

# The nature of atomic wear from molecular simulations

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## ABSTRACT

Atomic wear is generally understood as a mechanically-assisted and thermally-activated bond-breaking chemical process. In other words, debris formation is proportional to time just like a chemical reaction (instead of sliding distance), the contact area, and strongly temperature-dependent. Here using molecular dynamics, we show in a model glassy tribo-system at relatively high sliding speeds that the atomic wear depends weakly on the temperature and not on the sliding speed and increases sub-linearly with the contact area. We propose a different wear formulation for this system by considering that the debris-formation process at relatively high sliding speed is shear-assisted and athermally-activated.

## 1. Introduction

Sliding between surfaces is ubiquitous in man-made machines, biological and geological systems. The paramount question in all tribological processes is to determine the mechanical resistance from dissipation (friction) and material loss (wear). Unlike friction, a subject of investigation since the times of the Ancient Greeks, wear is much less understood. Archard established the macroscopic adhesive wear law half century ago [1]; however, Archard's linear wear law is far from universally applicable in terms of material systems and loading regime. Recently, microscopic debris generation has received increasing interests, driven by the tremendous advancement in fabrication of nano-scale devices and the need for quantitative reliability assessment. For example, a better understanding of nano-scale wear has been achieved in both high speed sliding systems, e.g. the head/disk interface of hard drives ( $\sim 10$  m/s) [2,3], and low speed sliding systems, e.g. atomic force microscope (AFM) probes for high-density data storage ( $< 1.5$  mm/s) [4,5]. Microscopic wear at the contacting surfaces is distinct from macroscopic debris formation [6]: (1) interfacial adhesion is much stronger compared to the weight of the device at the nanoscale [7]; (2) continuum mechanics breaks down at the atomic scale [8]; (3) contacts contain just one or few single-asperity joints (e.g. in AFM). A new wear mechanism, atomic wear, has been identified in single-asperity sliding experiments at very low loads by different groups [4,5,9,10,11]. Based on this mechanism, the wear rate is an exponential function of the contact stress, deviating from Archard's linear wear law.

A number of analytical models have been proposed for atomic wear

[4,9,10] of single-asperity which are critical to understand wear in multi-asperity contact [1]. These models are all based on the notion that atomic wear is a thermally activated and mechanically assisted bond rupture process. The wear rate can be expressed using an Eyring-like formula as [4,9–15],

$$\frac{\Gamma_{debris}}{\Gamma_{attempt}} = \exp\left(-\frac{E_a - \sigma V_a}{k_B T}\right), \quad (1)$$

where  $\Gamma_{attempt}$  is the number of debris generation attempts per unit area per unit time,  $\Gamma_{debris}$  is the number of debris generation events per unit area per unit time,  $k_B$  is the Boltzmann constant, and  $T$  is the thermodynamic temperature.  $E_a$  is the activation energy, which is reduced by the stress  $\sigma$  conjugate to the activation volume  $V_a$ . The wear rate can be also written in terms of the debris volume  $V_{debris}$  per sliding distance  $L$ ,

$$\frac{dV_{debris}}{dL} = \frac{A \cdot \Gamma_{attempt} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{E_a - \sigma V_a}{k_B T}\right) v_m}{v_s}, \quad (2)$$

where  $A$  is the contact area,  $v_m$  is the molecular volume, and  $v_s$  is the sliding speed. The conversion from Eq. 1 to Eq. 2 builds upon the proportionality between the sliding distance ( $L$ ) and the time ( $t$ ) via the sliding speed ( $v_s$ ).

We have shown the exponential dependence of the atomic wear on the stress in our previous study of a Lennard-Jones system [16], however, the applicability of the above formulation in such system has not been verified in the dependence of the wear rate on the sliding speed and

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**Table 1**

Summary of simulation conditions. Specific conditions can be found in the caption of each figure presented.

| Simulation models                   | Tip size (nm)   | # total atoms                        | Velocity, $v_0$ (m/s) | Adhesion strength, $\kappa$ | Temperature (K)                               | Normal/frictional stress (GPa)                   |
|-------------------------------------|---|--------------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------|---|--|
| Sliding simulations (Section 2.2)   | $l_x$ : 3–33<br>$l_y$ : 4 <sup>[a]</sup><br>$l_z$ : 5 | $8 \times 10^3 \sim 1.1 \times 10^5$ | 0.012 ~ 37            | 0.1 ~ 0.25                  | $T_{kinetic}$ : 30 ~ 650                      | $\sigma_n$ : 0.2 ~ 1.0                           |
| $T_{eff}$ measurement (Section 2.3) | $l_x$ : 5<br>$l_y$ : 4<br>$l_z$ : 15                  | $2 \times 10^4$                      | 12                    | 0.25                        | $T_{kinetic}$ : 60 ~ 350                      | $\sigma_n$ : 0.05 ~ 0.1                          |
| GLD simulations (Section 2.4)       | $l_x$ : 5<br>$l_y$ : 1<br>$l_z$ : 5                   | $2 \times 10^3$                      | 11 <sup>[b]</sup>     | 0.2 <sup>[c]</sup>          | $T_{kinetic}$ : 63<br>$T_{eff}$ : 1050 ~ 4400 | $\sigma_n$ : 0.3 ~ 1.2<br>$\sigma_f$ : 0.2 ~ 0.9 |

<sup>[a]</sup> Because only a thin layer of tip atoms are participating the atomic wear process and the wear rate can be extremely low [16], a small tip height ( $l_y$ ) was used to facilitate long-time sliding simulation and wear rate measurement.

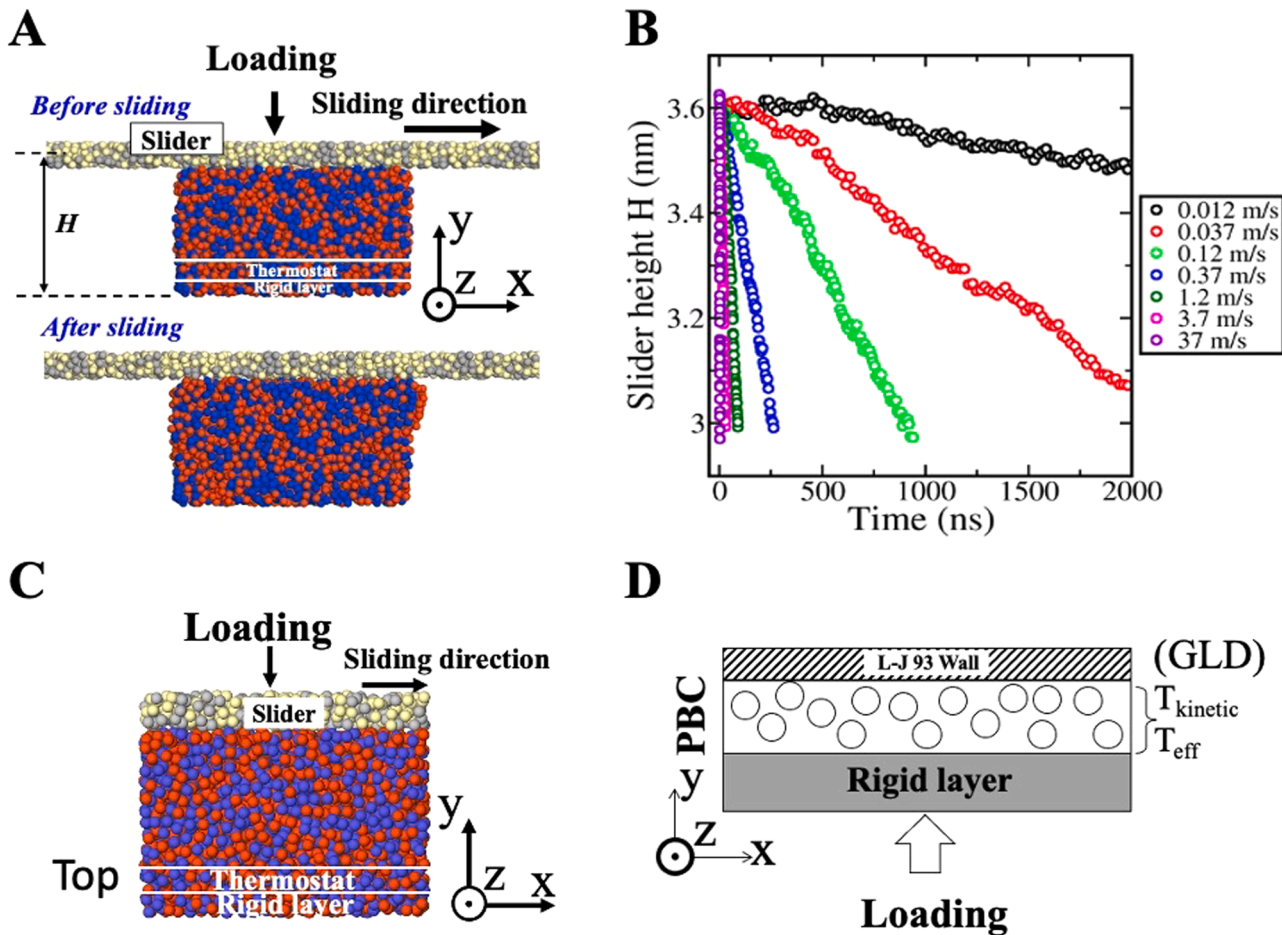
<sup>[b]</sup> The velocity is calculated by dividing the atomic roughness (0.27 nm) with the characteristic  $\tau_k$  25 ps adopted in GLD simulations.

