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Mechanical properties of millimetric silica aerogel particles produced through evaporative drying: a coupled experimental and discrete element approach

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Abstract

An alternative to supercritical drying to process silica aerogels is to apply evaporative drying to obtain particles that can then be used in the preparation of composite products. However, the mechanical behaviour of these particles is still poorly understood. In this work, millimetre-sized particles are studied combining experimental testing and discrete simulations. A statistical study of the compression of individual particle shows that the values of fracture strength are scattered because of the variability in shape, density and initial defects. The individual compression of aerogel particles inside an X-ray tomograph provides valuable information for understanding the influence of density on their elastic and fracture behaviors. Discrete simulations are calibrated using experimental data to reproduce numerically experimental compression observed inside the tomograph allowing the introduction of process induced particle defects. We show that these simulations can be used to determine the Young's modulus and fracture strength of aerogel particles.

Keywords: Silica aerogel, Particles, Uniaxial compression, Discrete Element Method, Fracture, X-ray tomography, Crack propagation

1. Introduction

1 In recent years, silica aerogels have attracted the interest of the thermal insulation industry.
2 These materials indeed offer exceptional thermal performances with thermal conductivities as
3 low as $12 \text{ mW}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}$, coupled with transparency, lightness and soundproofing properties, ow-
4 ing to their highly porous nanoscale pearl-necklace network of silica particles. The porosity level
5 is generally over 90% with pores of approximately 10 nm [1]. These materials would be already
6 largely used and produced were it not for their poor mechanical properties and high manufactur-
7 ing cost, which makes their use very situational for now [2, 3, 4]. The evolution of regulations
8 in the field of thermal insulation over the last years [5] seems to be a perfect context to promote
9 new insulation materials offering enhanced properties for a reduced dedicated volume compared
10 to conventional solutions in today's building, transportation and industry sectors.

11 Silica aerogels are produced by a sol-gel process followed by drying of the solvent used for
12 the gel preparation [6, 7, 8]. The vast majority of studies dealing with silica aerogel mechanical
13 properties concerns monolithic aerogels produced through supercritical drying, which is the priv-
14 ileged way to process high quality silica aerogel monoliths [9, 10, 11]. Very few studies focus
15

16 on aerogels produced through evaporative drying [12] and most of them deals with silica aerogel
17 composites reinforced with a second phase during the gel formation [13, 14]. Evaporative dry-
18 ing, however, is a potential alternative for manufacturers looking for a lower production cost, as
19 supercritical CO₂ is costly and creates additional constraints in the production process. One of
20 the main drawbacks to aerogel production by evaporative drying is the occurrence of capillary
21 forces as the liquid-vapor interface shape changes with time. These capillary forces cause seri-
22 ous problems for the production of large aerogel monoliths as they lead to the structure breakage,
23 which results in particulate aerogels. Presently, the extremely high production cost of bulk silica
24 aerogel panels strongly impedes their use in the building industry in this form. However, the use
25 of aerogels in particle form is possible. Some of the typical insulation systems using aerogel
26 particles are:

- 27 • window panels (raw aerogel particles sandwiched between two transparent panels) [15, 16]
- 28 • stiff composite panels (mixture of binder and aerogel particles) shaped in any geometry
29 [17, 18]
- 30 • paintwork, construction sealants and plaster including aerogel particles [19, 20, 21]

31 In addition, it is possible to take advantage of aerogel particles obtained by evaporative dry-
32 ing for 3D printing of miniaturized insulators [22]. In all these insulation systems, micrometric
33 and milimetric silica aerogel particles are used and the presence of over-nanometric porosity is
34 not desirable (thermal conductivity of still air is greater than that of aerogel). The mechanical
35 response of products such as stiff composite panels is mainly dependent on the mechanical be-
36 haviour of aerogel particles. A proper study of these properties would be very beneficial for the
37 understanding of the failure mechanisms of the composite and the improvement of the current
38 trade-off between strength, thermal performance and cost. Existing works on aerogel monoliths
39 produced through supercritical drying have shown that the mechanical properties of silica aere-
40 gels are highly dependent on density [10, 9]. However, manufacturers can only partially rely on
41 these studies to design composites, as it is suspected that evaporatively dried and supercritically
42 dried silica aerogels exhibit structural properties that differ from one process to another. Indeed,
43 high stresses induced during evaporative drying can generate defects such as cracks inside par-
44 ticles and density variations between particles. These are not (or to a lesser extent) observed in
45 monolithic aerogels produced through supercritical drying.

46 To our best knowledge there is neither experimental nor numerical study available dealing
47 with the mechanical behavior of aerogel particles produced through evaporative drying. The pur-
48 pose of this work is thus to fill this knowledge gap through mechanical characterization of aerogel
49 particles supplemented by modeling. In particular it is sought to understand and quantify the in-
50 fluence of pre-existing cracks and density variations on stiffness and strength. The millimetric
51 size and irregular geometry of particles make it impossible to use conventional mechanical tests
52 such as uniaxial compressions on cylindric samples, bending test on bars or brazilian tests. The
53 characterization procedure chosen for this work is uniaxial compression of the aerogel particles
54 themselves. This test is well adapted to the aerogel particles size and shape. More than fifty
55 aerogel particles were compressed in this work, providing enough data for statistical analysis
56 of particles strength. The mechanical tests were paired with density measurements and X-ray
57 tomography in order to link the measured properties to the possible density variation and the
58 presence of process induced cracks. The Discrete Element Method (DEM), particularly well-
59 suited to simulate damage and crack propagation [23, 24, 25], has already been applied to silica

60 aerogels [26, 27]. Here, it is used to simulate particle compression and contribute to the analysis
61 of experimental results.

62 The article is organized as follows. In section 2, the synthesis process and main properties of
63 the studied silica aerogel are introduced. In section 3, experimental setups are presented. Section
64 4 presents the DEM model and the numerical procedures to generate aerogel particles made of
65 discrete elements and simulate their compression. Results from both mechanical testing and
66 DEM simulation are presented in section 5 and discussed in section 6.

67 2. Silica aerogel particles: synthesis and structure

68 2.1. Synthesis

69 Hydrophobic aerogels tested in this study were produced by Enersens company (Bourgoin-
70 Jallieu, France) using an alkoxyde as a precursor for the sol-gel process: tetraethylorthosilicate
71 (TEOS). The process uses ethanol as solvent. Once the gel is obtained an hydrophobic treat-
72 ment adds trimethylsilyl groups on the free surface of the gel. This treatment partially counters
73 the shrinkage of the gel during the following evaporative drying step [28, 29]. The aerogel hy-
74 drophobicity is also critical in its end use as a building material for durability reasons, as shown
75 by [30]. Evaporative drying of the gel consists in increasing the temperature above the boiling
76 point of ethanol. As a result of the evaporative drying and the capillary forces induced by the
77 change of curvature of ethanol meniscus [31], the gel block densifies and breaks. The resulting
78 aerogel has the shape of small translucent faceted particles of maximum size 5 mm (see Fig.1).
79 The aerogel particles used for this study were sieved so that their dimension is between 1.00 and
80 1.25 mm. The final size range of the studied particles is typical of the largest particles used in
81 stiff composite panels with bimodal particle size distribution [18].

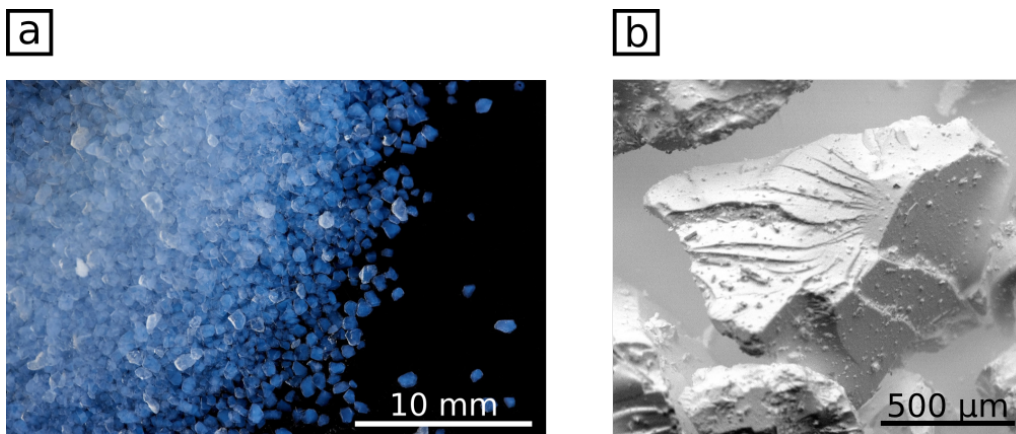


Figure 1: a) Silica aerogel particles produced by Enersens [32]. b) 1 mm silica aerogel particle observed with SEM, topographic contrast (no metallization). The aerogel particle is sprinkled with micrometric particles that are not an original feature of the 1 mm particles.

