

# **MECHANICAL AND FRACTURE BEHAVIOUR OF WATER SUBMERGED GRAPHENE NANOSHEET**

**A DISSERTATION**

*Submitted in partial fulfillment of the  
Requirements for the award of the degree*

*of*

**MASTER OF TECHNOLOGY**

*in*

**MECHANICAL ENGINEERING**

**(With Specialization in Machine Design Engineering)**

*by*

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**CANDIDATE'S DECLARATION**

I hereby declare that the work carried out in this report entitled “**MECHANICAL AND FRACTURE BEHAVIOUR OF WATER SUBMERGED GRAPHENE NANOSHEET**”, is presented on behalf of partial fulfillment of the requirement for the Dissertation of “**Master of Technology**” in Mechanical Engineering with specialization in **Machine Design Engineering** submitted to the Department of Mechanical and Industrial Engineering, Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee under the supervision of **Dr. Avinash Parashar**, Assistant professor and **Dr. R. S. Mulik**, Associate Professor, Department of Mechanical and Industrial Engineering, Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee.

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## ABSTRACT

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In this exciting age, new materials with distinctive properties emerge and continue to pique the interest of the scientific community. Stiffness and strength are the important factors in determining stability and lifetime of any technological device, but defects which are inevitable at the time of production can alter the structural properties of any engineering material. Owing to exceptional properties and diversified field of applications, graphene has attracted tremendous attention from the researchers. Developing graphene with specific structural properties depends upon controlling the concentration and distribution of geometrical defects, either by removing or deliberately introducing them in the atomic structure. Due to the spatial scale involved in such 2D nanomaterials, experimental characterization is still a challenge for researchers. Due to these challenges, numerical techniques are emerging as a viable alternative for predicting the properties of graphene. Hence, classical mechanics based molecular dynamics (MD) simulations has been considered in this research work to study the effect of defects on the mechanical properties of graphene. Success and accuracy of any molecular dynamics based simulation entirely depends on the interatomic potential employed for estimating the interatomic forces between atoms. In this work, a systematic study has been performed with different types of interatomic potentials to simulate graphene and water in the environment of molecular dynamics. Due to ever increasing demand of clean potable water, nanomaterial based membranes are emerging as potential candidates to replace the conventional polymeric membrane for enhance efficiency of desalination system. In this thesis, molecular dynamics based simulations has been performed to study the defect formation dynamics in water submerged graphene. The work is further extended to study the structural stability and fracture toughness of water submerged graphene.

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## TABLE OF CONTENT

Title	Page
<b>CANDIDATE'S DECLARATION</b> .....	<b>i</b>
<b>ABSTRACT</b> .....	<b>ii</b>
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</b> .....	<b>iii</b>
<b>TABLE OF CONTENT</b> .....	<b>iv</b>
<b>LIST OF FIGURES</b> .....	<b>vi</b>
<b>LIST OF TABLES</b> .....	<b>vii</b>
<b>LIST OF PUBLICATIONS</b> .....	<b>viii</b>
<b>Chapter 1 INTRODUCTION</b> .....	<b>1</b>
1.1 DEFINITION OF PROBLEM.....	4
1.2 OBJECTIVE OF WORK .....	4
1.3 REFERENCES.....	4
<b>Chapter 2 CHARACTERIZING TECHNIQUES</b> .....	<b>11</b>
2.1 EXPERIMENTAL APPROACH .....	11
2.2 STRUCTURAL MECHANICS-BASED APPROACH.....	12
2.3 DENSITY FUNCTIONAL THEORY (DFT) .....	14
2.4 MOLECULAR DYNAMICS.....	15
2.5 REFERENCES.....	18
<b>Chapter 3 DEFECT FORMATION DYNAMICS IN DRY AND WATER SUBMERGED GRAPHENE NANOSHEETS</b> .....	<b>23</b>
3.1 INTRODUCTION.....	23
3.2 MODELLING DETAILS.....	25
3.3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS.....	29

3.4 CONCLUSION .....	33
3.5 REFERENCES.....	33

**Chapter 4 MECHANICAL AND FRACTURE BEHAVIOUR OF WATER SUBMERGED GRAPHENE.....37**

4.1 INTRODUCTION.....	37
4.2 MODELLING DETAILS.....	39
4.3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS.....	42
4.3.1 STRUCTURAL STABILITY OF GRAPHENE SUBMERGED IN WATER....	43
4.3.2 FRACTURE TOUGHNESS OF DRY AND WATER SUBMERGED GRAPHENE.....	45
4.3.3 EFFECT OF HYDROGEN PASSIVATION OF CRACK EDGE ATOMS.....	49
4.4 CONCLUSION .....	51
4.5 REFERENCES.....	51

**Chapter 5 CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE ASPECTS**

5.1 CONCLUSIONS.....	54
5.2 FUTURE ASPECTS.....	55

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1.1 Atomic configurations of graphene and h-BN nanosheets. AC and ZZ correspond to armchair and zigzag direction, respectively.....	2
1.2 Atomic configuration of grain boundaries in (a) zigzag-oriented graphene (b) armchair-oriented graphene.....	4
2.1 A schematic of characterizing techniques for nanomaterials.....	11
2.2 Molecular and equivalent finite element models of the graphene nanosheets.....	12
2.3 Schematic diagram of a multiscale model to simulate a nanocomposite.....	13
3.1 Dry and submerged graphene nanosheets, respectively.....	26
3.2 Target atomic system (shown in red coloured shaded region), while rest of the carbon monolayer sheet is kept at a constant sink temperature of 300 K.....	27
3.3 (a) Velocity given in z+ direction to selected PKA from the central portion, (b) Target atom gaining energy and (c) Permanent damage created as the PKA atom Is dislodged from its lattice position.....	28
3.4 Grain boundary configuration containing misorientation angle of (a) $9.4^\circ$ , (b) $13.2^\circ$ and (c) $21.8^\circ$ , respectively.....	29
3.5 Potential energy distribution over the carbon atoms in the vicinity of vacancy created in (a) dry and (b) wet form of graphene.....	31
3.6 Displacement threshold energy in dry and wet form of graphene.....	32
4.1 Comparison between Cauchy and Atomistic Stresses.....	41
4.2 Atomistic configurations of (a) dry and (b) submerged graphene nanosheets.....	43
4.3 Atomic force distribution after energy minimization corresponding to (a) dry and (b) submerged graphene nanosheets, respectively.....	44
4.4 Strain energy vs Strain response for dry and submerged graphene (a) AC and (b) ZZ directions, respectively.....	45
4.5 Schematic of crack in graphene subjected to mode-I loading in (a) AC and (b) ZZ directions, respectively.....	46
4.6 Variation in out of plane displacement between the crack edges of graphene nanosheet in dry and wet state.....	47
4.7 Change in bond length for the critical bond at the crack tip as a function of applied strain corresponding to (a) AC direction and (b) ZZ direction.....	48

4.8 Normalized crack tip stresses (a) AC (b) ZZ directions, respectively.....	48
4.9 Variation in fracture toughness with crack width along AC direction.....	49
4.10 Crack edge hydrogen passivation in (a) AC and (b) ZZ directions.....	50

## LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1.1 Properties of graphene nanosheets .....	2
3.1 GB formation energies for Dry and Submerged Graphene at various angles.....	32
4.1 FWHM and VFE values of dry and water submerged graphene.....	43
4.2 Fracture toughness of dry and water submerged graphene in AC and ZZ directions.....	46



## LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

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1. **Saurabh S Sharma**, Bharat Bhushan Sharma, Avinash Parashar (2019) “Defect formation dynamics in dry and water submerged graphene nanosheets”, *Mater. Res. Express*, 6 075063.
2. **Saurabh S Sharma**, Bharat Bhushan Sharma, Avinash Parashar (2019) “Mechanical and fracture behaviour of water submerged graphene”, *Journal of Applied Physics*, JAP19-AR-00311R1 (ACCEPTED)
3. **Saurabh S Sharma**, Avinash Parashar (2019) “Fracture behaviour of graphene nanosheet submerged in water”, ICANM (2019), 7<sup>th</sup> international Conference and Exhibition on Advanced and Nanomaterials, Montreal, Canada. (ACCEPTED)

# Chapter 1

## Introduction

Due to exceptional properties and diversified field of applications, two-dimensional (2D) nanomaterials have attracted prime attention of researchers. Among the 2D nanomaterials [1–18], graphene and h-BN are in the forefront of research, and have been studied extensively by many researchers. As compared to other 2D nanomaterials, graphene is emerging as a most promising material for future technological applications. Exceptional properties of graphene (given in table 1.1) such as mechanical strength [19,20], thermal conductivity [21,22], electrical conductivity [2], tribology [23], optical transparency [24], flame retardancy [25–27], and stable thermal, chemical and electrochemical properties [28,29] are attributed either to  $sp^2$  hybridisation state of carbon-carbon bond or honeycomb space frame structure as shown in Fig.1. Graphene has already been employ for developing technologies in diversified field such as hydrogen storage [30,31], nano-sensors [32], nano-actuators [33], field effect transistors (FET) [34–37], gigahertz oscillators [38], memory devices [36], sensors, drug deliverer [39], transparent conductive films [40], graphene field emission (FE) [40], clean energy devices [34], graphene-based gas and bio sensors [41–46], graphene anodes, transparent electrodes, battery [42,47], super capacitors [47], pseudo capacitors [47], electrical double layer capacitors (EDLCs) [47], solar cells [47,48], energy production and storage [47–50], lasers protection [51], desalination membrane [52], gas barrier [53], optoelectronic applications [37] and room temperature humidity sensing applications [54]. Graphene is also listed among the potential nanofillers for developing nanocomposites with improved mechanical properties, thermal and electrical conductivities [36,47,55–59].

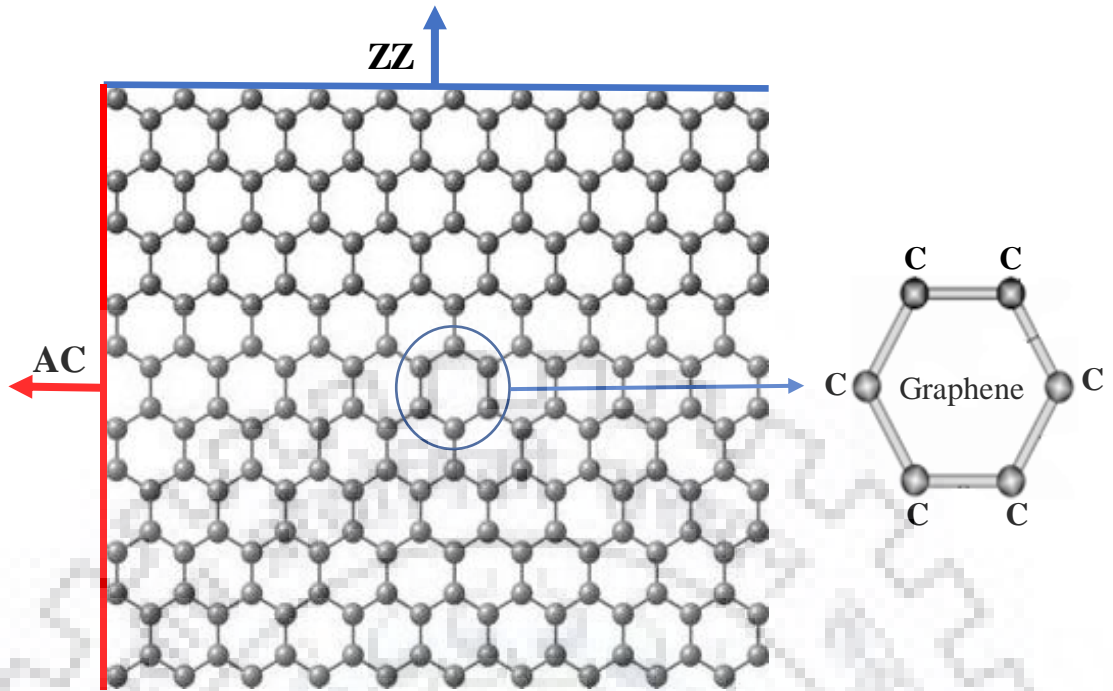


Fig.1.1 Atomic configurations of graphene nanosheet. AC and ZZ correspond to armchair and zigzag directions, respectively.[73]

**Table 1.1** Properties of single crystalline graphene and h-BN nanosheets

<i>Property</i>	<i>Graphene</i>
<i>Color</i>	Black [21]
<i>Bond length (Å)</i>	1.42 [21]
<i>Young's modulus (TPa)</i>	~ 1 [60]
<i>Failure strength (GPa)</i>	~ 130 [60]
<i>Shear modulus (GPa)</i>	280 [61]
<i>Mode I Fracture toughness (MPa√m)</i>	~ 4 [62]
<i>Thermal conductivity (W m<sup>-1</sup> K<sup>-1</sup>)</i>	~ 5000 [63]
<i>Thermal stability (°C)</i>	~ 500 [64]
<i>Band gap (eV)</i>	0 [65]
<i>Specific surface area (m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>)</i>	2630 [34]

In order to extend the application of these 2D nanosheets, researchers are now working on synthesising 2D nanomaterials with at-least one dimension in the range of micro meters. There is a wide range of techniques for the synthesizing of graphene and h-BN nanosheets, which allow flexibility of choices in terms of quality, size and volume of production. Some of the universal techniques used by the researchers for synthesizing graphene are chemical vapour deposition (CVD) [42,65–67], micromechanical cleavage [42,66,68], laser ablation [69], epitaxial growth of graphene on SiC [66], arc discharge [68], molecular beam epitaxy [66], and chemical exfoliation [42,65,66,70]. Generally, large size graphene and h-BN nanosheets are synthesized by the chemical vapor deposition (CVD) technique, but due to multiple nucleating sites, resulted morphology is polycrystalline instead of pristine nanosheets.