<sup>[c]</sup> The tip is pressed by a flat wall which interacts with the tip atoms with a Lennard-Jones 9–3 potential. The value 0.2 corresponds to the rescaling factor for the energy of this potential in order to reduce adhesion.

temperature. An often-overlooked issue is that a chemical reaction (the notion behind Eq. 1) is a function of time, while debris formation can depend strongly on sliding distance. Another significant consequence of the current formulation is that the wear rate should be proportional to the contact area under constant contact stress, as bond-breaking events are equivalent to wear. Third, it is not clear which component of the

stress tensor should be used in the above equations, as both the shear stress and the normal stress have been used in literatures [9,10,17].

While there are significant experimental limitations in controlling sliding conditions, as well as precise measurements of wear rates in the atomic wear regime, atomistic simulations [16,18,19] can track the motion of all atoms and quantify the wear volume with atomic accuracy



**Fig. 1.** (A) Side view of the tip wear system before and after sliding 60 nm. The sample is 6 nm long in  $x$ -direction. The wear parameters are:  $T_{kinetic} = 63$  K,  $\kappa = 0.10$ ,  $\sigma_n \approx 0.4$  GPa,  $v_0 \approx 12$  m/s.  $H$  is the height of the slider. The two-colored atoms in both the slider and the tip correspond to the two types of atoms of the binary Lennard-Jones glass, respectively. (B) Example sliding curves of the slider height  $H$  versus the time  $t$  at different sliding velocities as noted in the legend. All  $H-t$  curves can be linearly fitted with a high correlation coefficient ( $> 0.98$ ). The sliding conditions are:  $\kappa = 0.25$ ,  $T_{kinetic} = 63$  K,  $\sigma_n \approx 0.1$  GPa. (C) A cross-sectional view of the tip-wear system used for measuring the effective temperature  $T_{eff}$ . (D) Schematic representation of the generalized Langevin dynamics simulations used to model atomic wear. Shear stress is applied to the tip material by superimposing a constant lateral force  $f$  in the  $x$ -direction. In (A), (C) and (D), periodic boundary conditions (PBC) are applied in the  $x$ - $z$  plane. In (A) only the slider is continuous in the  $x$ -direction. In contrast, both the slider and the tip are continuous in the  $x$ -direction in (C) and (D).

although higher sliding speeds [20–22] and simplified models [22–24] are commonly used as oppose to experiments. In this study, we systematically investigated the tip wear dependence on temperature, sliding velocity, and tip size using molecular dynamics (MD) simulations of a Lennard-Jones model glass. While not intended for chemical systems with strong covalent bonds [4,9,10,19,25,26], L-J model glass is useful to test the applicability of aforementioned wear formula on simple systems with affordable simulation cost. It has been shown the wear mechanism in this model transits from the atomic wear regime to a different wear regime at high contact stress where the wear scales linearly with the contact stress [14,16,18]. Our current results provide further evidence that atomic wear in such system at high sliding speeds is not thermally activated, and debris atoms are re-depositable. We also examined the atomic wear behavior based on athermal activation using generalized Langevin dynamics simulations. We found the atomic wear in the L-J system is mechanically activated and the kinetics can be better described with the concept of effective temperature from non-equilibrium thermodynamics.

## 2. Methods

### 2.1. Interatomic force field

We employed a binary Lennard-Jones model to simulate tip wear. Both the tip and the slider are composed of glassy binary alloys interacting via the Wahnström potential [27], as described in our previous work [16,28]. We chose to study an amorphous system, instead of a crystalline one for several reasons: (1) the amorphous sample is isotropic, thus obviating the need to investigate different crystallographic orientations as is the case for crystalline samples; (2) amorphous oxide layers are frequently encountered in single-asperity tips (such as AFM tips). In fact, a number of recent MD simulations of wear have elected to use amorphous samples [16,18,19].

The tip system using the Wahnström potential [27] consists of two species of atoms to bypass crystallization: *S* for small and *L* for large atoms, which interact via a binary Lennard-Jones (BLJ) potential of the form,

$$\phi_{ij} = 4\epsilon_{\alpha\beta} \left[ \left( \frac{\sigma_{\alpha\beta}}{r_{ij}} \right)^{12} - \left( \frac{\sigma_{\alpha\beta}}{r_{ij}} \right)^6 \right], \quad (3)$$

where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  represent species *S* or *L*.  $\epsilon_{\alpha\beta}$  represents the bonding energy,  $\sigma_{\alpha\beta}$  provides a length scale (the distance at which the interaction energy is zero), and both are species-dependent. The *SS* and *LL* bond energies are equal to that of the *SL* bond energy so that  $\epsilon_{SS} = \epsilon_{SL} = \epsilon_{LL}$ . The *SS* and *LL* length scales are related to the *SL* length scale by  $\sigma_{SS} = \frac{5}{6}\sigma_{LL}$ ,  $\sigma_{SL} = \frac{11}{12}\sigma_{LL}$ . The cutoffs for the *SS*, *LL*, and *SL* interactions are  $2.08\sigma_{LL}$ ,  $2.5\sigma_{LL}$  and  $2.29\sigma_{LL}$ , respectively. The cutoffs were chosen such that the potential energy values for the different interactions at their respective cutoffs have the same value  $-0.0163\epsilon_{LL}$ . The reference length and energy scales are  $\sigma_{LL}$  and  $\epsilon_{LL}$ , respectively. The two types of atoms have different masses such that. The reference time scale is  $t_0 = \sigma_{LL} \sqrt{m_0/\epsilon_{LL}}$ . The time step for trajectory integration is  $0.01 t_0$ . The mode coupling temperature,  $T_{MCT}$ , was measured to be  $0.57\epsilon_{LL}/k_B$ , where  $k_B$  is the Boltzmann constant. The internal units in the Wahnstrom system can be converted into physical units using binary metallic glass systems (taking Ni-Nb as an example) [29,30] as follows:  $t_0 \approx 0.5$  ps,  $\sigma_{LL} \approx 2.7$  Å,  $m_0 \approx 46$  amu, and  $T_{MCT} \approx 1000$  K. We provide the conversion from Lennard-Jones units to SI units for stress, velocity, and temperature: (stress)  $\frac{\epsilon_{LL}}{\sigma_{LL}^3} \approx 1.23$  GPa; (Sliding velocity)  $\sqrt{\epsilon_{LL}/m_0} \approx 540$  m/s; and (temperature)  $\epsilon_{LL}/k_B \approx 1754$  K. Quantum effect can be ignored because the de Broglie thermal wavelength ( $0.32$  Å) is much smaller than the interatomic distance and the sliding process takes much longer time than  $\hbar/k_B T$ , where  $\hbar$  is the Planck constant [31].