82 2.2. Structure and general precautions

83 The silica aerogel studied here has a nanoporous structure with a mean pore size of 10 nm
84 [1]. The 4 nm silica primary particles are grouped in secondary patterns (agglomerates of primary

85 silica particles) of approximately 10 nm forming the three dimensional network responsible for
86 the unique thermal and mechanical properties of the material. The porosity announced by the
87 manufacturer is 90-98% [33]. All aerogel particles produced following the previous protocol
88 have proven to be extremely brittle and can potentially break by simple friction while handling.
89 For this reason, all aerogel particles for mechanical testing were handled by hand only with
90 minimal transfer and immediately replaced in case of noticeable damage prior to testing. Tests
91 were carried out at ambient temperature (20 to 23°C) and RH (40 to 60%).

92 **3. Experimental setups**

93 *3.1. Density measurement*

94 Density of aerogel particles is critical as it has been shown that elastic and fracture behaviours
95 depend strongly on density [10, 9, 34, 35]. The density of the studied aerogel particles was
96 measured using mercury picnometry on large particle batches (several hundreds of particles).
97 Four particle batches were weighed and analyzed using a Micromeritics Autopore 4 with an
98 increasing pressure from 0.001 to 0.206 MPa. The sample volume is measured at 0.036 MPa.
99 Moreover, individual particle density was obtained by X-ray tomography volume measurements
100 (see section 3.3).

101 *3.2. Particle compression: statistical procedure*

102 Two types of uniaxial compression tests have been carried out on aerogel particles. The first
103 procedure is an experimental study of fracture inducing load under compression. More than
104 50 individual randomly selected particles were pressed up to failure. This procedure provides
105 information on the scatter of the fracture force. The setup for these compression tests is shown in
106 Fig.2a and was used at two different loading velocities (0.3 and 1.5 mm.mn⁻¹) [9]. The load cell
107 used had a nominal force of 22 N and a sensitivity of 0.01 N. The second procedure is presented
108 hereafter.

109 *3.3. Particle compression with X-ray tomography observation*

110 Compression of individual aerogel particles within a X-ray tomograph was carried out. The
111 compression device illustrated in Fig.2c was designed to be placed inside a X-ray tomograph
112 (RX-Solution, Annecy, France). Particle compression is performed right after a first tomography
113 scan at 40 kV, 250 μ A. The density of each particle has been calculated before their compres-
114 sion from the volume determined from X-ray tomography and the mass measured using a XP26
115 Mettler Toledo microscale. Once a particle has been weighted, it only endures one transfer to
116 the X-ray tomograph for initial scanning and is ready for mechanical testing with no additional
117 manipulation. X-ray tomography is a convenient technique for monitoring aerogel fracture but
118 some cautions are needed as these materials show a low absorption due to their extremely high
119 porosity. Any material too dense compared to silica aerogels placed between the particle and the
120 X-ray source or the CCD camera would absorb too many photons. It could induce a decreasing of
121 the contrast of the scans or create artefacts. For this reason the window and the compression tools
122 of the setup are made of polycarbonate. Low X-ray adsorption of polycarbonate and optimised
123 thickness of material prevent artifacts. Particle compression was carried out at 1.2 mm.mn⁻¹ and
124 stopped at the first sign of fracture (detected by visual monitoring of 2D radiography). Due to
125 some constraints of the setup, the force could not be recorded while the particle was compressed.
126 The compression was paused several times (for a maximum of 20 seconds) once the particle had

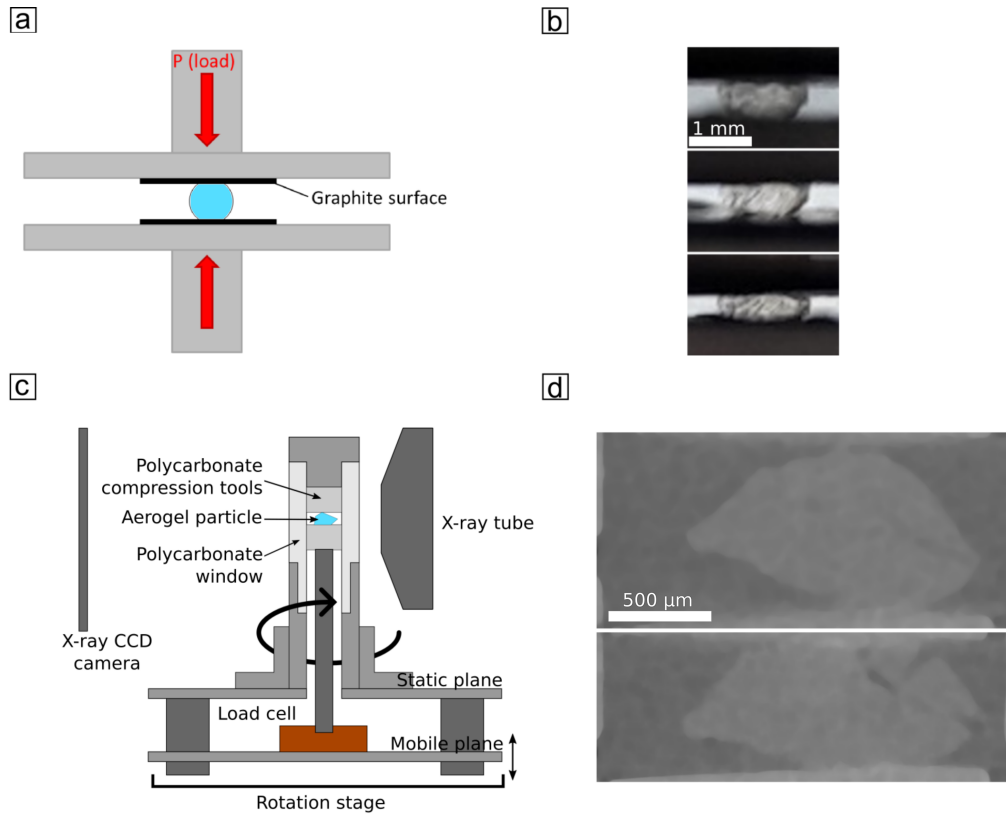


Figure 2: Compression setup for individual particle compression. a) Standard compression setup. b) Images of particles deformation while compressive load increase. c) Compression setup for X-ray tomograph compression. d) Tomographic cross section of a particle during fracture.

127 been compressed more than 30% of its initial height to record the force. This procedure eased
 128 the determination of the particle fracture force F_f by detecting with more accuracy the fracture
 129 of the particle. In that case, fracture force F_f and fracture height h_f were estimated as the mean
 130 value of two last recorded points with accordingly adjusted error bars. Fracture force and frac-
 131 ture height were determined for each particle. At least two scans were acquired with a voxel
 132 size of $2 \mu\text{m}$, one just before the beginning of the compression and one once crack propagation
 133 has been detected in the aerogel particle. Particles were not unloaded for the final scan in order
 134 to maintain their integrity. Image processing of the tomography scans allowed the extraction of
 135 particles shape by applying a 3D median filter before segmentation of the aerogel phase by simple
 136 thresholding on graylevels (Fiji software [36]). Process induced cracks within particles were
 137 manually segmented as no automated method has given acceptable results for these features.

138 4. Discrete Element Method model

139 DEM is particularly well suited to study fracture and crack propagation of a large spec-
 140 trum of materials. It was originally designed for the study of granular materials [37] but is also

141 adapted for continuous materials [23, 38, 39, 40, 24, 41]. Using DEM to study low-stiffness
 142 and brittle materials like silica aerogels was successfully carried out in several other studies
 143 [26, 27] with discrete elements representing primary silica particles, i.e. the silica particles form-
 144 ing the nanoscale pearl-necklace network of aerogels. Another simulation method, the hybrid
 145 finite-discrete element method (FDEM), is also well adapted to the study of continuous materials
 146 fracture as it combines the advantages of the finite element method for the study of continuum
 147 mechanical problems and the advantages of the discrete element method for the study of fracture
 148 phenomena [42, 43, 44]. FDEM has yet to be tested for aerogel particles fracture and this work
 149 will only focus on the use of DEM.

150 4.1. DEM framework

151 DEM simulations are performed with the in-house code dp3D using spherical discrete ele-
 152 ments. Although silica aerogels are composed at the nanometer scale of discrete entities, their
 153 explicit representation within DEM would be computationally too demanding to model volumes
 154 as large as a few μm^3 [26]. DEM can nonetheless be used to model efficiently damage and
 155 fracture of a continuum media. Within this framework, the material is built as a random pack-
 156 ing of spheres [41, 24]. Spheres do not represent real particles but are used to mesh a structure
 157 while providing a fully discontinuous framework handy for treating fractures. The interactions
 158 between spheres are predominantly defined by bonds that transmit normal and tangential forces
 159 and resisting moments. For bonds that have broken, if contact is restored, only normal forces in
 160 compression are transmitted. The forces acting on bonds have been described by Kumar et al.
 161 [41]. An equivalent radius at the bond between two spheres of radii R_p and R_q is defined as:

$$R^* = \frac{R_p R_q}{R_p + R_q} \quad (1)$$

162 The normal and tangential forces acting on the bond are given by simple linear elastic laws:

$$\mathbf{N} = -K_N \delta_N \mathbf{n} = -2\Sigma_N R^* \delta_N \mathbf{n} \quad (2)$$

$$\mathbf{T} = -K_T \delta_T \mathbf{t} = -2\Sigma_T R^* \delta_T \mathbf{t} \quad (3)$$

163 where δ_N and δ_T are the normal and tangential relative displacements between the two particle
 164 centers, K_N and K_T are local normal and tangential stiffnesses and \mathbf{n} and \mathbf{t} are the unit vectors
 165 normal and parallel to the contact plane, respectively. K_N and K_T vary with discrete elements
 166 dimension. It is thus preferred to use material parameters Σ_N and Σ_T with units of stress, which
 167 are independent of discrete element size.

