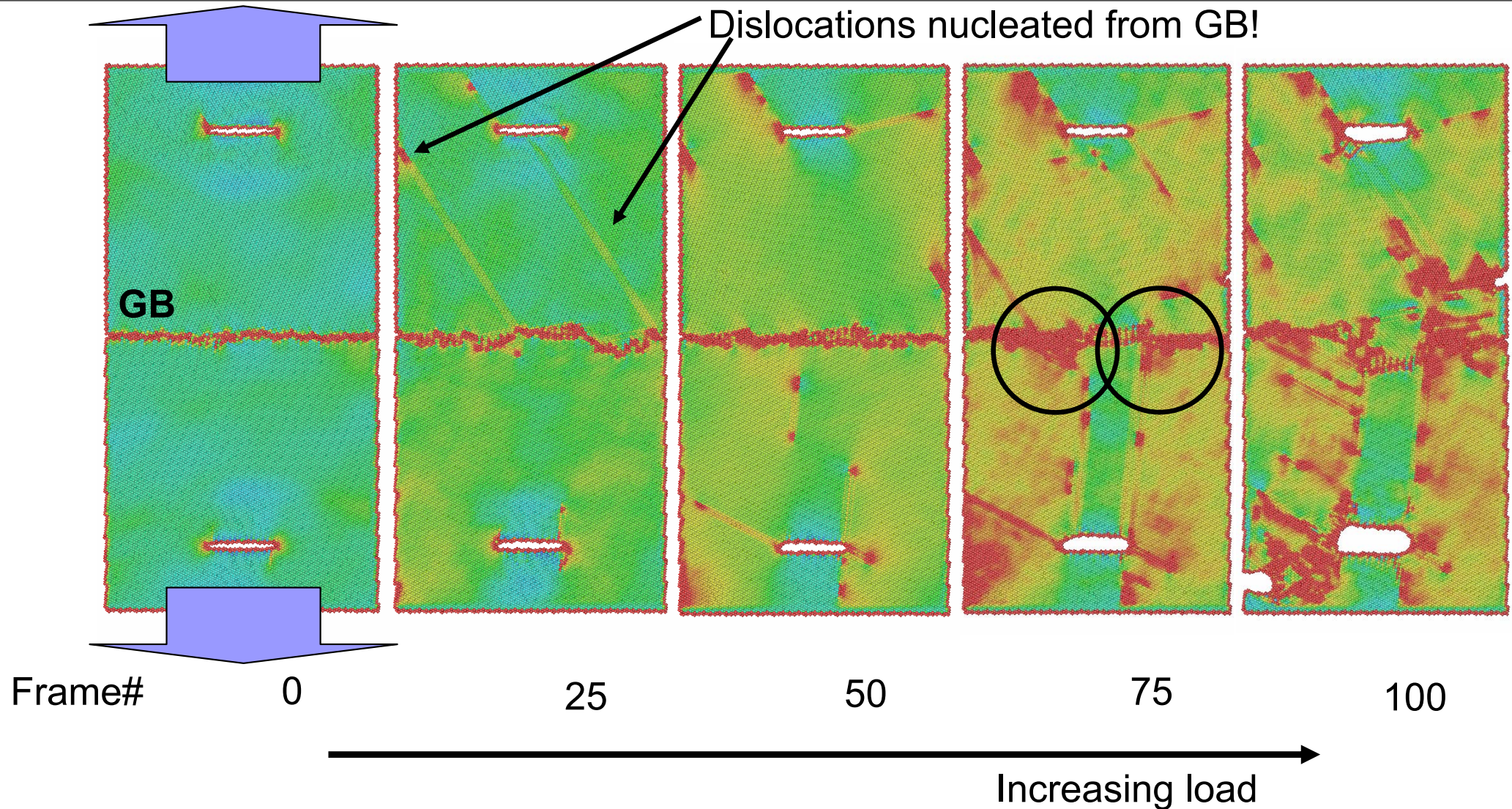
# Model geometry







# Dislocation structure as a function of increasing strain



Color scheme: -3.55 eV = blue -3.50 eV = red

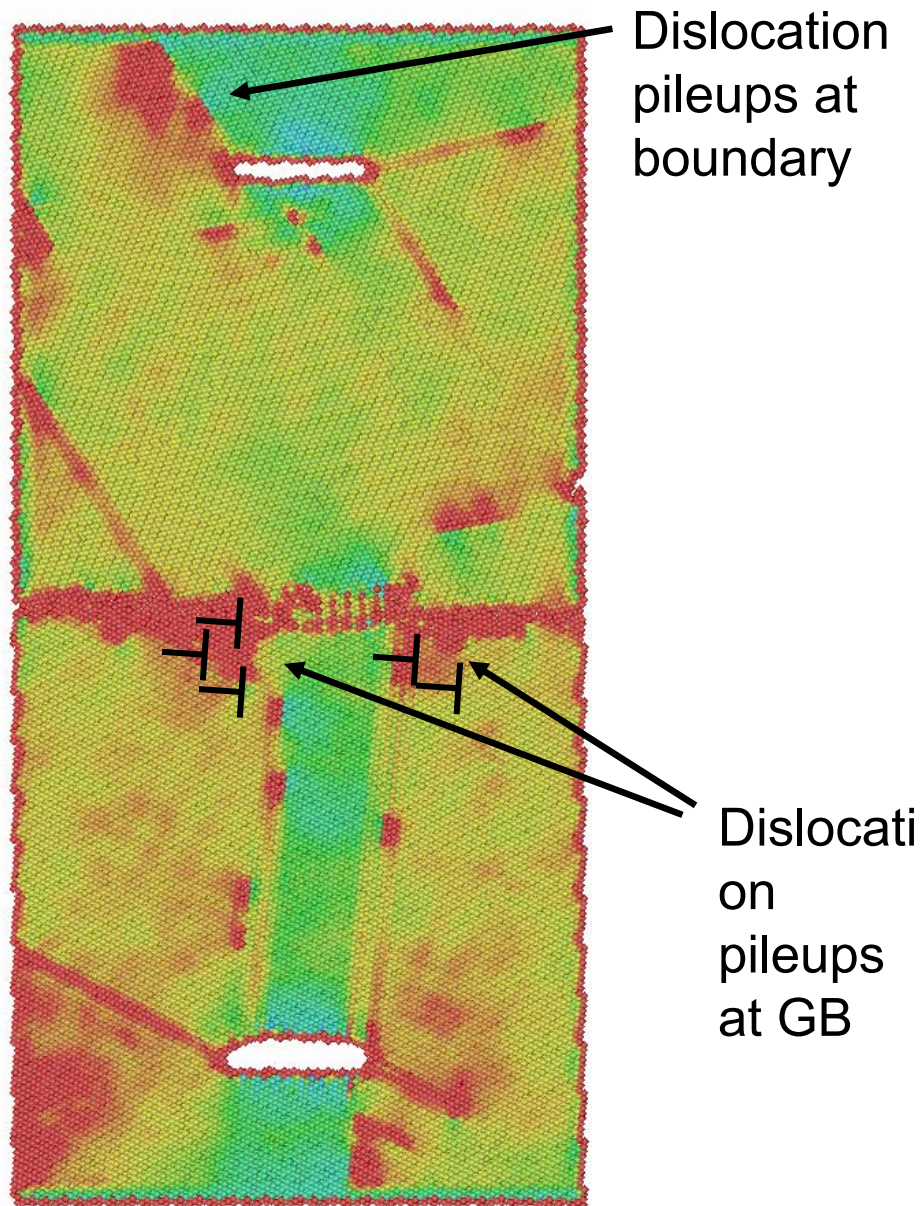
Shows stacking fault (as lines) and dislocation core (red), as well as surfaces (also red)

(Buehler, 2006)





# Dislocation structure as a function of increasing strain



Zoom into frame #75

## Observations

- Dislocations are nucleated from small cracks in the crystal
- As the loading is increased, more dislocations are nucleated, leading to a pileup at the GB
- Also see dislocation nucleation from GB (early, frame #25)
- At large load: Opening of small cracks close at the diffusion barrier surface (frame #100)
- Under high temperature, diffusive processes may relax the dislocation pileups by dislocation climb



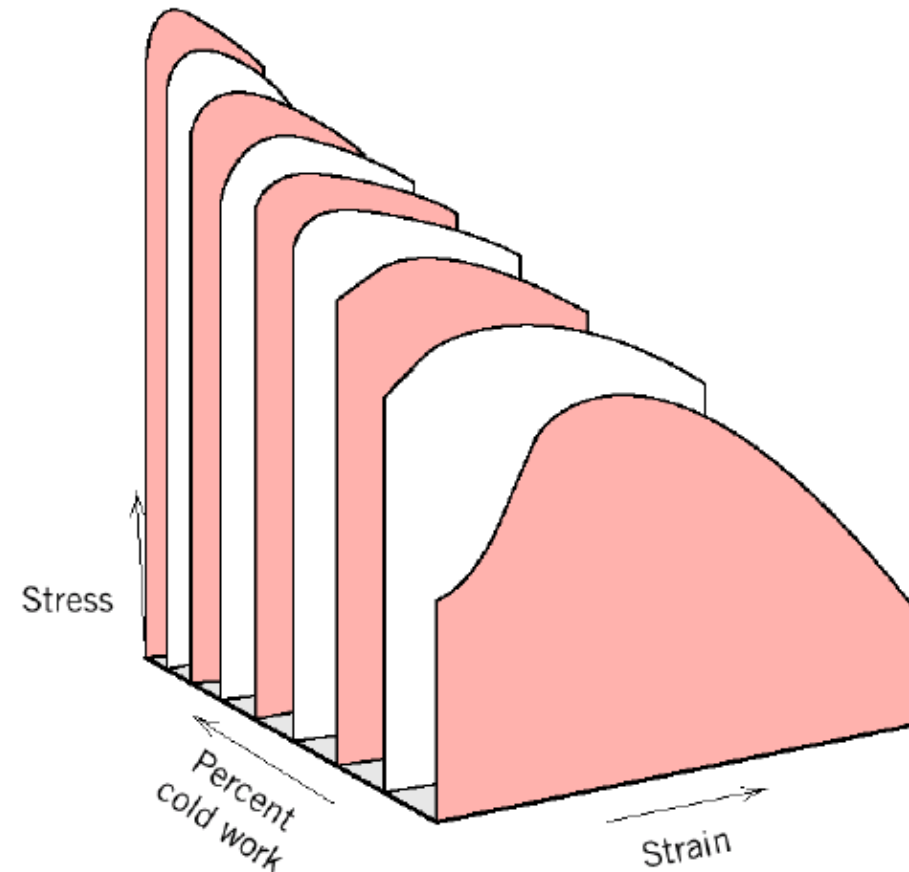
# Strengthening mechanisms and work-hardening



- Work-hardening refers to the phenomenon that occurs in many metals, making them brittle and increasingly hard to deform
- It is often divided into different stages, such as
  - Stage I: Accumulation of defects due to deformation of material
  - Stage II: Beginning interaction of defects
  - Stage III: Approaching steady-state

- **Mechanisms:**

- Higher dislocation density makes it “harder” for new dislocations to propagate
- Dislocation-interactions, such as cutting mechanisms or formation of sessile locks hinder motion of dislocations





# The three hardening mechanisms..



**In our MD simulation of copper, we observe three hardening mechanisms:**

- Cutting processes of dislocations (point defects, partial point defects,..) – when dislocations cut through each other
- Cross-slip of partial dislocations, to activate secondary slip systems, where no resolved shear stress is present
- Formation of locks (dislocation constructs that can NOT move), provide obstacles for other dislocations

... All contribute to hardening of the material since it becomes more and more difficult for dislocations to glide!!