During the synthesis of these nanomaterials, either inadvertently or intentionally geometrical defects are introduced. Sometimes, researchers are intentionally introducing defects to tailor failure morphology or fracture toughness of these nanomaterials [71–79]. In larger size graphene and h-BN nanosheets, tilt GB structures are the common type of geometrical defects. Atomic configuration of GB structures in graphene and h-BN nanosheets are illustrated in Fig. 2. Building block of GB's are pair of pentagon and heptagon structures as shown in Fig.2 [80].

In larger size graphene, tilt GB structures are the common type of geometrical defects. Atomic configuration of GB structures in graphene nanosheets with pair of pentagon and heptagon structures are illustrated in Fig.1.2

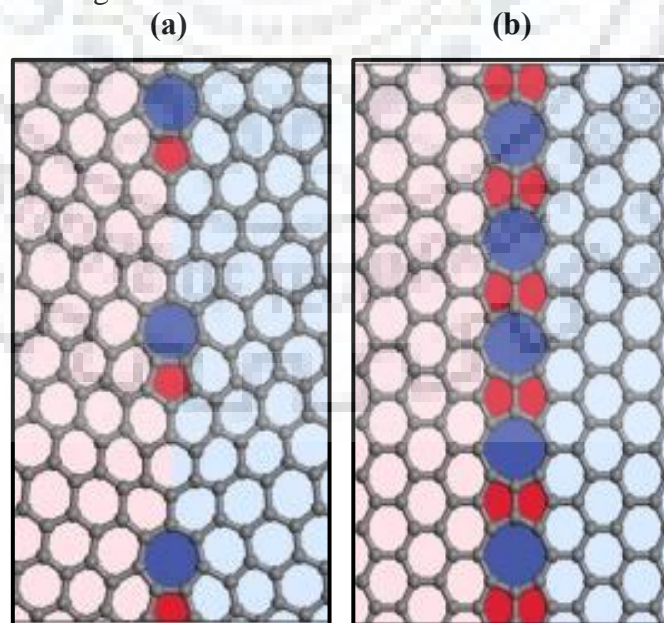


Fig.1.2 Atomic configuration of grain boundaries in (a) zigzag-oriented graphene (b) armchair-oriented graphene [79]

## 1.1 Definition of problem

The application of de-salination has caught fancy of world-wide research community. Need of the hour, fresh potable water, is very much likely to be fulfilled in near future by utilising RO plants. Better quality with extended shelf life can be obtained if futuristic materials like graphene are used. Extensive amount of research has already been performed with pristine as well as 2D nanomaterials (graphene nanosheets). Now, researchers are focusing on synthesizing these nanosheets with dimensions in the range of micrometres, which limits them to polycrystalline structure but increases their utility.

## 1.2 Objective of work

Primary focus of my dissertation was to find out behaviour of graphene in fluidic media (water) and understand its mechanical properties. Molecular dynamics-based simulations would be performed in conjunction with AIREBO and ReaxFF and TiP3P potentials to simulate graphene submerged in water model. Simulations would be performed to study the effect of defects such as cracks and vacancies on the mechanical properties, fracture toughness and failure morphology of graphene sheet.

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## Characterizing techniques

Characterization techniques for nanomaterials can be classified broadly under two sections, experimental and computational based methods as illustrated with the help of schematic in Fig 2.1. Each of these characterization techniques has certain advantages and challenges associated with them, which is discussed in the section followed.

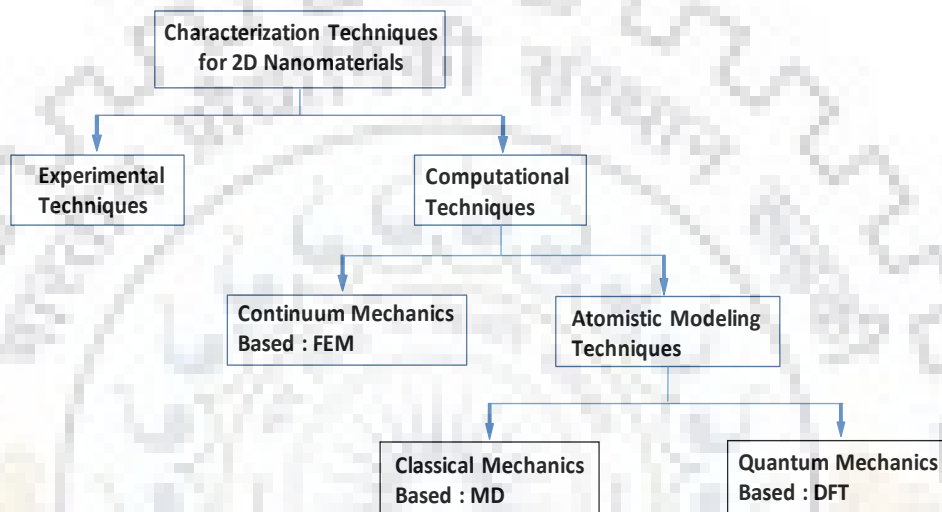


Fig 2.1 A schematic of characterizing techniques for nanomaterials

### 2.1 Experimental approach

Amelinckx et al. [1,2] was among the first few researchers, employed transmission electron microscopy (TEM) to observe dislocation formation in graphite. Later in the year 2004, Hashimoto and his research group also employed TEM based techniques to study the formation and distribution of dislocations in graphene [3]. First experimental studies on polycrystalline graphene and h-BN was published in the year 2011 [4–8]. TEM (high resolution and dark field) is emerging as most powerful and widely used technique to investigate the polycrystalline morphology in graphene and h-BN nanosheets [7,9–13]. Apart from TEM, scanning electron microscopy (SEM) [8], scanning tunneling microscopy (STM) [14–17], scanning tunneling spectroscopy (STS) [16,17], Raman spectroscopy [16], X-ray diffraction (XRD) [13,17], atomic force microscope (AFM) [8,16,17,18], X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy [18,20] and near edge X-ray absorption fine structure spectroscopy [21] are other standard experimental techniques that are widely used to characterize polycrystalline 2D nanomaterial's. Despite the

fact that experimental techniques are costly and time consuming, but still they are among the most accurate and realistic in nature. In addition to cost and time, experimental techniques have limitations in capturing the physics at the localized atomistic level, whereas in these nanomaterial's deformation mechanics is governed by the bond dynamics. Due to these limitations associated with experimental techniques, researchers are motivated to explore computational techniques as viable alternative to experiments.

## 2.2 Structural mechanics-based approach

The computational techniques can be further classified as atomistic and continuum mechanics-based techniques. The atomistic techniques include classical mechanics based molecular dynamics (MD) and quantum mechanics based density functional theory (DFT), whereas the continuum mechanics based approach mainly consists of classical continuum mechanics based finite element method (FEM) [22–25]. Already, so many research articles have been published on modelling of graphene and h-BN nanosheets with the help of structural mechanics-based approaches. In 2003, Li and Chou [23] proposed a structural mechanics based approach to simulate the deformation in single and multiple carbon nanotubes (CNT). This work is considered as a pioneer research in the field of continuum based atomistic modelling of nanomaterials.

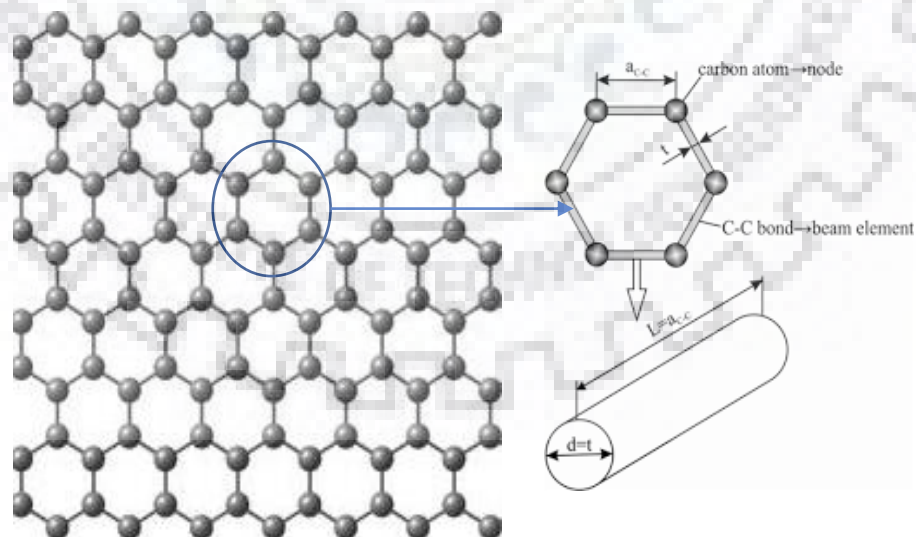


Fig 2.2 Molecular and equivalent finite element models of the graphene nanosheets[30]

Fundamental of this model was based on the notion that the atomic configuration of CNT and graphene can be simulated as space frame structure. In structural mechanics-based approach, the primary bonds between two nearest neighbouring atoms act like load bearing beam elements, whereas individual atom acts as the joint of the related load bearing beam elements or nodes. The properties of these beam elements are extracted from establishing a simple linkage between the structural and molecular mechanics. In their structural mechanics-based approach, the motion of atomic nuclei is regulated with the help of force field and this force field is generally expressed as the steric potential energy, which depends on the relative position of atomic nuclei. These structural mechanics based modelling techniques have also been extended by researchers for the modelling of 2D nanomaterials such as graphene and h-BN nanosheets [26–32]. In addition to these FEM based models of nanofillers, researchers have also used structural mechanics-based approach in conjunction with FEM to simulate mechanical and fracture properties of nanocomposites. In order to model the nanocomposite in the framework of FEM, researchers have mostly developed representative volume element (RVE), consisting of single fiber, matrix and a region in between as interface [30,31]. In FEM framework, beam, truss and continuum 3D elements are commonly used to mesh bonds, interface and matrix, respectively as shown in Fig 2.3

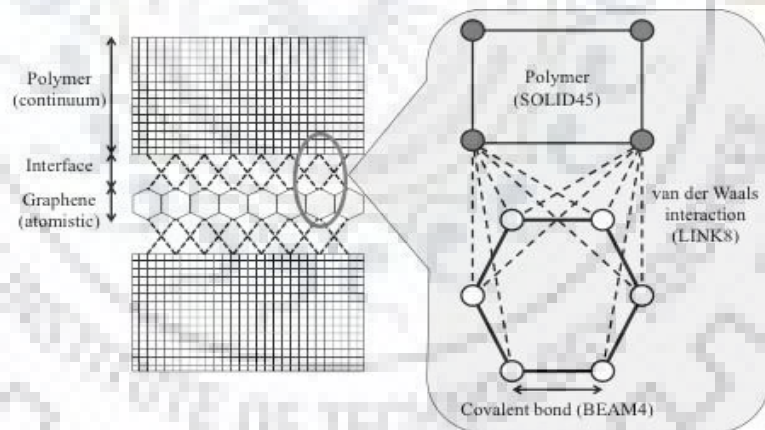


Fig 2.3 Schematic diagram of a multiscale model to simulate a nanocomposite [30]

Continuum mechanics-based approach has extensively been used by the researchers to characterise mechanical properties, fracture toughness and thermal conductivity of nanofillers and corresponding nanocomposites. Despite all these research work, continuum-based approach is limited to predicting the global or average properties, and has limitations in capturing the localised bond dynamics in these nanomaterials. On the other hand, in nanomaterials the properties are mainly governed by the physics involved at the local bond

level. Due to significant improvement in the computational facilities, researchers are substituting continuum-based approach with other atomistic level techniques such as quantum-based density functional theory and classical mechanics based molecular dynamics, which are able to capture the localised properties as well.