168 We use the Rankine criterion for fracture, which is well adapted for brittle materials. The
 169 Rankine criterion states that a bond breaks when the maximum principal stress σ_R reaches the
 170 critical stress σ_{Rc} . In DEM, for a bond transmitting normal and tangential stress $\sigma_N = \frac{N}{4\pi R^{*2}}$ and
 171 $\sigma_T = \frac{T}{4\pi R^{*2}}$, σ_R is expressed as [23]:

$$\sigma_R = \frac{1}{2}(\sigma_N + \sqrt{\sigma_N^2 + 4\sigma_T^2}) \quad (4)$$

172 *4.2. Numerical preparation of aerogel particles*

173 Aerogel particle volumes are extracted from X-ray tomography scans acquired just before
174 compression as discussed in section 3. The X-ray tomography volumes are used to generate
175 imprints of individual aerogel particles. These imprints take the form of 3D binarized images
176 which are then used to cut the correct aerogel particle shape from a random packing of spherical
177 discrete elements. This last step consists in removing all the discrete elements external to the
178 imprint. The generation of the packing has been detailed in Kumar et al. [41]. In short, it
179 consists of jamming a gas of discrete elements to a density of 0.5. This jammed packing is
180 then further densified homothetically to a 0.65 relative density. Bonds are created by defining
181 an interaction range of 1.075 meaning that spheres with centers less than 2×1.075 radius apart
182 are bonded together. Kumar et al. used this protocol to describe how the Young's modulus and
183 Poisson's ratio are related to the density of the numerical packing, average coordination and bond
184 stiffness [41].

185 Here two different packings were used with respectively $25 \mu\text{m}$ and $15 \mu\text{m}$ radius discrete
186 elements. These two sizes allow the fracture behaviour of the particles to be observed with two
187 discretization refinements (smaller elements lead to a more refined discrete representation of
188 the particle). Five aerogel particles have been generated following this protocol as illustrated
189 in Fig.3. The process induced cracks observed inside the particles before compression can be
190 introduced in the model by removing discrete elements located directly on the crack and by
191 breaking the remaining bonds crossing the crack between the discrete elements which were not
192 removed by the first step. Two numerical versions of each particle are thus generated, one crack-
193 free and one with the observed initial cracks.

194 *4.3. Calibration of numerical aerogel particle compression*

195 The DEM simulated aerogel particles are compressed between two planes. Planes are con-
196 sidered as infinite radius particles and the discrete element-plane contact is a bond transmitting
197 a purely normal force in compression as described by equation 2. The stiffness of the planes is
198 chosen as identical to aerogel bond stiffness.

199 The DEM model parameters can be calibrated to reproduce the observed mechanical be-
200 haviour of particles. In order to calibrate normal and tangential stiffnesses of discrete elements,
201 Σ_N and Σ_T , the data gathered during aerogel particle compression inside the X-ray tomograph
202 are processed. For the same shape and the same orientation of the particles, the calibration is
203 done individually for each aerogel particle by fitting the numerical load vs. displacement curves
204 to the experimental fracture points (F_f, h_f) by tuning Σ_N . The shape of the numerical curves is
205 very similar to the ones observed experimentally in uniaxial compression during statistical pro-
206 cedure (see Fig.4 and section 3.2). Kumar et al. [41] have shown that Σ_T/Σ_N is constant for a
207 given Poisson's ratio. No practical solution has been found to measure the Poisson's ratio for the
208 studied aerogels but literature suggests that silica aerogel Poisson's ratio exhibits no discernible
209 variation with density or when using different synthesis processes. We assume that our aerogel
210 Poisson's ratio is 0.2 for all particles analyzed in this work [45, 46]. The resulting Σ_T/Σ_N is
211 0.233 [41]. The fracture of the particle is calibrated by tuning the critical stress σ_{Rc} as defined
212 by the Rankine criterion (eq.(4)). The calibration process is based on the DEM aerogel particles
213 without any initial cracks.

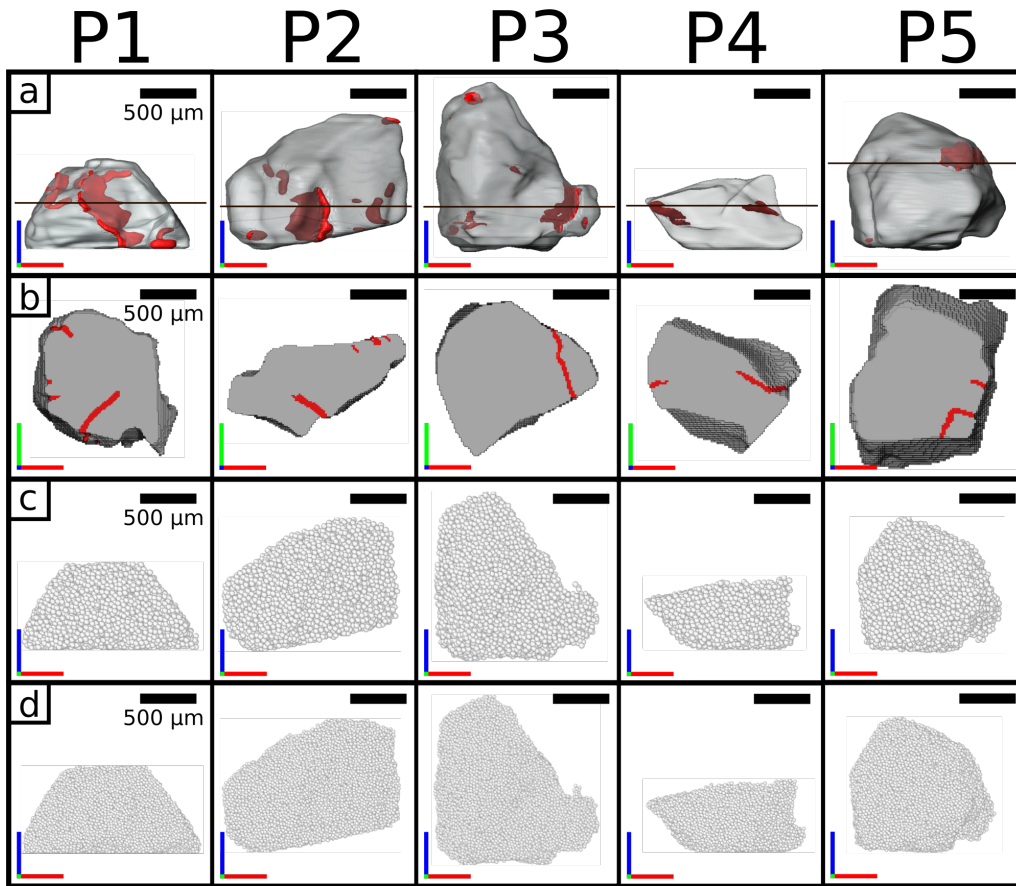


Figure 3: a) Aerogel particles with initial cracks reconstructed from X-ray tomography scans (in red). b) Cross section view within each particles at depth indicated on a). c) DEM aerogel particles prepared using $25\ \mu\text{m}$ discrete elements. d) DEM aerogel particles prepared using $15\ \mu\text{m}$ discrete elements. The numbering from P1 to P5 corresponds to a decreasing total crack length.

214 5. Results

215 5.1. Particle compression: statistical procedure

216 In total, 60 aerogel particles have been deformed at constant speed to initiate crack aperture
 217 from a critical defect. Ten measurements have been dismissed: eight because the fracture could
 218 not be accurately observed during the compression and two because of a non-satisfactory be-
 219 haviour (brittle failure from particle directly to dust). Fracture is defined from the detection of a
 220 fall or stabilization of the force in the force/displacement curve together with a visual detection
 221 of the fracture of the compressed particle. Particle fracture is noticed by a vertical crack (parallel
 222 to the loading direction). A representative example of a force/displacement curve is illustrated
 223 in Fig.4. In most cases the force is still rising after fracture as the particle generally keeps its
 224 integrity, the different parts being held on by adhesive forces. Although somewhat arbitrary, this
 225 allows for a simple and consistent fracture criterion. The results obtained using this criterion are

226 summarized in Fig.5 (fracture force vs. normalized fracture height) for the two tested compression
 227 velocities. A large dispersion of the fracture force F_f and fracture height h_f is observed and
 228 no influence of compression velocity (in between 0.3 and 1.5 mm.mn⁻¹) is discernible. Particles
 229 compressed following this procedure have error bars of ± 0.01 N for force and ± 0.01 for strain.
 230 In an attempt to decorrelate the fracture force from particle size, the normalized force F_f/h_0^2
 231 is calculated and plotted versus the initial height h_0 of the particles in Fig.6. Initial height is an ap-
 232 proximate indicator of the particles size as the height/width ratio is close to unity for our aerogel
 233 particles. Normalizing force by the initial particle height to the square is a basic simplification
 234 of aerogel particle geometry to propose some measure of strength. It can not describe fully the
 235 complex geometry of particles. A similar simplification has been proposed in soil mechanics for
 236 sand particles with similar shapes [47].