Based on the BLJ potential, we have conducted sliding simulations

with a tip-slider tribo-system, measured the effective temperature of the tribo-system and conducted wear simulations using a toy model with effective temperature controlled by the generalized Langevin dynamics (GLD) thermostat. The setup of different simulations will be described in the following sections. Some common simulation conditions are summarized in Table 1.

### 2.2. Sliding simulation

A tip wear tribo-system was chosen that mimics an AFM tip sliding on a flat rigid substrate (slider) following previous studies [16,28]. Fig. 1 A shows a side view of the tip wear tribo-system before and after sliding. Because the tapering angle of the conical tip is small in experiments [9,10] and the atomic wear rate is low, for convenience, a rectangular tip is used so that the contact area remains constant during the sliding. The tip has a length ( $l_x$ ) of 3–33 nm in the sliding *x*-direction, a height of 4 nm in the *y*-direction, and a thickness ( $l_z$ ) of 5 nm in the *z*-direction. Periodic boundary conditions (PBC) are applied in the *x/z*-direction and the thickness of the sample in the *z*-direction is fixed (plane strain condition). To prevent accidental reentering of debris atoms back to the interface with the slider, any tip atoms sticking with the slider and moving far away from the tip would be deleted during the sliding simulation. The bottom layer of 0.8 nm of the tip is held rigid. A layer of 0.6 nm above the rigid layer is coupled to a Nosé-Hoover [32, 33] thermostat with a target temperature  $T_{kinetic}$  to dissipate heat due to sliding. The rest of the tip is not directly coupled to any thermostat. For the continuous flat slider, atoms are constrained to rigid body motion without atomic vibrations. Both the tip and the slider are binary Lennard-Jones glass interacting via the BLJ potential. The bulk glass samples were created by quenching well-equilibrated liquids from 2100 K to a target temperature  $T_{kinetic}$  (30–650 K) using a cooling rate of  $0.8$  K/ps. Tip samples were then cut from the glassy samples.

The tip-slider interaction is controlled by  $\epsilon_{\alpha\beta}^{Tip-Slider} = \kappa\epsilon_{\alpha\beta}$  ( $\alpha, \beta = S$  or *L*). Here  $\epsilon_{\alpha\beta}$  are the original Wahnström parameters, and  $\kappa$  is a dimensionless parameter used to adjust the interfacial strength. We have previously shown that adhesion (high interfacial strength) suppresses atomic wear [16]. In this work, we adjusted  $\kappa$  to be weak, i.e.,  $\leq 0.25$  [16,28] (see Table 1 and captions of relevant figures). The bond length parameters  $\sigma_{\alpha\beta}$  remain unchanged for the tip-slider interactions. An external force is applied in the *y*-direction on the slider to control the normal stress. For all sliding simulations presented, the external normal force is kept constant such that the contact stress (normalized by a nominal contact area) is constant. Following our previous study [16,28], this nominal contact area is taken as the cross-section area of the intact tip, ignoring the tip elastic deformation and possible material build-up at the trailing end of the tip. With atomic smoothness, an intimate contact forms immediately between the slider and the tip [16]. We note that although in a linear-elastic continuum analysis [34] there exists a stress singularity at the edge of the tip, we do not observe singularity at the atomic scale in both the normal and shear stress using stress analysis based on the interatomic force between the slider atoms and the tip atoms at different contact areas in our simulations [28]. The reasons include (1) the breakdown of continuum models [8], (2) the different definitions of stress adopted at different scales [35–38], and (2) build-up of local stress would increase the wear locally which limits any further increase of the local stress.

The slider moves at a constant sliding speed in the *x*-direction as shown in Fig. 1 A. A constant wear rate is reached quickly (run-in process can be ignored) [16] and no fracture-induced debris [22] is generated. The wear rate is measured by  $dH/dL$  in terms of slider height (*H*) reduction per sliding distance *dL*, which is equivalent to the volume change per sliding distance  $dV/dL = AdH/dL$  with a constant contact area *A*. Example curves of the slider height *H* at different time are given in Fig. 1B. In all sliding simulations, a highly linear relation is found between the height of the slider and the sliding distance. Therefore, the

wear rate in the slider-tip system is expressed as the decreasing height of the tip per unit sliding distance  $dH/dL$ . This is particularly useful for a constant contact area wear simulations. These wear rate measurements have been used in previous studies [10,16,18]. The wear curves are insensitive to the tip height according to sliding simulations using a tip twice higher (not shown). The total sliding distance was adjusted according to the sliding velocity to make sure at least two layers of atoms are removed. The only exception is for the slowest velocity (0.012 m/s) where we have simulated only up to 3  $\mu\text{m}$  seconds.

### 2.3. Measurement of $T_{eff}$ of the atomic wear

The slider-tip system is a typical non-equilibrium system where mechanical energy is supplied continuously and dissipated into heat. Instead of conventional thermal activation for wear, we propose a mechanical, athermal activation mechanism (see following sections). For athermal activation in steady-state non-equilibrium systems (where one can still define and calculate  $T_{kinetic}$  using  $\frac{3}{2}k_B T_{kinetic} = \frac{1}{2} \langle mv^2 \rangle$ ), the effective temperature  $T_{eff}$  plays the role of thermodynamic temperature in equilibrium systems that characterizes the degree to which non-equilibrium systems sample phase space in the presence of an external field.

Measurements of  $T_{eff}$  have been performed in non-equilibrium systems [39–41], such as colloidal glasses, granular materials, and foams, but  $T_{eff}$  has not been measured in slider-tip systems that give rise to wear. Most previous measurements of  $T_{eff}$  have been carried in bulk systems. In contrast, the interface in slider-tip systems where atomic wear occurs is confined as thin as one to two layers of atoms, and  $T_{eff}$  varies strongly with the surface depth. In equilibrium systems, there are several equivalent definitions of temperature. In out-of-equilibrium systems, however, these definitions are not necessarily equivalent. Two methods to measure  $T_{eff}$  were attempted in this study: (I) a fluctuation-dissipation relation for the wave-number dependent density [39–41] and (II) the equipartition theorem for the translational degrees of freedom of a massive tracer particle [42,43]. The tribo-system setup used for  $T_{eff}$  measurement is illustrated in Fig. 1 C where periodic boundary conditions are applied in the plane of contact. The setup is similar to Fig. 1 A except that both the tip and the slider are continuous. This enables calculations for both the density autocorrelation function and response function for the tip atoms on the top without complication from loss of particles.

In method (I), the integrated response  $R_{\rho(k)}$  of the large particle number density at wave vector in the z-direction is plotted against the density autocorrelation function  $C_{\rho(k)}$  at the same wave vector. The definitions of  $R_{\rho(k)}$  and  $C_{\rho(k)}$  are given by Ref. [39]:

$$R_{\rho(k)}(t) = \frac{\langle O(t) - O(0) \rangle}{h_O}, \quad (4)$$

where  $h_O$  is a constant field that is conjugate to the observable

$$O(t) = \frac{1}{N_L} \sum_{j=1}^{N_L} \epsilon_j \exp\left[i \vec{k} \cdot \vec{r}_j(t)\right], \quad (5)$$

where  $N_L$  is the number of the large particles,  $\epsilon_j = \pm 1$  is a bimodal random variable with 0 mean and is the position of the  $j$ th atom at time  $t$ . With this choice of observables, the correlation function is essentially the incoherent part of the intermediate scattering function for the large particles:

$$C_{\rho(k)}(t) = \frac{1}{N_L} \sum_{j=1}^{N_L} \left\langle \exp\left\{i \vec{k} \cdot [\vec{r}_j(t+t_0) - \vec{r}_j(t_0)]\right\} \right\rangle. \quad (6)$$

Both  $R_{\rho(k)}$  and  $C_{\rho(k)}$  are calculated using particle positions of atoms within 0.6 nm of the tip. A thickness of 0.6 nm is used here because it is the first layer of atoms in the tip that mainly contributes to atomic wear [44]. Moreover, we found a thicker surface layer results in a similar  $T_{eff}$

(not shown).

