How does static granular matter re-arrange for different isotropic strain rate?

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Abstract. The question of how soft granular matter, or dense amorphous systems, re-arrange their microstructure under isotropic compression and decompression, at different strain rates, will be answered by particle simulations of frictionless model systems in a periodic three-dimensional cuboid. Starting compression below jamming, the systems experience the well known jamming transition, with characteristic evolutions of the state variables elastic energy, elastic stress, coordination number, and elastic moduli. For large strain rates, kinetic energy comes into play and the evolution is more dynamic. In contrast, at extremely slow deformation, the system relaxes to hyper-elastic states, with well-defined elastic moduli, in static equilibrium between irreversible (plastic) re-arrangement events, discrete in time. Small, finite strains explore those reversible (elastic) states, before larger strains push the system into new states, by irreversible, sudden re-arrangements of the micro-structure.

1 Introduction

In non-Newtonian systems, complex fluids [1], colloidal suspensions, [2], and especially granular matter in its flowing states [3], the transport coefficients depend on various state-variables such as the density and the granular temperature [4]. This interdependence and the presence of energy dissipation is at the origin of many interesting phenomena like clustering [5], shear-band formation [6], jamming/unjamming [7, 8], dilatancy [9], shear-thickening [2, 10, 11] or shear-jamming [8, 12, 13]. While granular gases are very well described by kinetic theory [4], dense granular fluids and granular solids are much harder to understand, in particular since they can transit from fluid-like flowing states to static, reversibly elastic ones. How and why they achieve this is still under debate, e.g., by irreversible plastic deformations [14–19], related also to creep/relaxation [9, 20–22], and many other studies.

In the following section 2, we will first present a few typical particle simulations from loading-unloading cycles, for which we vary the compression strain rate over orders of magnitude - with the goal to zoom-in to the slow rate data to display understand what is going on during plastic, irreversible re-arrangement events.

2 DEM particle simulations

The discrete element method (DEM) particle simulations presented here are a simple element test in a periodic cubical cell, with only diagonal components of the strain-rate tensor active. Only isotropic loading/un-loading is presented here, from many different alternative loading paths (e.g., pure shear in plane strain or axial strain modes). Deformations are applied to all particles, each time-step, while at the same time the periodic cell size also changes, accordingly. The reference model is using $N = 4913$ frictionless particles ($\mu_p = 0$), with particle diameters drawn from a random homogeneous size distribution with maximum to minimum width, $w = d_{p\text{ max}}/d_{p\text{ min}} = 3$, similar to the particles used in Ref. [12], and many references therein. The contact model is the simplest linear spring-dashpot model, set to frictionless (resulting in higher packing densities), since only this allows to focus on (irreversible) structural re-arrangements rather than contact sliding events.

2.1 Non-dimensionalization of DEM

The parameters given in the following with a prime, e.g., $\dot{\rho}_p = 2000$ or $d_p = 2$, are used in the simulations shown in this paper. For working with units, there are two alternatives: Either one can read the numbers in chosen units 1 or the units are chosen based on physical properties to achieve non-dimensional quantities. The latter option is adopted here, i.e., the unit of length is chosen as the mean particle diameter, $x_u = \langle d_p \rangle = 2$, so that $\langle d_p \rangle = 1$ is the dimensionless diameter. The second unit is the material density, $\rho_u = \dot{\rho}_p = 2000$, so that one has the dimensionless density, $\rho = \cdot \phi$, and thus the unit of mass, $m_u = \rho_u (x_u)^3$, i.e., the particle mass, $m_p = (\pi/6)$. For the third unit there is several choices, where we adopt here the units of elastic stress, $\sigma_u = k_u/d_p$, with the linear normal contact stiffness, $k_u = 10^5$, which yields the dimensionless stress $\sigma = \sigma d_p/k_u$, and results in the unit of time

*1Units could be chosen as: length, $x_u = 0.5 \times 10^{-3}$ m, time, $t_u = 10^{-3}$ s, and mass, $m_u = 1.25 \times 10^{-10}$ kg, to match experimental values: $d_p = d_p x_u = 1$ nm, $\rho_u = \rho_u d_p = 2000$ kg m$^{-3}$, etc.
In the chosen units, the dimensionless linear stiffness is $k_n = k_n(t_0^2)/m_p = 1$, and the linear contact viscosity, $\gamma_n = 10^3$, becomes $\gamma_n = \gamma_n t_0/m_p = \gamma_n/[k_n t_0] = 4 \times 10^{-3}$, with background viscosity, $\gamma_0 = 10^2$, or $\gamma_0 = \gamma_0 t_0/m_p = 4 \times 10^{-4}$.