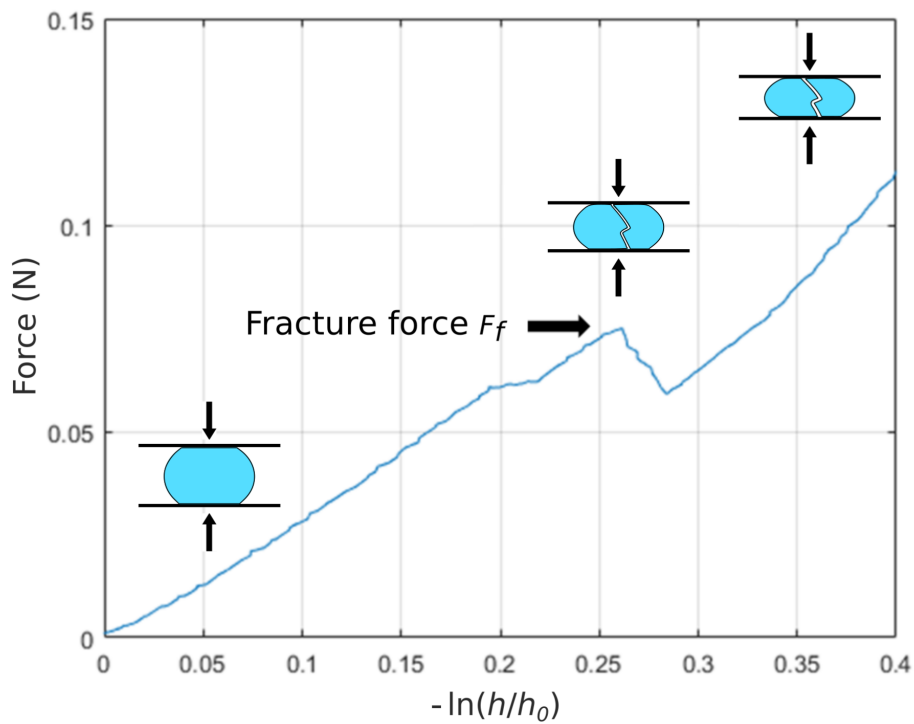


Figure 4: Experimental compression of an individual aerogel particle. h and h_0 are the current and initial sample heights, respectively.

237 *5.2. Particle compression with X-ray tomography observation*

238 Five aerogel particles have been compressed inside the X-ray tomograph tomograph giving
 239 information on particles shape, density and defects. Particles volume and density are presented in
 240 Table 1 as well as fracture force and normalized fracture height. Results from mercury picnom-
 241 etry carried on large batches of aerogel particles are also included in this table (MP). It is worth
 242 noting that particle P4, which is significantly smaller than others, departs from other particles

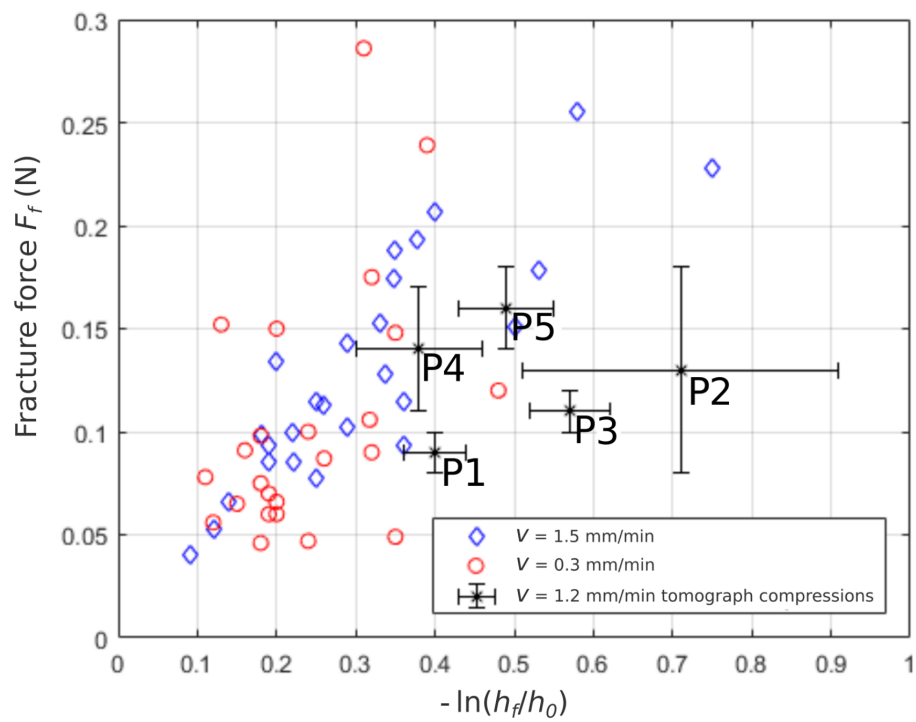


Figure 5: Fracture points (F_f, h_f) of aerogel particles following the two compression procedures : uniaxial particle compression carried out for two velocities. Samples P1 to P5 are those that have been scanned using X-ray tomography. Error bars of particles compressed following the statistical procedure are not shown for more clarity but are around 10% for fracture force and strain.

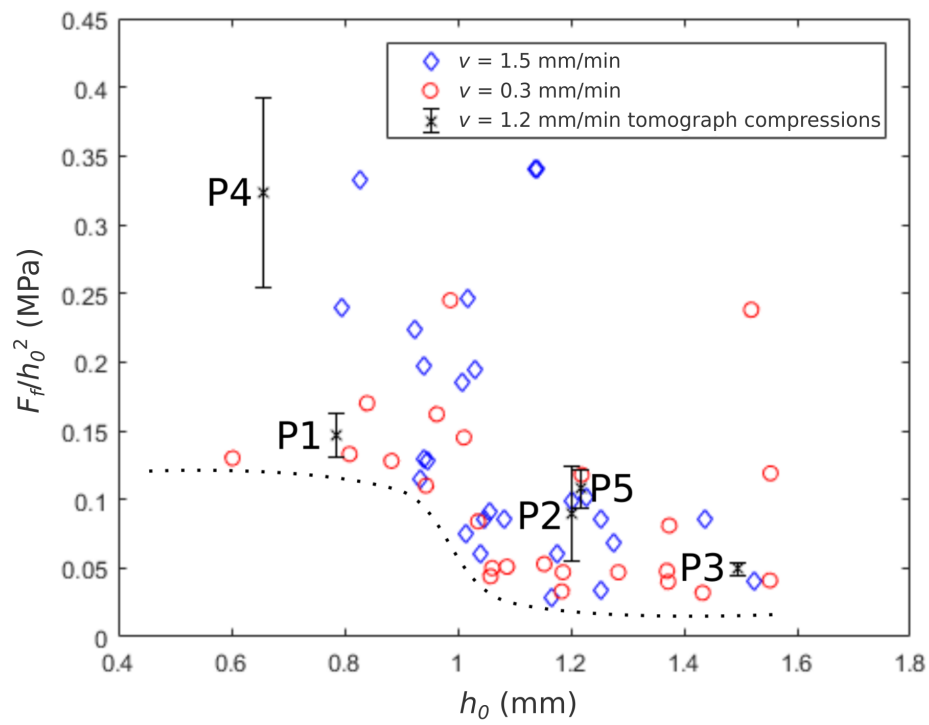


Figure 6: Normalized fracture force of compressed aerogel particles versus particle initial height h_0 .

243 in terms of its density, which is significantly larger. At a first glance, density is not sufficient to
 244 warrant high fracture force, as P5 as a low density (0.10) and the highest load (0.16 N). The indi-
 245 vidually measured densities of P2, P3 and P5 are consistent with the mean density from mercury
 246 picnometry.

Table 1: Experimental results from tomograph particle compression and mercury picnometry (MP). h_f is particle height at fracture. Particle P1 was one of the first aerogel particles compressed inside the tomograph and density was not yet measured at this time.

	Density g/cm ³	Volume mm ³	$-\ln(h_f/h_0)$	F_f N
P1	n.a.	0.722	0.40 ± 0.04	0.09 ± 0.01
P2	0.13 ± 0.02	0.684	0.71 ± 0.20	0.13 ± 0.05
P3	0.10 ± 0.02	1.076	0.57 ± 0.05	0.11 ± 0.01
P4	0.23 ± 0.04	0.300	0.38 ± 0.08	0.14 ± 0.03
P5	0.11 ± 0.02	0.981	0.49 ± 0.06	0.16 ± 0.02
MP	0.10 ± 0.01			

247 In Fig.5 the fracture forces of these five particles are illustrated together with the values from
 248 the statistical study and appear representative of the larger population tested outside the X-ray
 249 tomograph even if the values are slightly lower than the statistical study. This small difference
 250 might originate from the difference of friction with the compression tools between the two com-
 251 pression processes. Indeed, the graphite surface of the tools used during the statistical study
 252 induces less friction than the polycarbonate tools used for particles compressed inside the X-ray
 253 tomograph. Large error bars are due to the difficulty to detect the fracture under the tomograph
 254 setup (see section 3.3).