In method (II),  $T_{eff}$  is measured using a special thermometer that has the same characteristic time scale associated with  $T_{eff}$ . A heavy tracer particle of mass  $m_{tr}$  serves as such a thermometer, as its Einstein frequency is closer to that of the mechanical agitation [42,43]. From the generalized equipartition theorem, one can calculate the average kinetic energy to estimate the effective temperature using. Note that the tracer particle velocity along the z-direction transverse to the sliding direction is used [42,43]. The tracer particles were chosen from the existing tip atoms and assigned with new masses.

### 2.4. Simplified wear simulations using Generalized Langevin Dynamics (GLD)

To investigate the role  $T_{eff}$  plays in atomic wear, we conducted wear simulations using a toy model by coupling a thin layer of atoms with a generalized Langevin dynamics thermostat, see Fig. 1D. The tip is a binary Lennard-Jones glass using the same Wahnstrom parameters. The bottom layer ( $\sim 0.6$  nm) of the sample is held rigid. A constant normal stress along the y-direction is applied on the tip material by a perfect flat wall interacting with the tip with a Lennard-Jones 9–3 potential:

$$\phi_w = \epsilon_w \left[ \frac{2}{15} \left( \frac{\sigma_w}{y_w - y} \right)^9 - \left( \frac{\sigma_w}{y_w - y} \right)^3 \right]. \quad (7)$$

$\epsilon_w$  represents the bonding energy between tip atoms and the wall and  $\sigma_w$  provides a length scale (the distance at which the interaction energy is zero).  $y_w - y$  is the distance from the wall to the atom.  $\epsilon_w$ ,  $\sigma_w$  and the potential cutoff are set to be  $0.2\epsilon_{LL}$ ,  $\sigma_{LL}$  and  $2.5\sigma_{LL}$ , respectively. Thus, in this setup, we only consider the motion of a confined layer between the rigid substrate and a frictionless wall. This confined layer is  $\sim 2\sigma_{LL}$  in thickness, consistent with the observation in the sliding simulations that the atomic wear is mainly confined to the top layer of the tip.

Because the flat wall is frictionless, shear stress is applied to the tip material by superimposing a constant lateral force  $f$  in the x-direction. PBC is applied in the x-z plane so that tip atoms will not be lost or worn off. Consequently, the effects of the tip edge and debris accumulation in the trailing end are not considered. The agitation from the roughness of the slider on the tip atoms is modeled by applying a GLD thermostat set at  $T_{eff}$  coupled with the middle layer. Thus, this layer is coupled to two temperature baths: (1) a Langevin thermostat at  $T_{kinetic}$  and (2) a generalized Langevin dynamics thermostat at  $T_{eff}$ . A similar setup has been used previously to study activation dynamics [45,46]. The two thermal baths give the equation of motion:

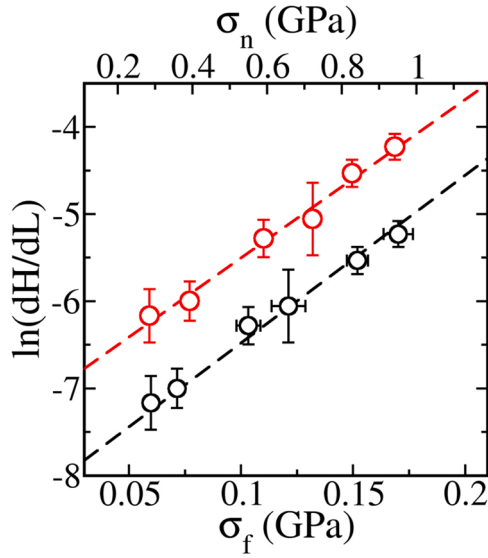
$$m\dot{v} = -V'(x) - \int_0^t ds \Gamma(t-s)v(s) - \Gamma_0 v(t) + \xi(t) + \eta(t). \quad (8)$$

$\Gamma_0$  and  $\eta(t)$  are the frictional drag and random noise strength, respectively, for the Langevin thermostat, where  $\langle \eta(t)\eta(s) \rangle = 2T_{bath}\delta(t-s)$ .  $\Gamma(t-s)$  and  $\xi(t)$  are the frictional drag and random noise strength for the GLD thermostat, where  $\langle \xi(t)\xi(s) \rangle = 2T_{eff}\Gamma(t-s)$ . For the memory kernel, we use a Prony form:

$$\Gamma(t) = \frac{c_k}{\tau_k} e^{-t/\tau_k}, \quad (9)$$

where  $\tau_k$  is the time constant. Here we let  $c_k = \tau_k$  following Ref. [46]. It has been found [46] that for the conditions  $\tau_k > > 1$  or  $c_k/\tau_k > > 1$ , there will be a separation of time scales associated with  $T_{eff}$  and  $T_{kinetic}$  [21]. Eq. 9 enables the mapping of the non-Markovian dynamics (Eq. 8) onto a Markovian problem [45].

As we are simulating the motion of top layer atoms in the tip with a periodic boundary setup in the GLD simulations, a conversion from the displacement of these atoms to the wear rate is needed, assuming debris formation comes from the mass flow with a constant flow speed of the top layer of the tip material. One can define the average flow velocity of



**Fig. 2.** Variation of the wear rate with shear stress  $\sigma_f$  (black) and normal stress  $\sigma_n$  (red) ( $T_{kinetic} = 63$  K,  $\kappa = 0.10$ ,  $v_0 \approx 12$  m/s) for a rectangular tip of 6 nm long. The normal stress data are shifted vertically for clarity. A linear fit gives slope  $V_{act}/k_B T = 17.7 \pm 0.6$  GPa $^{-1}$  and  $3.0 \pm 0.2$  GPa $^{-1}$  for  $\sigma_f$  and  $\sigma_n$ , respectively.

the top layer  $\overline{\Delta v} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \Delta x_i}{N \cdot \Delta t}$ . Here  $\Delta x_i$  is the atomic displacement relative to the initial position and  $N$  is the number of atoms in the top layer.  $N = \frac{l_x l_z h_{top}}{v_m}$ ,  $l_x$  and  $l_z$  are the tip lengths in the  $x$ - and  $z$ -directions,  $h_{top}$  is the thickness of the top layer, and  $v_m$  is the molecular volume. Therefore, the debris volume is  $\Delta V = \overline{\Delta v} \cdot \Delta t \cdot l_x \cdot l_z$  and the tip height loss during the time period  $\Delta t$  can be written as

$$\Delta H = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \Delta x_i}{l_x} \cdot \frac{v_m}{l_x \cdot l_z} \quad (10)$$