### 2.3 Density Functional Theory (DFT)

Quantum mechanics based density functional theory (DFT) is considered as most accurate among the other computational techniques. The fundamental equation (Schrödinger equation) for the electronic wave functions in presence of potential field generated by stationary atoms is solved in quantum mechanics framework. In quantum mechanics based approaches, atomic nuclei is considered as static, while the electrons are considered as moveable in the electrostatic field generated by the nuclei. In DFT based calculations, electron density is the key parameter that plays an imperative role in determining the total energy of atomic system. This total energy  $E[\rho]$ , as a functional of the electron energy density ‘ $\rho$ ’ is expressed in Eq. (1):

$$E[\rho] = T[\rho] + E_H[\rho] + E_{xc}[\rho] + E_{ext}[\rho] + E_{zz} \quad (1)$$

Where  $T[\rho]$ ,  $E_H[\rho]$ ,  $E_{xc}[\rho]$ ,  $E_{ext}[\rho]$  and  $E_{zz}$  are the energy contributions from kinetic energy of non-interacting electrons, Hartree energy, exchange–correlation energy, external potential energy (here due to the potential of nuclei) and ion energy (due to interactions among nuclei), respectively. Solving Schrödinger equation without approximations is a tedious and highly computationally intensive task, hence, Kohn Sham (KS) [33,34] has proposed a simplified form of the equation for performing DFT calculations, which provides relatively good approximation to the energy calculations. In KS method, a problem of many interacting particles is curtailed into an equivalent fictitious problem of non-interacting particles. KS equations for this new system model are given by Eq. (2) and (3):

$$\left[ -\frac{1}{2}\nabla^2 + V_{eff}(r) \right] \varphi_i(r) = \epsilon_i \varphi_i \quad (2)$$

Where

$$V_{eff} = \frac{\delta(E_H[\rho] + E_{xc}[\rho] + E_{ext}[\rho])}{\delta\rho} = V_H[\rho] + V_{xc}[\rho] + V_{ext}[\rho] \quad (3)$$

and is known as KS or effective potential,  $\varphi_i$  are the KS one electrons orbitals whereas electron density  $\rho(r)$  is given by Eq. (4):

$$\rho(r) = \sum_{i=1}^N |\varphi_i|^2 \quad (4)$$



In order to solve KS equations, an initial guess of electron density “ $\rho$ ” is required, which is further converged to the final electron density values after certain number of iterations. In a solid state system, the pseudopotentials (PP) [34] are used for defining interactions between core and valence electrons. After solving the KS equations, the electron density is obtained and is used to calculate the total ground state energy of the whole system. This procedure of solving KS equations is repeated until a self-consistent solution is achieved. This optimized total ground state energy is used to estimate the other structural properties of the material.

Strain energy ( $U$ ) obtained from DFT based simulations (as illustrated by Eq. 5) are further processed to estimate the mechanical properties of the system.

$$U = U_{\varepsilon} - U_{\varepsilon=0} \quad (5)$$

Where,  $U_{\varepsilon}$  and  $U_{\varepsilon=0}$  are the strain/ potential energy of the strained and unstrained atomistic system respectively and this strain energy is again processed to predict Young’s modulus ( $Y$  in  $\text{Nm}^{-2}$ ) and 2D Young’s modulus ( $Y_S$  in  $\text{Nm}^{-1}$ ) as demonstrated in Eq. (6) and (7) respectively:

$$Y = (\partial^2 U / \partial \varepsilon^2) / V \quad (6)$$

$$Y_S = (\partial^2 U / \partial \varepsilon^2) / S \quad (7)$$

Here,  $V$  and  $S$  are volume and surface area respectively.

Although, the DFT based technique are widely used technique for the atomistic simulations performed with limited number of atoms. Due to computationally intensive calculations, DFT based simulations are limited to estimate binding energies, defect formation energies and properties that can be estimated with the help of limited number of atoms in the range of hundreds and thousands. These days’ researchers are using DFT simulations in multiscale modeling techniques, where limited part of the atoms are dealt with DFT, whereas the remaining with less computational intensive technique such as molecular dynamics [35].

## 2.4 Molecular Dynamics

Molecular dynamics (MD) based technique is another emerging alternative to perform atomistic simulations. MD is already considered a powerful tool for simulation in the field of biological and chemical science. In the last few years, application of MD based simulations has been extended in the field of material science to predict properties of conventional as well as non-conventional materials. MD is a widely used semi empirical computer based atomistic

simulation technique of atoms/molecules in the context of N-body systems. In MD based simulations atoms are treated as classical particles, and interaction between them is estimated with the help of empirically derived interatomic potentials. Relationship derived from the Newton's second law of motion is used for updating the position, velocity and acceleration of each atom in the system with respect to integration time steps. The fundamental equation (Eq.8) solved in MD based simulation is given as:

$$m_{\alpha}a_{\alpha} = F_{\alpha} = -(\partial E/\partial r_{\alpha}) \quad (8)$$

where  $\alpha = 1, 2, \dots, N$

Here,  $N$  is total number of atoms;  $m_{\alpha}$ ,  $r_{\alpha}$  and  $F_{\alpha}$  are mass, position and time dependent force acting on it due to external agents, respectively. The potential energy ' $E$ ' consists of an internal part ( $E^{int}$ ) that accounts for the interaction between the atoms and an external part ( $E^{ext}$ ) that accounts for external fields and constraints. Potential energy ( $E$ ) and force  $F_{\alpha}$  are the function of position and velocity vectors of the atoms. Statistical mechanics-based approaches are commonly used over the time averages to derive macroscopic properties such as pressure, temperature, stresses etc.

In MD based simulations, position and velocity vectors are updated after each integration time step, usually by using any of the numerical integration algorithms [36–37]. Interatomic potentials/force fields (FF) form the most integral and critical part of any MD based simulation. Generalized expression for estimating the total atomic energy of the system containing  $\alpha$  atoms is provided in Eq. (9)

$$U_{total} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\alpha=\beta=1}^N \sum_{\beta=1}^N \phi(r_{\alpha\beta}) \quad (9)$$

where,  $r_{\alpha\beta}$  is the distance between particles  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ ,  $\phi(r_{\alpha\beta})$  is the potential energy between particles  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ . Interatomic potentials are empirically developed and validated either from experiments or higher fidelity numerical simulations such as DFT. They are subdivided based on positions of number of atoms taken into consideration; pair potentials (two atoms), three- and four- body potentials (three and four atoms) and cluster potentials (n atoms). In order to keep the review concise and comprehensive, brief details of commonly used interatomic potentials for 2D nanomaterial's such as graphene and h-BN is included in the dissertation. For the modelling of carbon based nanofillers, AMBER [38], chemistry at Harvard macromolecular mechanics (CHARMM) [39], L-J [40], reactive bond order (REBO) [41], adaptive interatomic

reactive bond order (AIREBO) [42], reactive force field (reaxFF) [43–45] and Tersoff type interatomic potentials [46–50] are commonly employed by the researchers.

In addition to these interatomic potentials, one more interatomic potential that is more accurate, and have the capability of capturing the bond breaking and formation is proposed by Andri Duin, is referred as reactive force field (ReaxFF). ReaxFF is a universal type force field that can be used to simulate mechanical and thermal behavior of graphene, h-BN as well as polymers with separate set of parameters [43–45,50]. Similar to other empirical non-reactive potentials, the total energy of the system is derived from various partial energy contributions (bonded as well as non-bonded) as expressed in Eq. (10).

$$E_{system} = E_{bond} + E_{over} + E_{under} + E_{lp} + E_{val} + E_{pen} + E_{tors} + E_{conj} + E_{vdWaals} + E_{Columb} \quad (10)$$

ReaxFF type potentials are reported to be more suitable for simulating bond-breaking and bond-forming mechanisms. Fundamental difference between ReaxFF and most of the other empirical interatomic potentials is that ReaxFF does not employ any fixed connectivity for the bonded interaction. In ReaxFF type potentials the bond order is directly calculated from the instantaneous interatomic distance  $r_{ij}$ , which keeps on updating during the simulation. This bond order is responsible for creation and dissociation of bonds during the simulation.

The concept of stress in a material or a body is well known at the continuum level and usually referred as Cauchy stress tensor. However, at atomistic level the principles of continuum are not applicable, and hence an alternative stress referred as virial stress is estimated at atomistic level. The virial stress is the most commonly used definition of stress in discrete particle systems. Virial stress is the summation of two components; first component depends upon the mass and velocity of the atoms (kinetic energy term), whereas the second component depends upon the interatomic forces and atomic positions. The mathematical expression for virial stress as the summation of two components is given by Eq. (11).

$$\sigma_{ij}^{\alpha} = \frac{1}{\varphi^{\alpha}} \left( \frac{1}{2} m^{\alpha} v_i^{\alpha} v_j^{\alpha} + \sum_{\beta=1,n} r_{\alpha\beta}^j f_{\alpha\beta}^i \right) \quad (11)$$

Where  $i$  and  $j$  denote indices in Cartesian coordinate system;  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are the atomic indices;  $m^\alpha$  and  $v^\alpha$  are mass and velocity of atom  $\alpha$ ;  $r_{\alpha\beta}$  is the distance between atoms  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ ; and  $\varphi^\alpha$  is the atomic volume of atom  $\alpha$ .

In addition to predicting the mechanical behavior of an atomistic system, the MD based simulations are also used for predicting the thermal behavior of the atomistic system. Thermal conductivity ( $k$ ) of a simulated atomistic configuration can be estimated by using the mathematical expressions given below:

$$k = \frac{J}{2A \left( \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \right)} \quad (12)$$

$$J = \frac{\sum 0.5 N_{transfer} (m_h v_h^2 - m_c v_c^2)}{t_{transfer}} \quad (13)$$

Here, in Eq. (12) and (13),  $\frac{\partial T}{\partial x}$  refers to the temperature gradient along the direction of heat flux ( $J$ ),  $A$  is the cross-sectional area,  $h$  and  $c$  refer to the hot and cold atoms,  $N_{transfer}$  and  $t_{transfer}$  are summation time and number of exchanges respectively.

After reviewing all the computational based techniques employed by researchers for the modelling of 2D nanomaterial's, it can be concluded that each of these techniques have some limitations and challenges associated with them. As compared to FEM based techniques, atomistic simulations are more suitable for the modelling of nanomaterials. Capability of capturing bond dynamics at the localized phase, with least computational efforts as compared to DFT, makes MD based simulations as the potential candidate for performing numerical simulations with 2D nanomaterials.

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# Defect formation dynamics in dry and water submerged graphene nanosheets<sup>1</sup>

## 3.1 Introduction

Much of the research in the post silicon age has been carried out to develop newer and better materials. Due to exceptional mechanical, thermal and electrical properties, graphene is emerging as a strong contender to replace conventional materials [1-6]. Researchers are exploring graphene for applications in diversified and futuristic applications [7-13]. Utilization of the  $sp^2$ -hybridized structure of carbon atoms in graphene is a novel way to look forward in space technology [14], desalination and filtration membrane systems [15,16], nano-biotechnology [17], MEMS/NEMS (nanoelectromechanical systems) [18], polymer reinforcement [19,20] and smart memory devices [21]. In addition to these applications, researchers are also developing nuclear pellets for nuclear reactors [22].

Graphene nanosheets are widely produced by mechanically exfoliating flakes from bulk graphite [23], which limits the control over size and crystal quality. Alternatively, graphene has also been synthesized on various solid surfaces by chemical vapor deposition (CVD) or surface segregation techniques. These processes induce various topological defects such as grain boundaries, dislocations, vacancies and Stone-Thrower-Wales (STW) defects which are also known as 5-7-7-5 defects. The STW defects are formed when one bond of C-C atoms in hexagonal structure is rotated by  $90^\circ$  forming 2 pentagons and 2 heptagons instead of 4 adjacent hexagons as mentioned in literature [24]. Rajasekaran et al. [24] studied the effect of point defects on mechanical and thermal properties of graphene. They predicted that graphene has a

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<sup>1</sup> This chapter is an excerpt from the article published as Saurabh S Sharma, Bharat Bhushan Sharma, Avinash Parashar, 2019, Mater. Res. Express 6 075063

unique ability to reconstruct its lattice structure by forming non-hexagonal rings. Verma et al. [25] predicted improved fracture toughness for hydrogen functionalized graphene in presence of STW defects in close vicinity of crack tip. Meng et al. [26] predicted that utilization of dislocations in graphene structure provided stress shielding effect at the crack tip. Recently, Singla et al. [27] studied the point defect formation energies in graphene containing STW defects. They found out the vacancy formation and displacement threshold energies are significantly affected in presence of STW defects. Defects such as STW, dislocations and point defects are geometrical in nature, can be synthesized chemically or introduced intentionally by ion and /or electron bombardment [28]. Yoon et al. [29] utilised noble gas ions to generate STW defects in graphene. In order to study the structural stability, Merrill et al. [30] predicted the displacement threshold energies of single walled carbon nanotubes. In addition to dry form, researchers have also started exploring the mechanical behavior of graphene submerged in water [31,32]. Wong and Vijayaraghavan [31] studied the mechanical strength of water submerged graphene in conjunction with vacancy defects. In their atomistic simulations edge effects were ignored in submerged graphene. Tanugi and Grossman [32] have also investigated the mechanical strength of water submerged graphene containing nanopores with different spatial distribution.