255 5.3. Calibration of DEM particles

256 The five particles scanned using X-ray tomography are used to recreate numerically com-
 257 pression tests using the DEM model described in section 4. The DEM model is calibrated as
 258 described in subsection 4.3 without introducing the initial cracks observed in X-ray tomography.
 259 For each particle the calibrated normal stiffness (Σ_N) and Rankine critical stress of the bonds
 260 between discrete elements (σ_{Rc}) are provided in Tables 2 and 3 for the two sizes of discrete el-
 261 ements used. These values are plotted in Fig.7 as a function of particle density. The differences
 262 noted are relatively limited on the calibrated parameters between the two different discretizations.
 263 Both Σ_N and σ_{Rc} increase with density, reflecting the stiffer and stronger mechanical response of
 264 denser particles.

Table 2: Calibration of bond normal stiffness Σ_N (Eq.(2))

	$\Sigma_N(R = 15\mu m)$ MPa	$\Sigma_N(R = 25\mu m)$ MPa	relative difference
P1	2.50	2.27	9.6%
P2	2.08	2.27	8.8%
P3	2.53	2.50	1.2%
P4	8.30	10.00	18.6%
P5	3.00	3.00	0%

Table 3: Calibration of critical bond strength σ_{Rc} (Eq.(4))

	$\sigma_{Rc}(R = 15\mu m)$	$\sigma_{Rc}(R = 25\mu m)$	relative difference
	MPa	MPa	
P1	0.15	0.11	30.8%
P2	0.24	0.23	4.3%
P3	0.20	0.20	0%
P4	0.40	0.32	22.2%
P5	0.25	0.21	17.4%

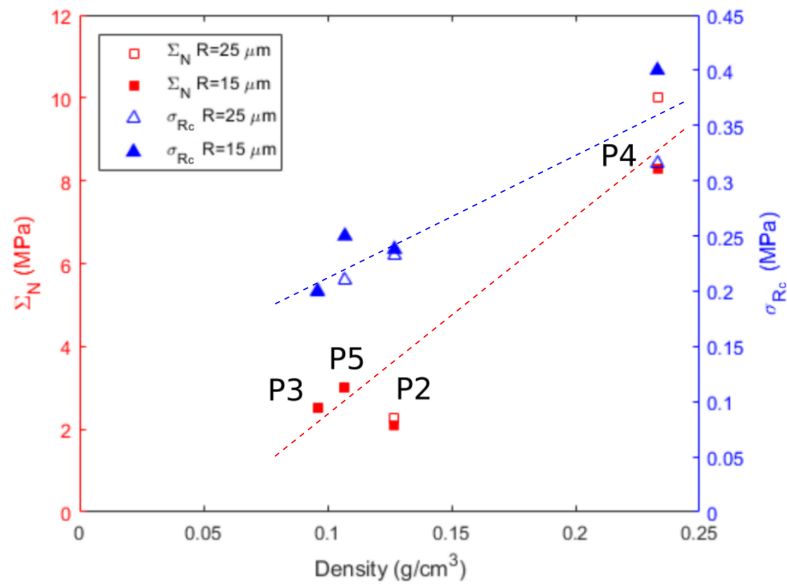


Figure 7: Calibrated DEM parameters Σ_N and σ_{Rc} for the five simulated aerogel particles as a function of particle density. Straight lines are drawn to guide the eye.

265 5.4. Crack propagation in DEM and influence of initial cracks

266 In the previous section the five DEM aerogel particles (P1-P5) scanned by X-ray tomogra-
267 phy have been calibrated and tested without introducing the initial observed cracks (Fig.3a-b).
268 By introducing these defects in the initial state of the particles before numerical compression,
269 the fracture behaviour could be better described. Particle P1 has been chosen to illustrate the
270 differences between DEM compression with and without initial cracks as illustrated in Fig.8.
271 The initial and final cracks obtained during experimental compression (X-ray tomography) are
272 showed in red on the volume reconstruction of the particle (Fig.8a) while broken bonds between
273 discrete elements are showed on DEM particles (Fig.8b). The color of discrete elements indi-
274 cates the chronological order of the fractured bonds from dark red to yellow. The cracks paths
275 obtained in DEM aerogel particles do not follow the path observed with X-ray tomography.

276 The force versus displacement curves for the DEM particle P1 are shown in Fig.9. Fracture
277 forces are measured on DEM curves by identifying the maximum on the force curve preceding
278 the point corresponding to 0.1% broken bonds between discrete elements in the DEM particle.
279 We can observe (Fig.9) a clear drop of the fracture force of DEM aerogel particles with the addi-
280 tion of initial cracks in the model. For the sake of completeness the experimental and numerical
281 fracture behavior of the other four aerogel particles is provided in the Appendix. Fracture force
282 values for the five DEM particles with and without initial cracks are summed up in Fig.10. These
283 fracture forces are mean values as each aerogel particle version (with or without initial cracks, us-
284 ing either $25\ \mu\text{m}$ or $15\ \mu\text{m}$ discrete elements) was simulated with different discretizations. These
285 five discretizations were simply obtained by providing five different seeds for the random gener-
286 ation of the very initial packings of discrete elements. The objective of these different packings
287 is to estimate the scattering of the simulation results due to the discretization of aerogel particles.
288 The resulting uncertainty of DEM fracture force due to the discretization depends slightly on the
289 considered aerogel particle but remains below 7%.

290 6. Discussion

291 6.1. Macroscopic behaviour of aerogel particles in compression

292 As shown in Fig.5, fracture force values are quite scattered whatever the experimental proce-
293 dure (outside or inside X-ray tomograph) as fracture depends on particle shape, size, orientation,
294 density and initial defects. However, no clear difference was observed between the three tested
295 velocities. Sensitivity to strain-rate for the tested aerogel particles can thus be considered negli-
296 gible for compression rates between 0.3 and $1.5\ \text{mm.mn}^{-1}$. The five particles compressed inside
297 the tomograph present fracture forces slightly lower than the results of the statistical study but
298 still are coherent with the experimental dispersion. Error bars are large for some particles due to
299 the difficulty to visually detect unambiguously the fracture while monitoring the X-ray projec-
300 tions of the particles during compression (see section 3.3). Particle P2 exhibits such a problem
301 with thus large error bars.

302 The evolution of the normalized fracture force (units of a stress) with the initial height il-
303 lustrated in Fig.6 enables to determine if the scatter in particle strength is mainly due to their
304 size or to intrinsic properties (density and defects/cracks) and shape. No clear tendency in the
305 normalized fracture load is observed with the variation of the particle initial height h_0 . The nor-
306 malized fracture force is still very dispersed, which suggests density variation, initial defects and
307 shape have also a great influence on aerogel particle strength. Interestingly, normalized fracture
308 forces are not observed below 0.1 MPa for small initial particle height h_0 (below 1mm). This

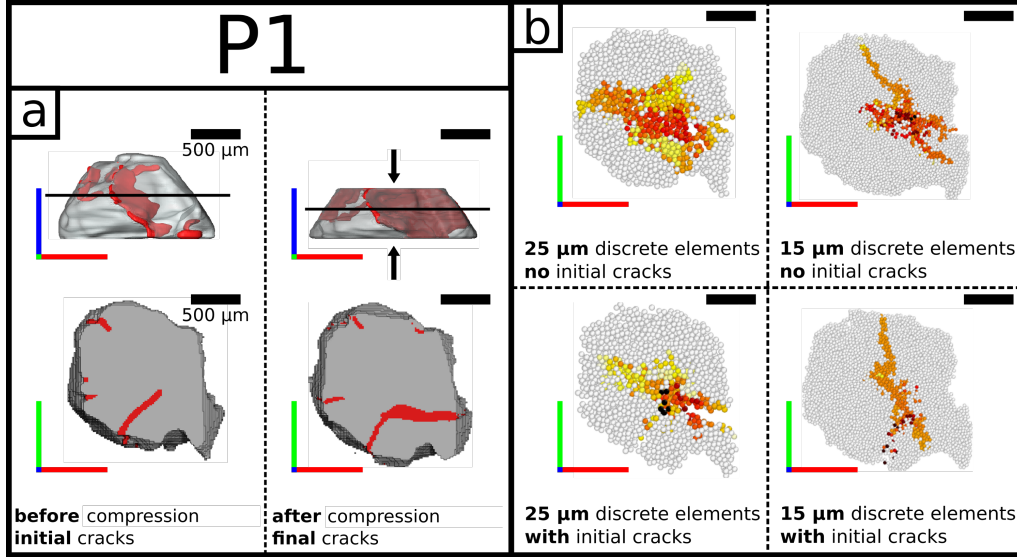


Figure 8: a) P1 particle volumes built from tomography compression test together with a cross section of interest. Top line: 3D representation, bottom line: cross section (location as indicated by a black line in top line) b) P1 particle cross sections at fracture load generated from coarse (25 μm) and fine (15 μm) discrete elements. Bond fractures are illustrated chronologically from dark red (earliest broken bonds) to yellow (latest broken bonds) and white (intact bonds).