The GLD parameter  $\tau_k$  characterizes the typical time scale for athermal activation. Therefore, for a simulation duration of time  $t$ , there are  $t/\tau_k$  activation events from sliding. The corresponding sliding distance in a tip-wear MD simulation would be

$$\Delta L = t/\tau_k l_r \quad (11)$$

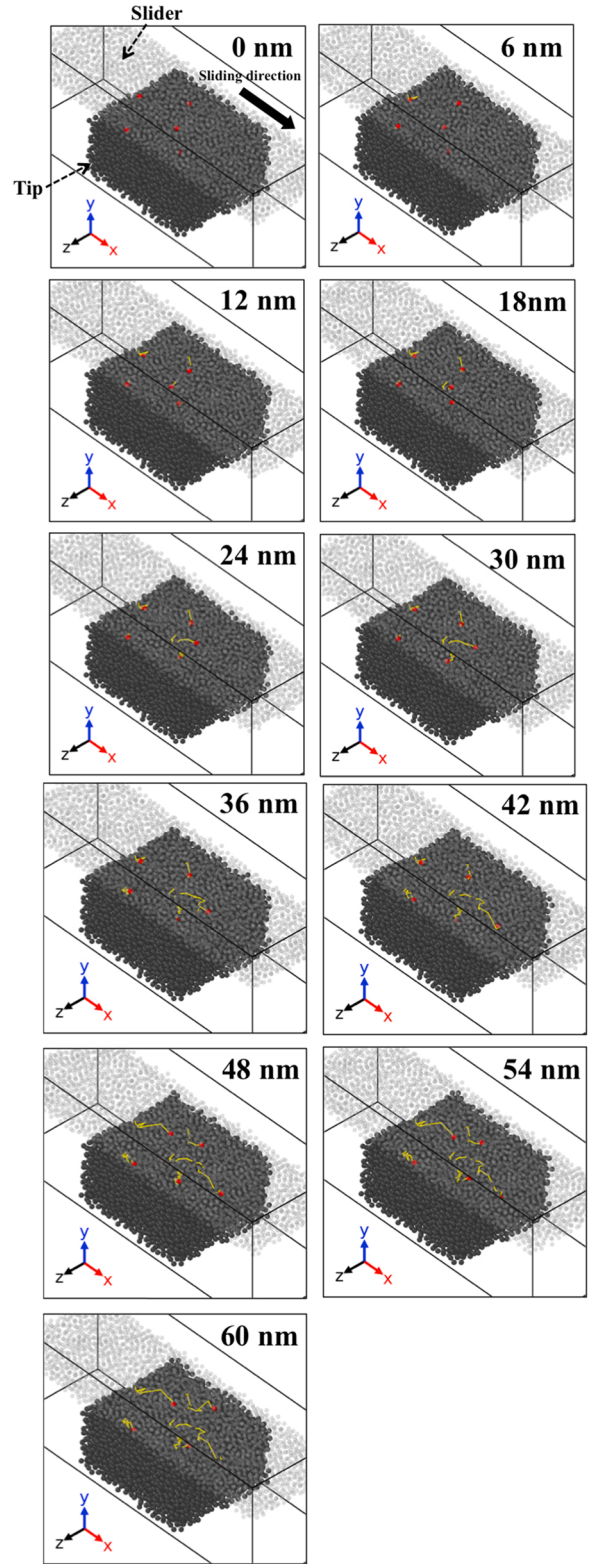
$l_r$  is the characteristic length scale for the slider surface roughness, which was chosen to be the atomic radius of 0.27 nm for simplicity. It should be noted that the atomic wear behavior is independent of the choice of  $\tau_k$ , which is analogous to the fact that the atomic wear rate is insensitive to the sliding speed. Fig. A.1 in Appendix A shows that the wear rate is weakly dependent on the  $\tau_k$ . A reasonable value of  $\tau_k$  can be estimated using the tip wear MD simulations (Section 2.2). For an MD simulation with a sliding speed of 12 m/s, and an atomic roughness on the order of the atomic radius 0.27 nm, the time between two mechanical activation events is  $\sim 25$  ps. This situation corresponds to a  $\tau_k$  of 25 ps. Thus,  $\tau_k = 25$  ps is used in the GLD simulations.

The advantages of the GLD simulations are that  $T_{eff}$  can be controlled independently from  $T_{kinetic}$ , and the shear stress can be controlled independently from the normal stress. Although simplified, the GLD simulations can reproduce key features of the atomic wear MD simulations.

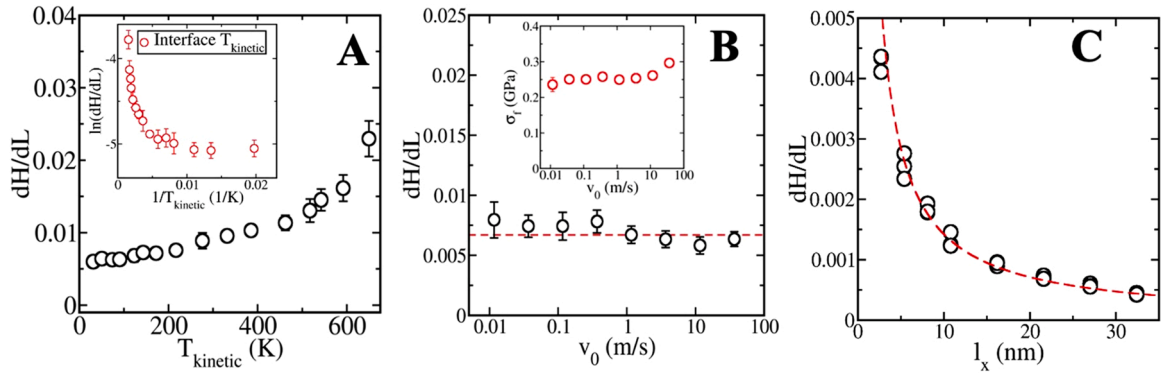
### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Atomic wear in Lennard-Jones system

Starting with the sliding simulation for atomic wear, the dependence of the wear rate on the contact stress is shown in Fig. 2.  $dH/dL$  is an



**Fig. 3.** A series of snapshots from the atomic wear simulation. The wear parameters are:  $T_{kinetic} = 63$  K,  $\kappa = 0.1$ ,  $\sigma_n \approx 0.4$  GPa,  $v_0 \approx 12$  m/s. The sample is 6 nm long in  $x$ -direction. The sliding distance of each snapshot is shown on the top-right corner of each panel. We have made the slider semi-transparent and selected five tip debris atoms (red and ignoring their types) which are moving during the sliding to trace their trajectories (yellow lines).



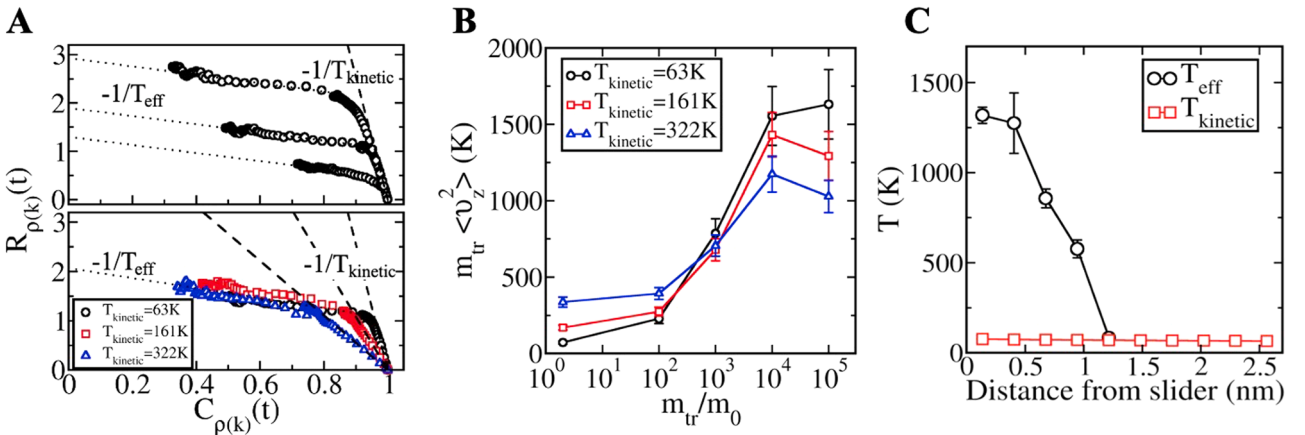
**Fig. 4.** Variation of the wear rate with (A)  $T_{kinetic}$  ( $\kappa = 0.25$ ,  $\sigma_n \approx 0.1$  GPa,  $v_0 \approx 12$  m/s), (B) sliding speed  $v_0$  ( $\kappa = 0.25$ ,  $T_{kinetic} = 63$  K,  $\sigma_n \approx 0.1$  GPa) and (C) tip length  $l_x$  ( $\kappa = 0.2$ ,  $\sigma_n \approx 0.2$  GPa,  $v_0 \approx 12$  m/s). The inset of (A) shows the semi-log plot of the same data as a function of  $1/T_{kinetic}$ . The inset of (B) shows that the shear stress  $\sigma_f$  remain nearly unchanged. The non-linear fit in (C) uses data from three different samples and assumes  $dH/dL = c/l_x$ . The fitted curve has a correlation coefficient of 0.99 with  $c = 0.014$  nm. Error bars reported for (A) and (B) are estimated from standard deviation of five and three parallel samples, respectively. Note error bars smaller than the symbol size are not shown.

