

Ultraslow Settling Kinetics of Frictional Cohesive Powders

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Using discrete element method simulations, we show that the settling of frictional cohesive grains under ramped-pressure compression exhibits strong history dependence and slow dynamics that are not present for grains that lack either cohesion or friction. Systems prepared by beginning with a dilute state and then ramping the pressure to a small positive value P_{final} over a time τ_{ramp} settle at packing fractions given by an inverse-logarithmic rate law, $\phi_{\text{settled}}(\tau_{\text{ramp}}) = \phi_{\text{settled}}(\infty) + A/[1 + B \ln(1 + \tau_{\text{ramp}}/\tau_{\text{slow}})]$. This law is analogous to the one obtained from classical tapping experiments on noncohesive grains, but crucially different in that τ_{slow} is set by the slow dynamics of structural void stabilization rather than the faster dynamics of bulk densification. We formulate a kinetic free-void-volume theory that predicts this $\phi_{\text{settled}}(\tau_{\text{ramp}})$, with $\phi_{\text{settled}}(\infty) = \phi_{\text{ALP}}$ and $A = \phi_{\text{settled}}(0) - \phi_{\text{ALP}}$, where $\phi_{\text{ALP}} \equiv .135$ is the “adhesive loose packing” fraction found by Liu *et al.* [Equation of state for random sphere packings with arbitrary adhesion and friction, *Soft Matter* **13**, 421 (2017)].

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The structure of granular solids is famously preparation-protocol dependent. For example, mechanical excitation by periodic tapping makes samples’ packing fractions ϕ increase logarithmically slowly [1,2]:

$$\phi(t) = \phi(\infty) - \frac{A}{1 + B \ln(1 + t/\tau_{\text{slow}})}. \quad (1)$$

Here t is the time elapsed since the beginning of the tapping experiment, $\phi(\infty)$ is the packing fraction achieved after a (hypothetical) infinite-duration experiment, and the parameters A , B , and τ_{slow} depend on the sample-preparation and tapping protocols in addition to the intergrain interactions [1,2]. This density increase is directly analogous to, but typically far greater in extent than, the density increase experienced by aging thermal glasses [3]; both arise from the slow, activated dynamics of systems traversing the rugged energy landscapes that are a common feature of thermal glasses and granular materials [4,5]. Since cohesive interactions greatly slow the dynamics of viscous liquids [6], and frictional interactions greatly slow the dynamics of granular solids [7,8], one might expect that their combination will produce a synergistic additional slowdown in the dynamics of granular compaction, and indeed it does. In fact, the combination of cohesive interactions, rolling, sliding, and twisting friction can arrest compaction entirely—at least on human timescales—by promoting the formation of large “structural” voids that can remain mechanically stable even when a small positive external pressure is applied [9–14] to an initially marginally jammed packing.

As a consequence, unlike their frictionless or purely repulsive counterparts, frictional cohesive granular solids can be prepared with a very wide range of densities.

For example, the Hausner ratio $H = \rho_{\text{tapped}}/\rho_{\text{settled}}$ [15], where ρ_{settled} is the density obtained by pouring grains into a container and ρ_{tapped} is the density obtained in the long-time limit of a tapping experiment, is a commonly employed measure of powder flowability. H is also a measure of the range of jamming densities ϕ_J obtainable via different preparation protocols, i.e., different protocols will produce $\phi_{\text{min}} \leq \phi_J \leq \phi_{\text{max}} \equiv H\phi_{\text{min}}$. H has long been known to increase with decreasing grain size, approaching 4 for micron-size grains, because smaller grains are more cohesive than their larger counterparts [16,17]. More recently it has been explicitly shown that H values for fixed-size grains increase rapidly with both cohesion and friction [11,18], and recent simulations that established an equation of state for random sphere packings [19,20] suggest that spherical grains’ $H \rightarrow H_{\text{max}} \simeq 3.8$ in the limit of strong cohesion and friction.