Amid the frenzy of worldwide research on a crucial material like graphene, there is one area that has eluded any systematic analysis, even though this information could be crucial to a host of potential applications that includes desalination, DNA sequencing, and devices for quantum communications and computation systems. But, limited research has been performed with respect to defect formation energies of graphene submerged in water. In order to investigate the defect formation dynamics, authors have performed molecular dynamics (MD) based simulations in conjunction with hybrid type of potentials. In the present dissertation, overall simulations were performed in three stages, initially, vacancy formation energies (VFE) were

estimated and later on displacement threshold energies ( $E_d$ ) were estimated for graphene in dry and wet forms. Finally, the grain boundary formation energies were predicted in water submerged graphene. In order to quantify the effect of water on the properties of graphene, results were compared with the pristine and dry form of graphene.

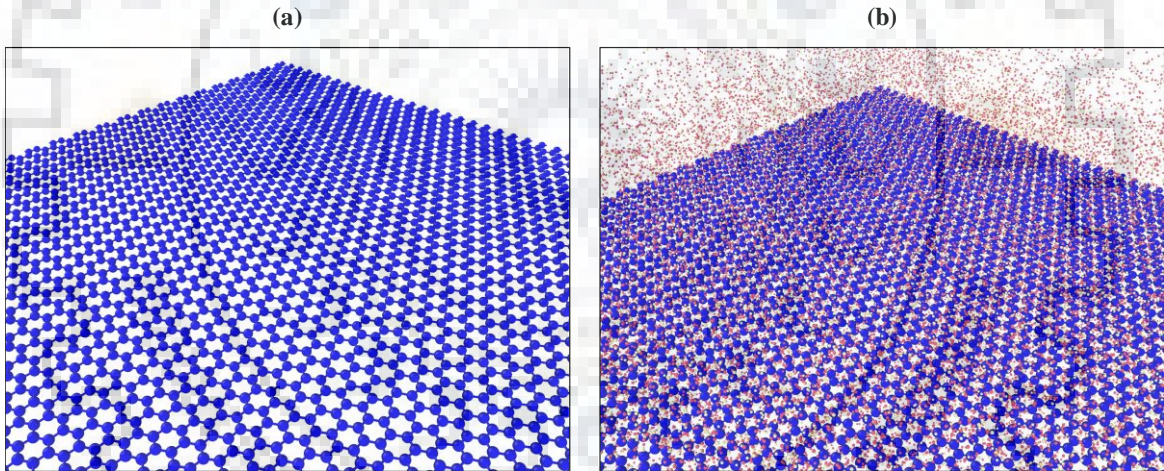
## 3.2 Modelling details

A classical mechanics-based approach was employed to study the defect formation dynamics in water submerged graphene. An open source code LAMMPS (Large-scale Atomic/Molecular Massively Parallel Simulator) package was used to perform all the atomistic simulations, whereas the post procession of dump files was performed with the help of open visualization tool (OVITO). In order to capture the atomistic interactions between the carbon-carbon atoms in graphene, more complex as well as accurate reactive force-field (ReaxFF) interatomic potential was utilised. ReaxFF employs a bond-order relationship in conjunction with charge descriptions to describe both reactive and non-reactive interactions between atoms [33]. The selection of this type of interatomic potential is justified as Reax FF is considered most accurate and next to the accuracy of quantum mechanics-based approaches like DFT (Density Functional Theory). Mathematically, energy contributions in the ReaxFF potential are summarised by the following equation:

$$E_{\text{system}} = E_{\text{bond}} + E_{\text{over}} + E_{\text{angle}} + E_{\text{tors}} + E_{\text{vdWaals}} + E_{\text{coulomb}} + E_{\text{specific}} \quad (1)$$

Here,  $E_{\text{bond}}$  is a continuous function of interatomic distance and describes the energy associated with forming bonds between atoms.  $E_{\text{over}}$  is an energy penalty preventing the over coordination of atoms, which is based on atomic valence rules (e.g., a stiff energy penalty is applied if a carbon atom forms more than four bonds).  $E_{\text{angle}}$  and  $E_{\text{tors}}$  are the energies associated with three-body valence angle strain and four-body torsional angle strain.  $E_{\text{vdWaals}}$  and  $E_{\text{coulomb}}$  are

electrostatic and dispersive contributions calculated between all atoms, regardless of connectivity and bond-order.  $E_{\text{specific}}$  represents system specific terms that are not generally included, unless required to capture properties particular to the system of interest, such as lone-pair, hydrogen binding and Conjugate bond corrections. In order to capture the bond dynamics between the oxygen and hydrogen atoms in water, TIP3P potential was used in all the simulations. On the other hand, non-bonded interactions between the water molecules and graphene was captured with the help of Lennard Jones potential. In order to avoid surface affects, periodic boundary conditions were imposed in all the principal directions. All the simulations were performed at the room temperature of 300K. Snapshot of the simulation box containing dry and water submerged graphene is shown in Fig.3.1



**Fig.3.1** Dry and submerged graphene nanosheets, respectively.

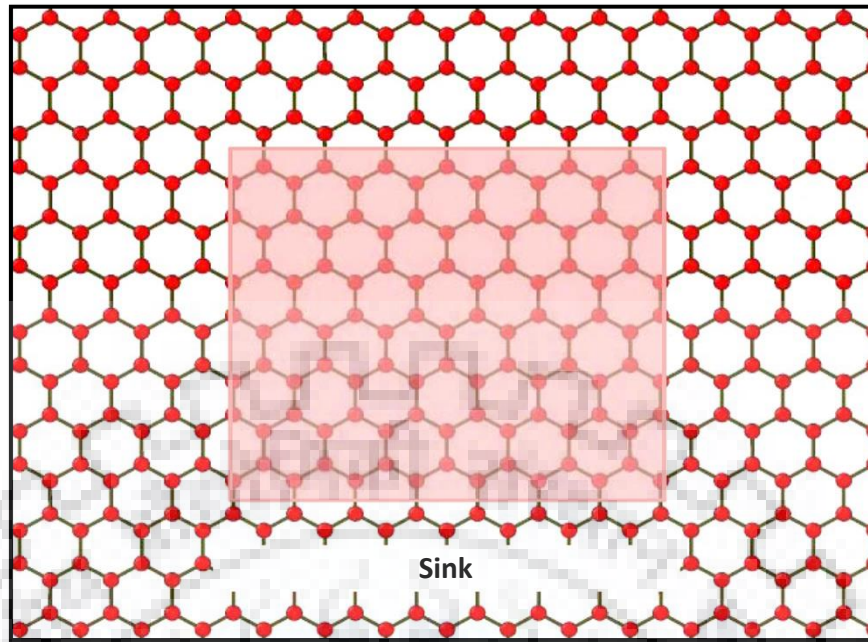
In this dissertation, simulations were performed to predict primarily three different type of defect formation energies, vacancy formation energy (VFE), displacement threshold energy ( $E_d$ ) and grain boundary formation energy ( $GB_E$ ). Mathematical expression to calculate value of VFE is given in equation 2.

$$VFE = E_{\text{vacancy}} - E_{\text{pristine}} + E_{\text{coh}} \quad (2)$$

where,  $E_{vacancy}$  and  $E_{pristine}$  corresponds to potential energy of graphene containing vacancy and in pristine form without defects, respectively, and  $E_{coh}$  is cohesive energy of carbon in graphene.

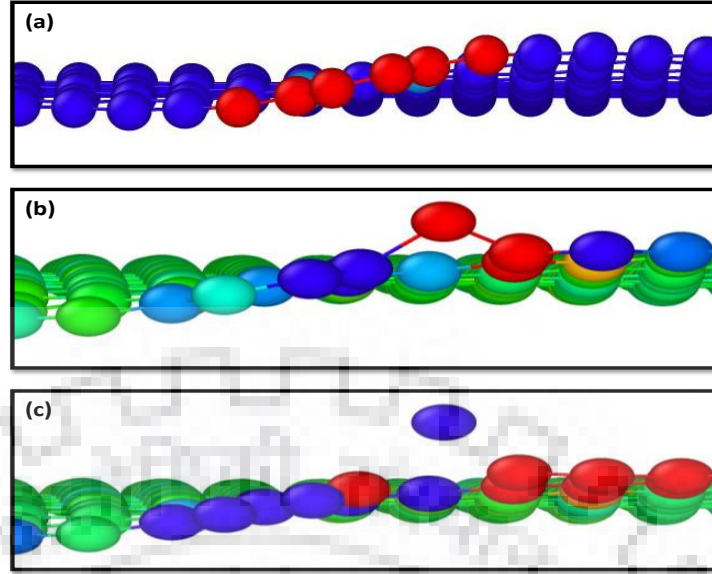
Simulations to predict VFE were carried out with dry and water submerged graphene nanosheets having equal length and width  $\approx 60 \text{ \AA}$ , which constitutes approximately 1344 carbon atoms. After allocating spatial coordinates to hydrogen and oxygen atoms in water molecules and carbon in graphene, minimum energy configuration was obtained with the help of conjugate gradient algorithm. After minimizing the overall atomic configuration in dry and wet form (includes water in simulation box), potential energy of graphene in pristine form and after creating vacancy was estimated, which was further used in Eq.2 to predict VFE.

Next set of simulations were performed to predict the displacement threshold energy of carbon atoms in dry and water submerged graphene nanosheets. Simulations to predict  $E_d$  (displacement threshold energy) were carried out under the micro-canonical (NVE) ensemble. In this simulation phase, a section of the atomistic structure consisting of central part of the defective graphene sheet with an approximate size  $30 \times 30 \text{ \AA}^2$  was considered as the target atomic system, whereas the rest of sheet was used as a thermal sink to maintain the system temperature at 300 K as depicted in Fig.3.2. Temperature of the simulation box was maintained at 300K with the help of Berendsen thermostat. After relaxing the system at 300K, thermostat was released from the central portion highlighted in Fig.3.2, whereas the temperature of the region excluding central graphene nanosheet was maintained as thermal sink at 300K with the help of thermostat.



**Fig.3.2** Target atomic system (shown in red coloured shaded region), while rest of the carbon monolayer sheet is kept at a constant sink temperature of 300 K.

In order to estimate the displacement threshold energy ( $E_d$ ) in dry and wet form of graphene nanosheet, a primary knock on atom (PKA) was selected in the target region by imparting kinetic energy in the direction perpendicular to the graphene nanosheet. Kinetic energy was imparted in fractional increments such as the PKA was permanently dislodged from the graphene nanosheet. The velocity vector given to the PKA remained fixed in the direction perpendicular to nanosheet plane (z-direction) as shown in stages in Fig. 3.3 The minimum value of kinetic energy required to dislodge the carbon atom from lattice position in graphene was assigned to displacement threshold energy ( $E_d$ ).



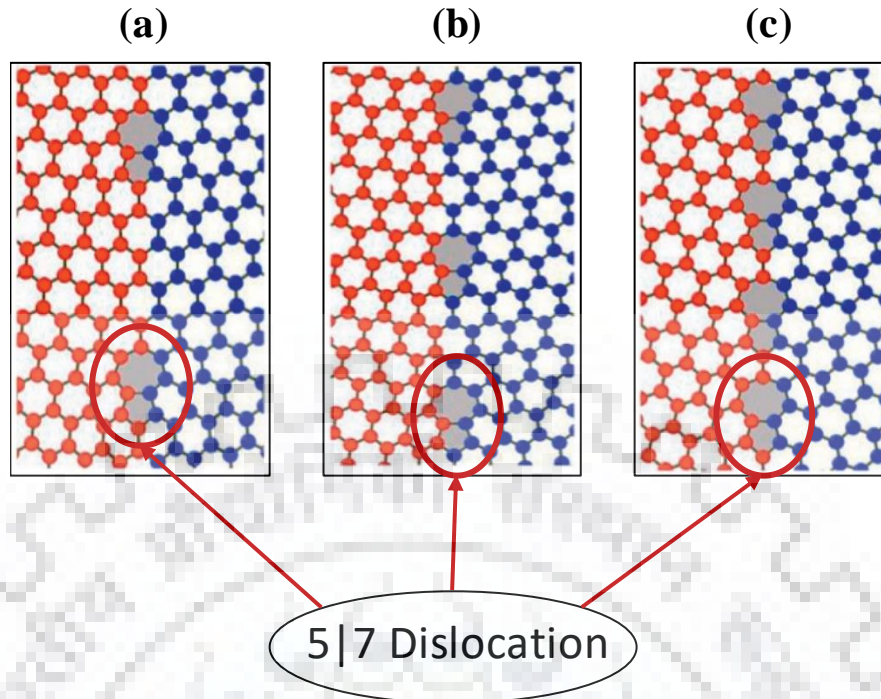
**Fig. 3.3** (a) Velocity given in z+ direction to selected PKA from the central portion, (b) Target atom gaining energy and (c) Permanent damage created as the PKA atom is dislodged from its lattice position.