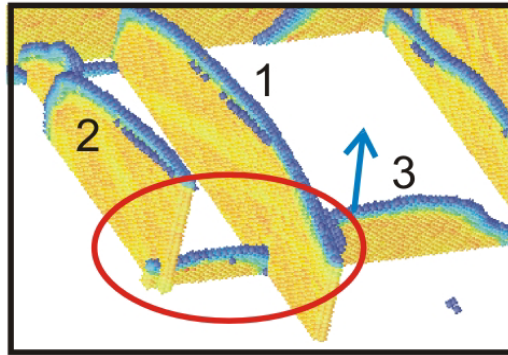
Then: Tendency towards brittle fracture





# Hardening mechanisms

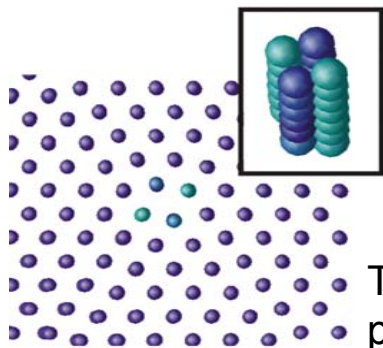
## creation of sessile structure



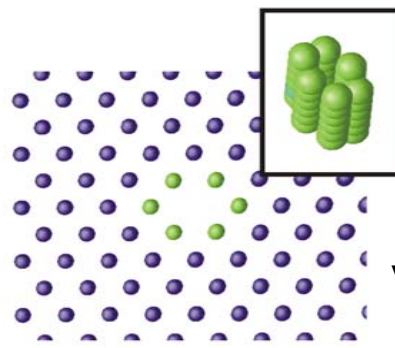
**1. Dislocation cutting processes:** Intersection of dislocations leads to generation of trails of point defects (trails of partial point defects, vacancy tubes and interstitials):

- Energy required to create point defects
- **Therefore:** Pinning of dislocations – dragging force:

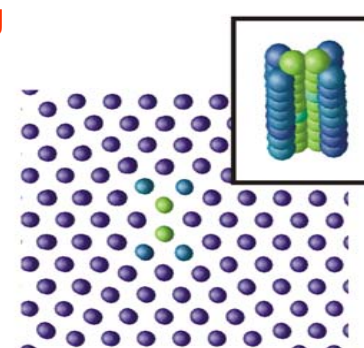
Different kinds of point defects



Trail of partial point defects

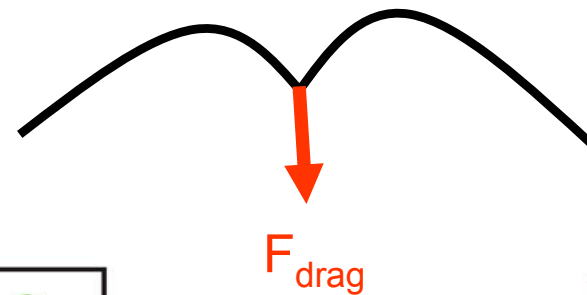


Vacancy tubes



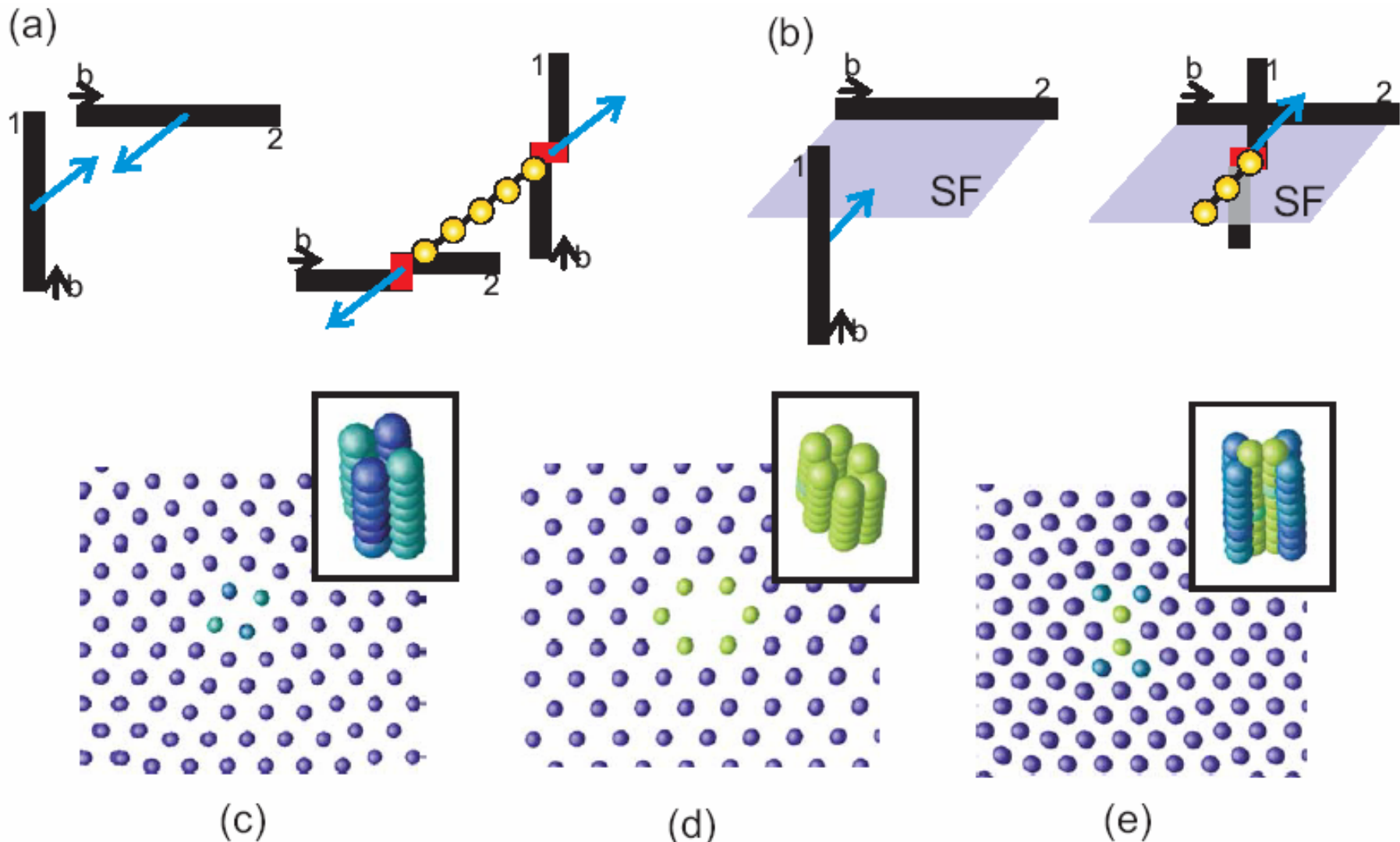
Trail of interstitials

Reduced dragging force  
(20% of vacancy tube)