Using H as a measure of powder flowability is often criticized on the grounds that both ρ_{tapped} and ρ_{settled} are preparation-protocol dependent [21]; in general, reproducible values of H are obtained only when highly specific standardized procedures are followed [22]. The interplay of cohesion and friction in determining the history dependence of both “static” macroscopic quantities like ρ_{settled} and microscopic (grain-level) structure in these powders remains poorly understood and the subject of active study [23–25]. In particular, while the logarithmically slow densification of noncohesive and frictionless cohesive granular materials has been semi-quantitatively explained by kinetic free-volume theories [26–29], microscopic-physics-based theories that accurately predict the preparation-protocol-dependent $\phi(t)$ [including $\phi(0) \equiv \phi_{\text{settled}}$] for frictional cohesive powders

have yet to be developed, and doing so is very challenging owing to additional complications associated with the abovementioned mechanically stable structural voids. Developing such theories could prove useful for applications ranging from avalanche prevention [30] to pharmaceuticals [31] to additive manufacturing [32].

In this Letter, we use discrete element method (DEM) simulations to examine how the structure of marginally jammed systems of grains with varying degrees of friction and cohesion depends on the compression protocol used to prepare them. We compare results for model systems with four types of intergrain interactions: (1) no friction or cohesion, (2) all three types of friction (sliding, rolling, and twisting) but no cohesion, (3) cohesion but no friction, and (4) both cohesion and friction. The settled packing fractions of systems prepared by beginning with a dilute state and then linearly ramping the pressure to a fixed, small value P_{targ} over a time τ_{ramp} decrease as cohesion and friction are increased, ranging from the canonical random-close-packed value ($\phi_{\text{RCP}} = 0.646$ [33,34]) for model 1 to as low as 0.35 for model 4. While these ϕ_{settled} are almost independent of τ_{ramp} for models 1–3, they decrease substantially with increasing τ_{ramp} for model 4, reaching their asymptotic low-rate limit at a τ_{ramp} that is many orders of magnitude larger than the corresponding values for models 1–3.

This behavior is the opposite of the usual glass-jamming paradigm [4,35], in which thermal glasses and granular materials end up with higher densities when they are more slowly cooled or compressed. We find that the rate-dependence of model 4's ϕ_{settled} is described by

$$\phi_{\text{settled}}(\tau_{\text{ramp}}) = \phi_{\text{settled}}(\infty) + \frac{A}{1 + B \ln(1 + \tau_{\text{ramp}}/\tau_{\text{slow}})}, \quad (2)$$

and argue that the difference leading to the crucial change in sign (from $-$ to $+$) is that while the τ_{slow} in Eq. (1) is set by the slow dynamics of densification [1,2], the τ_{slow} in Eq. (2) is set by the even slower dynamics of *structural void stabilization*. Then we formulate a kinetic free-void-volume theory (similar in spirit to but different in several crucial details from those of Refs. [26–29]) that predicts this behavior, with $\phi_{\text{settled}}(\infty) = \phi_{\text{ALP}}$ and $A = \phi_{\text{settled}}(0) - \phi_{\text{ALP}}$, where $\phi_{\text{ALP}} \equiv .135$ is the “adhesive loose packing” fraction found by Liu *et al.* [19,20].

Our simulations aim to implement realistic viscoelastic, cohesive, and frictional interactions in a way that is computationally cheap enough to allow us to simulate large systems over long timescales. Therefore we choose to employ the Hertzian variant of the widely used Rognon potential [36,37] for the conservative pair interactions. A standard radial damping force [38] is added to capture viscous dissipation. Sliding friction is implemented using the widely used linear-history model [39], while rolling and twisting friction are

implemented using the same methods as Santos *et al.* [40,41]. Since we wish to consider the limit of strong friction in this study, we set the sliding, rolling, and twisting friction coefficients to 0.5. All interactions are described in detail in the Supplemental Material [42]; all quantities discussed below are expressed in dimensionless units.

DEM simulations are performed using LAMMPS [48]. Following Ref. [40], we begin by placing $N = 10^5$ grains randomly within a periodic cubic simulation cell of volume $V_{\text{init}} = 39N\pi/(125\phi_{\text{init}})$ [where $\phi_{\text{init}} = .05$ is the initial packing fraction], and then minimizing the systems' energy (at constant volume) to obtain athermal $\phi = .05$ states. Settled states are prepared using a procedure that mimics pouring a powder into a container in such a way that its terminal falling velocity is $v_{\text{term}} \sim V_{\text{init}}^{1/3}/\tau_{\text{ramp}}$, but removes complications associated with pouring experiments' anisotropic “external” forces (i.e., gravity and the container walls). We ramp the applied hydrostatic pressure linearly from 0 to $P_{\text{targ}} = 10^{-3}$ over a time τ_{ramp} and afterwards hold it constant for least another 10^5 time units [42]. Since $P_{\text{targ}} = 10^{-3}$ is large enough for the employed Nose-Hoover barostat to be effective yet small enough to minimize plastic consolidation [12,13], we define all systems' ϕ_{settled} as their $\phi(\tau_{\text{ramp}} + 10^5)$. This definition closely corresponds to the ϕ_{settled} that could be measured after the termination of a pouring experiment.