In the last set of simulations, symmetric tilt grain boundaries were created between crystals of graphene nanosheets. During this set of simulations, mis-orientation angle between the nanosheets were kept at  $9.44^\circ$ ,  $13.2^\circ$  and  $21.8^\circ$ . Grain boundaries consists of sets of dislocations; hence the simulations will help us in estimating the formation energies of these defects in dry as well as water submerged state [34]. Schematic of the bi-crystalline graphene containing tilt grain boundaries at different mis-orientation angles are shown in Fig.4. Grain boundary energy in dry and wet state for graphene was estimated with the help of Eq.3.

$$GB_E = E_{GB} - E_{coh} \times N \quad (3)$$

Here,  $GB_E$  and  $E_{GB}$  corresponds to grain boundary formation energy and potential energy of the bi-crystalline graphene after minimizing the energy of the system with CG algorithm.  $E_{coh}$  and N refers to cohesive energy and number of atoms in bi-crystalline graphene nanosheet.





**Fig. 3.4** Grain boundary configuration containing misorientation angle of (a)  $9.4^\circ$ , (b)  $13.2^\circ$  and (c)  $21.8^\circ$ , respectively

### 3.3 Results and discussions

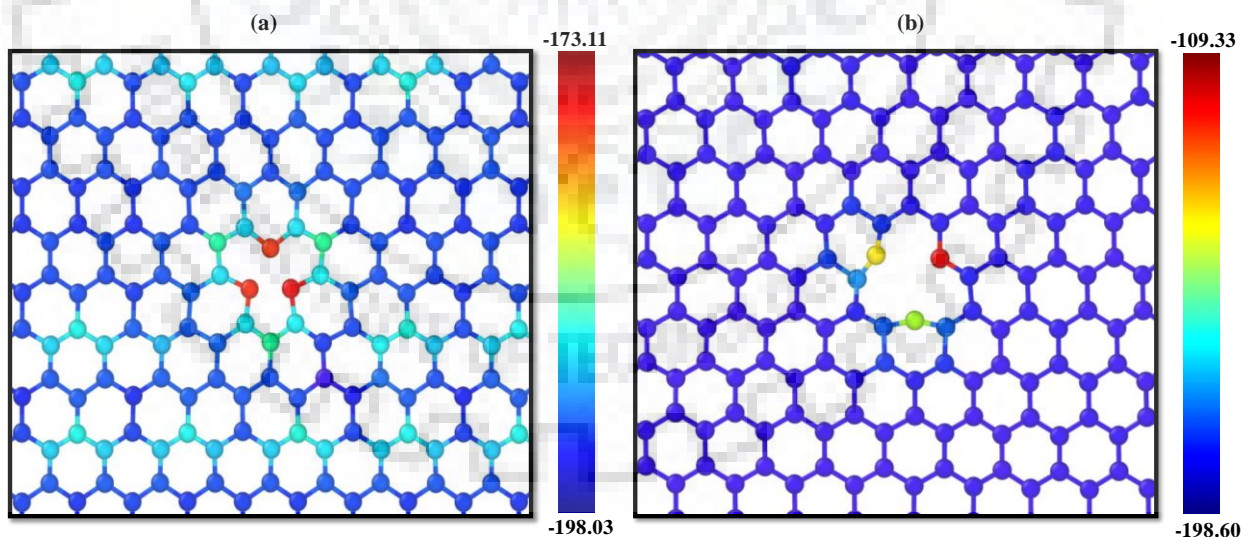
Defect formation dynamics helps us in predicting the resistance against the defect formation and also the stability of graphene containing defects. Defect formation dynamics was studied as defects are an integral part of graphene, due to limitations associated with the manufacturing processes. Also surface topology has a strong bearing on the mechanical and thermal properties of graphene. As mentioned in the previous section, simulations were performed in three stages, stage one and two corresponds to vacancy formation energy and displacement threshold energies, whereas the third stage refers to grain boundary formation energy.

#### Vacancy formation energy

As mentioned in the previous section, VFE for dry ( $\approx 8.4\text{eV}$ ) and water submerged state ( $\approx 8.0\text{eV}$ ) of graphene was estimated with the help of Eq.2. It can be predicted from the values

of VFE in dry state that values are slightly higher than predicted by Krasheninnikov et al. [35] and Thrower & Mayer [36]. The offset in values can be attributed to the interatomic potentials used in this work was reaxFF, which is stiffer in terms of energy components as compared to the previously used potentials. It can be inferred from the VFE values in dry and wet state that graphene in dry state is more susceptible to defects as compared to wet form. It can be seen in Fig.5 that the atoms in the vicinity of vacancy are at higher energy state, but in wet state the energy of those atoms are comparatively lower. This lower value of VFE in wet state of graphene is attributed to the interaction between the graphene atoms and water molecules that helps in stabilizing the atomic configuration in the near vicinity of vacancy and reducing the overall energy of the system.

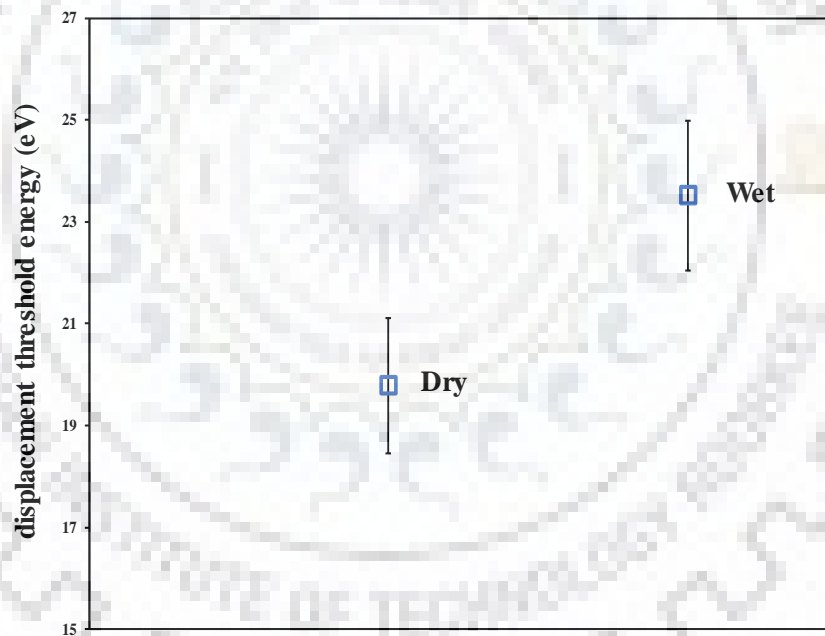
The potential energies around the vacancies are depicted in Fig.3.5 It can be observed from Fig.3.5 that the vacancy formed under water is more stable in terms of energy distribution as well as atomic configuration.



**Fig.3.5** Potential energy distribution over the carbon atoms in the vicinity of vacancy created in (a) dry and (b) wet form of graphene

Displacement threshold energy

Simulations were performed to predict the displacement threshold energy for atoms in dry and wet form of graphene. Particular emphasis was laid to ensure negation of thermal effects such as formation of a sink at a constant temperature of 300K for calculation of displacement threshold energy. In order to negate the effect of temperature, multiple simulations were run in this stage with different PKA's and average was taken as  $E_d$ . It can be observed from Fig.6 that average  $E_d$  values for atoms in water submerged graphene ( $\approx 23.5\text{eV}$ ) are higher as compared to dry graphene ( $\approx 19.8\text{eV}$ ). The  $E_d$  values predicted in this dissertation in dry form of graphene are in good agreement with the previously reported values [35,37-38]. It can be inferred from the Fig.3.6 that graphene in water offers more resistance to any defect formation as compared to dry graphene.



**Fig. 3.6** Displacement threshold energy in dry and wet form of graphene

### Grain boundary formation energy

In the last phase of the simulations, tilt symmetrical grain boundaries were generated in dry and wet form. The grain boundaries were created using the sewing method proposed by Xu et

al. [39]. Initially, simulations were performed with bi-crystalline graphene containing mis-orientation angles of  $9.44^\circ$ ,  $13.2^\circ$  and  $21.8^\circ$ . The GB formation energy in dry state was predicted and was found in good agreement with the same calculated by Verma et al. [12] and Liu et al. [40]. Later on, GB formation energy was also estimated, while submerged in water and comparison was made in table3. It can be observed from the comparison in table 3 that GB formation energies are almost double in wet form, and the trend was independent to mis-orientation angle.

**Table 3.1:** GB formation energies for Dry and Submerged Graphene at various angles

S No.	Tilt angle	GBE(Dry graphene) in eV/nm	GBE (wet graphene) in eV/nm
(a)	$9.44^\circ$	3.160	7.96577
(b)	$13.2^\circ$	3.399	8.41446
(c)	$21.8^\circ$	2.1844	5.384

Grain boundaries contains unfulfilled valencies, thus are potential sites for chemical reactions, corrosion, segregation of diffusing entities. Also, most dislocations get trapped at GB as higher activation energy is required to overcome them. There is a marked increase in grain boundary formation energies at various angles of orientation, while submerged in water as compared to dry state.

### 3.4 Summary

Molecular dynamics-based simulations were performed to study the defect formation dynamics in dry and wet form of graphene nanosheets. It can be concluded from the simulations that defective graphene nanosheets are more stable in water as compared to dry form. Potential energy distribution over the carbon atoms in the vicinity of vacancy was studied, and it was

predicted that presence of water molecules lowers the energy of edge atoms (surrounding vacancy defect) as compared to edge atoms in dry graphene nanosheets. Water molecules interacts with the atoms present at the edges of defects and helps in achieving minimum energy configuration. Similarly, non-bonded interaction forces exerted by water on graphene nanosheet increases the displacement threshold energy of graphene atoms. Resistance to defect formation was higher in water submerged graphene as compared to dry state.

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# Mechanical and fracture behaviour of water submerged graphene<sup>2</sup>

## 4.1 Introduction

During the last couple of years, industries across the board are implementing graphene's futuristic traits and characteristics. Graphene is a two-dimensional material containing  $sp^2$ -hybridized carbon atoms. Due to exceptional mechanical, thermal and electrical properties, graphene is emerging as a potential candidate to develop cutting edge space technology [1], ultrafiltration membrane systems [2], nano-biotechnology [3], MEMS/NEMS (nano electromechanical systems) [4] and in other applications as well [5-9]. Lee et al. [10] experimentally measured the tensile strength of free-standing graphene, and reported as the strongest material. Liu et al.[11] investigated the effect of chirality on the tensile strength of graphene. Khare et al. [12] employed molecular dynamics (MD) based simulations to study the mechanical strength of graphene in conjunction with geometrical defects. Rajasekaran and Avinash [13] predicted shift in the failure morphology of graphene in presence of Stone-Thrower-Wales defects (STW). Akarsh and Avinash [14] have also predicted the effect of functionalized grain boundaries on the mechanical and fracture behavior of graphene. Tsai and Tu [15] investigated the mechanical properties of graphite flakes and single graphene layer with the help of MD based simulations. They predicted that graphene layers provide improved reinforcement effect in nanocomposites. The variation in the fracture strength of graphene with temperature, strain rate, and crack length were investigated by Zhao and Aluru [16] using the quantized fracture mechanics (QFM) theory. Zhang et al. [17] investigated the mechanical

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<sup>2</sup> This chapter is an excerpt from the article accepted for publication as Saurabh S Sharma, Bharat Bhushan Sharma, Avinash Parashar, 2019, Journal of Applied Physics, JAP19-AR-00311R1

properties of bilayer graphene sheets using MD simulations. The above-mentioned literature demonstrates the exceptional mechanical qualities of graphene. Despite the fact that mechanical and fracture behaviour of graphene have already been investigated by many researchers, still the literature is limited on the properties of graphene submerged in water. Shortage of potable water in recent future is going to affect people all around the globe. Current production of potable water is primarily through reverse osmosis (RO) systems, and the demands of ever growing industry require better efficiency at lower cost. In order to improve the efficiency of desalination techniques, membranes with superior strength are required to be developed that can sustain higher pressure and increased output. Now, researchers are exploring the membrane capabilities of graphene for water desalination [18], ion separation [19] as well as for tissue engineering [20]. Jiao et al. [21] used MD based simulations to study the molecular permeation of gases through nano porous graphene. In another article, Wong and Vijayaraghavan [22] studied the mechanical strength of graphene submerged in water in conjunction with vacancy defects. In their atomistic simulations edge effects were ignored for submerged graphene. Tanugi and Grossman [23] have also investigated the mechanical strength of defective nanosheet of graphene submerged in water. Hu et al. [24] experimentally reported that graphene oxide membrane shows lower rejection rate for salt cations, but high-water flux through the membrane as compared to most of the other commercially available membranes. It was reported in the review article that graphene oxide has already been tested by many researchers for cation and ion rejection in water [25]. Water de-salination requires manufacturing of membranes with vacancies for filtration purpose [2,18,19]. Large-scale production of membrane sized graphene is a formidable challenge, and is achieved primarily through chemical vapour deposition (CVD) [26]. This introduces defects such as adatoms, vacancies and dislocations into graphene, which are precursors to the formation of voids and cracks in the material and results in a premature failure of these materials well below their

theoretical failure point. This mandates investigation of the fracture properties of graphene submerged in water. So far, literature is almost mute on the effect of water on the structural stability and fracture toughness of graphene. In this dissertation, authors have employed MD based atomistic simulations to study the mechanical and fracture behaviour of graphene submerged in water. In order to quantify the effect of water on the properties of graphene, results were compared with the pristine and dry form of graphene.