exponential function of the normal stress ( $\sigma_n$ ) and frictional shear stress ( $\sigma_f$ ), a hallmark of the atomic wear regime as reported in Refs. [4,5,9,10,11,13,14,28]. The atomic wear observed in the Lennard-Jones system consists of intermittent motion by a small fraction of the top layer tip atoms adjacent to the slider. A series of snapshots from the atomic wear simulation (sliding conditions:  $T_{kinetic} = 63$  K,  $\kappa = 0.1$ ,  $\sigma_n \approx 0.4$  GPa,  $v_0 \approx 12$  m/s) are shown in Fig. 3 (note the displacement of these atoms is much smaller than the sliding distance  $L$ ). This is very different from shear banding where all atoms inside the shear band participate the deformation [47]. Next we show how the wear rate in the atomic wear regime varies as a function of temperature, sliding speed, and contact area.

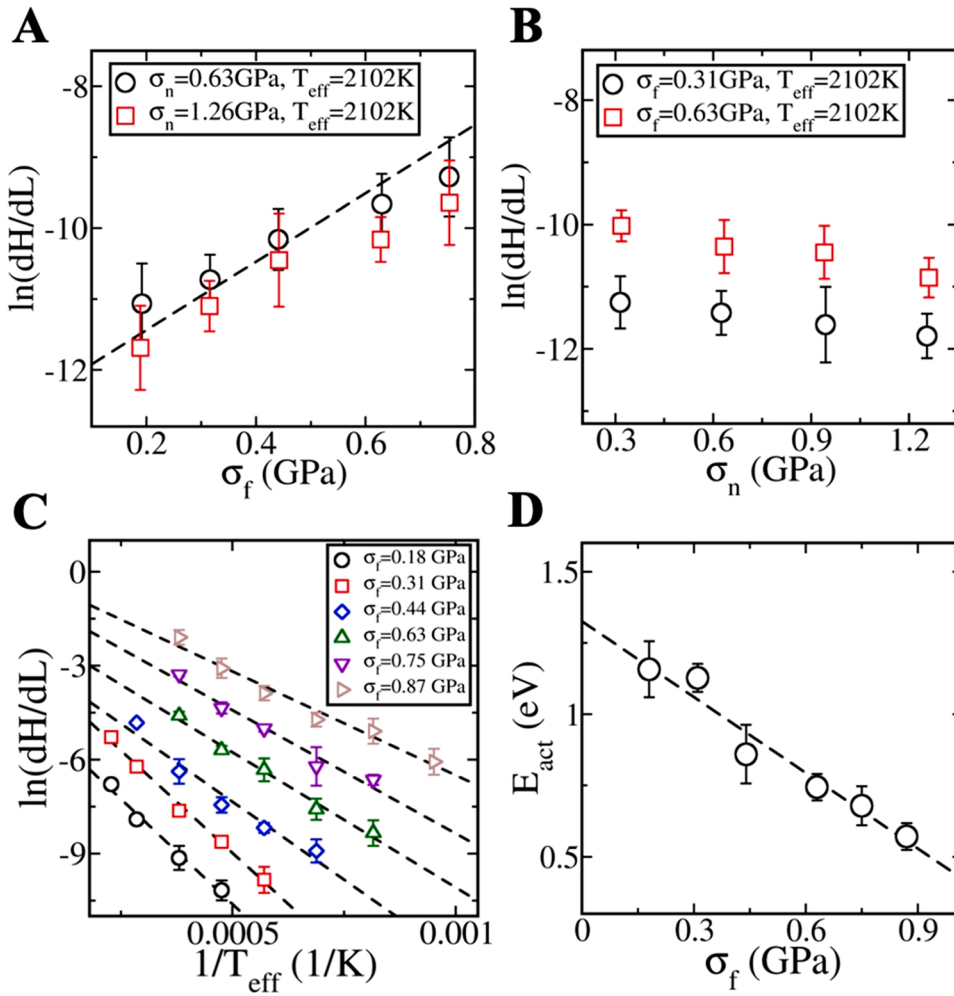
### 3.2. Effect of temperature and sliding speed on atomic wear

Fig. 4A shows the variation of the wear rate  $dH/dL$  with the bath temperature  $T_{kinetic}$  ( $T_{kinetic}$  is calculated using  $\frac{3}{2}k_B T_{kinetic} = \frac{1}{2} \langle mv^2 \rangle$  where the right is the average kinetic energy). The non-exponential dependence of  $dH/dL$  on  $T_{kinetic}$  can be further seen from the

Arrhenius-type plot in the inset of Fig. 4 A. In our simulations, we have used  $T_{kinetic}$  measured from tip atoms at the interface as it is slightly higher than the thermostat by 15 K or less. Fig. 4B shows the sliding velocity ( $v_0$ ) dependence of atomic wear. The wear rate is nearly constant for  $v_0$  spanning almost four orders of magnitude as indicated by the red horizontal line (at least two layers of atoms were removed in these simulations).  $T_{kinetic}$  only varies from 63 K to 74 K over this range of  $v_0$ , which has a minor effect according to Fig. 4 A. As  $v_0$  increases beyond 30 m/s, the wear rate increases dramatically due to significant frictional heat. According to thermally-activated friction models [48–50], the shear stress increases logarithmically or sub-logarithmically with the sliding velocity before it reaches a critical value and becomes velocity-independent beyond the critical velocity [20,21,49]. Because much higher velocities ( $>10$  mm/s) were used in our simulations than those in the literatures [20,49] ( $<10$   $\mu$ m/s),  $\sigma_f$  remains unchanged at  $0.26 \pm 0.02$  GPa as shown in the inset of Fig. 4B. The temperature and sliding velocity dependences suggest that the atomic sliding for the Lennard-Jones glass model is an *athermal* activation process as opposed to an Eyring-like activation process for the range of  $v_0$  investigated.



**Fig. 5.** Two methods are employed to measure  $T_{eff}$  (The contact stress  $\sigma_n$  is 0.05 GPa, adhesion strength  $\kappa = 0.25$ , and sliding speed  $v_0 \approx 12$  m/s.): (A)  $R_{\rho(k)}$  vs  $C_{\rho(k)}$  of the interface atoms in the slider-tip wear system.  $T_{kinetic} = 63$  K for the top panel. The wave vectors in the z-direction transverse to the sliding direction. In the top panel, we show  $R(C)$  curves for  $=kz$  for three wavenumbers  $k = 11.5, 7.67$  and  $3.83$  (from top to bottom). The dotted lines are guides to the eye showing that the  $R(C)$  curves for different wavenumbers give similar values for  $T_{eff}$  (1500 K~2050 K), which corresponds to the inverse slopes of the curves at long times. The dashed line shows the initial slope,  $-1/T_{kinetic}$ . The bottom panel shows  $R(C)$  curves at three values for  $T_{kinetic}$ . The dotted line shows that  $T_{eff}$  does not change significantly for the three values of  $T_{kinetic}$  which is given by the dashed lines. (B)  $T_{eff}$  measured using the heavy tracer method as a function of the mass of the tracer particle for several values of  $T_{kinetic}$ . The error bars are evaluated from standard deviation of multiple samples. (C)  $T_{eff}$  and  $T_{kinetic}$  as a function of the distance from the center of the slider ( $\kappa = 0.25$ ,  $\sigma_n \approx 0.1$  GPa,  $v_0 \approx 12$  m/s).  $T_{eff}$  was measured using fluctuation-dissipation relations and each point in the plot corresponds to the  $T_{eff}$  of a thin layer of  $\sim 0.3$  nm. The error bar for  $T_{eff}$  is estimated from standard deviation of three larger samples (Table 1). The error bar for  $T_{kinetic}$  is smaller than the symbol size.