Figure 1 shows the τ_{ramp} -dependent responses for all four models. As expected, results for repulsive frictionless spheres (model 1) show negligible preparation-protocol dependence. All systems settle at $\phi \simeq 0.646$; this density is consistent with random close packing [33,34]. The $\phi(t)$ curves nearly collapse when replotted vs t/τ_{ramp} , at least for $t/\tau_{\text{ramp}} > 1$ [panel (b)]. For smaller t/τ_{ramp} , ϕ increases with increasing τ_{ramp} owing to well-understood kinetic effects associated with the hard sphere glass transition [49]. Comparable preparation-protocol independence of the final jammed states and collapse of the $\phi(t)$ curves occurs for systems with friction but no cohesion (model 2) or cohesion but no friction (model 3), but at lower ϕ_{settled} . Model 2 systems have $\phi_{\text{settled}} \simeq 0.60$, which is consistent with the results of Santos *et al.* [40] for our employed value of P_{targ} . Model-3 systems have $\phi_{\text{settled}} \simeq 0.52$, which is consistent with adhesive close packing [19,20] in the presence of the finite-range attractive intergrain interactions (which favor finite particle overlap) employed in this study. These models do not show any evidence of compaction dynamics that are significantly slower than those of model 1. Indeed their $\phi(t)$ actually converge slightly faster, perhaps because their ϕ_{settled} are lower and hence their nearly-settled states have more free volume.

Results for systems with both cohesion and friction (model 4) are radically different. Their $\phi(t/\tau_{\text{ramp}})$ increase (decrease) monotonically with increasing τ_{ramp} for $t/\tau_{\text{ramp}} \ll 1$ ($t/\tau_{\text{ramp}} \gtrsim 1$), and are still increasing logarithmically