309 could be explained by an increasing density and a lower probability to find critical initial defects for small particle volumes. Density measurements carried out on large particle populations with mercury picnometry and on individual particles for 4 out of 5 of the particles scanned with X-ray tomography tend to illustrate a possible link between size and density. Three particles scanned with X-ray tomography have a density close to the one measured over a large particle population with mercury picnometry $d_{MP} = 0.10 \pm 0.01 \text{ g.cm}^{-3}$ but the smallest particle studied (P4) is much denser ($d_{P4} = 0.23 \pm 0.04 \text{ g.cm}^{-3}$). The three other particles having a density close to the mean density measured with mercury picnometry suggests the total volume occupied by particles as dense as P4 is small enough to have no significant impact on the mean density of a large population of particles.

319 6.2. Weibull distribution

320 The statistical dispersion of fracture load in compression for the large population of individual aerogel particles (52 compressions) has been fitted with a Weibull distribution function. The probability of particle fracture is plotted as a function of the normalized force $\sigma = \frac{F_f}{h_0^2}$ in Fig.11

323 The fracture probability P_f was fitted with the cumulative distribution function [48]:

$$P_f = 1 - \exp\left(-\left(\frac{\sigma - \sigma_u}{\sigma_0}\right)^m\right) \quad (5)$$

324 where σ_u , σ_0 and m are the translation, scale and shape fitted parameters, respectively. The Weibull parameter m gives some information on the dispersion of the normalized fracture force. m is low for materials with a large strength dispersion and high for materials with low dispersion.

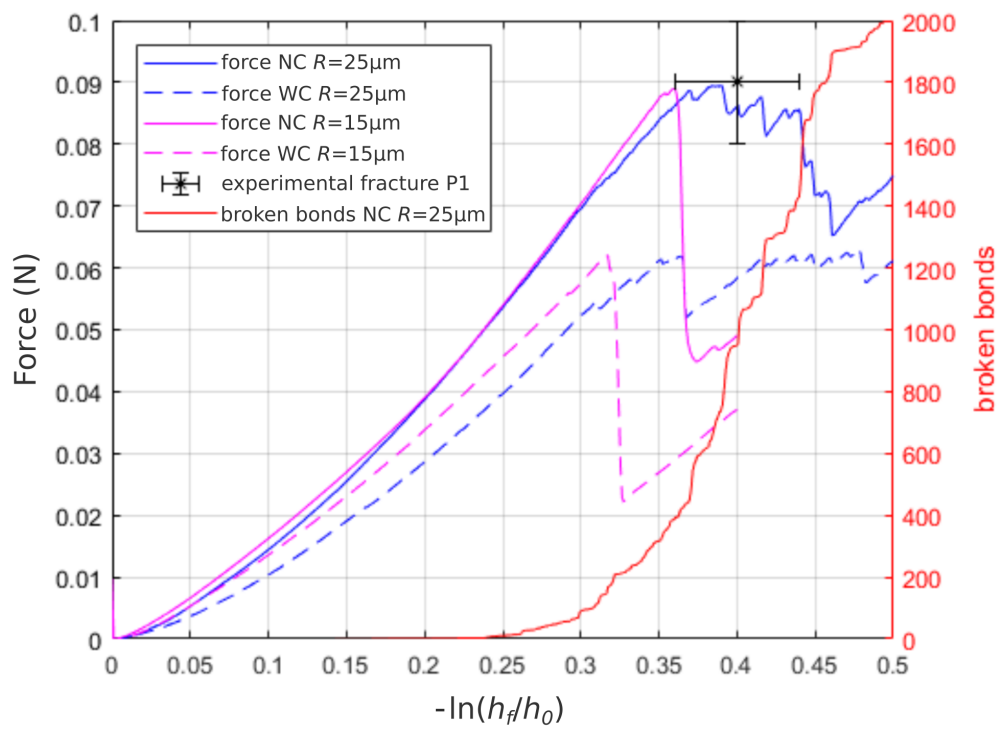


Figure 9: DEM compression of P1 with (WC) and without (NC) initial cracks generated from coarse ($25\ \mu\text{m}$) and fine ($15\ \mu\text{m}$) discrete elements. Experimental critical fracture of the particle is highlighted.

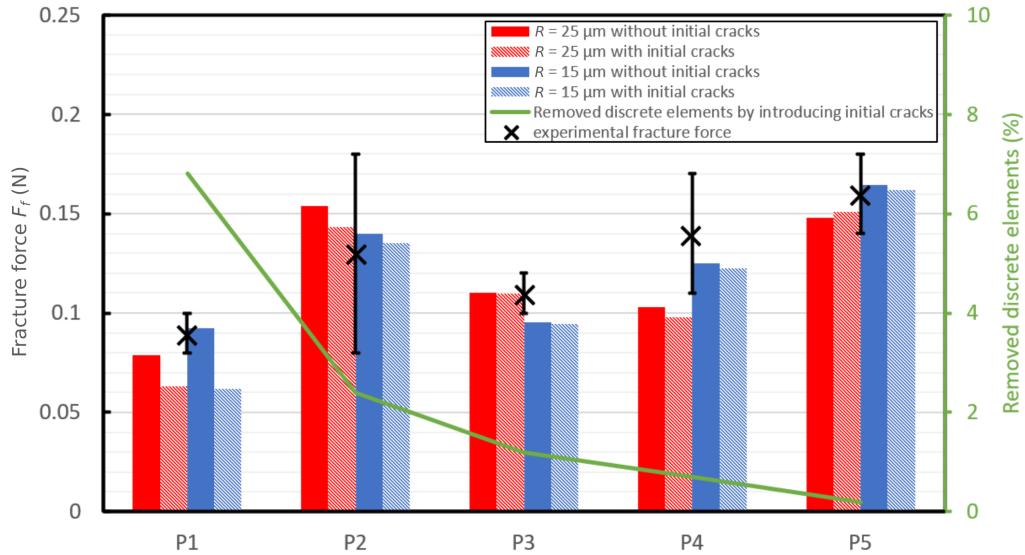


Figure 10: Fracture force for each simulated particle (P1-P5) with and without initial cracks introduced in the coarse (25 μm) and fine (15 μm) discrete elements mesh. The fraction of removed discrete element due to initial cracks introduction is plotted on the right hand side axis.

327 The parameter m also called Weibull modulus does not describe in our case a volume effect linked
328 to the probability of presence of a critical defect size in a given volume. Silica aerogels are porous
329 materials with a very high density of defects and do not fulfill the assumptions of Weibull analysis
330 [49, 50]. Weibull distribution law is in our case only used as a fit of the cumulative probability
331 distribution of our statistical study. The fit from Eq. (5) leads to $\sigma_u = 29$ kPa, $\sigma_0 = 92$ kPa and
332 $m = 1$. The latter value is extremely low. As a reminder, the Weibull modulus of most ceramics,
333 which are already considered as brittle materials with some defects, is generally between 5 and
334 10. Huilca et al. did a Weibull analysis on individual rock aggregates [51]. The rock aggregates
335 are larger than our aerogel particles (5 to 40 mm) but have similar irregular shapes. They found a
336 m parameter between 1.56 and 3.05 meaning our aerogel particles have a fracture behaviour
337 more scattered than for brittle rocks with similar aggregate shape. This might be explained by
338 large variations in density, in particle shape and the possible presence of initial defects. Weibull
339 fits were also realized by Woignier et al. [46] on silica aerogel monoliths synthesized using
340 supercritical drying. The modulus m is found between 4 and 7. It is difficult to compare these
341 values with our results as Woignier et al. were not as much dependent on aerogel objects shape
342 as we are with the present aerogel particles. The fact our value for m is much lower is yet
343 not surprising as supercritical drying introduces much less defects and density scattering in the
344 synthesised aerogel objects than evaporative drying.

345 6.3. DEM determination of Young's modulus and tensile strength

346 As indicated in Tables 2 and 3, the relative difference of calibration parameters Σ_N and σ_{Rc}
347 between the two DEM discretization sizes is generally less than 20%. This low dependency to
348 discretization means that the main factors influencing the calibration of the parameters Σ_N and
349 σ_{Rc} are linked to the nature of the material and not to the numerical effects of the model itself.