## 4.2 Modelling Details

A classical mechanics based approach was employed for studying the mechanical and fracture behaviour of graphene in dry and water submerged state. MD based simulations were carried out to capture the effect of water on the properties of graphene. An open source code LAMMPS (Large-scale Atomic/Molecular Massively Parallel Simulator) package was used to perform all the simulations. The authors have used hybrid type interatomic potential in the simulations performed with graphene submerged in water. In hybrid type potential, Adaptive intermolecular reactive empirical bond order (AIREBO) and TIP3P was used to simulate the bonded interaction in graphene (carbon carbon) and water (hydrogen and oxygen), whereas the non-bonded interactions between C, O, H atoms was simulated with the help of Lennard Jones potential (LJ 6-12). AIREBO force field was used to capture the interatomic interactions between carbon-carbon atoms in graphene. In order to avoid the spurious behavior of carbon-carbon bonds simulated with AIREBO, a single value for the cut-off function  $\sim 1.92 \text{ \AA}$  was used in all the simulations. Simulations were performed with graphene nanosheet having equal length and width  $\approx 100 \text{ \AA}$ , which constitutes approximately 3922 carbon atoms. TIP3P potential was used in all the simulations to capture the bond dynamics between hydrogen and oxygen atoms in water. In order to avoid edge effects in graphene, periodic boundary conditions were imposed in all the principal directions. All the simulations were performed at the room

temperature of 300K. In order to perform the time integration in conjunction with Newtonian mechanics a uniform time step of 0.25fs was employed in equilibration and deformation stage. Initially, energy of the atomic configuration was minimized at 0K with the help of conjugate gradient (CG) algorithm. After achieving minimum energy configuration, graphene nanosheet in conjunction with water or without water was equilibrated to room temperature of 300K, under the influence of NPT ensemble that exploits the No se–Hoover barostat and thermostat. After finishing relaxation of atoms for 12.5 ps, graphene sheet in pristine form or submerged in water was subjected to tensile deformation with a strain rate at  $10^{-3} \text{ ps}^{-1}$  under the influence of NVT ensemble. In order to investigate the deformation in dry and wet form of graphene, strain energy formulation in conjunction deformation was utilized. Strain energy formulation was performed with the help of potential energy of the required system as illustrated in Eq. 1 and Eq.2.

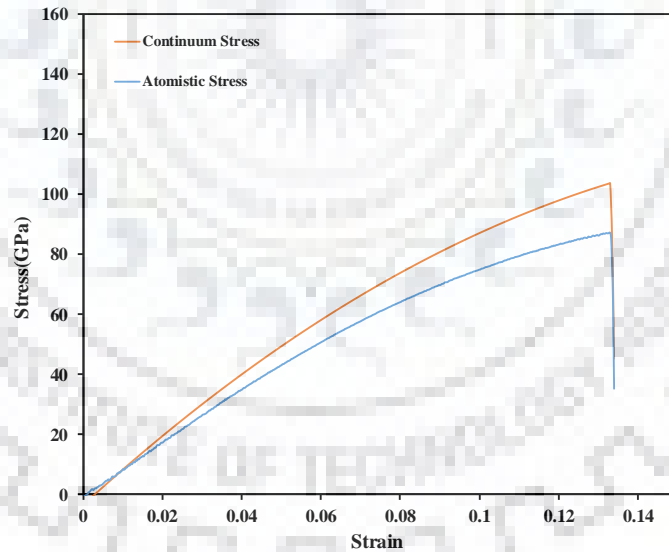
$$U_{\epsilon} = E_{\epsilon} - E_0 \quad (1)$$

where,  $E_0$  and  $E_{\epsilon}$  are the potential energy of the atomic system after relaxation ( $\epsilon = 0$ ) and at finite strain  $\epsilon$ , respectively, whereas  $U_{\epsilon}$  is the strain energy stored in graphene nanosheet. In order to calculate the fracture stress, polynomial of third order was fitted between strain energy and strain, and derivative of the same polynomial was used to get corresponding stresses, which is further illustrated in Eq. 2.

$$\sigma = \frac{1}{V_0} \frac{\partial U}{\partial \epsilon} \quad (2)$$

Where,  $\sigma$  is Cauchy stress component and  $V_0$  is the volume of nanosheet. During all the simulations for studying tensile deformation or fracture toughness, graphene was only subjected to uniaxial deformation, hence stresses calculated with the help of eq. 2 corresponds to normal stress in the direction of deformation. As mode-I fracture toughness was predicted

in the dissertation, hence stresses normal to the crack edges was only considered. Authors have predicted Cauchy stress components in the simulations with the help of strain energy as described in Eq. 1 and Eq.2. In order to be consistent with the continuum principle of linear elastic fracture mechanics, authors have employed only Cauchy stress values for predicting stress intensity factor values ( $K_{IC}$ ). Authors have estimated the Cauchy stress and atomistic stress response with respect to strain, and comparison is plotted in Fig.1. It can be inferred from the response plotted in Fig.1 that both the stresses are comparable, but the offset at higher strain values are due to higher simulation temperature of 300K, which induces the effect of kinetic energy in virial stress component. Similar kind of behaviour between the two stresses was observed in the work Nuwan Dewapriya [27]. It has also been reported in the work of Subramaniyan and Sun [28] that atomistic stresses directly calculated from the MD simulations are comparable to the Cauchy stresses at the continuum level.



**Fig. 4.1** Comparison between Cauchy and Atomistic Stresses

In addition to Cauchy stresses, authors have also estimated virial stresses with the help of Eq.3

$$\sigma_{ij}^{\alpha} = \frac{1}{\varphi^{\alpha}} \left( \frac{1}{2} m^{\alpha} v_i^{\alpha} v_j^{\alpha} + \sum_{\beta=1, n} r_{\alpha\beta}^j f_{\alpha\beta}^i \right) \quad (3)$$

Where  $v^\alpha$  and  $m^\alpha$  are the velocity and mass of atom  $\alpha$ ;  $r_{\alpha\beta}$  is distance between the atoms  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ ;  $\varphi^\alpha$  is the volume of system;  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  being the atomic indices;  $i$  and  $j$  stand for indices in cartesian coordinate system.

Structural stability of dry and submerged graphene was predicted with the help of radial distribution function (RDF) estimated just after energy minimization. Vacancy formation energy (VFE) was estimated with the help of Eq.4 to understand the structural stability of graphene in terms of defect formation energies.

$$E_{vac} = E_f - E_i + E_{coh} \quad (4)$$

here,  $E_{vac}$  = vacancy formation energy,  $E_f$  = energy of the system after the formation of vacancy,  $E_i$  = energy of the system before the formation of vacancy,  $E_{coh}$  = cohesive energy of the system.

In order to estimate the cohesive energy of carbon atom in dry and wet form of graphene, the atomic configuration in each case was energy minimized at 0K with the help of conjugate gradient algorithm. Potential energy of graphene was separately calculated in dry as well as wet state, and was divided by total number of carbon atoms in graphene to predict the cohesive energy of carbon in dry ( $E_{coh}=7.45\text{eV}$ ) and wet state ( $E_{coh}=7.45\text{eV}$ ). No significant difference in the values of cohesive energies was observed in dry and wet state of graphene. In order to validate the accuracy of simulations and interatomic potential used in the simulations, these values of cohesive energies were further compared with the first principle calculations/ DFT based simulations available in the literature [29,30], and were found in good agreement. Fracture toughness of dry and submerged graphene was predicted with the help of Eq.5.

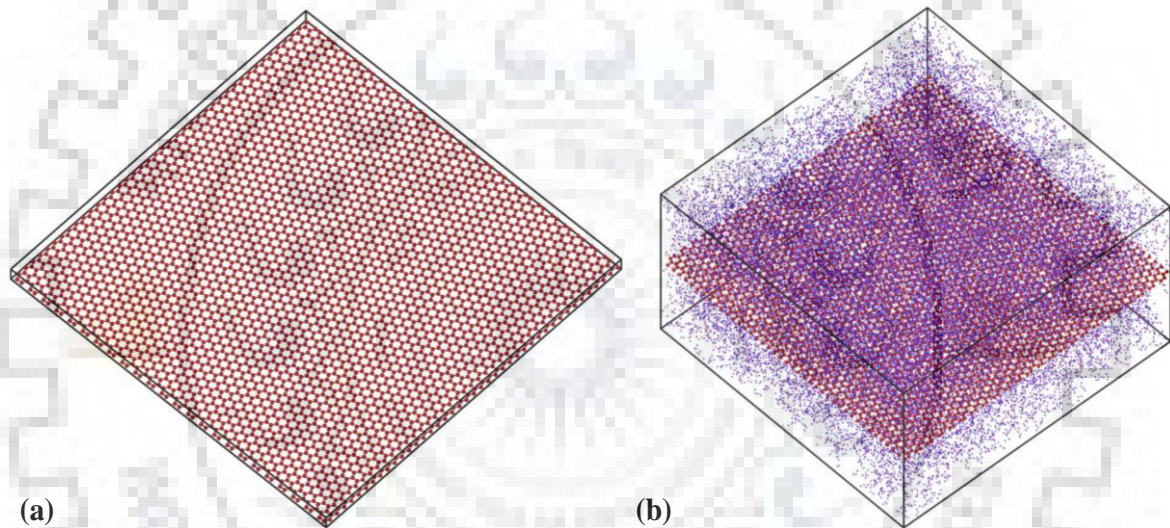
$$K_{IC} = f\sigma\sqrt{\pi a} \quad (5)$$

Where,  $\sigma$  is the normal stress value at the instance of first bond rupture,  $a$  is half the central crack length,  $f \approx 1$ , and  $K_{IC}$  is stress intensity factor. In order to fix the crack length, simulations were performed with different crack lengths, and concluded that beyond  $2a = 21 \text{ \AA}$ , the  $K_{IC}$

attains a constant value. Hence, for all the simulations the crack length was kept fixed at  $\approx 20$  Å.

### 4.3 Results and discussions

As mentioned in the previous section, simulations were performed in two stages; first stage of simulation helps in estimating the tensile deformation, whereas second stage corresponds to fracture toughness calculations for dry and submerged graphene. The simulation box containing dry and submerged graphene is shown in Fig. 4.2



**Fig. 4.2** Atomistic configurations of (a) dry and (b) submerged graphene nanosheets, respectively

#### 4.3.1 Structural stability of graphene submerged in water

In order to study the structural stability, full width half maximum (FWHM) value of radial distribution function (RDF) was estimated for dry and wet graphene nanosheets with minimum energy configuration. after achieving minimum energy configuration. Higher value of FWHM corresponds to lower structural stability and vice versa. In addition to FWHM, molecular

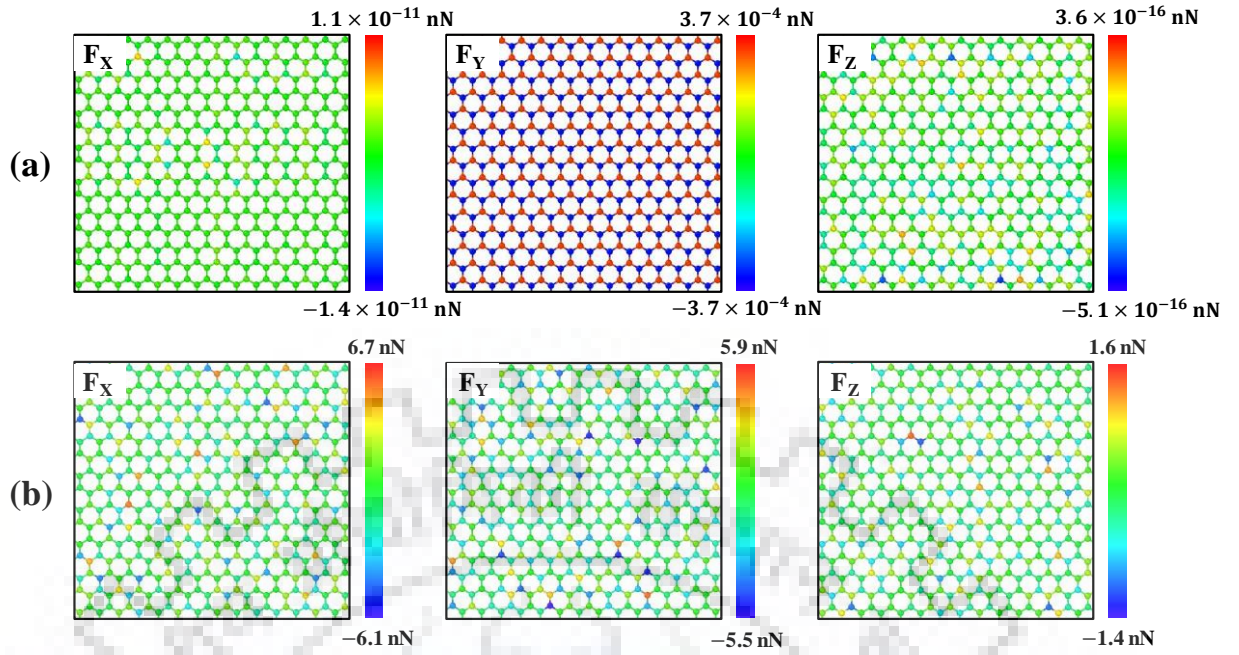
statics-based simulations were also performed to predict the value of VFE in dry and water submerged graphene. The values of FWHM and VFE for dry and water submerged graphene are tabulated in table 4.1