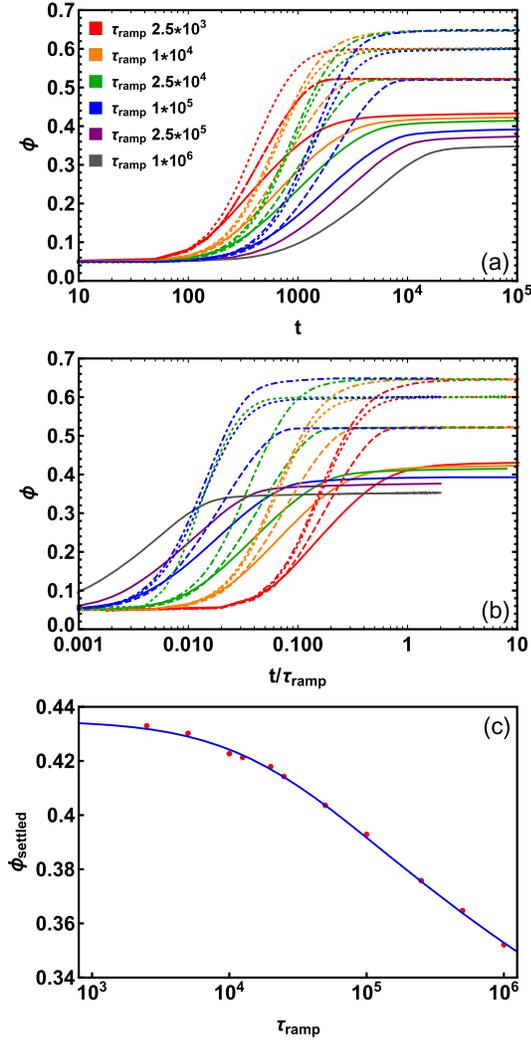


FIG. 1. Influence of intergrain interactions and preparation protocol on powder settling. Panels (a) and (b), respectively, show $\phi(t)$ and $\phi(t/\tau_{\text{ramp}})$ for a wide range of τ_{ramp} . Dot-dashed, dotted, dashed, and solid curves, respectively, show results for models 1–4. All results for models 1–3 are consistent with many previous studies, e.g., Refs. [19,20,40,50,51]. Panel (c) shows the settled densities $\phi_{\text{settled}} = \phi(10\tau_{\text{ramp}})$ for frictional cohesive grains (model 4). Red symbols show simulation data and the blue curve shows Eq. (2) with $\phi_{\text{settled}}(\infty) = 0.135$, $A = 0.300$, $B = 0.098$, and $\tau_{\text{slow}} = 2.2 \times 10^4$.

slowly at $t = 10\tau_{\text{ramp}}$ in a manner reminiscent of tapping experiments [1,2], but show no evidence of convergence towards history-independent values. As shown in panel (c), our results can be well fit by Eq. (2). We assumed $\phi_{\text{settled}}(\infty) = \phi_{\text{ALP}}$ since this is the packing fraction expected in the limit of large system size and slow compression for systems with very strong cohesion and friction [20]. $A \simeq 0.300$ is a fitting parameter capturing the range of ϕ obtainable as pressure ramping varies from infinitely fast to infinitely slow. $B \simeq 0.098$ is a fitting parameter capturing the relative importance of the logarithmic term [29]. Finally,

$\tau_{\text{slow}} \simeq 2.2 \times 10^4$ is a timescale capturing model 4’s inherently slow dynamics. In general, these parameters will each depend on the strength of intergrain cohesion and friction as well as other factors such as the grains’ coefficients of restitution; our comparison of results for model 4 to those for models 1–3 shows that A , B , and τ_{slow} all approach zero in the limit of weak intergrain cohesion *and/or* friction.

Clearly Eq. (2) is directly analogous to Eq. (1), but with a crucial difference. Longer tapping duration produces higher densities, whereas slower pressure ramping produces *lower* densities. The latter behavior is the opposite of the usual glass-jamming paradigm [4,35], in which thermal glasses and granular materials end up with higher densities when they are more slowly cooled or compressed. The $-$ sign between the two terms in Eq. (1) is associated with the slow dynamics of densification in tapped systems [1]; comparable dynamics control densification of aging thermal glasses [3]. In contrast, as we will show below, the $+$ sign between the two terms in Eq. (2) is associated with a slow dynamics of *void stabilization*.

We monitored void growth and coalescence by dividing the DEM simulation cells into $N_c(t) = n_x(t) \times n_y(t) \times n_z(t)$ cubic subcells of side lengths $\sim a$, where a is the diameter of the small grains in the standard 50:50 1:1.4 bidisperse mixtures [50] employed in this study. Each subcell is classified as a “void subcell” if it intersects no (i.e., contains no portion of any) grains; at least one small grain can be placed in any such subcell without contacting any other grains. The void fraction is defined as $f_v(t) = N_{\text{vc}}(t)/N_c(t)$, where $N_{\text{vc}}(t)$ is the total number of void subcells. We divide these $N_{\text{vc}}(t)$ void subcells into $N_{\text{dv}}(t)$ distinct (topologically disconnected) voids using connected-components analysis [52], and define *structural* voids as distinct voids of volume $\geq 10a^3$.

Results for all systems are shown in Fig. 2. For models 1–3, f_v decreases approximately exponentially with ϕ and drops to zero (to within our statistical accuracy) by $\phi \simeq 0.55$. Cohesive systems have larger f_v than their noncohesive counterparts for all ϕ , largely because their constituent grains are more likely to form compact clusters at lower ϕ [53–55], but the slopes $d[\ln(f_v)]/d\phi$ are similar for all three models. As compression continues, $-d[\ln(f_v)]/d\phi$ increases as void filling becomes more coherent, i.e., as free volume decreases and particles are increasingly likely to get pushed into empty regions by their interactions with other particles. Results for $N_{\text{dv}}(\phi)$ show complementary trends. As compression proceeds, N_{dv} initially increases as large voids are split into smaller ones (recall that a homogeneous system in the low- ϕ limit would have $N_{\text{dv}} = 1$), then decreases as these small voids get filled. For $\phi \gtrsim 0.4$, most voids consist of only one or two subcells, so N_{dv} roughly tracks f_v .