**Fig. 6.** Variation of the wear rate  $\ln(dH/dL)$  with (A) shear stress  $\sigma_f$ , (B) normal stress  $\sigma_n$ , and (C)  $T_{eff}$ . In (A) and (B),  $T_{kinetic} = 63$  K. In (C),  $\sigma_n = 0.3$  GPa and  $T_{kinetic} = 63$  K are used in the GLD simulations. The lowest shear stress, 0.18 GPa, has the correct scale and all other data are shifted for clarity. (D) The activation energy  $E_{act}$  extracted from (C) is plotted against  $\sigma_f$ . The dashed line in (A) has the slope  $V_{act}$  obtained in (D). A sliding speed  $v_0$  of 12 m/s was assumed to calculate  $dH/dL$ . The error bars are from standard deviation of five independent samples.

### 3.3. Sample size effect on atomic wear

Next, we examined how the contact area affects the wear rate in the atomic wear regime, which has not been considered in the literature [4, 9,10] as bond breaking events are directly used to calculate the wear rate. Based on this notion, atomic wear rate  $dH/dL$  would be independent of contact area and the tip length  $l_x$  in the sliding direction under otherwise identical sliding conditions. However, Fig. 4 C shows that the wear rate in the Lennard-Jones glass system is inversely proportional to  $l_x$  at the same contact stress. The sliding conditions are  $\kappa = 0.2$ ,  $\sigma_n \approx 0.2$  GPa and  $v_0 \approx 12$  m/s respectively. Therefore, bond breaking does not directly lead to debris-generation, i.e. debris atoms form only when they leave the interface at the edge of the contact (see Fig. 3). This is a crucial point for formulating an effective atomic wear equation for the Lennard-Jones glass as will be discussed later.

### 3.4. Effective temperature in the tribo-system

Based on the above MD results from the Lennard-Jones glass model for which existing wear formula is not applicable, we propose a mechanical activation mechanism for the atomic wear by adopting the effective temperature  $T_{eff}$ , a concept playing the role of thermodynamics temperature in equilibrium system for a non-equilibrium system. Different definitions of  $T_{eff}$  have been proposed in non-equilibrium

systems such as granular materials [40,51,52]. However,  $T_{eff}$  has been rarely measured in any tip wear tribo-systems. Two methods were applied to measure  $T_{eff}$  (see Section 2.3): (I) fluctuation-dissipation relations of the number density and (II) equipartition for the translational degrees of freedom using massier particles.

Using method (I), Fig. 5 A shows the integrated response  $R_{\rho(k)}$  of the large particle number density at wave vector in the z-direction transverse to the sliding direction versus the density autocorrelation function  $C_{\rho(k)}$  at the same wave vector. The sliding conditions are  $\sigma_n \approx 0.05$  GPa,  $\kappa = 0.25$ , and  $v_0 \approx 12$  m/s, respectively. These  $R(C)$  curves have two characteristic regimes as predicted by Kurchan [51], similar to observations made in studies of sheared Lennard-Jones glasses [42]. At short times, the slope of the  $R(C)$  curves,  $-1/T_{kinetic}$ , is determined by the thermostat temperature, and corresponds to fast relaxations. At long times, the slope of the  $R(C)$  curves,  $-1/T_{eff}$ , corresponds to relaxations that occur from shearing at the tip-slider interface. The curves and the parallel dotted lines shown in the upper panel of Fig. 5 A give  $T_{eff} \sim 1790$  K for three different wave vectors, which is consistent with previous results. The lower panel of Fig. 5 A shows that the slope at small  $R$  and  $C$  ( $\sim -1$ ) varies with  $T_{kinetic}$  (see the dashed lines) while  $T_{eff}$  is nearly constant when  $T_{kinetic}$  changes from 63 K to 322 K. Overall, the obtained  $T_{eff} = 1500\text{--}2050$  K is much higher than  $T_{kinetic}$  (60–350 K).

With the same sliding conditions, we have measured  $T_{eff}$  using tracer particles, i.e., method (II). The results are shown in Fig. 5B. Each data

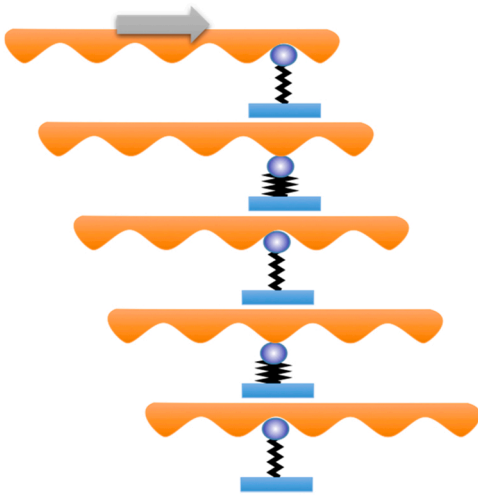


Fig. 7. A schematic for the mechanically-activated atomic wear picture, showing the consecutive agitation of the slider to the blue atom and the number of such agitation is proportional to the sliding distance.

point represents an average of at least ten simulations with different tracer particles. Light particles ( $m_T \sim 10^0 - 10^2 m_0$ ) give the temperature of the fast thermostat, i.e.  $T_{kinetic}$ . The effective temperature crosses over to above 1000 K, i.e.  $T_{eff}$  for heavier particles ( $m_T \sim 10^4 - 10^5 m_0$ ). These results are similar to those reported by Berthier and Barrat in sheared Lennard-Jones glasses [42,43]. In Fig. 5B we show that the effective temperatures at different  $T_{kinetic}$  are close to each other, in agreement with the results from Fig. 5 A. The  $T_{eff}$  (1180–1560 K) measured from tracer particles is close to the  $T_{eff}$  (1500 K–2050 K) measured from  $R(C)$  curves. Differences between the two measured effective temperature may exist due to the following reasons: (1) the extremely heavy particles may affect the slider-tip interactions and (2)  $T_{eff}$  obtained from the  $R(C)$  plot is averaged over all atoms within a certain depth (0.6 nm), while the  $T_{eff}$  from the tracer particle measurement corresponds to the outmost layer of the tip.

Because only those tip atoms close to the slider are undergoing mechanical agitation from the slider, the effective temperature will be different for tip atoms at different depths. Fig. 4 shows that  $T_{eff}$  drops quickly away from the interface and becomes equal to  $T_{kinetic}$  at distances  $> 1.2$  nm from the slider. The sliding conditions are  $\kappa = 0.25$ ,  $\sigma_n \approx 0.1$  GPa, and  $v_0 \approx 12$  m/s, respectively.

### 3.5. Wear simulations using generalized Langevin dynamics

To illustrate that atomic wear can be activated athermally in an Arrhenius plot, one needs a series of atomic wear simulations with identical contact stress states over a range of effective temperatures. However,  $T_{eff}$  varies in a relatively narrow range in our tip wear simulations. To overcome this, we conduct GLD simulations of the top layer of the tip atoms (see Section 2.4). In these slider-free simulations, the tip atoms are coupled to two heat baths at two concepts of temperature: a fast bath held at  $T_{kinetic}$  and a slow bath held at  $T_{eff}$  with  $T_{eff} \gg T_{kinetic}$  ( $T_{eff}$  represents the mechanical agitation from the slider to the tip atoms).