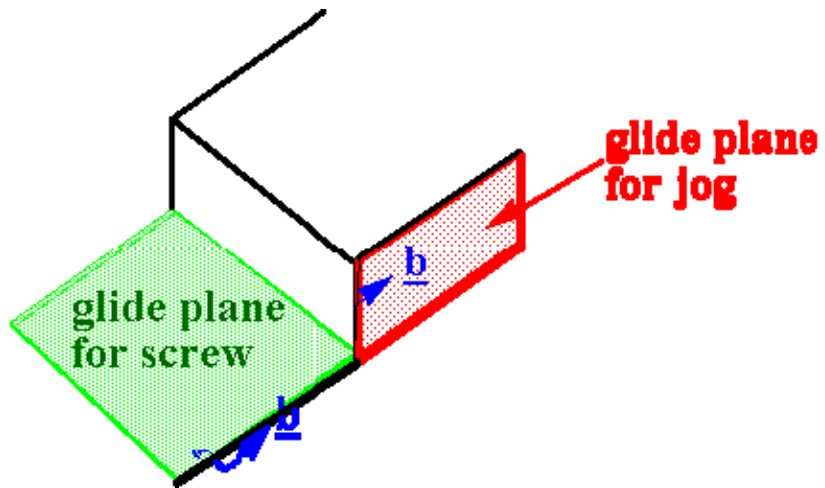


# Hardening mechanisms creation of sessile structure

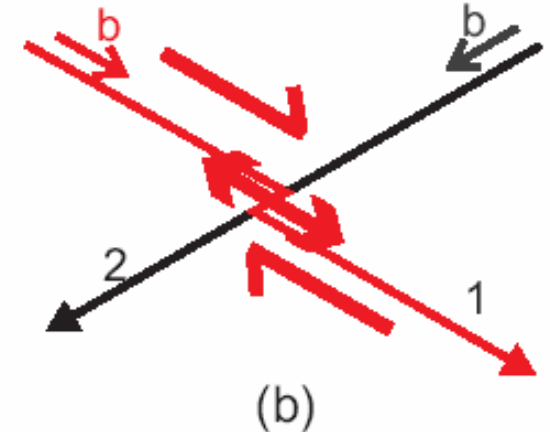
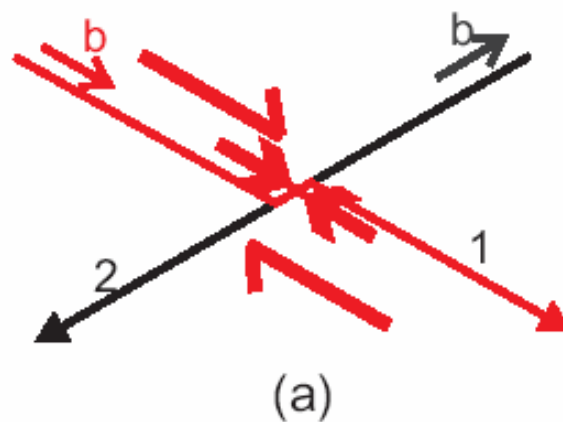
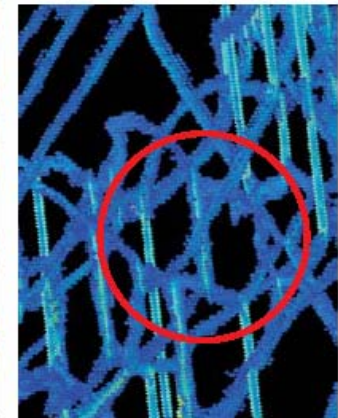
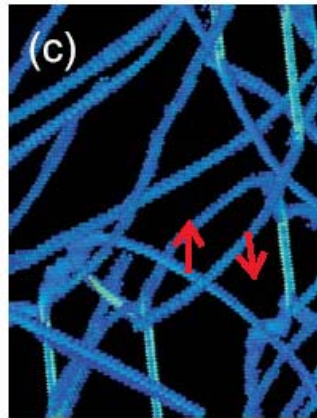
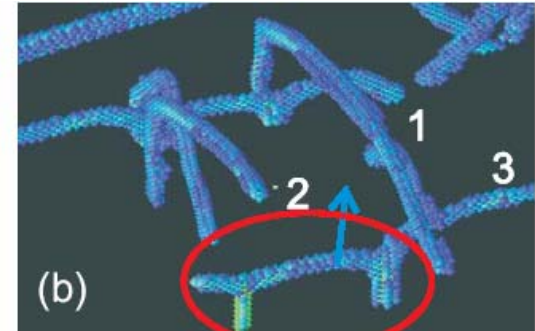
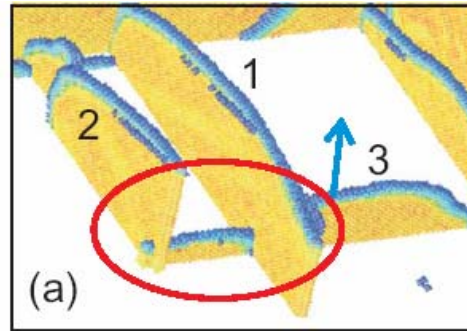
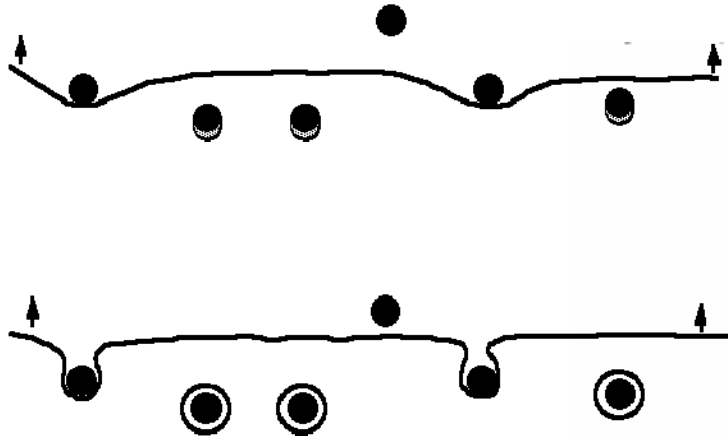




# Hardening mechanisms creation of sessile structure

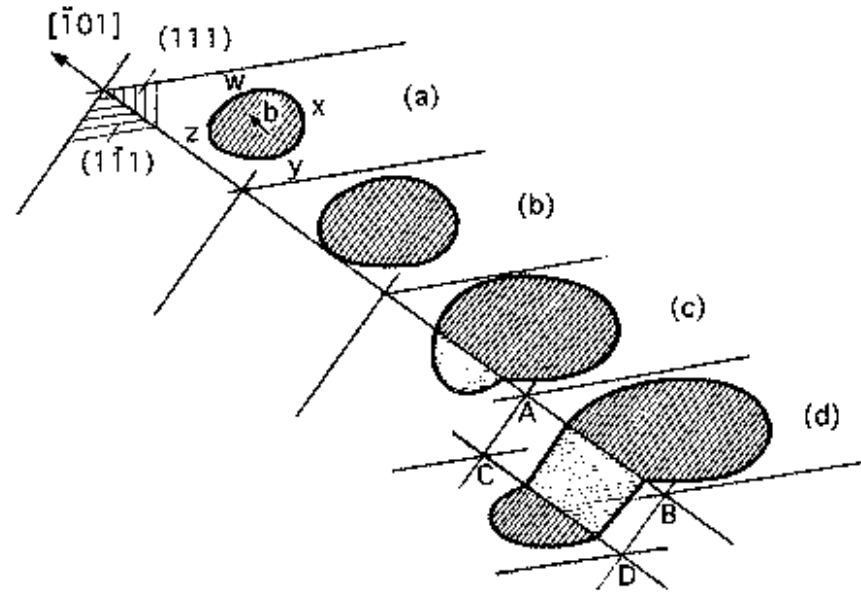
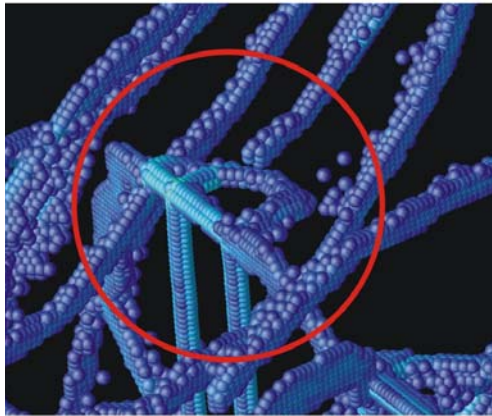


Sessile segment  
Pinning





# Hardening mechanisms creation of sessile structure



## 2. Cross-slip

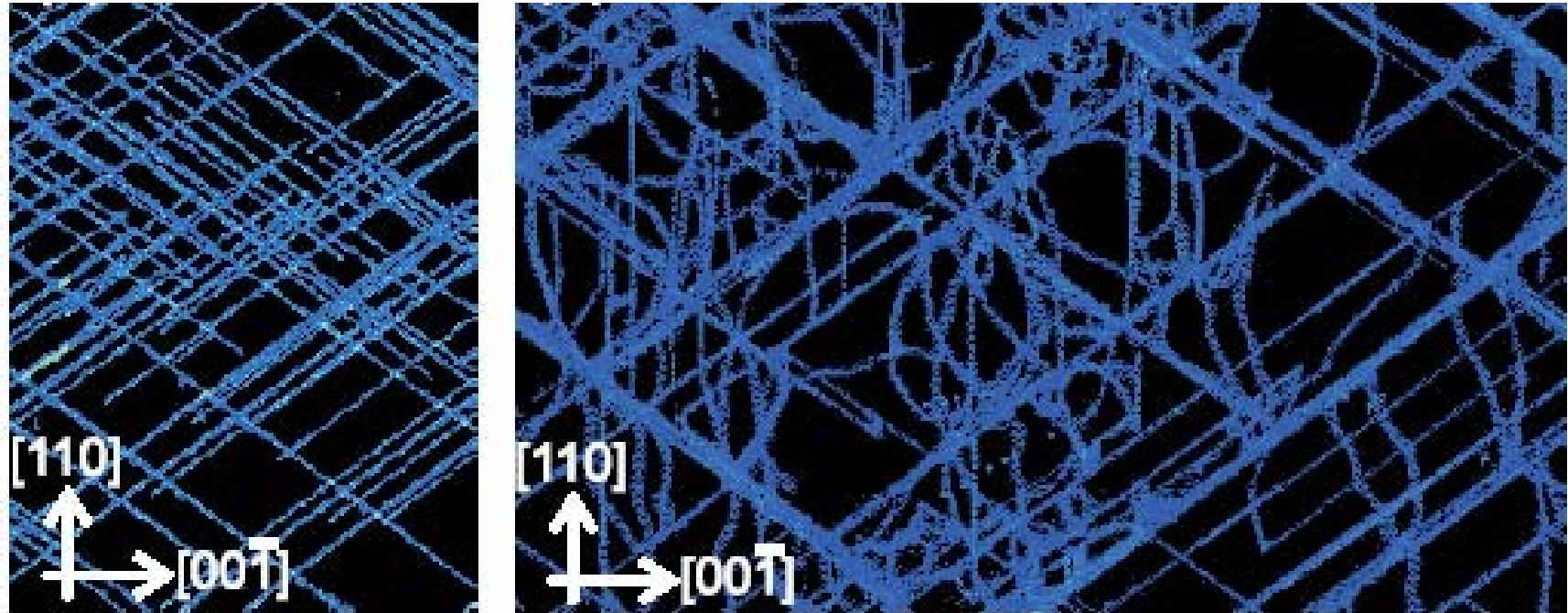
Activation of secondary slip systems by cross-slip and Frank-Read mechanisms: At later stages of the simulation

- After activation of secondary slip systems: More dislocation reactions (e.g. cutting processes).
- **“Rediscovered” Fleischer’s mechanism of cross-slip of partials that was proposed 1959**





# Observation of cross-slip

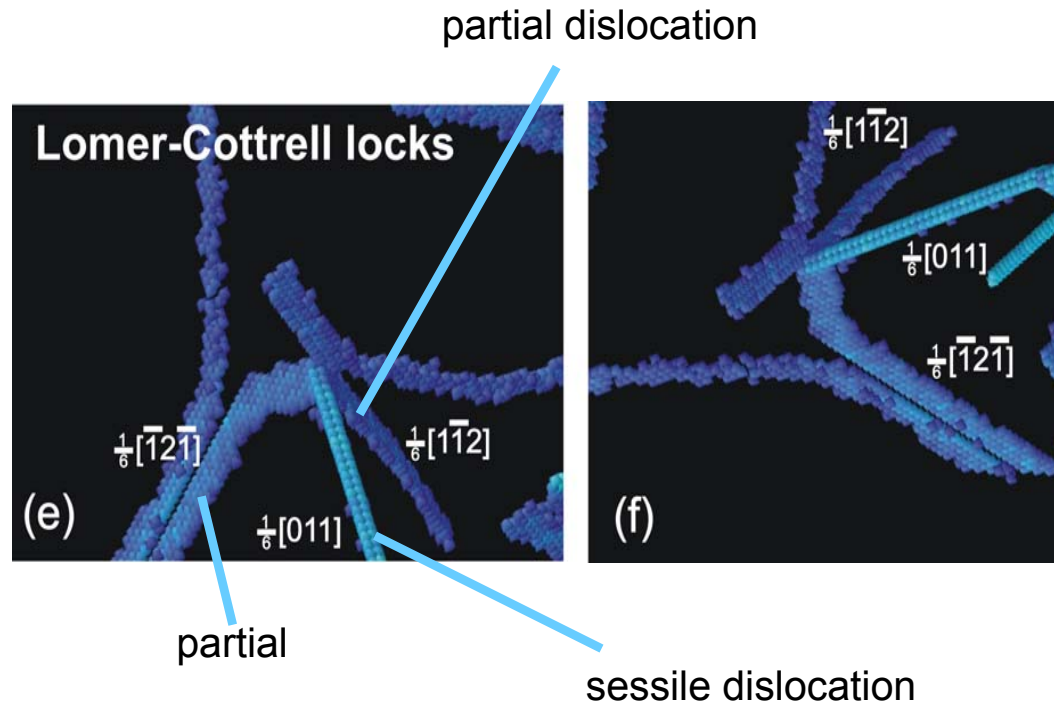


- At a critical dislocation density, secondary slip systems are activated
- This enables for additional plasticity to occur, but also further contributes to work-hardening as the dislocation density increases making it more difficult for dislocations to move