**Table 4.1.** FWHM and VFE values of dry and water submerged graphene

<u>GRAPHENE</u>	<u>FWHM</u>	<u>VFE(eV)</u>
<b>Dry</b>	0.025	7.3
<b>Submerged</b>	0.049	7.2
<b>Dry (Experimental)</b>	-	7±0.5

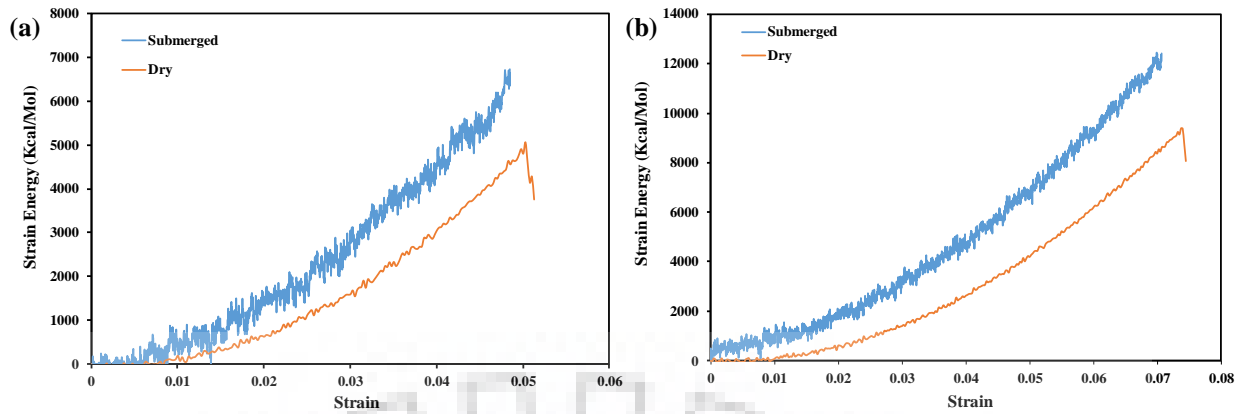
It can be inferred from the FWHM values that the structural stability of graphene deteriorates in submerged water, whereas the structure of defective graphene is more stable in water as compared to dry state. A lower value of VFE indicates towards more stability for graphene in wet state as compared to dry state. After energy minimization of atomic configuration, bond lengths between carbon-carbon was estimated as 1.44 Å and 1.42 Å for wet and dry graphene, respectively. Increase in the bond length leads to pre-stressed condition in wet form of graphene. Generating vacancy in wet graphene helps in relieving these pre-stresses, which lowers the value of VFE in wet state as compared to dry state. As these simulations are molecular statics based, hence no effect of temperature was accounted in these calculations at 0K. In order to further emphasized our observations, forces experienced by graphene in dry and submerged condition at 0K and zero load are shown in Fig.4.3. It can be observed from Fig.4.3 that graphene sheet submerged in water experienced forces in all the principle directions, whereas under the same conditions dry sheet of graphene was experiencing zero forces.





**Fig. 4.3** Atomic force distribution after energy minimization corresponding to (a) dry and (b) submerged graphene nanosheets, respectively

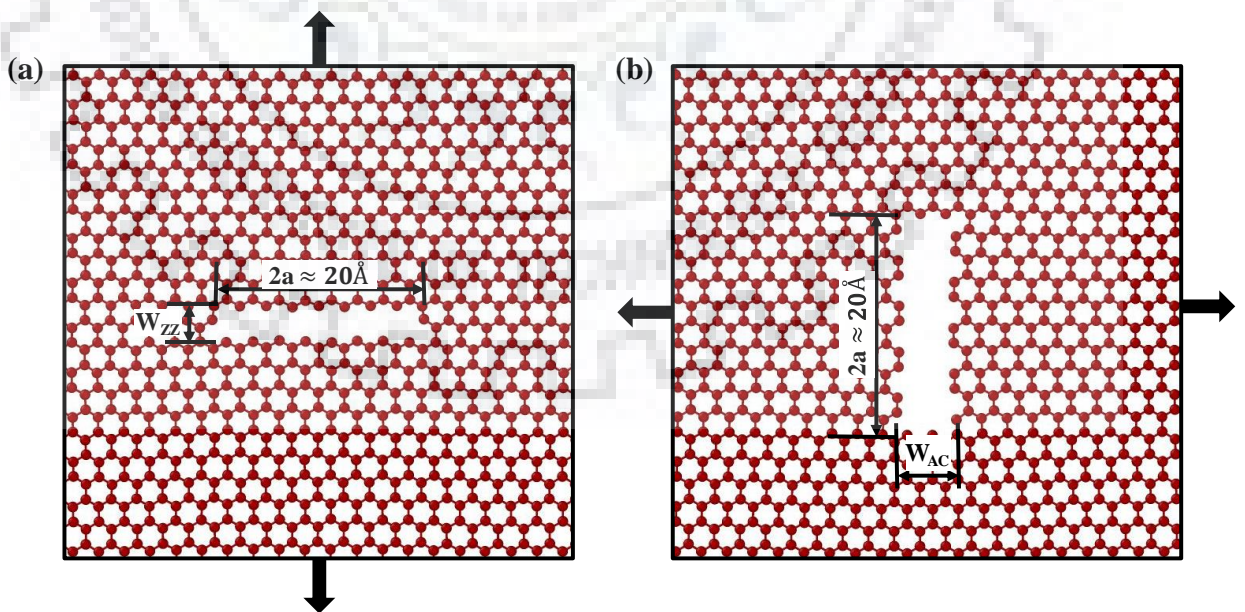
After investigating the structural stability of graphene at zero load, next set of simulations were performed with atomic configuration subjected to tensile deformation in armchair (AC) and zig zag (ZZ) directions, respectively at a temperature of 300K. Distribution of strain energy with respect to strain is plotted in Fig.4 along AC and ZZ directions, respectively. It can be inferred from the strain energy trend that submerged graphene absorbed more energy before getting damaged as compared to dry graphene, and this trend was independent of chirality. Similar trends between strain energy and strain were observed in the work of Wong and Vijayaraghavan [22]. However, early failure in wet graphene nanosheet was predicted in Ref. [22], which can be attributed to the edge effects. In this work, authors have employed full graphene sheet with periodic boundary conditions, which helps in avoiding the edge effects.



**Fig. 4.4.** Strain energy vs Strain response for dry and submerged graphene (a) AC and (b) ZZ directions, respectively

### 4.3.2 Fracture toughness of dry and water submerged graphene

Next set of simulations were performed to study the effect of water on the mode-I fracture behaviour of graphene in AC and ZZ directions. The schematic of crack in the graphene along AC and ZZ directions are shown in Fig.4.5. AC and ZZ in this subsection refers to the direction of loading. In order to satisfy the mode-I loading criterion, the uniaxial tensile load was always applied in the direction perpendicular to the crack edges.



**Fig. 4.5.** Schematic of crack in graphene subjected to mode-I loading in (a) AC (b) ZZ directions, respectively

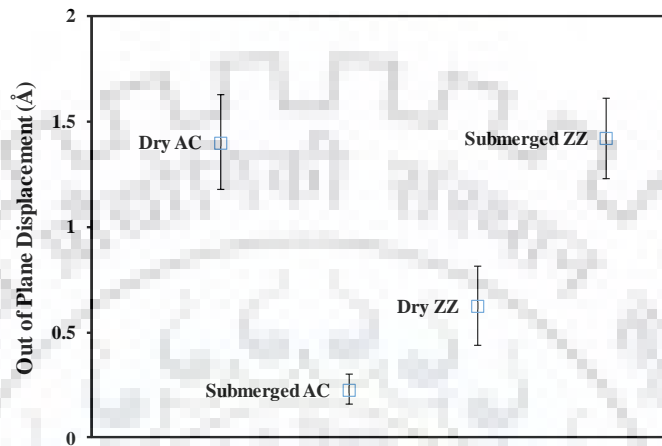
Fracture behaviour of dry and water submerged graphene was predicted at room temperature of 300K. The value of  $K_{IC}$  was estimated with the help of Eq.5. Fracture toughness of graphene in dry state was estimated as  $K_{IC} = 1.84 \text{ MPa}\sqrt{\text{m}}$  and  $K_{IC} = 2.905 \text{ (MPa}\sqrt{\text{m}})$  for AC and ZZ directions, respectively. Similar type of trend with higher stability for zig-zag edges were experimentally observed in the work of Girit, C. O. et al. [31]. Fracture toughness in terms of  $K_{IC}$  was estimated for dry and water submerged graphene, which is tabulated in table 4.2. It is pertinent to mention that the fracture toughness of water submerged graphene in AC direction improves, whereas an opposite trend was predicted for water submerged graphene in ZZ direction.

**Table 4.2.** Fracture toughness of dry and water submerged graphene in AC and ZZ directions

Type of graphene	$K_{IC}$ AC direction ( $\text{MPa}\sqrt{\text{m}}$ )	$K_{IC}$ ZZ direction ( $\text{MPa}\sqrt{\text{m}}$ )
Pristine dry	1.84	2.90
Pristine submerged	2.37	2.25
dry graphene (crack H passivated)	2.33	2.42
Submerged graphene (crack H passivated)	2.49	2.41

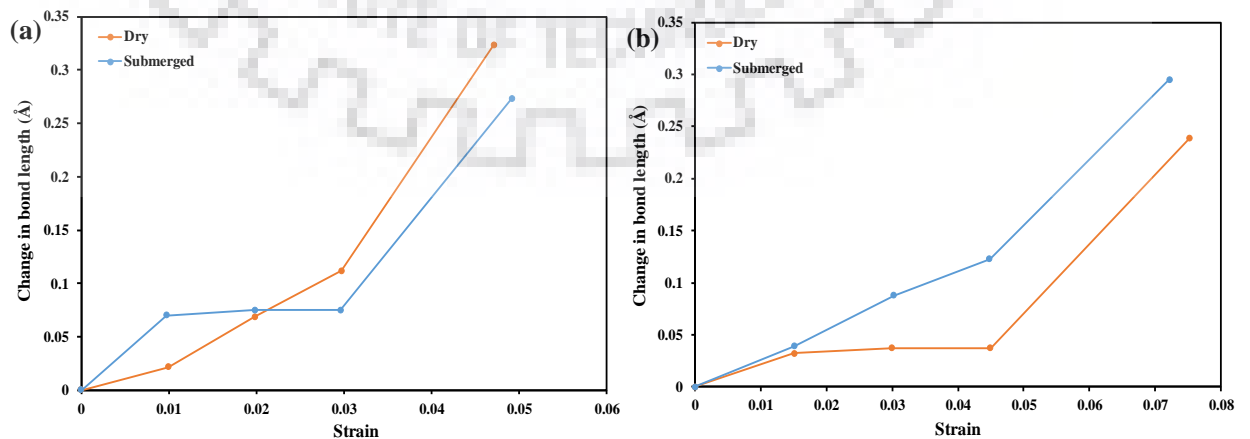
It can be inferred from  $K_{IC}$  values tabulated in table 2 that water has significantly affected the fracture toughness of graphene. Fracture toughness of water submerged graphene increased by almost 29% in AC direction, while it decreases by an extent of 22% in ZZ direction. Crack edge atoms react with the water molecules that generates out of plane displacement between the opposite crack edges. It was predicted from the atomistic simulations that higher values of out of plane displacement between crack edge atoms in ZZ direction reduces the fracture toughness of graphene, whereas lower values help in retaining or even increasing the fracture

toughness of graphene in AC direction. The out of plane displacement for different configurations of graphene is plotted in Fig.4.6. It can be inferred from Fig.6 that lower and higher values of out of plane displacement between crack edges corresponds to higher and lower fracture toughness, respectively.



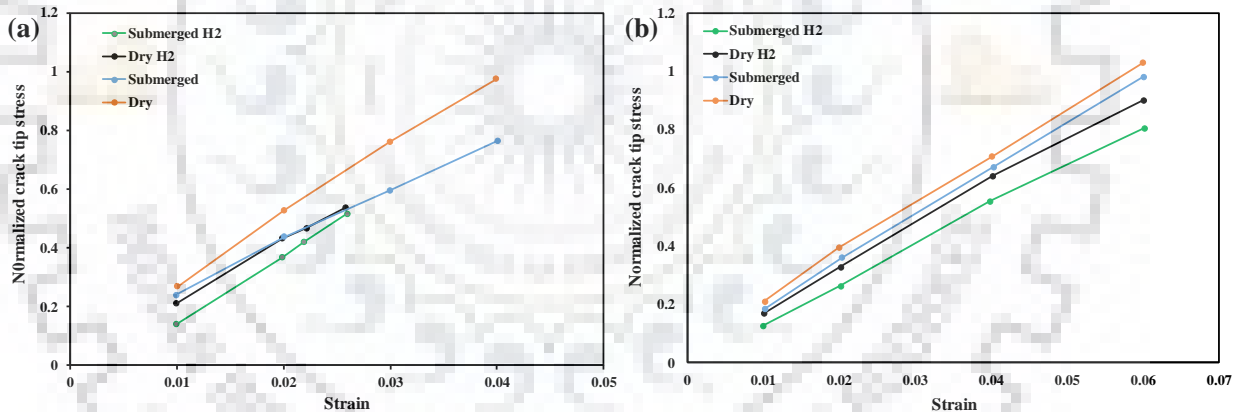
**Fig. 4.6.** Variation in out of plane displacement between the crack edges of graphene nanosheet in dry and wet state.