Model 4 systems’ void statistics follow similar trends at low ϕ . Their $f_v(\phi)$ are slightly higher than their model-3 counterparts, presumably because the compact clusters

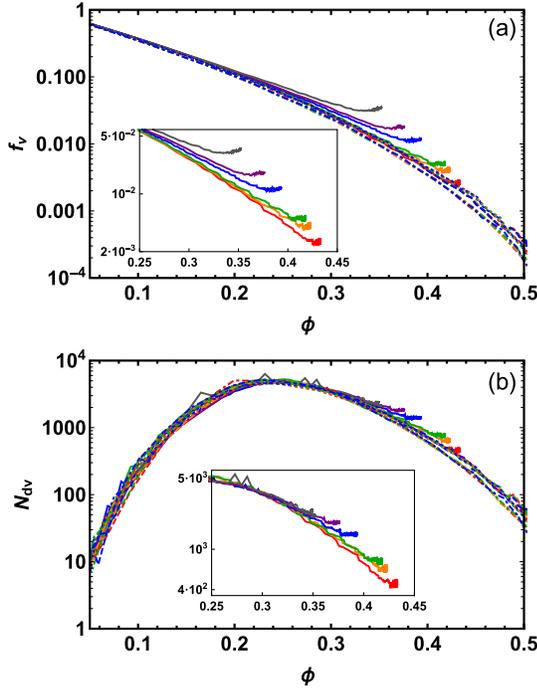


FIG. 2. Void fraction f_v [panel (a)] and number of topologically distinct voids N_{dv} [panel (b)]. Insets highlight the void stabilization that occurs for model 4. All colors and line types are the same as in Fig. 1.

they form are mechanically stabilized by their frictional interactions and hence are more likely to grow with increasing ϕ [56]. As compression continues, however, the behavior of these systems again becomes qualitatively different from that of models 1–3. Both $f_v(\phi)$ and $N_{dv}(\phi)$ begin rising substantially above the common exponential trends, at packing fractions ϕ_{vso} that decrease rapidly with increasing τ_{ramp} . Evidently these $\phi_{vso}(\tau_{ramp})$ correspond to the onset of structural voids’ mechanical stabilization, with lower ϕ_{vso} leading to larger final f_v and N_{dv} and therefore also to lower $\phi_{settled}$.

Visualizing these voids both illustrates the above arguments and reveals a feature that was not apparent from the f_v and N_{dv} data alone. Figure 3 shows how increasing τ_{ramp} *qualitatively* alters the final structural-void geometry. For $\tau_{ramp} = 10^4$, only one small structural void (of volume $\sim 11a^3$) is present in the settled configuration. In contrast, the settled configurations for $\tau_{ramp} = 10^5$ ($\tau_{ramp} = 10^6$) contain 27 (218) structural voids, with volumes as large as $48a^3$ ($261a^3$). Thus larger τ_{ramp} lead not only to larger f_v and correspondingly lower $\phi_{settled}$, but also to dramatic increases in the number and maximum size of structural voids, and consequently in the settled states’ spatial heterogeneity. Note that the final settled states for models 1–3 have *no* structural voids for the range of τ_{ramp} considered here, and their large-scale spatial heterogeneity [as indicated, e.g., by the low- q limit of the static structure factor $S(q)$] is τ_{ramp} -independent.

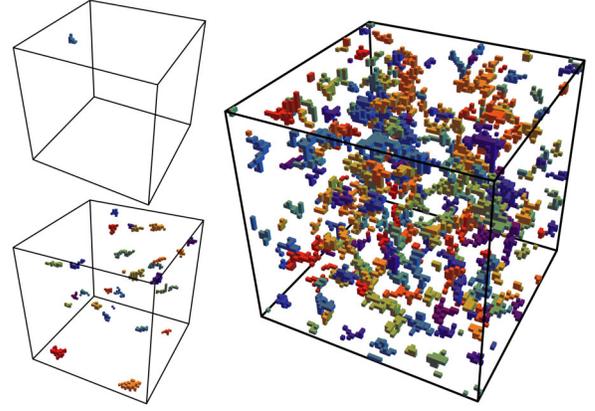


FIG. 3. Structural voids in model 4’s final settled states. The upper left, lower left, and right images, respectively, show results for $\tau_{ramp} = 10^4$, 10^5 , and 10^6 ; different colors indicate topologically distinct voids.