# Hardening mechanisms

## creation of sessile structure



### 3. Formation of Lomer-Cottrell locks

- Formation of sessile Lomer-Cottrell locks, with its typical shape of a straight sessile arm connected to two partial dislocations
- Sessile junctions provide a severe burden for further dislocation glide

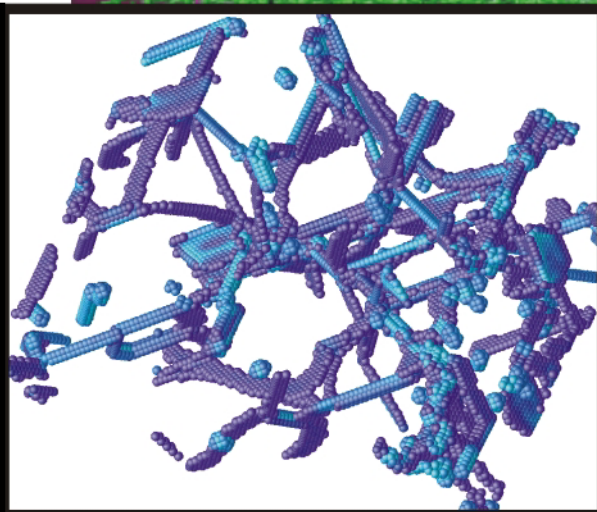
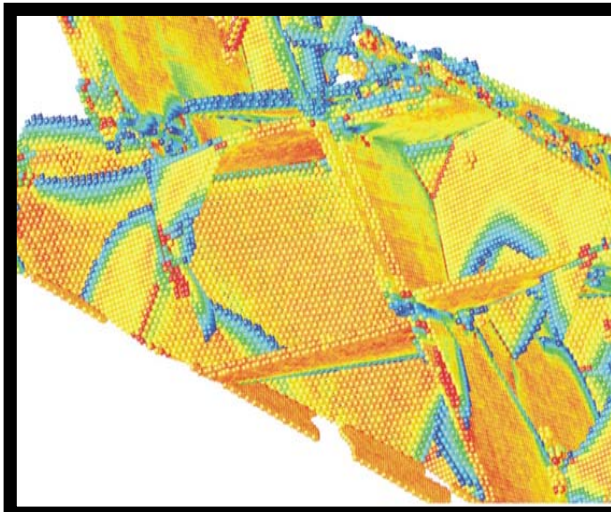
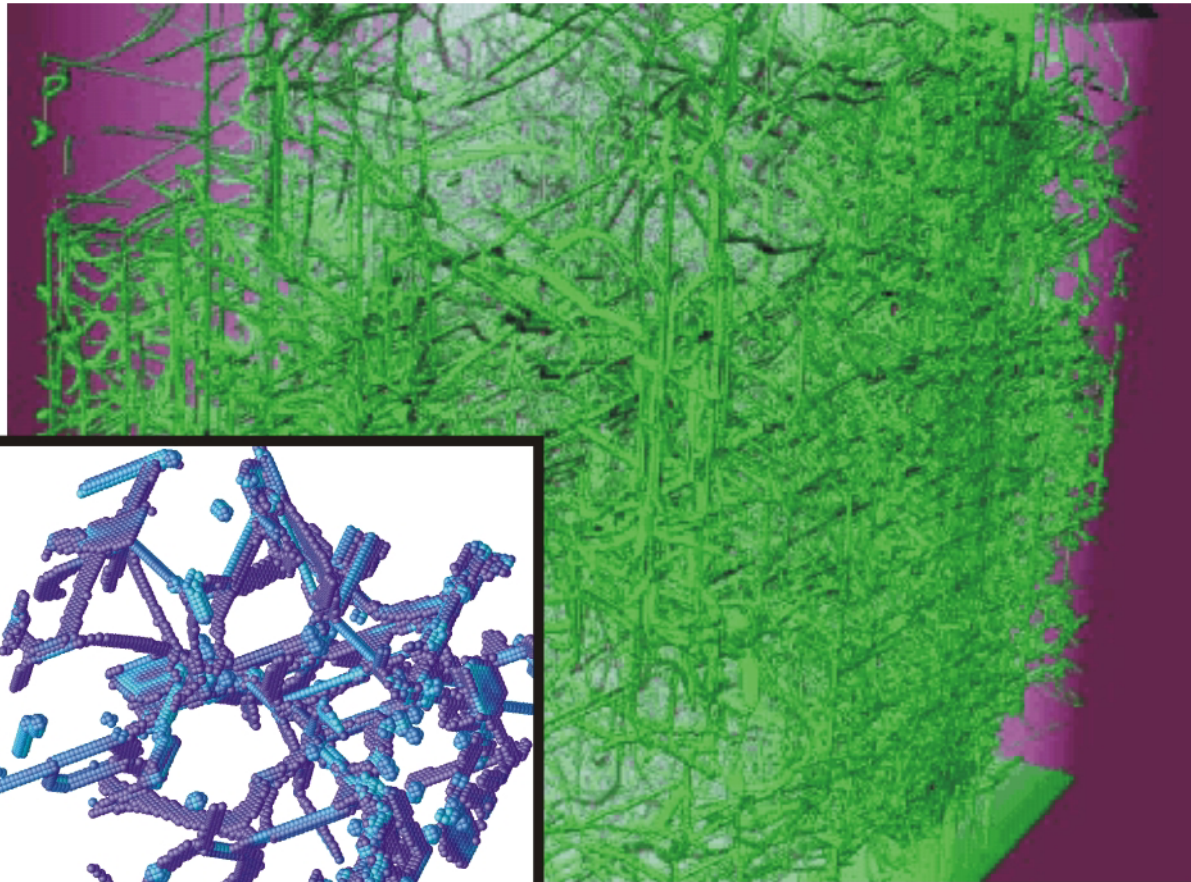


# Final sessile structure



## Consists of....:

Vacancy tubes,  
interstitials, partial  
dislocations, and  
sessile dislocations



## The characteristic structure of the network:

- All sessile defects (both trails of partial and complete point defects) as well as sessile dislocations are straight lines that lie on the edges of Thompson's tetrahedron (at intersections of stacking fault planes)

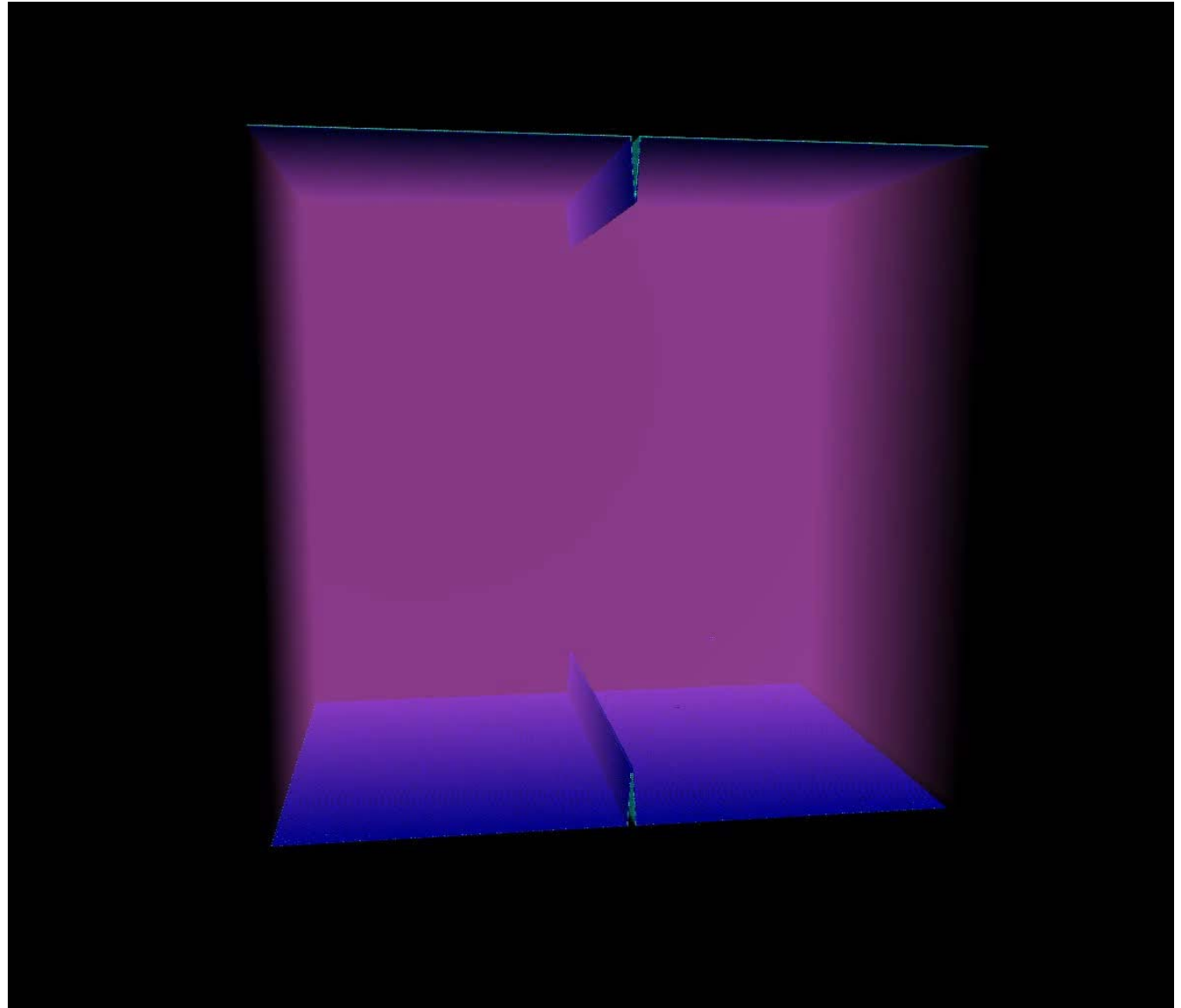




# Animation of the work-hardening process



- Movie summarizes creation of dislocations, interaction and reaction leading to formation of the sessile dislocation network