In order to capture the bond dynamics at the crack tip in dry and wet graphene, variation in the critical bond length was estimated and plotted in Fig.4.7. Here, critical refers to the bond from where crack starts propagating.



**Fig. 4.7.** Change in bond length for the critical bond at the crack tip as a function of applied strain corresponding to (a) AC direction and (b) ZZ direction, respectively.

It can be inferred from the trend plotted in Fig.4.7 that in water submerged graphene the variation in critical bond length was close to dry state in AC direction, whereas a significant gap in the variation between dry and submerged state was observed in ZZ direction. For water submerged graphene, crack propagation triggers at a lower critical bond length for ZZ direction as compared to AC direction. In addition to estimating the critical bond length at the crack tip, variation in the average atomic virial stress values at the crack tip in normalized condition is plotted in Fig.4.8. It can be observed in Fig.4.8a that lower crack tip stresses help in achieving higher fracture toughness for water submerged graphene in AC direction, whereas a contrasting trend was observed for the same in ZZ direction (Fig. 4.8b).



**Fig. 4.8.** Normalized crack tip stresses (a) AC (b) ZZ directions, respectively

Once more parameter that was attributed for the contrasting behaviour of fracture toughness in AC and ZZ direction of water submerged graphene was width of the crack. Due to crack healing observed in submerged graphene along ZZ direction, a higher width for the crack was considered, whereas no such phenomenon was observed in AC direction. Crack width in AC and ZZ direction was kept at 2.71 Å and 4.3 Å, respectively. In order to study the effect of crack width on the fracture toughness of dry and submerged graphene in AC direction, more

simulations were performed with varied crack width, and corresponding  $K_{IC}$  values were plotted in Fig.4.9. Interaction between crack edge atoms and water molecules have positive effect on the fracture toughness of graphene in AC direction, but that improvement starts reducing with the increase in crack width, which was eventually compensated by higher value of out of plane displacement between crack edge.

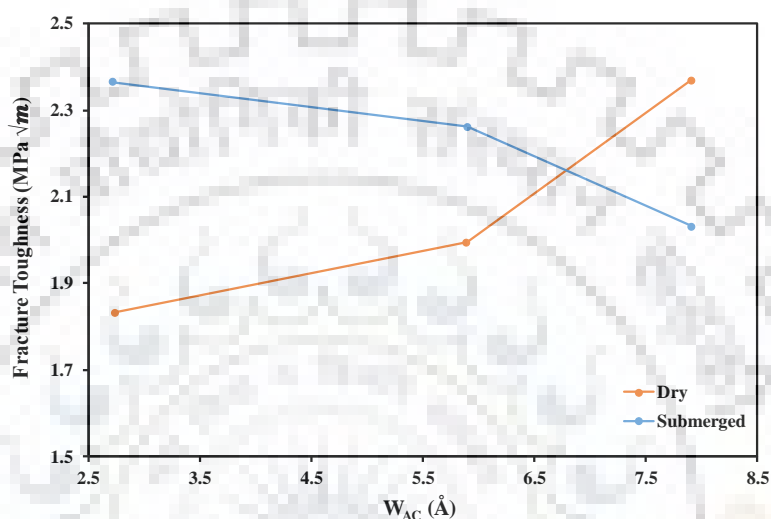
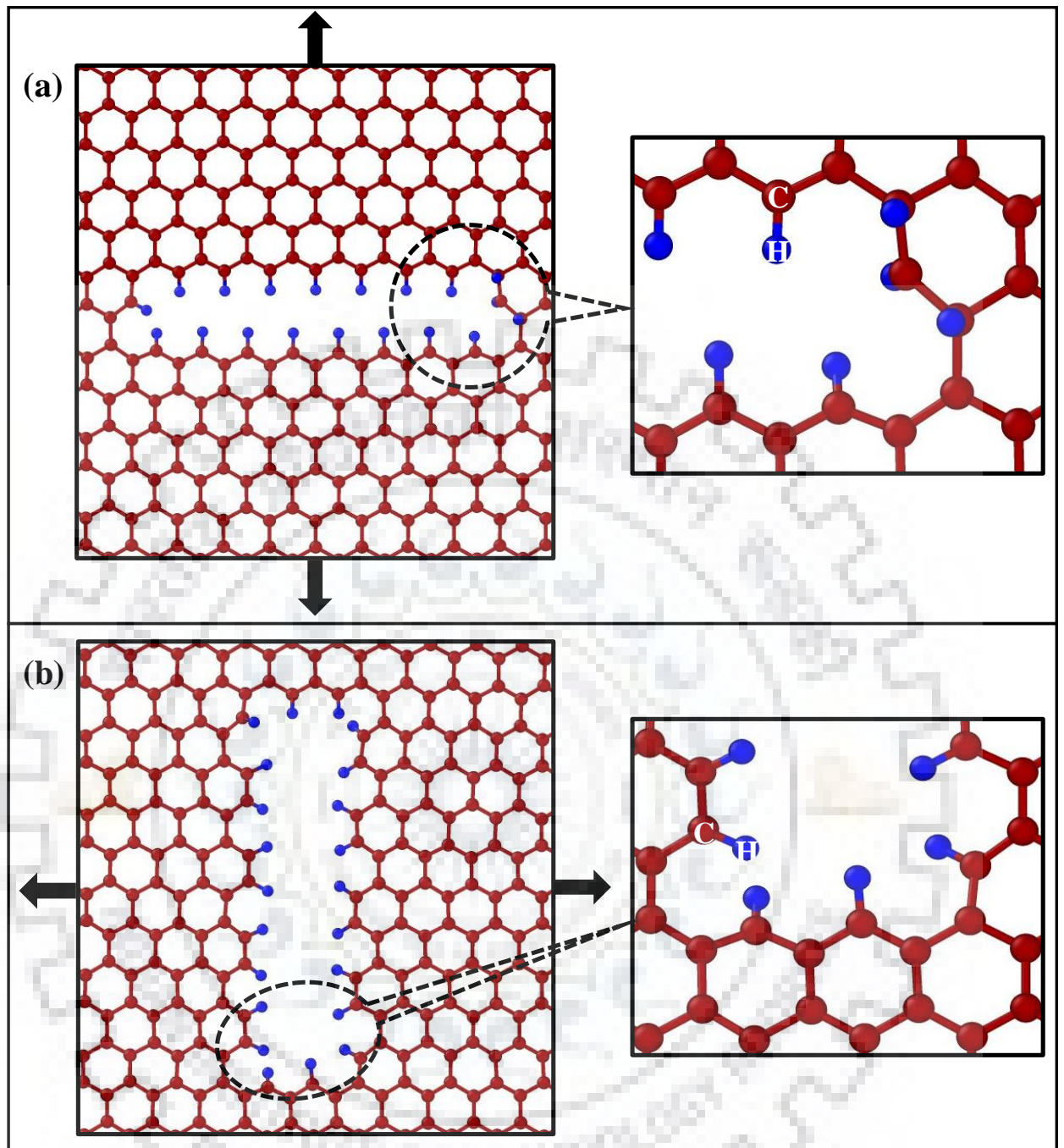


Fig. 4.9 Variation in fracture toughness with crack width along AC direction.

### 4.3.3 Effect of hydrogen passivation of crack edge atoms

In order to study the effect of interaction between the crack edge atoms and water molecules on the fracture toughness of graphene, edge atoms were hydrogen passivated to reduced their chemical reactivity. Effective functionalisation with hydrogen was achieved at a temperature of 300K. Hydrogen atoms were attached only to the carbon atoms at crack edge, changing their  $sp$  hybridization state to  $sp^2$  hybridisation state as illustrated in Fig.4.10



**Fig. 4.10.** Crack edge hydrogen passivation in (a) AC and (b) ZZ directions, respectively (red and blue atoms correspond to carbon and hydrogen, respectively)

Fracture toughness values of hydrogen passivated crack edge atoms in dry and wet graphene nanosheets are tabulated in table 4.2. It can be inferred from the  $K_{IC}$  values that hydrogen passivated crack edge atoms have lesser reactivity towards water molecules, hence the fracture toughness of graphene in dry and wet state was almost same. It can be observed from the crack

tip stresses plotted in Fig.4.8a that submerged graphene sheet with hydrogen passivation and dry pristine graphene in AC direction experienced minimum and maximum values respectively, which was supported by higher and lower values of fracture toughness, respectively. Similar kind of trend was observed in ZZ direction as well, higher crack tip stresses produce lower fracture toughness and vice versa.

## 4.4 Summary

Molecular dynamics-based simulations were performed to study the effect of water on the mechanical properties and fracture toughness of graphene nanosheet. It was predicted from the simulations that water has a significant impact on the structural stability and fracture toughness of graphene. Submergence of graphene in water is predicted to have a positive impact on the fracture toughness in AC direction, whereas deterioration effect in the zigzag direction was predicted, which could be attributed to higher out of plane displacement between the opposite crack edges in ZZ as compared to AC direction. The overall effect of water on the fracture toughness of graphene can be minimized with the help of hydrogen passivation of crack edge atoms.

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## Conclusions and Future Aspects

### 5.1 Conclusions

This dissertation work discusses an exhaustive study performed to study the effects of fluidic media namely water on mechanical and fracture properties of graphene. Molecular dynamics-based simulations have been performed in conjunction with AIREBO and ReaxFF and TiP3P potentials to simulate graphene submerged in water model. Simulations were performed to study the effect of defects such as cracks and vacancies on the mechanical properties, fracture toughness and failure morphology of graphene sheet. The key findings and detailed conclusions from this thesis are summarized as follows.

- Literature review on defective graphene nanosheets helps in identifying the gaps in already performed work. It can be concluded from the literature review that classical mechanics based approach is more suitable to characterize pristine as well as defective sheets of graphene. In addition to that a single cutoff function is more suitable to predict the practical and realistic properties of graphene.
- As success of any MD simulation entirely depends on the type of interatomic potential employed for estimating interatomic forces, hence, AIREBO potential, which is capable of capturing the bond breaking in graphene is opted as a suitable potential for all the simulations performed in this research work. To validate the results ReaxFF and TiP3P potentials were used in conjunction.
- Synthesizing pristine graphene nanofillers is a rather hypothetical concept. Production techniques such as CVD inadvertently introduce different types of geometrical defects in the synthesized nanofillers. Defects such as vacancies and cracks deteriorate the mechanical properties of graphene. Stress fields in the vicinity of crack tips were used to predict the failure morphology of graphene nanosheet.
- It was predicted from the simulations that water has a significant impact on the structural stability and fracture toughness of graphene. Submergence of graphene in water is predicted to have a positive impact on the fracture toughness in AC direction, whereas deterioration effect in the zigzag direction was predicted, which could be attributed to higher out of plane displacement between the opposite crack edges in ZZ

as compared to AC direction. The overall effect of water on the fracture toughness of graphene can be minimized with the help of hydrogen passivation of crack edge atoms.

- It can be concluded from the simulations that defective graphene nanosheets are more stable in water as compared to dry form. Potential energy distribution over the carbon atoms in the vicinity of vacancy was studied, and it was predicted that presence of water molecules lowers the energy of edge atoms (surrounding vacancy defect) as compared to edge atoms in dry graphene nanosheets. Water molecules interacts with the atoms present at the edges of defects and helps in achieving minimum energy configuration. Similarly, non-bonded interaction forces exerted by water on graphene nanosheet increases the displacement threshold energy of graphene atoms. Resistance to defect formation was higher in water submerged graphene as compared to dry state.

Finally, it can be concluded from this research work that interaction with a fluidic media (water) has a potential to tailor mechanical properties, failure morphology and fracture toughness of graphene sheet.

## **5.2 Future Aspects**

In this research project, effect of submergence in water on graphene nanosheet has been studied. Effect of a corrosive and or abrasive media such a sea water remains to be explored. Also, I have studied the formation of vacancy in submerged graphene nanosheet, while bombardment of an external ion on the nanosheet is yet to be carried out. Study of reinforcement of polymers with graphene nanofillers is the nascent stage. And future prospects include an upheaval in the field of de salination due to advent of graphene in the filtration systems. There is a lot yet to be achieved in the research on graphene and I believe we have just begun to scratch the surface of this new ocean of opportunities.