The first theories that successfully explained the logarithmically slow increase of $\phi(t)$ during tapping experiments [Eq. (1)] did so by noting that free volume decreases exponentially, and therefore the characteristic time between relaxation events that lead to further densification increases exponentially, with increasing ϕ [26–28]. In the same spirit, we postulate that the kinetic effects of increasing the void volume fraction $\phi_v \equiv 1 - \phi$ towards $1 - \phi_{ALP}$ in a settling frictional cohesive powder are comparable to the effects of increasing ϕ towards ϕ_{RCP} in a tapped frictionless noncohesive powder. In other words, we assume that the “free void volume” vanishes for $\phi < \phi_{ALP}$ because ϕ cannot be reduced any further without destabilizing the powder, and therefore the characteristic time for assembly processes that will produce settled packings with $\phi = \phi_{ALP}$ is astronomical, but that this time *decreases* exponentially with increasing ϕ .

Assuming that τ_{slow}^{-1} is the “attempt rate” for processes that form a mechanically stable settled sample, replacing the tapping-experiment duration t [Eq. (1)] with the pouring-experiment duration τ_{ramp} , and adapting the procedure used in Section 2.1 of Ref. [29] to the above-mentioned assumptions about free void volume leads to the prediction

$$\exp\left[\frac{\phi_{settled}(0) - \phi_{ALP}}{\phi_{settled}(\tau_{ramp}) - \phi_{ALP}}\right] = \exp(1) \left(1 + \frac{\tau_{ramp}}{\tau_{slow}}\right)^B, \quad (3)$$

where $\phi_{settled}(0)$ is the packing fraction obtained in the fast-pouring limit where minimal aggregation and compact-cluster stabilization occurs prior to settling [56], and B is a free parameter. Rearranging Eq. (3) leads to the rate law

$$\phi_{settled}(\tau_{ramp}) = \phi_{ALP} + \frac{\phi_{settled}(0) - \phi_{ALP}}{1 + B \ln(1 + \tau_{ramp}/\tau_{slow})}. \quad (4)$$

As illustrated in Fig. 1(c), Eq. (4) accurately describes model 4's $\phi_{\text{settled}}(\tau_{\text{ramp}})$. Notably, it predicts that frictional cohesive powders have *ultraslow* settling kinetics in the sense that their ϕ_{settled} continues decreasing steadily with increasing τ_{ramp} even with τ_{ramp} is *very large* [57]. Comparably slow kinetics can be predicted by “parking lot” models of granular compaction [27,58], but such models have not yet been adapted to capture the consequences of structural void stabilization.

Equation (4) should also predict the settling kinetics of real powders in the limit of strong intergrain cohesion and friction, e.g., Geldart group C [59] powders with average grain size $\lesssim 10 \mu\text{m}$, when the pouring height is small or the settling takes place in a gas-fluidized bed. A direct experimental test of its validity could potentially be performed by starting with a well-fluidized deagglomerated micropowder [17,60], and then comparing the ϕ_{settled} obtained after imposing a variety of gas-flow histories $v_g(t) = v_g(0)[1 - t/\tau_{\text{ramp}}]$, where $v_g(0)$ is above the critical fluidization velocity v_c [61] and the set of τ_{ramp} employed spans at least ~ 3 orders of magnitude. To the best of our knowledge, no comparable studies focusing on micropowders' settling kinetics have been performed yet, owing either to the difficulty of conducting such experiments or to the historical reliance of powder researchers on standardized procedures such as those described in Ref. [22]. Performing such experiments and better understanding the ultraslow kinetics of frictional cohesive powder settling could ultimately help develop more robust processing strategies for micropowders; developing such strategies is a major current challenge in the pharmaceutical and additive-manufacturing industries [31,32].

Future work will aim to identify the micromechanisms giving rise to the ultraslow kinetics discussed above (i.e., to identify the dynamical processes that control τ_{slow}) and to investigate the extent to which the ideas discussed in this Letter can be applied to understanding the history dependence of other commonly employed measures of powder flowability such as the angle of repose [62,63].

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