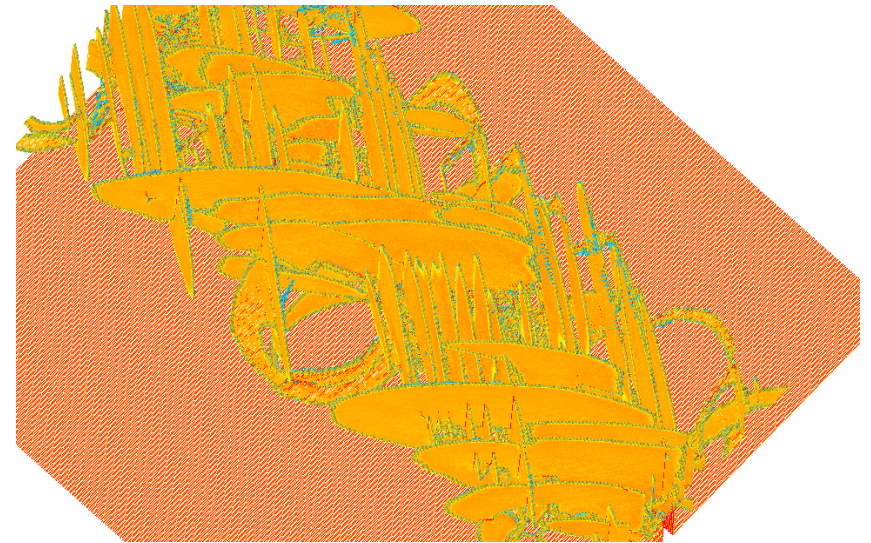
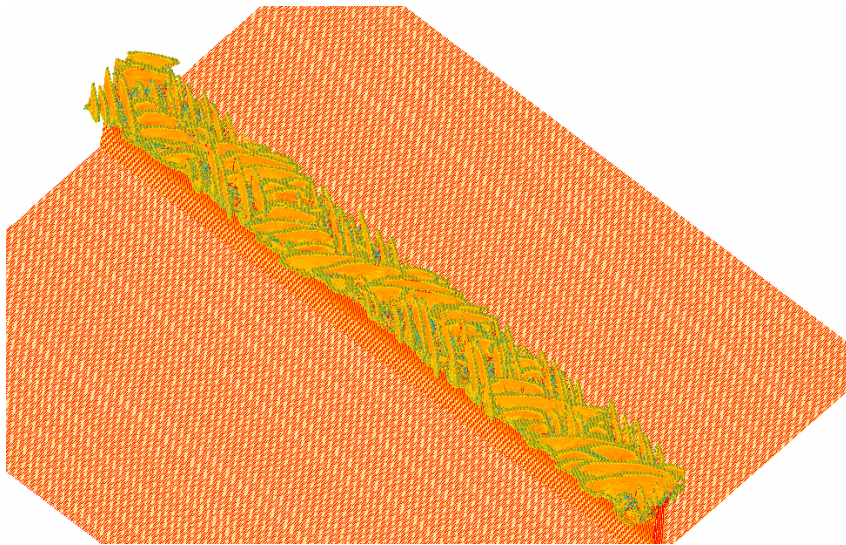
# Summary



- Observe classical mechanisms of work hardening in single computer simulation: (1) dislocation cutting processes, (2) cross-slip, (3) formation of sessile dislocation locks.
- The collective operation of these mechanisms constricts mobility of dislocations: A large ensemble of defects self-organizes into a complex defect network with a regular structure composed of trails of point defects, sessile dislocations, and partial dislocations.
- The characteristic structure of the final network is given by the geometrical condition that the sessile defects are straight lines that lie at the intersection of stacking faults, thus along the sides of Thompson's tetrahedron.
- Even though the LJ potential is a simplistic model for interatomic bonding, it is nevertheless capable of capturing most of the predicted hardening mechanisms: A computer simulation using the LJ potential under extreme conditions reproduces the essential deformation mechanisms of natural crystalline materials such as metals!!
- These results: Not accessible to any other method (experiment or theory)!!



# Work-hardening in nickel

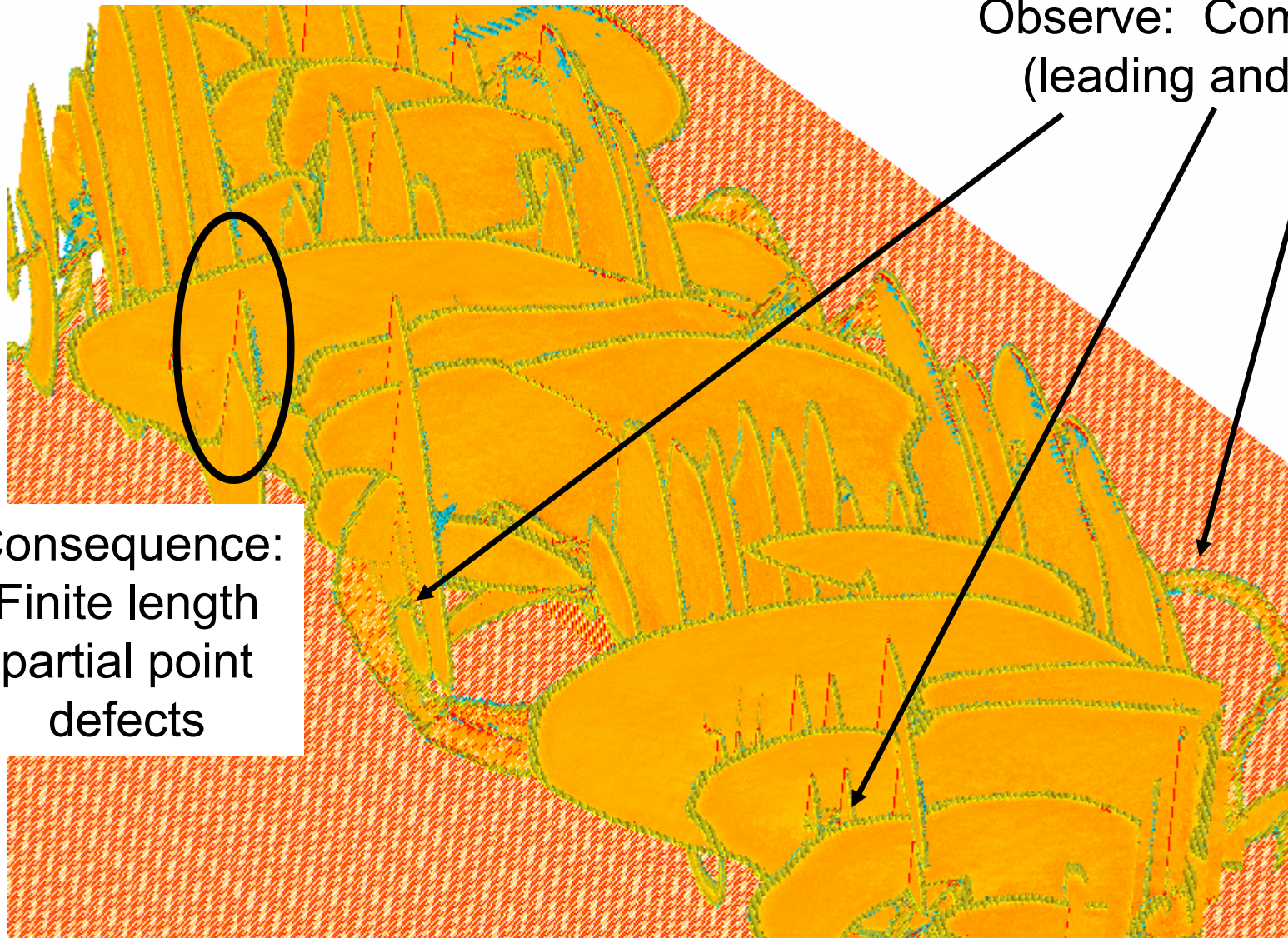


- Same geometry as for LJ copper
- Choose Ni due to higher stacking fault energy and thus, we expect to see complete dislocations rather than only partials





# Work-hardening in nickel



Observe: Complete dislocations  
(leading and trailing partials)