The consequent physically relevant properties are the restitution coefficient $r = \exp(-\eta t_0) = 0.855$, with damping factor $\eta = \gamma_n/(2m_{12})$, reduced mass, $m_{12} = 0.063$, and contact duration, $t_c = \pi/\sqrt{k_n m_{12} - \eta^2} = 0.79$, or $t_c = t_0 t_c = 0.316$, all considered for a contact between the largest and the smallest particle, with the larger vibration to the pre-existing larger background damping time-scale, $t_b = 2m_{12}/\gamma_n \approx 5$, and the even larger background damping time-scale $t_b = 2m_{12}/\gamma_0 \approx 50$. Note that this choice of units corresponds to setting $t_0 \propto t_c$.

2.2 Rate-dependent loading and un-loading

In this subsection, four simulations are compared with different applied (constant) isotropic strain-rates: $\dot{\varepsilon}_r = 1.05 \times 10^{-7}$ s$^{-1}$ (XXXS), $\dot{\varepsilon}_r = 1.05 \times 10^{-6}$ s$^{-1}$ (XXXS), $\dot{\varepsilon}_r = 1.05 \times 10^{-5}$ s$^{-1}$ (XS), and $\dot{\varepsilon}_r = 1.05 \times 10^{-4}$ s$^{-1}$ (S), where the letter codes refer to Slow (S), eXtra-Slow (XS), etc., for both loading and un-loading, i.e., every X corresponding to 10 times slower.

Next, some physical quantities are plotted for loading (L) and unloading (UL). The dimensionless pressure, $p = $
But how to identify the jamming density? For decompression, the pressure $P$ (blue lines) drops linearly and thus allows for a straightforward identification of $\phi_j$, unlike during compression, when the pressure $P$ increases rather smoothly, with some wiggles, displaying even some drops, most clear for the smallest compression rate in panel (d). Jamming is not well defined during continuous ongoing compression, due to these plastic events overlapping; events can only be seen in $P$ if there is enough time between them for the system to relax all fluctuation.
energy down close to zero, which is not possible for the faster rates. Thus, close to jamming, even the slowest simulation is not slow enough!

As second indication of the jamming transition [7, 24], the kinetic energy ratio $K/(1 + K)$ (red) decays from unity down to zero in the jamming region (yellow) and reaches a low (yet rate-dependent) level with a considerable elastic stress backbone (cyan), before it drops even stronger from the right end of the cyan regime up. For ongoing compression, the kinetic energy becomes considerably smaller and smaller than the potential energy - except during plastic re-arrangement events (not visible in this scale).

The jamming transition is identified as the margin between yellow and cyan, which is placed at the transition of the coordination number $C^*$ (green) to above its isostatic value, $C^* \geq C_0 = 6$ (thin black dotted line, for frictionless particles, as used here). This transition is based on a fit/smoothing of the data, and thus not considering the wiggles in the coordination number, as they are considerable during jamming.

3 Conclusion

To summarize, “microscopic” DEM particle simulations with different strain-rates were used to track jamming and unjamming during one loading (over-compression) and un-loading cycle. For the frictionless model system used here, a considerable difference between jamming and unjamming volume fractions is observed, which was explained previously by a series of irreversible system re-arrangement events [12], – some local (involving only few particles), some global (involving many particles) – frequent and strong during loading – much less during unloading. Every event results in a change of the jamming density, increasing during loading, and only partly recovering during unloading, as described in detail in Ref. [25].

The “mesoscopic” system re-arrangement events that sometimes concern only a few particles, but sometimes also most of the system, can be tracked and identified from macroscopic information such as stress, or better kinetic energy, if the deformation rate is small enough. For larger pressure, the system is much less sensible to the rate, and – except for the fastest simulation – the system has enough time between events (discrete in time) to relax back to hyper-elastic, mechanically stable states – reversible if strain is reversed – that also have a well defined elastic bulk modulus.

However, even the smallest rate used here does not succeed to separate events very close to jamming, since their relaxation times are still too long. Thus, even slower deformations have to be performed close to jamming in order to study those events.

Further work in progress concerns the understanding of the effect of system size, and of more realistic frictional particles. Open is still how the re-arrangement events look like and how to bring those local and global events (possibly a superposition of many, or an avalanche from local events) into a macroscopic continuum theory [25]. The fact that different rates lead to different packings (with different jamming density) is also relevant for packing generation procedures, and a more quantitative study of the relaxation times for different densities above jamming is ongoing and will be published elsewhere.

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