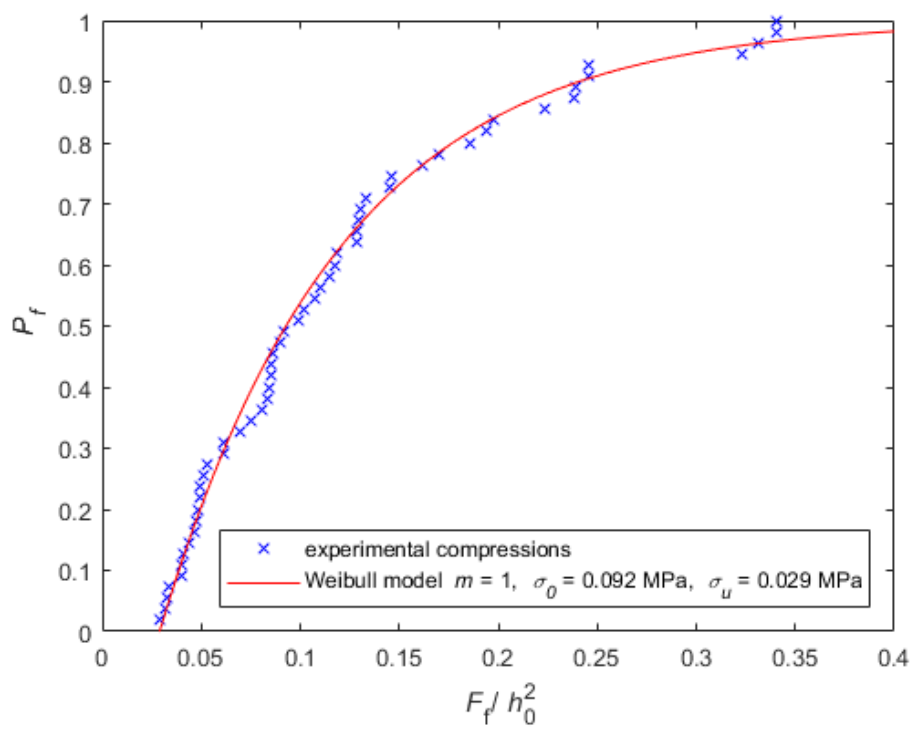


Figure 11: Weibull cumulative distribution fit carried out on the fracture by compression of aerogel particles. The fit leads to $m \approx 1$ in Eq.(5).

350 Σ_N and σ_{Rc} can thus be used with confidence to estimate the macroscopic Young's modulus and
 351 the fracture strength. The work of Kumar et al. [41] established relationships relating the discrete
 352 element bond stiffness to the macroscopic elastic behaviour of different packings obtained
 353 from various preparation routes including the one that was chosen in this work to model aerogel
 354 particles. These equations write:

$$E = Z_b D \Sigma_N \frac{\kappa^n}{2\pi} \frac{a_1 + a_2 \alpha}{4 + a_3 \alpha} \quad (6)$$

355

$$\alpha = \frac{1 - b_2 \nu}{b_1 + b_3 \nu} \quad (7)$$

356 where E , Z_b , D and κ are the Young's modulus, the average coordination number, the packing
 357 density and the interaction range of the discrete element packing, respectively. The parameters
 358 n , a_i and b_i are fitted ($n = 2$, $a_1 = 0.42$, $a_2 = 7.45$, $a_3 = 8.68$, $b_1 = 0.55$, $b_2 = 3.02$, $b_3 = 5.75$) and
 359 originate from Kumar's work. The preparation route used here is defined as "weakly jammed"
 360 and results in a packing density of $D = 0.65$ and an average coordination number $Z_b = 6.56$ with
 361 an interaction range $\kappa = 1.075$.

362 Similarly to the Kumar et al. study, Radi et al. [23] established relationships between the
 363 macroscopic strength of a packing and the microscopic bond strength. Their equation writes:

$$\sigma_f = \sigma_{Rc} (c_1 Z_b D - c_2) \quad (8)$$

364 where σ_f is the macroscopic tensile strength, σ_{Rc} the Rankine critical stress of the bonds and c_i
 365 are fitted parameters ($c_1 = 0.124$, $c_2 = 0.067$).

366 These relations allow for the estimation of macroscopic properties from the calibrated micro-
 367 microscopic parameters of the discrete element packing. For particles P2, P3 and P5 (of similar
 368 densities), the resulting estimations are $E = 0.7 \pm 0.1$ MPa and $\sigma_f = 100 \pm 10$ kPa. For particle
 369 P4 $E_{P4} = 2.6 \pm 0.3$ MPa and $\sigma_{fP4} = 165 \pm 26$ kPa. It is encouraging that our model and cali-
 370 bration method lead to a Young's modulus close to 1 MPa as this value is consistent with various
 371 studies on the elastic response of silica aerogels as function of their density [9, 10]. As expected,
 372 the dense particle P4 has a much higher Young's modulus than other particles. Concerning the
 373 estimated fracture strength, the previously cited literature [9, 10] also measured tensile strength
 374 (three point bending tests, brazilian tests) for various silica aerogels with various densities. For
 375 densities around 0.1 g.cm^{-3} the tensile strength ranges between 10 and 100 kPa. This is con-
 376 sistent with our value of 100 ± 10 kPa that is calculated from DEM simulations. According to
 377 Hiramatsu et al. [52], the fracture force normalized by the initial height to the square of the com-
 378 pressed particles is a correct estimation of the tensile strength. It is thus consistent to compare
 379 the fitted scale parameter σ_0 obtained with the Weibull fit performed previously in section 6.2
 380 with the tensile strength obtained with Eq. (8). The two estimations of the tensile strength based
 381 on experimentation ($\sigma_0 = 92$ kPa) and simulation ($\sigma_f = 100 \pm 10$ kPa) agree very well. The use
 382 of DEM calibrated micro-parameters has the advantage of removing aerogel particle shape and
 383 orientation from the possible source of strength scattering. When considering aerogel particles
 384 with similar densities, the strength displays a coefficient of variation of 10%. This remaining
 385 scattering should originate mainly from the presence of initial cracks.

386 6.4. Influence of process induced cracks on the DEM mechanical behavior of aerogel particles

387 The introduction of cracks in DEM aerogel particles modifies their fracture behaviour. The
 388 objectives of the simulation are to quantify and to explain the influence of the initial cracks on

389 particles behaviour, as well as to check if the numerical crack propagation matches what was
390 observed in tomography.

391 A positive point for the DEM model is that the final cracks observed for the four configura-
392 tions as illustrated for particle P1 in (Fig.8) are located following a clearly identifiable path
393 cutting the particles into two distinct main portions, especially for the thinly meshed particles
394 ($15\ \mu\text{m}$ discrete elements) as the cracks are located in a much thinner zone compared to the
395 $25\ \mu\text{m}$ meshed particle. Particles with and without initial cracks do not fracture by following
396 exactly the same path but the general behaviour is maintained. Still, the main cracks observed
397 in DEM particles do not follow the fracture observed experimentally in tomography, except for
398 the $25\ \mu\text{m}$ discretized particle for which some similarities can be found. The DEM model fails
399 to reproduce the final crack pattern once the fracture is initiated as it seems to depend too much
400 on the discretization of the model. Also, we believe that the boundary conditions of the experi-
401 ment at the onset of crack growth (interaction between the platens and the particle) are difficult
402 to reproduce exactly. The complex crack growth patterns after fracture depend too much on the
403 full strain history to be reproduced accurately in DEM.

404 However the initiation of the cracks is mostly correct with initial broken bonds (shown in
405 black or dark red in Fig.8) localised around or at the extremity of the initial cracks. After its
406 initiation, the crack follows a path imposed by the discrete element packing and so does not
407 describe the real case. Thinly discretized particles ($15\ \mu\text{m}$) are best suited for the acquisition of
408 precise crack patterns but are four to five times more computationally expensive compared to the
409 $25\ \mu\text{m}$ discretized particles.

410 Although the cracks morphological differences are minor for particle P1 with and without
411 initial cracks, there is a quantitative difference between particles with and without initial cracks
412 with a drop of the fracture force in compression of approximately 30% (Fig.9). Fig.10 indicates
413 that particle P1 is the only simulated particle exhibiting a fracture force drop superior to 15%
414 after initial cracks are introduced in the model. This is consistent with the fact that particle P1 is
415 the particle with the largest relative number of discrete elements removed in the crack modelling
416 process (7% versus 2.5% for P2, the second most impacted particle). Particles P2 to P5 exhibit
417 much smaller variations of the fracture force when initial cracks are introduced. In general, a
418 decrease of the fracture force is almost always observed when initial cracks are introduced but,
419 apart from particle P1, it is low. It is thus safe to conclude that the initial cracks introduced
420 in the DEM aerogel particles following our procedure have rarely a large influence both on the
421 cracks morphology after crack initiation and on the fracture force values. It might be due to the
422 orientation and localisation of the initial crack patterns which rarely weaken the aerogel particles
423 in the uniaxial compression direction. The probability to find a well located and oriented crack
424 increases with the amount of initial damage and only P1 presents a crack parallel to the loading
425 conditions and located in a zone experiencing a high tensile stress (typically close to the center
426 of the particle). It could also explain why tensile strengths lower than 0.1 MPa were not observed
427 for small particles during experimental uniaxial compression (see Fig.6) as the probability to find
428 a well located and oriented defect might increase with particle volume.

429 7. Conclusions

430 Experimental compression tests and DEM simulations were carried out in order to investigate
431 the mechanical behavior of millimetric silica aerogel particles produced by evaporative drying.