Consequence:  
Finite length  
partial point  
defects

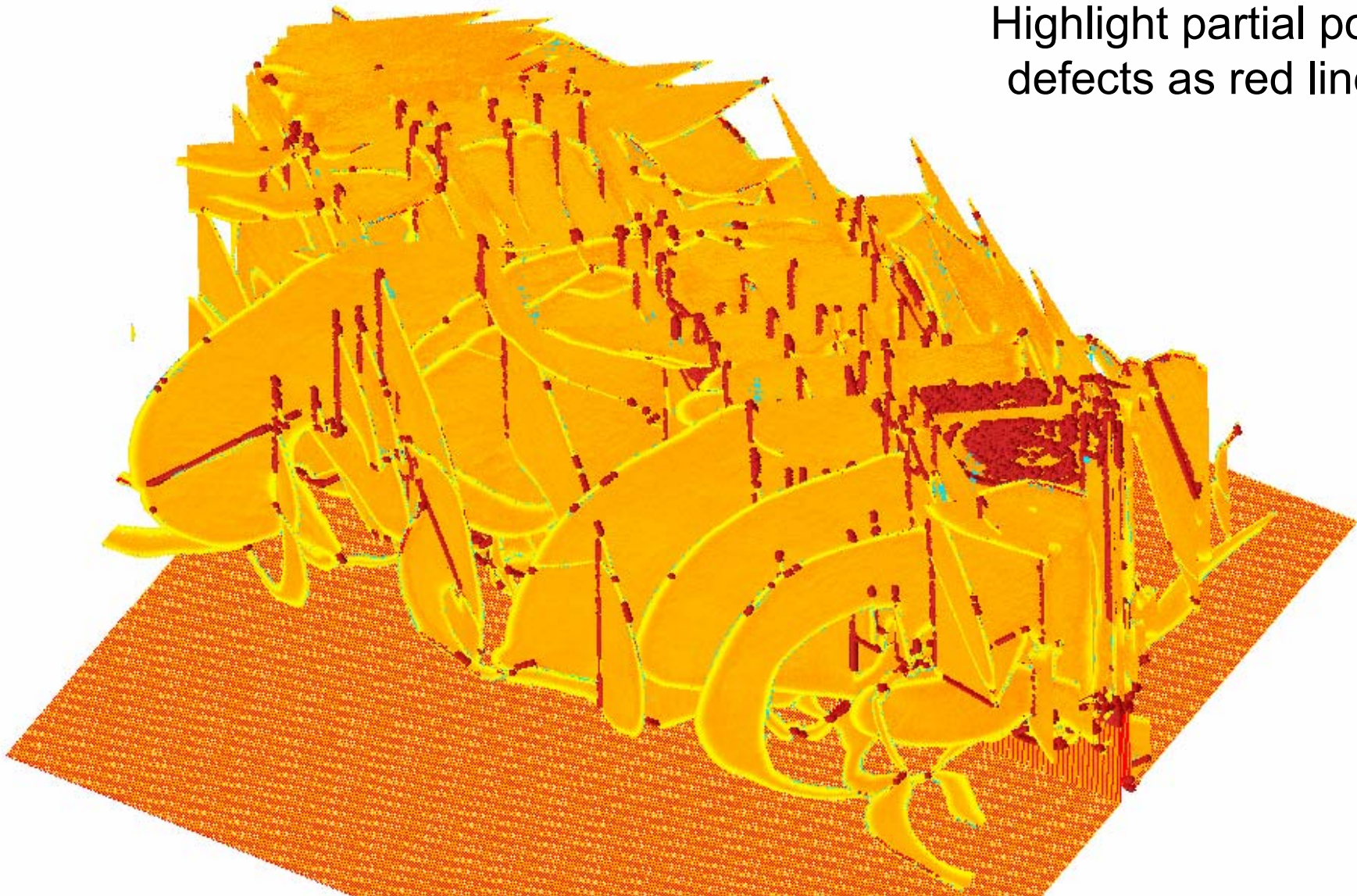




# Work-hardening in nickel



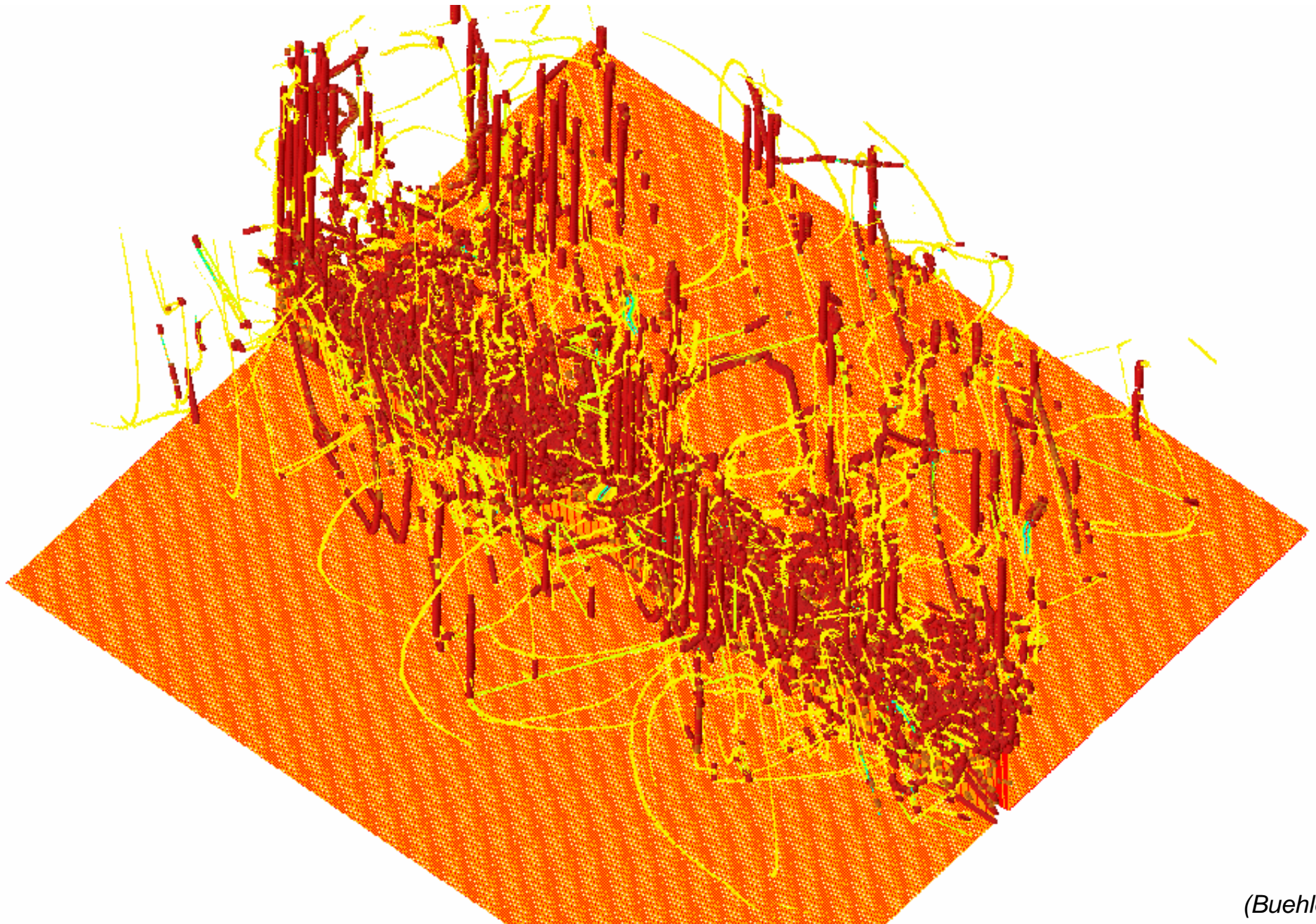
Highlight partial point defects as red lines







# Work-hardening in nickel



(Buehler, 2006)

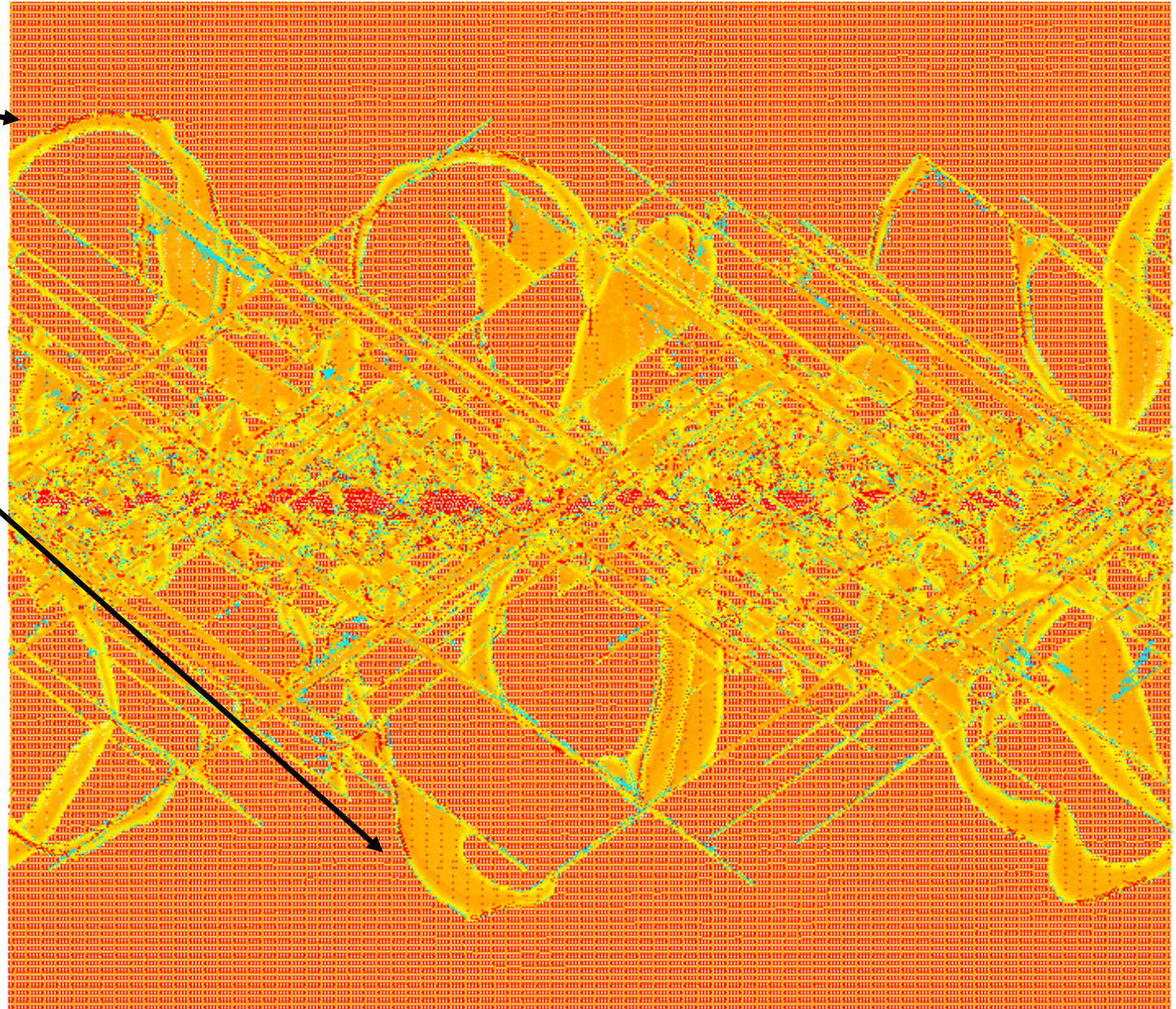




# Work-hardening in nickel



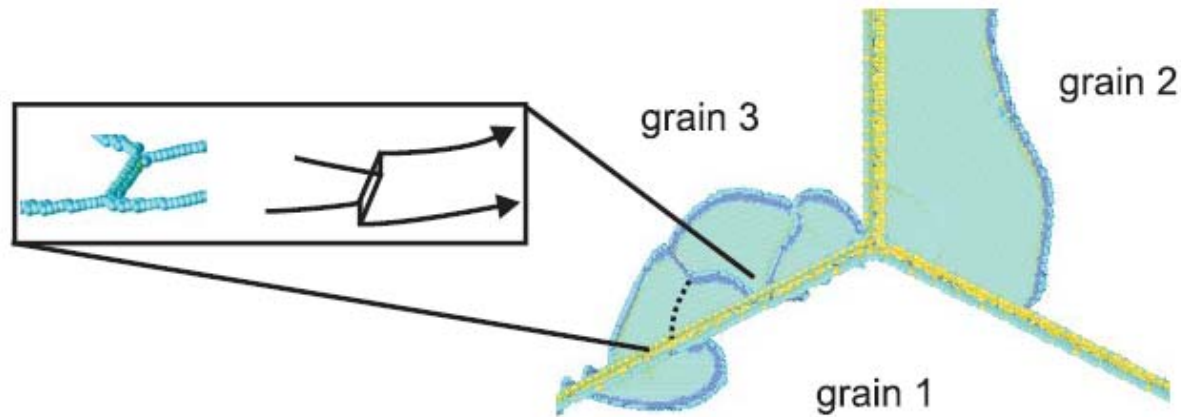
Activation of  
secondary slip  
systems