Fig. 6 A shows that the wear rate in the GLD simulations (calculated from atomic flux in the sliding direction; see Section 2.4) increases exponentially with the shear stress, whereas it is insensitive to the normal stress with only a slight decrease as shown in Fig. 6B. Therefore, the shear stress, not the normal stress, induces mechanical agitation for atomic wear. Fig. 6 C shows the wear rate versus  $T_{eff}$  in an Arrhenius-type plot for various shear stress  $\sigma_f$  with the normal stress and  $T_{kinetic}$

unchanged. It is clear that  $T_{eff}$  is able to capture the mechanical activation of debris generation. The activation energy  $E_{act}$  can be determined from the slope of  $\ln(dH/dL)$  versus  $1/T_{eff}$  in Fig. 6 C at different values of  $\sigma_f$ . As  $\sigma_f$  increases,  $E_{act}$  decreases as shown in Fig. 6D. Extrapolation of  $E_{act}$  to  $\sigma_f = 0$  gives the stress-free activation energy  $E_0$  of  $1.33 \pm 0.06$  eV, which is the same order of magnitude as the cohesive energy (1.0 eV/atom) of the Lennard-Jones system. The slope of  $E_{act} - \sigma_f$  curve gives an activation volume  $V_{act}$  of  $0.14 \pm 0.02$  nm<sup>3</sup>. The value corresponds to the volume of one or two atoms, which is consistent with the atom-by-atom attrition picture. For the MD simulation results shown in Fig. 2, together with the measured  $T_{eff}$ , the athermal activation volume is estimated to be  $0.26 - 0.42$  nm<sup>3</sup>. Prior experiments [4,9–11,17] reported values of  $V_{act}$  over a wide range from an order of  $0.001 - 0.1$  nm<sup>3</sup>. The large difference in  $V_{act}$  between our simulations and experimental results comes firstly from the use of  $T_{eff}$  instead of  $T_{kinetic}$ . Another difference is that  $V_{act}$  in this work is conjugate to shear stress (as validated in Fig. 5B), while some  $V_{act}$  in prior experiments are conjugate to normal stress [4,9,10] or radial stress [11]. Lastly, our MD simulations (Fig. 2) were conducted at much higher sliding velocities whereas much lower velocities are typically applied in experiments except those using a polymer substrate [5,10,53].

### 3.6. A wear formula for the Lennard-Jones system

We now attempt to develop a wear formula for the Lennard-Jones glass system which is athermally activated, shear-facilitated, and tip-size dependent. A schematic picture is shown in Fig. 7. The tip atom (blue) is mechanically agitated by the surface corrugation of the slider. Such mechanical agitation facilitates the rearrangement of tip-surface atoms which is characterized by  $T_{eff}$  and can occur even at a low  $T_{kinetic}$ . The mechanical agitation of a moving slider is not strongly dependent on its speed: both the shear stress (as shown in the inset of Fig. 4B) and  $T_{eff}$  are roughly independent of the sliding speed. The number of agitation attempts per atom can be approximated as the sliding distance divided by a characteristic length scale for roughness  $l_r$ . In other words, the sliding distance in athermal activation plays the role of time in thermal activation. An immediate consequence is that the wear rate becomes independent of the sliding velocity, which agrees with our MD simulation results. In addition, Fig. 4 C shows that the atomic wear rate  $dH/dL \propto 1/l_x$  or  $dV/dL \propto l_x$  ( $l_x$  is the thickness of the tip). We rationalize this observation by recognizing that the atomic wear process consists of discrete atomic jumps: only debris events within a certain distance (an average jumping distance  $l_j$ ) to the edge of the tip can reach the edge of the tip thus contribute to the wear rate; while atomic movement deep inside the tip constitute a continuous stream of atoms not yet reaching the edge of the tip. Alternatively, if the debris events of the entire contact contribute to the overall wear rate, then  $dV/dL \propto l_x^2$ , contradicting to Fig. 4 C.

From the above discussions, the actual area contributing to debris formation for the rectangular tip is the product of the tip thickness  $l_x$  and the average jumping distance  $l_j$ . For a cylindrical tip, the area will be the product of the diameter of the tip  $2R$  and the average jumping distance  $l_j$ . Thus, the total number of attempts  $N_{attempts}$  based on mechanical agitation, can be written as,

$$N_{attempts} = l_x l_j n_s \frac{L}{l_r}, \quad (12)$$

where  $n_s$  is the areal number density for tip atoms and  $l_r$  is the characteristic length for slider roughness.  $l_x l_j n_s$  is the number of atoms within the effective area near the tip edge. These atoms, once they make a movement toward the sliding direction, can escape the contact area.  $L/l_r$  is the number of mechanical agitations for each surface atom due to sliding. According to Eq. (1), with  $T_{eff}$  substituting  $T_{kinetic}$ , the wear rate



of worn volume per sliding distance can be written as

$$\frac{dV_{debris}}{dL} = l_z \cdot b \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{E_a - \sigma_f V_{act}}{k_B T_{eff}}\right), \quad (13)$$

where  $b = \frac{l_z n_s v_m}{l_x}$  has a unit of length wherein  $v_m$  is the molecular volume. Because the contact area is  $l_x l_z$ , the height loss per sliding distance can be expressed as

$$\frac{dH}{dL} = \frac{b}{l_x} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{E_a - \sigma_f V_{act}}{k_B T_{eff}}\right), \quad (14)$$

which is consistent with the results in Fig. 4 C. Alternatively, for a tip with circular contact with radius  $R$ , the number of atoms within the effective area near the tip edge is  $2Rl_z n_s$  and the contact area is  $\pi R^2$ . Following the same steps as above, the wear rate can be expressed as,

$$\frac{dV}{dL} = R \cdot b \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{E_a - \sigma_f V_{act}}{k_B T_{eff}}\right) \text{ or } \frac{dH}{dL} = \frac{b}{\pi R} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{E_a - \sigma_f V_{act}}{k_B T_{eff}}\right) \quad (15).$$

#### 4. Conclusions

In summary, we used molecular scale simulations to investigate tip wear of a Lennard-Jones model glass in the atomic wear regime over a range of temperatures, sliding velocities, and contact radii. The wear results are inconsistent with the atomic wear models based on thermal activation without debris re-deposition. We thus propose an effective formulation for atomic wear observed in the model glassy tribosystem that is athermally activated, facilitated by shear stress, and tip-size dependent. This wear formulation suggests that the thermal activation mechanism using the conventional concept of temperature is not universally applicable in all types of atomistic wear such as the one we observed in the simple Lennard-Jones model at relatively high sliding velocities. In this regard, this work has provided some critical factors to include in order to improve quantitative assessment of the service lifetime of nanoscale devices particularly under low contact stresses and high sliding speeds. Extension of our work to materials such as those with covalent bonds will further shed light on the wear behavior in more complicated systems.

#### Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

#### Data Availability

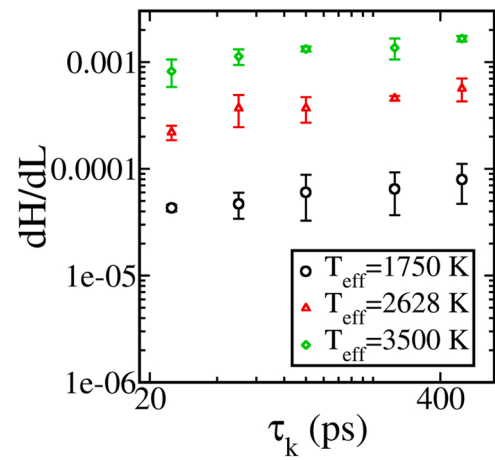
The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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#### Appendix A. Effect of $\tau_k$ on wear rate in GLD simulations

(see Fig. A1)



**Fig. A1.** Log-log plot of  $dH/dL$  versus  $\tau_k$  at different  $T_{eff}$  measured in the GLD simulations. The atomic wear rate remains nearly constant as  $\tau_k$  is varied from 25 to 500 ps. The normal stress and shear stress are 0.31 GPa and 0.63 GPa, respectively. The error bars are estimated from standard deviation of three samples.

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