432 A first experimental statistical study has shown that the values of fracture force are very
433 much scattered, as quantified by Weibull statistics. This is due to the combination of the vari-

434 ability of the particles shape, orientation, density and the presence of initial defects. In order to
435 decorrelate the influence of these parameters, an original methodology based on individual X-ray
436 tomography images of particles coupled with DEM simulations is proposed. Individual density
437 assessment of aerogel particles based on X-ray tomography volumes has shown significant den-
438 sity variation (0.1 to 0.23 g/cm^3) that explains an important part of the scattering. Particles with
439 similar densities still exhibit important normalized fracture force variations that can be attributed
440 to particles shape and orientation and to the potential presence of initial defects in the particles
441 during compression test. The methodology consists of the numerical replication with DEM of a
442 compression experiment, using the particle morphology and orientation from X-ray tomography
443 images. The calibrated DEM parameters are used to assess the material Young's modulus and
444 strength. This methodology gives encouraging results, with Young's modulus (0.7 ± 0.1 MPa)
445 and strength (100 ± 10 kPa) values for a density of around 0.1 g/cm^3 all consistent with literature
446 data on supercritically dried monolithic aerogels. The remaining small scattering in strength (
447 coefficient of variation of 10%) is attributed to the methodology uncertainty itself and the inher-
448 ent variability due to the presence of initial defects. The relatively modest influence of process
449 induced defects is confirmed by DEM modeling that shows that for particle in compression, the
450 initial cracks within the sample have rarely a highly detrimental effect on strength. It is consis-
451 tent with the fact that the obtained value for strength is similar to reported values for monolithic
452 aerogel of similar density. Still, one should keep in mind that for a purely homogeneous tensile
453 loading (which might happen within a composite) the presence of initial cracks in the aerogel
454 particle will probably be more critical.

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461 **Appendix A. Fracture of DEM aerogel particles P2 to P5**

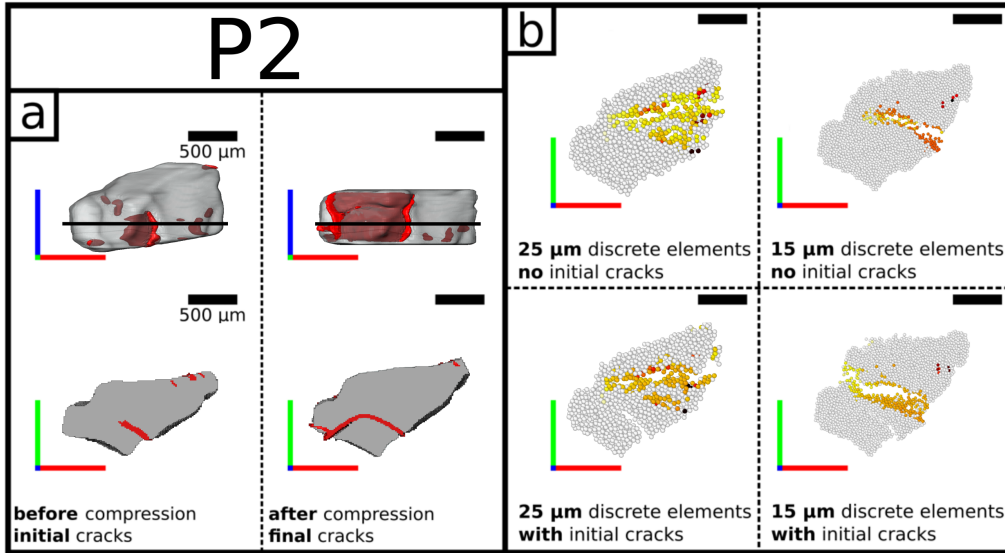


Figure A.12: a) P2 particle volumes built from tomography compression test. b) P2 particle volumes built using 2 types of discrete elements with DEM. The bond fractures are illustrated chronologically from hot to cold colors.

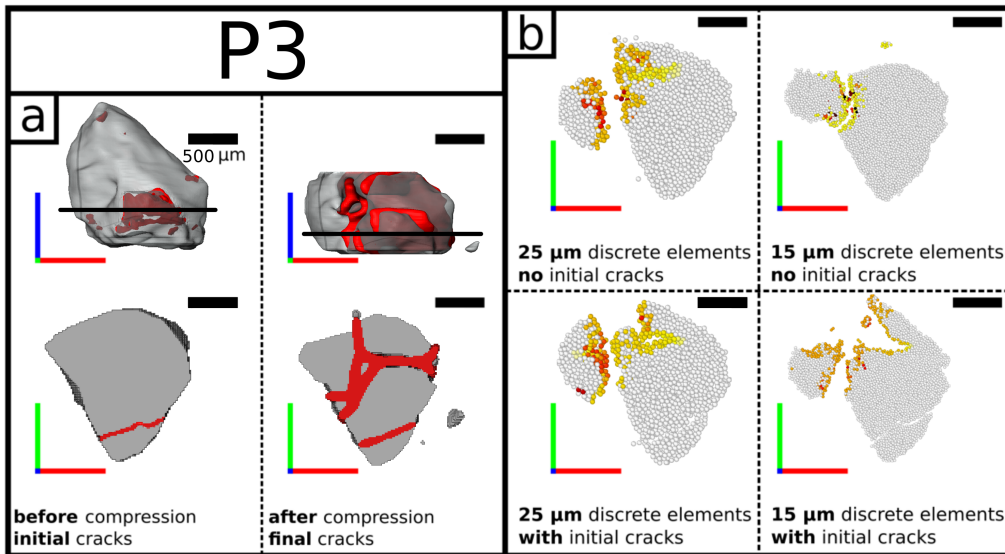


Figure A.13: a) P3 particle volumes built from tomography compression test. b) P3 particle volumes built using 2 types of discrete elements with DEM. The bond fractures are illustrated chronologically from hot to cold colors.

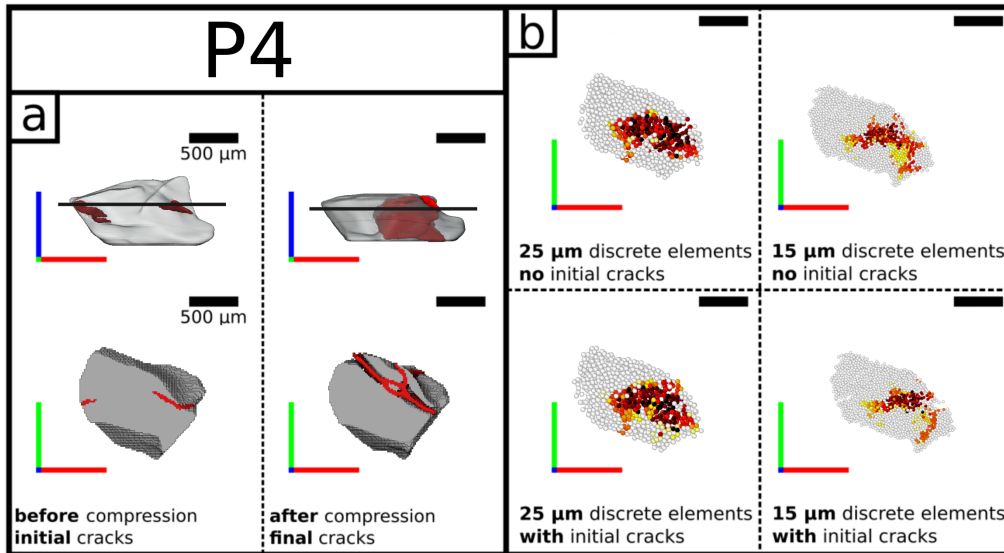


Figure A.14: a) P4 particle volumes built from tomography compression test. b) P4 particle volumes built using 2 types of discrete elements with DEM. The bond fractures are illustrated chronologically from hot to cold colors.

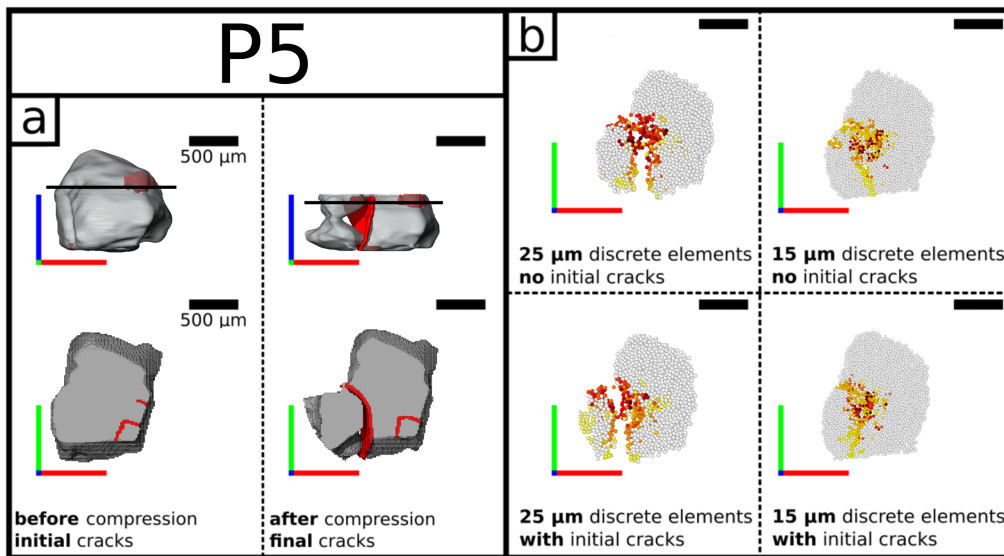


Figure A.15: a) P5 particle volumes built from tomography compression test. b) P5 particle volumes built using 2 types of discrete elements with DEM. The bond fractures are illustrated chronologically from hot to cold colors.

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