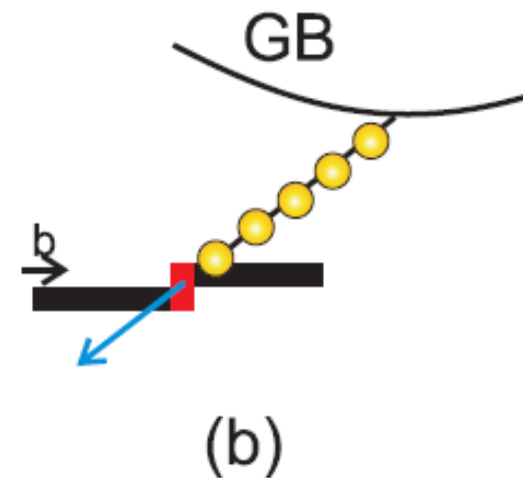
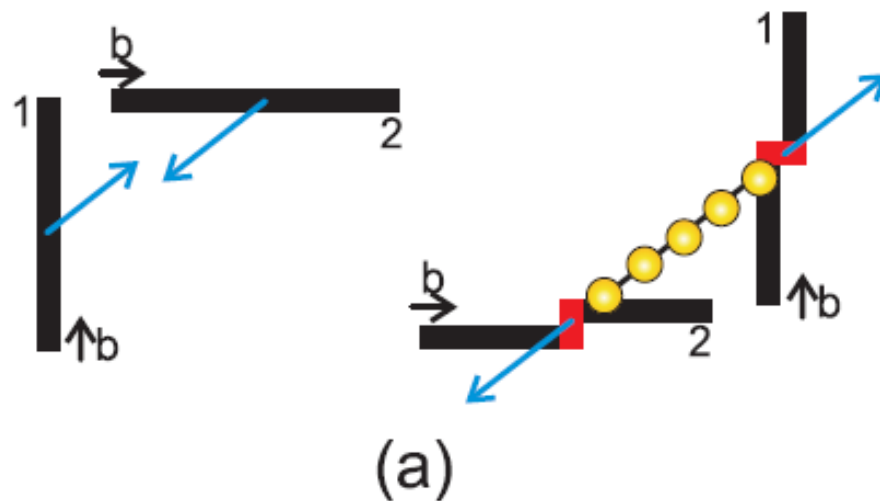




# Formation of jogs: Dislocation reactions



- Dislocation junction and bowing of dislocations by jog dragging.
- A trail of point defects is produced at the jog in the leading dislocation, which is then repaired by the following partial dislocation.

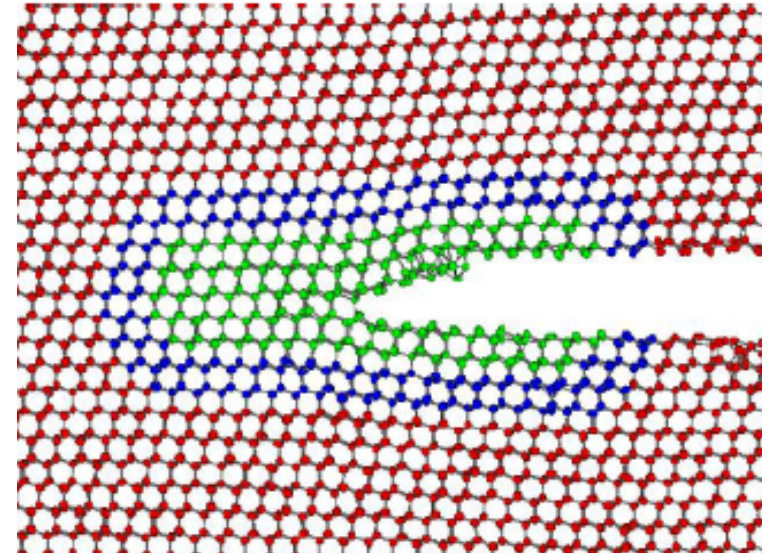
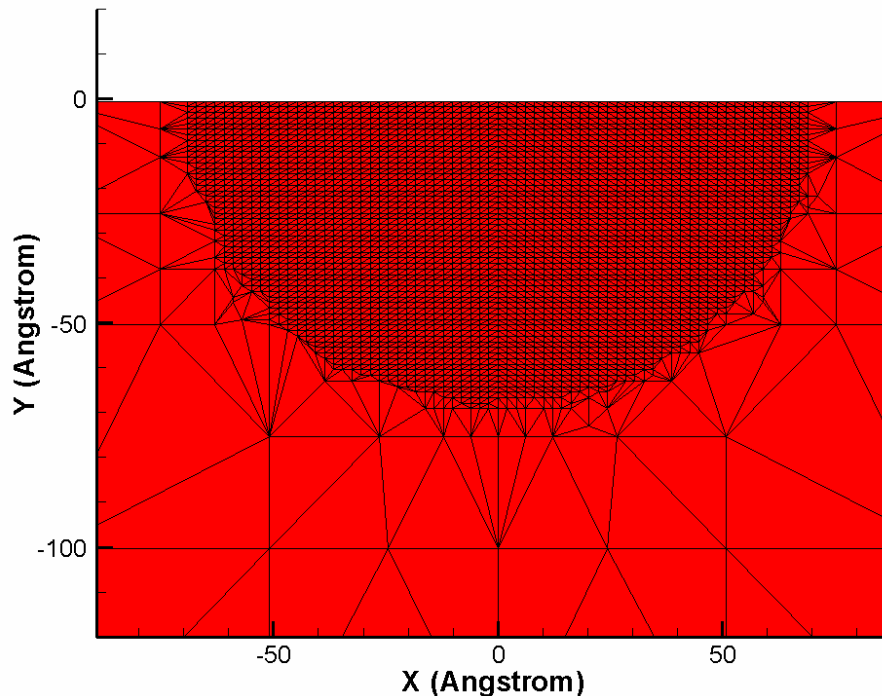




# Hierarchical versus concurrent multiscale modeling



- Hierarchical multiscale modeling: Pass parameters (paradigm of overlap, FF training,...)
- Concurrent multiscale modeling: Have multiple methods with different resolution in the same domain



Bernstein, Hess, PRL

- Quasi-continuum (QC) method dynamically switches from atomistic to continuum method (now extended to finite temperature)

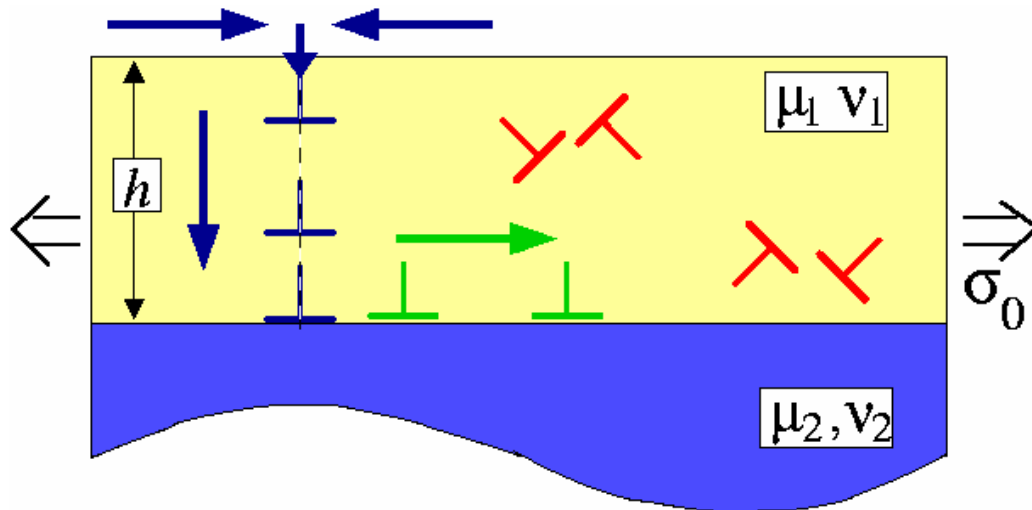
(Ortiz, Phillips et al.)



# Mesososcopic model



Dislocations: Sources and sinks of plastic strain

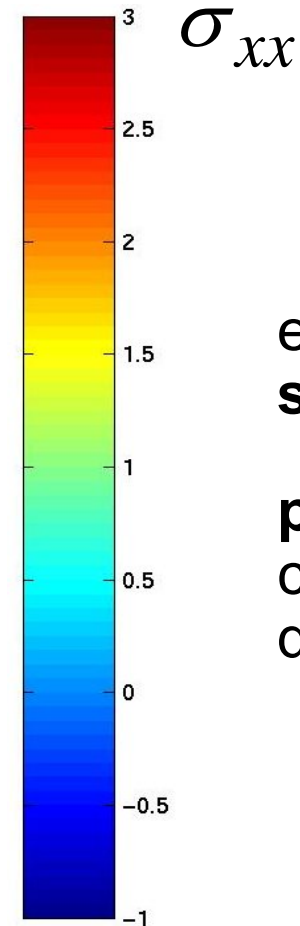
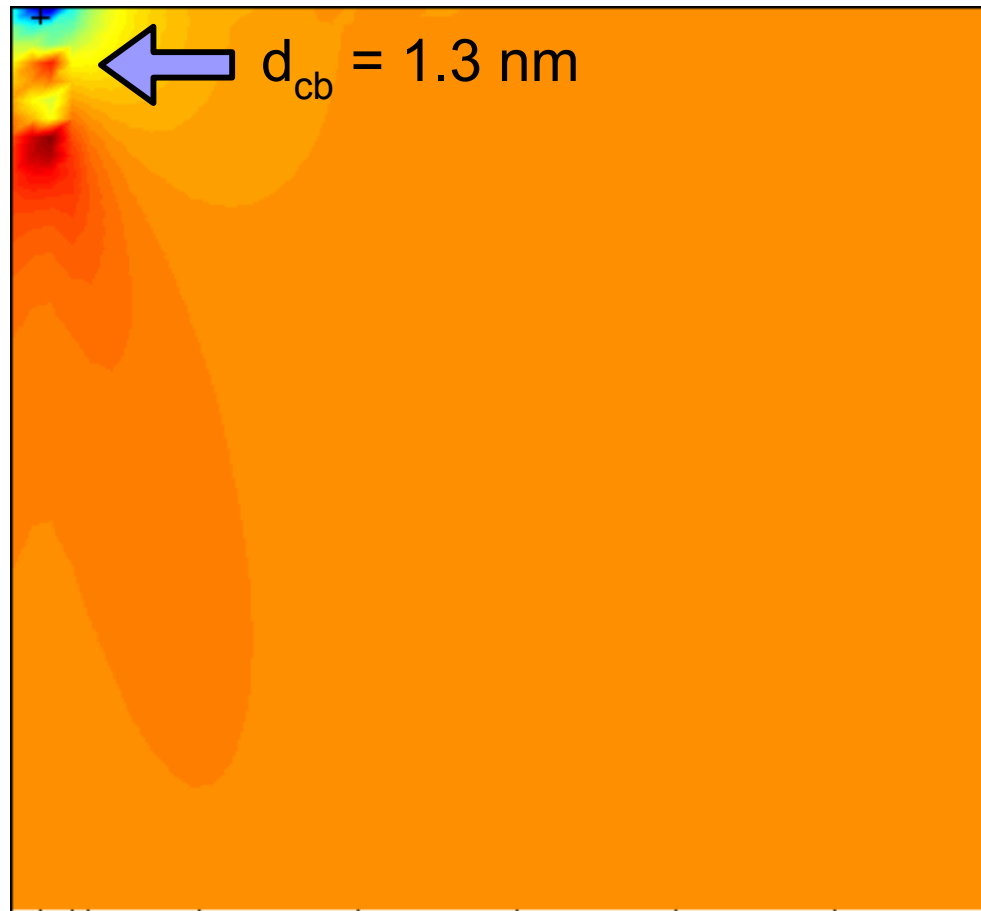


Critical condition for nucleation of PG dislocation from MD simulation:  
**Critical SIF**

- Surface diffusion leads to nucleation of **climb dislocations**.
- Stress concentration at root of grain boundary drives nucleation of **parallel glide dislocations**.
- Slip on **inclined glide planes** is *conventional* deformation mechanism.



# Mesososcopic model: Movie



elastic straining to **initial stress level**

**plastic relaxation** under constant lateral displacement

↑ Glide source position adapted to MD results

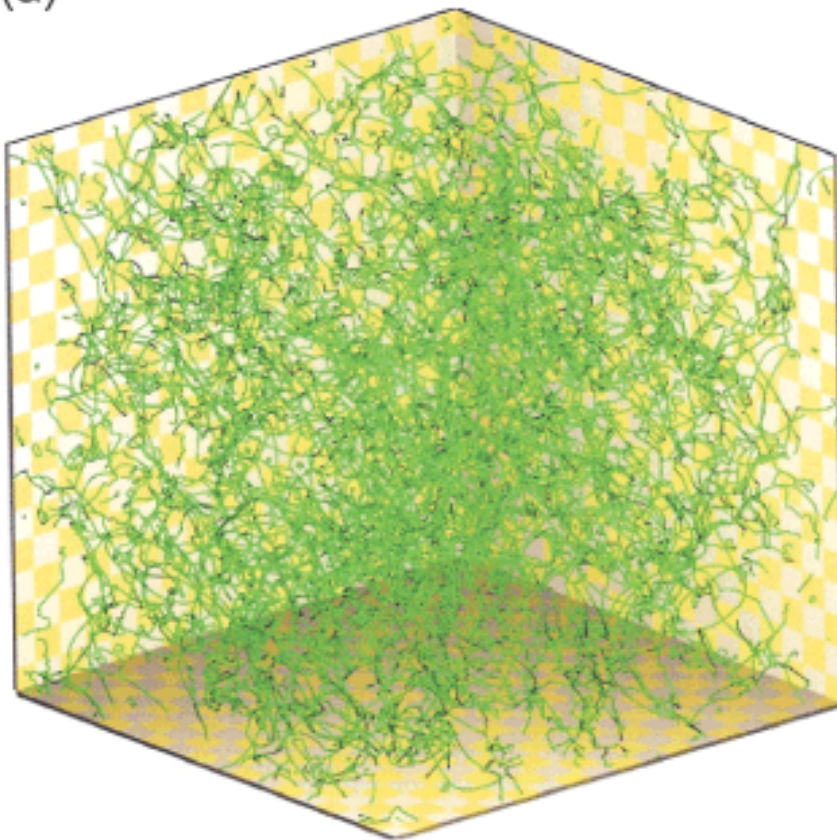
↑ Dislocations are absorbed in grain boundary (high energy grain boundaries)



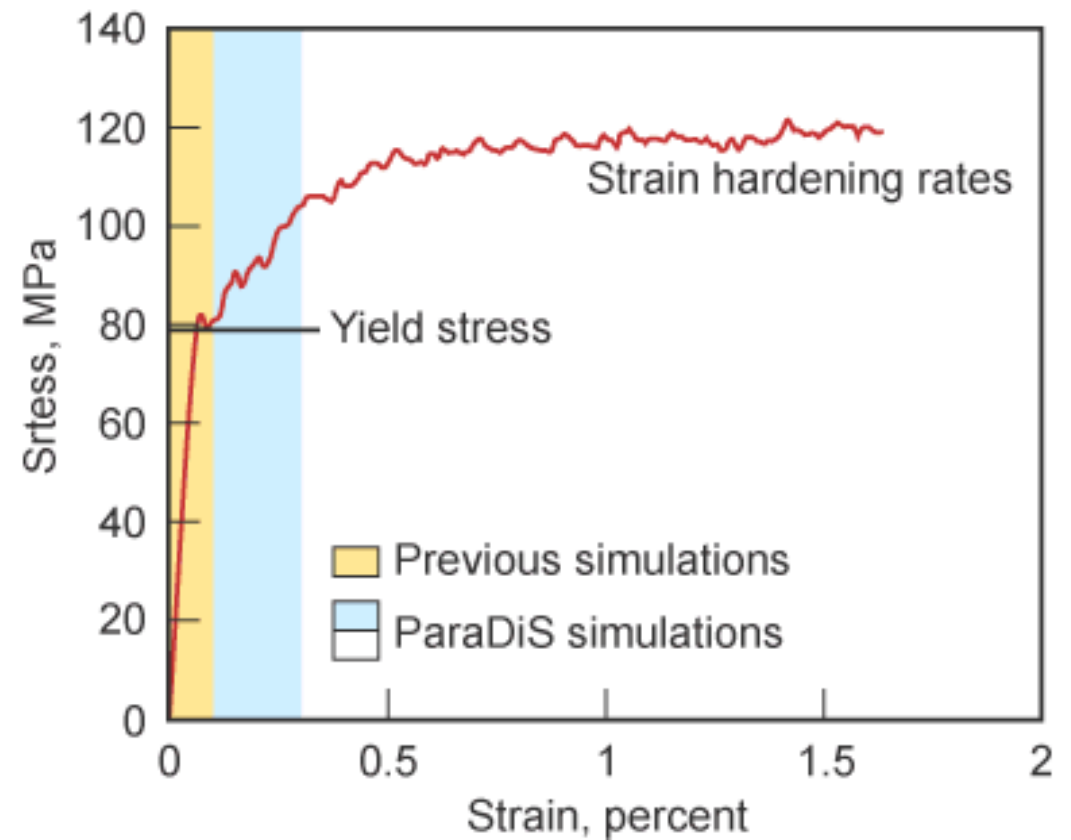
# Mesoscale modeling



(a)



(b)



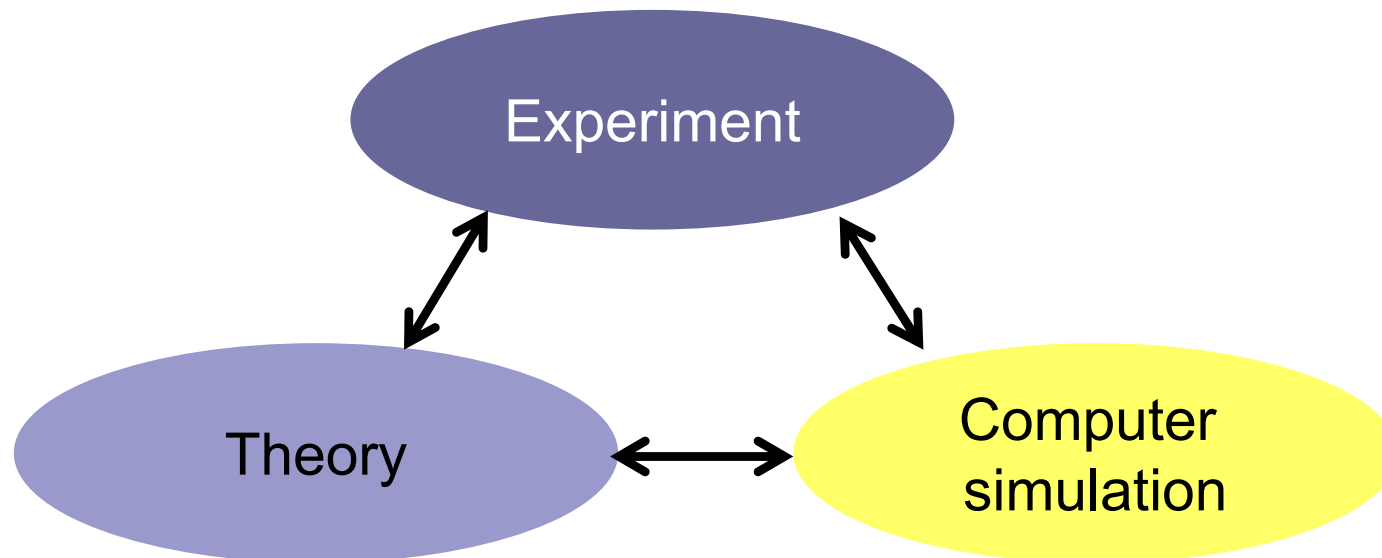




# Experiment-theory-simulation



- Atomistic simulations is an increasingly important tool in materials science; it can be used to...
  - Advance theory and discover new physical phenomena
  - Augment and explain experiment
- With its **limitations** understood, MD simulation is an ideal tool to study small-scale dynamics materials phenomena; gain insight into mechanisms





# Discussion and conclusion



- MD methods for metals are quite advanced and have found many applications
- This is true partly because the metallic bonding can reasonably well be described using semi-empirical potentials (EAM, MEAM); many models have been suggested in the past decades
- With increase in computing power this enables studies of billions of particles, allowing to reach the critical length scales of micrometers with “first principles” dislocation mechanics
- We have applied these techniques to gain insight into the deformation mechanisms of copper
- By direct numerical simulation, we have modeled the complex interaction of thousands of dislocations, and shown that there are three important mechanisms of work-hardening, which were – prior to our modeling – only known from indirect experiment or theory